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**ЛІНГВОКРАЇНОЗНАВСТВО
ВЕЛИКА БРИТАНІЯ**

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Підручник призначений для вивчення курсу «Лінгвокраїнознавство» студентами англomовних спеціальностей філологічних факультетів ВНЗ. Підручник складається з 8 розділів, їх послідовність, структура і зміст відповідають навчальній програмі даного курсу для університетів. Теоретична частина розділів містить автентичні англійські тексти, підібрані з різноманітних професійних видань та англomовних інтернет-ресурсів. Тексти адаптовано з метою професійно орієнтованого навчання англійської мови та відповідно до питомого рівня володіння студентами іноземною мовою. Практичні частини розділів складаються з 7-8 завдань, спрямованих на розвиток творчої мовленнєвої діяльності студентів, формування вміння самостійно аналізувати країнознавчу літературу, використання набутих знань для висловлювання своєї думки, а також на визначення студентами рівню власних знань.

Підручник стане в нагоді як студентам профільних спеціальностей, так і тим, для кого англійська не є основної іноземною мовою.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Існування мови неможливе без існування суспільства, що цією мовою користується. Ця на перший погляд прописна істина ховає у собі сутність курсу «Лінгвокраїнознавство», при чому стосовно будь-якої країни та її мови. Взаємозв'язок із лінгвістикою проявляють усі сфери людського буття: географія і топографія, економіка, історія, культура, література, судові системи, народні обряди та звичаї – все це виражається мовою, а тому відбивається у ній. Жодний мало-мальськи значимий процес чи подія фізичного простору не оминають простір лінгвістичний.

Цей підручник створено для однойменного навчального курсу «Лінгвокраїнознавство», що вивчається студентами англomовних спеціальностей філологічних факультетів ВНЗ. Відповідаючи загальноосвітнім нормам, він розкриває основну інформацію про Сполучене королівство Великої Британії та Північної Ірландії, де зародилась англійська мова. Підручник складається з 8 розділів, їх послідовність, структура і зміст відповідають навчальній програмі даного курсу для університетів. Кожен розділ містить теоретичну і практичну частини.

Теоретична частина розділів містить автентичні англійські тексти, підібрані з різноманітних професійних видань та англomовних інтернет-ресурсів. Насамперед вони відрізняються значною інформативністю, наявністю необхідної термінологічної та номенклатурної бази. Тексти адаптовано з метою професійно орієнтованого навчання англійської мови та відповідно до питомого рівня володіння студентами іноземною мовою.

Теоретична частина розділів дозволяє осягнути Британію з різних кутів зору, попутно засвоюючи питому лексику. Поряд із загальновідомою інформацією у текстах викрито деякі стереотипи та непорозуміння, що стосуються країни (скажімо, у чому полягає різниця між Сполученим королівством, Британією та Англією). Ілюстровані матеріали оздоблені інформативними підписами: завдяки цьому конкретні тези будуть співвідноситись із конкретними зображеннями.

Кожен текст теоретичної частини починається блоком тематичних питань для попереднього обговорення, призначеного для актуалізації опорних знань студентів і спрямування їх думок на вивчення даної теми.

ПЕРЕДМОВА

Наприкінці теоретичного блоку надаються детальні запитання для самоперевірки засвоєння матеріалу.

Практичну частину кожного розділу побудовано за єдиною схемою. Вона містить 7-8 завдань (систему яких розроблено авторами), спрямованих на розвиток творчої мовленнєвої діяльності студентів, формування вміння самостійно аналізувати країнознавчу літературу, розвиток навичок англо-українського та українсько-англійського перекладу текстів, використання набутих знань для висловлювання своєї думки. Тобто практичний блок має наступну структуру:

- перше завдання кожного практичного блоку спрямовано на фонетичне опрацювання власних назв та імен за відповідною темою;
- друге завдання передбачає пошук, нотування у лінгвокраїнознавчий словник та переклад тематичної лексики;
- третє завдання спрямовано на формування вміння пояснювати основні терміни та концепти англійською мовою;
- четверте завдання призначено для закріплення вміння формулювати запитання стосовно питомої концептосфери;
- п'яте та шосте завдання передбачають систематизацію теоретичних відомостей шляхом заповнення різноманітних таблиць;
- сьоме завдання містить українськомовний країнознавчий текст, зміст якого необхідно передати англійською за певним планом, що передбачає висловлювання власного ставлення до змісту;
- восьме завдання пропонує підготувати усні доповіді відповідно до запропонованих ілюстрацій, використовуючи знання, набуті з теоретичної частини, а також тематичну лексику та надані мовленнєві кліше.

Для визначення студентами рівню засвоєння теми наприкінці кожного практичного блоку наведено тести для самоперевірки теоретичних знань і тести, спрямовані на роботу з тематичною лексикою.

Різноманітність типів завдань не тільки активізує розумові процеси, але й сприяє закріпленню світоглядної інформації, розширенню лексичного складу, а також здібності до побудови причинно-наслідкових зв'язків. Інформацію, що необхідна для успішного виконання завдань, ретельно підібрано відповідно до критеріїв актуальності, взаємоінтеграції навчальних курсів, відповідності лінгвокраїнознавчим нормам тощо.

Опрацювання теоретичних матеріалів і виконання практичних завдань підручника сприятиме формуванню у студентів наступних фахових компетентностей:

- розуміння географічних особливостей, історії, економіки, політичної системи, культури та звичаїв країни, мова якої вивчається;
- здатність інтегрувати відомості з різних наукових напрямків та навчальних дисциплін для розуміння країнознавчих та культурних особливостей країни, мова якої вивчається;
- розуміння особливостей формування країнознавчої та ідіоматичної лексики на підставі аналізу історичного розвитку країни, мова якої вивчається;
- здатність застосовувати лінгвокраїнознавчі знання в навчальному процесі вивчення англійської мови;
- здатність розвивати асоціативне та критичне мислення студентів на підставі реалій країни, мова якої вивчається;
- здатність до творчої та пошукової діяльності в навчальному і професійному комунікативному процесі;
- здатність до подальшого професійного самовдосконалення;
- розуміння етичних і моральних норм поведінки, що прийняті у соціумі іншого культурного типу, та моделей соціальних ситуацій;
- здатність до міжкультурної комунікації;
- здатність вільно спілкуватись англійською мовою із застосуванням країнознавчої лексики та термінології;
- здатність долати вплив стереотипів і здійснювати міжкультурний діалог в загальній та професійній сферах спілкування;
- володіння основними дискурсивними способами реалізації комунікативних цілей висловлювання стосовно до особливостей комунікативного контексту.

Даний підручник стане у нагоді студентам і викладачам філологічних факультетів, а також усім, хто цікавиться історично-культурною спадщиною Великої Британії.

The official name of the country is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Great Britain is the largest island in the cluster of islands, or archipelago, known as the British Isles. The second island in size is the Island of Ireland. England is the largest and most populous division of the island of Great Britain, making up the south and east. Wales is on the west and Scotland is to the north. Northern Ireland is located in the northeast corner of Ireland. The capital of the United Kingdom is the city of London, which is situated near the southeastern tip of England.



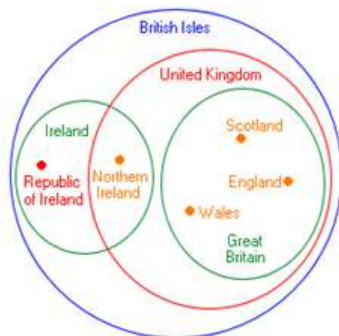
Geographical map of the British Isles

People often confuse the names for this country, and frequently make mistakes in using them. United Kingdom, UK, and Britain are all proper terms for the entire nation, although the term Britain is also often used when talking about the island of Great Britain. The use of the term Great Britain to refer to the entire nation is now out of date. The term Great Britain refers only to the island of Great Britain, which does not include Northern Ireland. The term England should never be used to describe Britain, because England is only one part of the island. It is correct to call people from England, Scotland, or Wales British, although people from England may also be called English, people from Scotland Scottish, and people from Wales Welsh.

The United Kingdom is a small nation in physical size. At 244,110 sq km (94,251 sq mi), the United Kingdom is roughly the size of Oregon or Colorado, or twice the size of New York State. The climate, in general, is mild, chilly, and often wet. Rain or overcast skies can be expected for up to 300 days per year. These conditions make Britain lush and green, with rolling plains in the south and east and rough hills and mountains to the west and north.



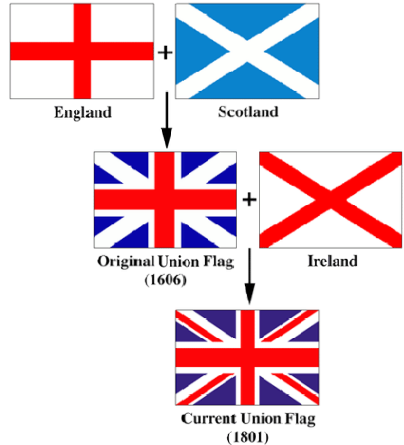
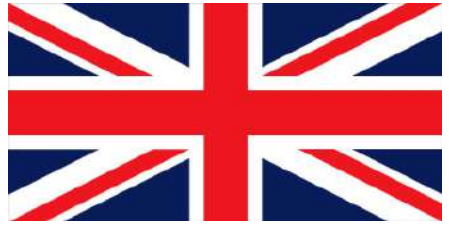
The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland		
Location - off the north-western coast of continental Europe		Parts - England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland
Area - 244,110 sq km (94,251 sq mi)	Population - 65,110,000 persons (2016)	Capital - London
Government - Unitary parliamentary constitutional monarchy		Legislature - Parliament - Upper house - House of Lords - Lower house - House of Commons
Monarch - Queen Elizabeth II		Currency - pound sterling (= 100 pence)
Official languages - English Recognized regional Languages - Irish, Scottish Gaelic, Scots, Ulster-Scots, Welsh, Cornish.		



INTRODUCTION

Despite its relatively small size, Britain is highly populated, with an estimated population density of 245 persons per sq km (634 per sq mi) in 2002. It is highly developed economically, preeminent in the arts and sciences, sophisticated in technology, and highly prosperous and peaceful. In general, British subjects belong to one of the more affluent states of Europe and enjoy a high standard of living compared to the rest of the world.

Many nations around the world have been influenced by British history and culture. With each passing year, English comes closer to being a world language for all educated people, as Latin once was. The prominence of English can be traced to the spread of the British Empire during the last three centuries. In the early 20th century, a quarter of the world's people and a quarter of the world's land surface were controlled in some way by Britain. Some parts of the world received substantial numbers of British emigrants and developed into what were called daughter nations. These colonies eventually became self-governing areas called dominions. Canada, Australia, and New Zealand fit this pattern. For a long time India was the most important colony in the British Empire, but after a long anticolonial struggle with Britain, independent India today is the world's most populous democracy. The British Empire once included substantial portions of southern, western, and eastern



The national flag of the United Kingdom
is the Union Jack, also known as the Union Flag



State Emblem of the United Kingdom

Africa; important areas in Asia, such as Hong Kong; a few holdings in the Americas; and a large number of islands in the Pacific. Today most of these are independent nations, but many retain some British law, institutions, and customs.

Even parts of the world never included in the British Empire have adopted the British system of parliamentary government, often referred to as the Westminster model. Originally a vehicle for royal authority, this system gradually evolved into a representative government and finally became a means through which democracy could be exercised. Today legislative power comes from the lower house of Parliament, known as the House of Commons. The freely elected members of

the House of Commons select the nation's chief executive, the prime minister. He or she in turn appoints members of the House of Commons to the Cabinet, a body of advisers. Because the executive is not separated from the legislature, the government is efficient as well as responsive to the electorate.

Britain was a pioneer in economic matters. The first industrial revolution occurred in Britain in the 18th and early 19th centuries and led to the development of the world's first society dominated by a middle class. Britain was the first nation to have more than half of its population living in urban areas. Rapid economic development and worldwide trade made Britain the richest nation in the world during the reign of Queen Victoria in the 19th century. For a long time before and after the Industrial Revolution, London was the center of world capitalism, and today is still one of the world's most important business and financial centers.

Britain has been important in the arts throughout modern times. Plays, novels, stories and, most recently, screenplays from Britain have been admired throughout the world. The output of English-language literature from Britain has far surpassed its output in art and music, fields dominated by other European nations.



Crowned Floral Badges of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland: *Heraldic badges of England (Tudor Rose), Scotland (Thistle) and Ireland (Shamrock). The plant badges are grown from the same stem, representing the united countries.*

NATIONAL SYMBOLS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

United Kingdom Flag



Union Flag or Union Jack

The current design of the flag dates from the union of Ireland and Great Britain in 1801. It consists of the red cross of Saint George (patron saint of England), edged in white, superimposed on the Cross of St Patrick (patron saint of Ireland), which are superimposed on the Saltire of Saint Andrew (patron saint of Scotland). Wales, however, is not represented in the Union Flag by Wales' patron saint, Saint David, as at the time the flag was designed Wales was part of the Kingdom of England.



Saint George Cross (England)



Saint Andrew Cross (Scotland)



St. Patrick Cross (Ireland)

United Kingdom State Emblem



Crowned Floral Badges of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland:

Heraldic badges of England (Tudor Rose), Scotland (Thistle) and Ireland (Shamrock). The plant badges are grown from the same stem, representing the united countries.



The National Symbol of England (Tudor Rose)

United Kingdom Anthem

God save our gracious Queen,
Long live our noble Queen,
God save the Queen.
Send her victorious,
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign over us:
God save the Queen.

O Lord, our God, arise,
Scatter her enemies,
And make them fall.
Confound their politics,
Frustrate their knavish tricks,
On Thee our hopes we fix,
God save us all.

Thy choicest gifts in store,
On her be pleased to pour;
Long may she reign,
May she defend our laws.
And ever give us cause
To sing with heart and voice
God save the Queen.



The National Symbol of Scotland (Thistle)



The National Symbol of Ireland (Shamrock)

Territorial structure of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

The British Isles



The British Isles is an archipelago in the Atlantic Ocean off the coast of Continental Europe. It includes Ireland, Great Britain, and the Isle of Man. Also included are the thousands of small islands off the coast of both the larger islands such as Shetland and Orkney.

The United Kingdom



The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is an independent country that is situated on the British Isles and consists of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

Great Britain



Great Britain refers to the largest of the British Isles. In present the sense of the word "Great" means "larger" in contrast to Brittany in modern-day France. A historical term for a peninsula in France that largely corresponds to the modern French province is *Lesser or Little Britain*.

England



The name England specifically refers to the largest part of the UK. It occupies the south-eastern part of the island of Great Britain, and includes small islands off the coast, such as the Isle of Wight and the Isles of Scilly. Scotland and Wales, other parts of the UK, are not in England, but border on it.

Scotland



Scotland is the second-largest part of the UK, occupying the Northern part of the island of Great Britain, and includes hundreds of small islands off the coast, such as Arnan, the Hebrides, Shetland and Orkney. Scotland borders England to the south and is bounded by the North Atlantic Ocean to the west and the North Sea to the East.

Wales



Wales is the third-largest part of the UK, occupying part of the western area of the southern half of the island of Great Britain, as well as some smaller islands. Wales has a land border with England, and adjoins the Irish Sea to the north, St George's Channel to the west and the Bristol Channel to the south.

Northern Ireland



Northern Ireland is a country of the United Kingdom located in the north-east of the island of Ireland. Northern Ireland shares a border to the south and west with the Republic of Ireland.

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

THEORETICAL PART



PRELIMINARY DISCUSSION

- What are the main countries of the UK and their capitals?
- What are the highest peaks of Scotland, England and Wales?
- What are the chief rivers of Great Britain?
- What are the chief lakes in Great Britain?
- What are the largest cities of Great Britain?
- What is the total population of the UK?

1. THE POSITION OF THE BRITISH ISLES

The position of the British Isles has helped the country to become a major world power. The surrounding seas made it necessary for Britain to become a seafaring nation in order to trade with other lands, and the discovery of the Americas in the 15th and 16th centuries led to a great growth of trade between the Old World and the New. The British Isles stand on the edge of highly industrialized Western Europe and face westwards across the Atlantic to North America. So they lie on the main **transatlantic shipping lanes**. The growth of commerce and shipping enabled Britain to trade with most parts of the world, to become a major sea power and to expand her territories overseas. Today the British Empire has virtually ceased to exist, but the English language is spoken in most parts of the world and is an important link in the British Commonwealth of Nations.

The British Isles form a group of **islands** (over 5000) off the north-west coast of Europe (total area about 315.000 square kilometers). These islands include Great Britain (England, Wales and Scotland) and Ireland (Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland); the Isle of Wight, the Isle of Scilly and Anglesey; and the Orkneys and Shetlands together with numerous islands and **isles** off the west coast of Scotland.



Geographical map of the British Isles

All these form administrative counties or parts of counties of the **mainland**; but the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands, also part of the British Isles, are largely **self-administrated** and are not part of England, Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland.



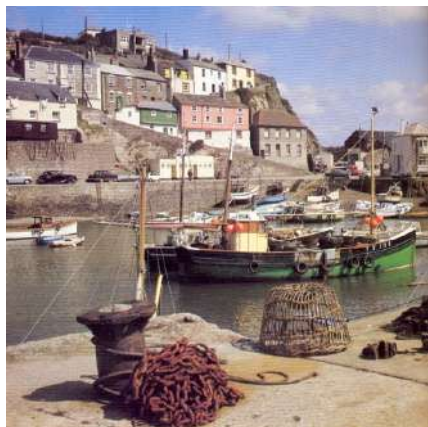
The Shetland Islands

The Shetland Islands present a subarctic archipelago that lies northeast of the island of Great Britain and forms part of Scotland. The local way of life reflects the Scottish and Norse heritage of the isles, including the Up Helly Aa fire festival, and a strong musical tradition, especially the traditional fiddle style. The islands have produced a variety of writers of prose and poetry, often in the distinct Shetland dialect of Scots.

The fact that Great Britain is an island has kept her secure from invasion for the past 900 years. Before 1066, Romans, Anglo-Saxons and Danes came to settle and brought some of the different **racial elements** that go to make the modern “native” of Britain, but since that date most of her **resources** have been developed peacefully. In contrast to this, most of the countries on the continent of Europe have frequently suffered from the devastation brought by war during that period.

The British Isles are situated between **latitudes** 50* N and 61* N. In these mid-latitudes a **temperate maritime** climate is experienced. This enables people to work all the year round, both indoors and out. Other parts of the world are less fortunate.





A typical fishing village in Cornwall

Cornwall forms the westernmost part of the south-west peninsula of the island of Great Britain. Cornwall is the homeland of the Cornish people and is recognised as one of the Celtic nations, retaining a distinct cultural identity that reflects its history.

The British Isles stand on the Continental Shelf. The surrounding seas are **shallow** and less than 600ft (200m) deep. During the Ice Age this **shelf** was dry land and the British Isles were linked to the Continent. It was **submerged** when the vast **ice-sheets** and **glaciers** slowly melted at the end of this period. The final parting from the Continent took place almost 8.000 years ago. The waters round the British Isles contain important **fishing grounds**. In the North Sea and the Irish Sea lives great number of plankton upon which fish feed. The great variety of fish that are found has enabled a prosperous fishing industry to grow.

2. THE BUILD AND RELIEF OF THE BRITISH ISLES



For so small group of islands, Britain has a great variety of **natural scenery**. In the north and west lies most of the high land reaching above 1.000ft (300 m), and rising in isolated areas to over 3000ft (900m). The highest **peak** is *Ben Nevis* (4.406ft/ 1.343 m) in the Scottish Highlands. Deep valleys, many the result of **glaciations**, **dissect** the mountains. In North-West England the picturesque lakes of the Cumbrian Mountains attract tourists.

In contrast the land in the South and East is under 600 ft (180 m) and only rises about 1.000 ft (300 m).



Ben Nevis

Ben Nevis is the highest mountain in the British Isles, located in Scotland. Standing at 1,343 metres above sea level, it is located at the western end of the Grampian Mountains in the Lochaber area of the Scottish Highlands, close to the town of Fort William.

From a comparison of the Geology and Relief maps it is clear that the mountains and high **plateau** of Highland Britain are built chiefly of ancient **rocks** of Paleozoic and Pre-Cambrian age. In contrast, Lowland Britain is much lower lying. Its rocks are younger in age and were formed in the Mesozoic and Cenozoic eras. Lowland Britain comprises southern and eastern England.

Highland Britain consists of Scotland, most of Wales, the Pennines and the Lake District. The Pennine Chain extends southward from the Cheviot Hills into the Midlands, a **plain region** with **low hills** and **valleys**. England is separated from Scotland by the Cheviot Hills, running from East to West.

The highest peaks are: in Scotland – *Ben Nevis (1.343 m)*; in Wales – *Snowdon (1.085 m)*; in England – *Scafell Pike (978 m)*.



The Lake District

The Lake District is a mountainous region in North West England. A popular holiday destination, it is famous for its lakes, forests and mountains and its associations with the early 19th century writings of William Wordsworth and the other Lake Poets. It is located entirely within the county of Cumbria, and all the land in England higher than 910 m above sea level lies within the National Park, including Scafell Pike,

the highest mountain in England. It also contains the deepest and longest bodies of water in England, respectively Wast Water and Windermere.

3. RIVERS AND LAKES

Since Britain has a **moist climate** with much rainfall, rivers and lakes are numerous. Rivers in central and eastern Britain tend to flow slowly and steadily all year long because they are fed by the frequent rain. Many have been **navigable**, and from the earliest times they have served peoples interested in either commerce or invasion. The Highlands act as a divide and determine whether rivers flow west to the Irish Sea or east to the North Sea. Rivers and **streams** moving westward down from the Highlands tend to be swift and turbulent; rivers flowing eastward tend to be long, graceful, and gentle, with slowly moving waters.

The Thames and the Severn are the longest rivers in Britain and are almost equal in length. The Severn flows south out of the mountains of central Wales to the Bristol Channel at Bristol. It is 290 km (180 mi) long. The Thames, 338 km (210 mi) long, flows eastward out of the Cotswold Hills and weaves through the metropolis of London. The Thames provides water to the city of London and is used to carry commercial freight. Other important rivers in England are the Mersey, which enters the Irish Sea at Liverpool; the River Humber on the east **coast**, into which the Trent River and several other rivers flow; and the Tyne River in northern England, which flows past Newcastle upon Tyne to the North Sea.



The Thames

The Thames is a river that flows through southern England, most notably through London. It is the longest river entirely in England (346 km) and the second longest in the United Kingdom, after the River Severn (354 km).



The Severn Valley

The River Severn (354 km) is usually considered to be the longest in the UK. The Severn is the greatest river in terms of water flow in England and Wales.

In Scotland the important rivers are the Clyde and the Forth, which are joined by a **canal**. The River Clyde flows northwest, past Glasgow, and empties into the Atlantic at the Firth of Clyde. (Firth is the Scottish name for an arm of the sea that serves as the broad estuary of a river.) The River Forth flows eastward into the Firth of Forth, where Edinburgh rises on its south bank. The most important rivers in Northern Ireland are the Lagan, the Bann, and the Foyle.

Most of the large lakes in the United Kingdom are located in the **upland areas** of Scotland and northern England, although Lough Neagh in Northern Ireland is the largest lake in the United Kingdom. Loch Lomond, on the southwestern **edge** of the Highlands of Scotland, is the largest on the island of Great Britain, measuring 37 km (23 mi) long and from 1.6 to 8 km (1 to 5 mi) wide.



Erne River (Northern Ireland)

The River Erne is the second-longest river in Ulster (129 km). It is very popular for fly fishing for trout and salmon, with a number of fisheries along both the river itself and its tributaries.



Avon River

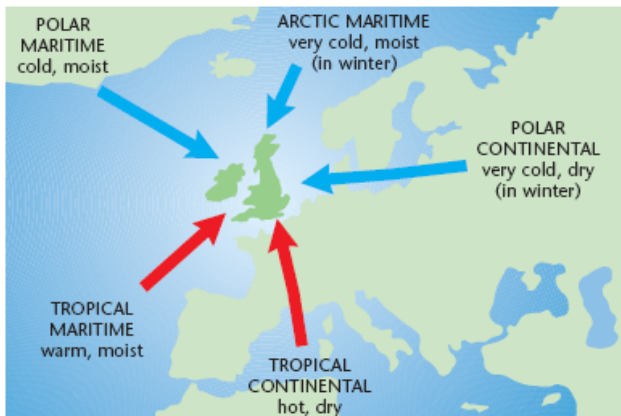
The River Avon is an English river in the south west of the country. The Avon is the 19th longest river in the UK at 121 km.

On the north-west side of the Pennine system lies *the Lake District* containing the beautiful lakes which give it its name. This district is widely known for its association with the history of English literature and especially with the name of William Wordsworth, the founder of the Lake District School of poets. Lake Windermere is the largest of the 15 major lakes in the famous Lake District of northwestern England. It is about 1.6 km (1 mi) wide and more than 16 km (10 mi) long.

4. CLIMATE



The temperate, maritime climate of the British Isles can be summed up as one of mild winters, cool summers, and **rainfall** at all times of the year. However, a study of the day-by-day weather shows such a variation in temperature, rainfall, wind and sunshine, that it is often said that the British Isles have no climate, but only experience weather.



The influence of the chief winds on the climate of Great Britain

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

In July the main features of temperature are governed by the position of the British Isles in **mid-latitudes**. The warmest areas are in the South (London 18°C), whereas the north of Scotland is coolest (Wick 13°C).

Places **inland** have higher temperatures than coastal areas in summer. The sea warms up more slowly than the land, thus in July the land is usually warmer than the sea.

The west coast is a little cooler in summer than places further east, because the British Isles lie in **the belt of variable westerly winds**.

In winter, the sea loses its heat more slowly than the **land surface**. The warming effect of the **on-shore** westerly winds is made much greater by the presence of the North Atlantic Drift. This warm ocean **current** originates from the Gulf Stream Drift off the east coast of the U.S.A. and flows off the west and south coasts of the British Isles.

Table 1

The average air temperatures of the British Isles

	Temperatures (Average Daily Lows And Highs)		Precipitation (Average Monthly)	
	London	Edinburgh	London	Edinburgh
January	0° C (33° F) 7° C (44° F)	0° C (33° F) 6° C (43° F)	50 mm (2 in)	60 mm (2 in)
July	11° C (52° F) 22° C (71° F)	10° C (51° F) 19° C (66° F)	60 mm (2 in)	80 mm (3 in)

5. POPULATION

The United Kingdom is an island state: it is composed of some 5.500 islands, large and small. The two main islands are Great Britain (in which are England, Wales and Scotland) to the east and Ireland (in which are Northern Ireland and the independent Irish Republic) to the west. They are separated by the Irish Sea.

The UK is one of the world's smaller countries (it is twice smaller than France or Spain), with an **area** of some 244,100 square kilometers. The UK is situated off the west coast of Europe between the Atlantic Ocean on the northwest and the North Sea on the east and is separated from the European continent by the English Channel and the Strait of Dover.

Table 2

Demographics of the UK

Part	Population (2014)	Percentage (2014)	Area	Population density
England	53,012,456	83.9	130,427 km ²	406/km ²
Scotland	5,295,000	8.4	78,772 km ²	67/km ²
Wales	3,063,456	4.8	20,778 km ²	147/km ²
Northern Ireland	1,810,863	2.9	13,843 km ²	130/km ²
United Kingdom	63,181,775	100	243,820 km ²	259/km ²

It is believed that at the end of the 11th century the population of Britain was about two million. At the end of the 17th century the population of England and Wales was about five and a half million, and that of Scotland was about one million.

Censuses of the people of Great Britain have been taken regularly every ten years since 1801, with the exception of 1941, because of the war. The census of 1971 showed a population in the United Kingdom of about 54 million; nowadays it is over 64 million people (England – 53ml., Scotland – 5 ml., Wales – 3 ml., Northern Ireland – 1,8 ml.). There are fourteen other countries in the world with more people.

Most British people attribute their **origins** to the early invaders, calling themselves English, Scottish, Irish, Welsh, or Ulsterites. The Ulsterites are an **ethnically controversial group**—some claim they are Scottish and others identify themselves as Protestant Irish. The remaining share of the population is **minorities** who arrived, substantially, in the decades following the end of World War II in 1945.

The minorities—Chinese, Asian Indians, Pakistanis, Africans, and Caribbean people of African ancestry—came to Britain in great numbers after 1945. Immigration from the South Asian **subcontinent** (India and Pakistan) stabilized in the 1990s, but immigration from African countries continued to rise. By the late 1990s more than half of the people in these categories had been born in the United Kingdom. These newer ethnic groups tend to live in the more urban and

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

industrial areas of England, especially in London, Birmingham, and Leeds. It is considered that 60 percent of black Britons live in the London area, along with 41 per cent of the Asian Indian population. More than 94 percent of the population is described as white. According to the most recent estimates, based on 1994 statistics, Asian Indians make up 1.5 percent of the British population; Pakistanis, 0.9 percent; Bangladeshis, 0.3 percent; Chinese, 0.3 percent; Caribbeans, 0.08 percent; and Africans, 0.03 percent. Irish **immigration** to Britain is unique.

6. SCOTLAND

Although Scotland takes up one third of the territory of the British Isles, its population is not very big (5.2 million people) and most unevenly distributed (Central and South). The Cheviot Hills mark the **boundary** between England and Scotland. Scotland includes the Hebrides off the west coast, and the Orkney and Shetland Islands off the north coast. It is **bounded** by the North Sea on the east.

The total area of Scotland is 78.770 sq. km. (together with 186 inhabited islands). The capital is Edinburgh, although Glasgow is the largest city. The **saint patron** of the country is St. Andrew.



Geographical map of Scotland

Since the middle of the last century **depopulation** has been taking place in the North-west Highlands. People have moved away, some to Central Scotland, some to England and many overseas, in order to improve their standard of living. In 1995 the Highlands and Islands Development Board was set up to find ways to improve conditions and create more jobs to encourage people to stay. But many people are still leaving the **rural areas** of the North-west Highlands and the Islands each year.



Flag of Scotland (Saint Andrew)

According to legend, the Christian apostle and martyr Saint Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland, was crucified on an X-shaped cross at Patras.

Geographically Scotland can be divided into the following regions:

- 1) **The Highlands and Islands**, which is the most northern and the most underpopulated area with a **harsh** climate.
- 2) **The Lowlands** / Central Scotland /, which is the most industrial region in Great Britain, with about three quarters of the population.
- 3) **The Southern Uplands**, with hills, which border on England.

6.1. The Highlands and Islands

This is one of the most difficult areas in Great Britain for a man to inhabit. It includes the Grampians, the North-west Highlands, the coastal lowlands of the North-east and the Islands.

The mountains form the most extensive area of **upland** in the country. The rocks include some of the oldest, hardest and most complex in the British Isles. This region includes a great number of valleys (as **U-shaped, hanging valleys** – the result of moving ice during the Ice Age), lochs (*Ness, Oich, Lochy*), rivers (the *Sprey, the Upper Tay* – the longest river of Scotland). Many valleys between the hills are filled with lakes, called **lochs**. The best-known is Loch Ness where some people think a large monster lives.



Highland cattle

The area is very sparsely populated, with many mountain ranges dominating the region, and includes the highest mountain in the British Isles, Ben Nevis. Before the 19th century the Highlands was home to a much larger population, but due to a combination of factors including mass migration to urban areas during the Industrial Revolution, the area is now one of the most sparsely populated in Europe.



13th-century Benedictine abbey

The mountainous area forms a plateau, highest on the west side and deeply **dissected** by the action of the ice and rivers. Above the general plateau surface rise **mountain masses** such as *Ben Nevis* (1.343 m) and *Ben Macdhei* (1.309). The most important city here is Aberdeen which is the oil centre of Scotland.

6.2. The lowlands (Central Scotland)

This region lies between the Highlands and the Southern Uplands. It includes **densely populated** valleys and ranges of **sparsely peopled** hills rising to about 2000 ft (600m). Over 75% of the people of Scotland live here. There are a number of **natural features** that have favoured Central Scotland:

- a) Much of it is below 500ft (150m) and consequently the climate is warmer and drier than that of the other regions;
- b) Deep soils, suitable for farming, are widespread;
- c) **Mineral resources**, especially coal, enabled the growth of heavy industry;
- d) A great number of **fiords** (the result of Ice Age) – long, deep, sheltered **inlets** favoured the growth of ports, trade and the shipbuilding industry;
- e) The lowland facilitated the building of good road and rail communications.

Central Scotland is often called the Midland Valley because it is a **rift** valley (80 km wide). The main rivers are *River Tay River*, *Clyde* and *River Forth*.

Within Central Scotland the rocks are younger than those of the Grampians and Southern Uplands.

The largest cities of Scotland, Glasgow and Edinburgh, are situated here.



Burrell Collection, Glasgow

Glasgow is the largest city in Scotland, and third largest in the United Kingdom. It is situated on the River Clyde in the country's West Central Lowlands. Inhabitants of the city are referred to as Glaswegians.

6.3. The Southern Uplands

The Southern Uplands stand out as a sparsely populated region rising to over 2,500 ft (700 m), forming a **barrier** to easy land communications between the lower lands of Central Scotland and the north of England. The rocks are of Paleozoic age and consist mainly of **shales** and **slates**. Rivers have cut deep valleys into these highlands. In general, the climate here is not severe but some important contrasts in it are experienced in different parts of Southern Scotland. In the west the maritime influence is seen in the mild winters. This coast has a long **growing season**, but the on-shore westerly winds bring much rain and cloudy skies.

In contrast, the east coast in winter comes under the influence of **high-pressure systems** over Europe and it is cooler. The growing season is shorter, but long hours of bright sunshine from clearer skies enable growth a greater variety of crops.



This piper of The King's Own Scottish Borderers is wearing the traditional uniform of the Scottish regiments, a kilt, sporran, bonnet and a dirk in his stocking. The plaintive skirl of the bagpipes evokes the days of Scotland's heroic past.

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

The land of this region is mainly presented with **moorland** and **rolling valleys**. The Cheviot Hills are located here; they are based on **volcanic rocks** and **granite**.

The chief rivers here are the Tweed, The Doon, the Upper Clyde.

7. WALES

Wales is part of the United Kingdom; it is united politically, legally and administratively with England and occupies a broad **peninsular** on the western side of the island of Great Britain. Wales also includes the island of Anglesey. The country is bounded on the north by the Irish Sea; on the east – by the English **counties** of Cheshire, Shropshire and Gloucester; on the south – by Bristol Channel; on the west – by St. George Channel.

The total area of Wales is 20.779 sq. km. The capital is Cardiff. The saint patron of the country is St. David.

The population of Wales is about 3 ml. people but it is distributed most unevenly. Wales has a strong **national identity** and its own language; over 700.000 people can speak Welsh and the Royal Eisteddfod is held each year to encourage its use. Much of this individuality has been retained since Roman times. The present Welsh people and their language are descended from the Celtic-speaking **inhabitants** of those times. The Welsh call their country Cymru, and themselves they call Cymry, a word which has the same root as “comrader” (friend or comrade).



Geographical map of Wales



Flag of Wales

The flag incorporates the red dragon of Cadwaladr, King of Gwynedd, along with the Tudor colours of green and white. The flag was granted official status in 1959, but the red dragon itself has been associated with Wales for centuries, though the origin of the adoption of the dragon symbol is now lost in history and myth.

Wales is mainly a mountainous country and most of the lowland is found in the deeper valleys and on the coast. The mountains are built of old rocks, **resistant to erosion**. In northern and central Wales grits, shales and volcanic rocks are built of Old Red Sandstone.

Above the plateau in the north are **ranges** developed on the more resistant **grits** and volcanic rocks. One of these is the Snowdonia range, which includes Snowdon 3.560 ft (1.084 m) – the highest mountain in England and Wales. The plateau is deeply dissected by the rivers which **drain** it, that is the rivers *Conway, Severn, Wye, Usk, Towy, Dee*.

In Snowdonia there are many U-shaped valleys and **glacial troughs**. In a mountainside occur many **armchair-shaped hollows**, often containing a small lake as the result of ice action during the Ice Age.

The main cities are: Cardiff, Swansea, and Newport.



Skenfrith, Wales

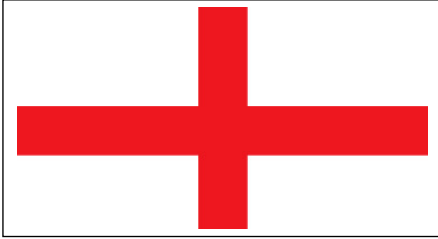
Skenfrith, in southeastern Wales, includes the ruins of a 13th-century castle, bottom center, which is surrounded on all sides by an irregularly shaped stone wall. Like many other Welsh small towns and villages, Skenfrith relies on the rural land that lies outside of the industrial southern portion of Wales. Green fields of grazing land for cattle and sheep dominate the mountainous countryside of Wales.

8. ENGLAND

England is a political division of the island of Great Britain and the principal division of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. England occupies all of the island east of Wales and south of Scotland, other divisions of the island of Great Britain. Established as an independent monarchy many centuries ago, England in time achieved political control over the rest of the island, all the British Isles, and vast sections of the world, becoming the nucleus of one of the greatest empires in history. The capital, largest city, and chief port of England is London, with a population in 2015 of 8,5 million. It is also the capital of the United Kingdom and the site of the headquarters of the Commonwealth of Nations. The total population of England is about 53 ml. people.



Geographical map of England



Flag of England (Saint George)

The association of the red cross as an emblem of England can be traced back to the Middle Ages, and it was used as a component in the design of the Union Flag in 1606. Since the 1990s it has been in increasingly wide use, particularly at national sporting events.

England is somewhat triangular in shape, with its **apex** at the mouth of the Tweed River. The eastern **leg**, bounded by the North Sea, extends generally southeast to the North Foreland, called the Downs. The western leg of the triangle extends generally southwest from **the mouth** of the Tweed along the boundary with Scotland, the Irish Sea, St. George's Channel, and the Atlantic Ocean. The northern **frontier** extends from Solway Firth on the west along the Cheviot Hills to the mouth of the Tweed on the east. The base of the triangle fronts the English Channel and the Strait of Dover.

The total area of England is 130,410 sq km (50,350 sq mi), 57 percent of the area of the island. This total area includes the region of the Isles of Scilly; the Isle of Wight, located off the southern coast; and the Isle of Man, located in the Irish Sea. Native to the island is the Manx cat, characterized by the absence of a tail. The Isle of Man is a popular tourist resort.

The saint patron of the country is St. George.



*This lovely village of **Sawrey in Cumbria** — where Beatrix Potter, of Peter Rabbit fame, wrote most of her books at Hill Top Farm -is in the Southern Lakes, an area where Herdwicks, the Lakeland's own breed of sheep, are raised.*

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

One of the principal physiographic features of England, as well as of the entire island of Great Britain, is the **deeply indented coast**. Most of the indentations are excellent **natural harbors**, easily accessible to deepwater shipping, a factor that is very important in the economic development of England. By virtue of the **high tides** that prevail along the eastern coast, a number of rivers and their **estuaries** provide this region with safe anchorages. The most important of rivers are the Tyne, the Severn, the Tees, the Humber, the Yare and the Thames. The most important harbors on the southern coast include those of Dover, Hastings, Eastbourne, Brighton, Portsmouth, and Plymouth.

8.1. North-west England (Cumbria)

This region consists of the Cumbrian Mountains or Lake District, together with the surrounding lowlands.

The Cumbrian Mountains are **dome-shaped** and rise to over 900m in the central district, where the highest peaks are formed in resistant rocks of early Paleozoic times. During the Ice Age ice collected on the higher areas and glaciers moved along the river valleys. The results of this glaciation can be seen in many U-shaped valleys and **ribbon-lakes**. The old valleys were deepened and widened by the action of the glaciers. When the ice finally melted, long narrow lakes remained in the hollows that were produced. There are so many lakes in this area that it has become known as the Lake District.



Geographical regions of Great Britain

Since the Ice Age rivers have carried **silt** to the lakes and deposited it in them to build deltas. Some lakes have been divided into two by such deltas. This land is very **flat** and floods easily after heavy rains.

8.2. North-east England

It includes the counties of Northumberland, Durham, Tyne and Wear, and Cleveland. It is the area of great contrasts from the point of view of both **relief** and **human settlement**. The land rises westward to reach height of over 610ft in the Pennines and the Cheviots. Despite the presence of towns in some parts of the region, there are beautiful stretches of **coastline**, including **limestone cliffs** and **sand dunes**. Valleys include both old agricultural settlements and the rows of houses built in the 19th century. Towns also show great contrasts: there are the old-established fortress cities such as Durham, industrial settlements of the 19th century, and the new towns.

8.3. South-east England (the Weald)

South-east England differs in many ways from other parts of Britain. The region extends from the Sussex coast to the North Downs and from the Kent coast to the Hampshire Basin. The name “**the Weald**” is given to the central parts. The geography of this region is greatly influenced by its proximity to London. For example, the fast electric trains of the Southern Railway enable people to live on the coast and travel daily to work in London. The other features that have left their imprint on the region are the sea and the nearby Continent.



Castle of Dover (South-east England)

Dover is a town and major ferry port in the home county of Kent, in South East England. The surrounding chalk cliffs are known as the White Cliffs of Dover.



Windsor Castle

Windsor Castle is a royal residence at Windsor in the English county of Berkshire. It is notable for its long association with the English and later British royal family and for its architecture.

Most of the rivers flow from the centre of the Weald and have cut **gaps** through the surrounding Chalk ridges. The climate has some advantages for both the tourist trade and the growth of fruit, for which Kent is famous.

This area lies in the south-east side of the British Isles and has warm, sunny summers and cool winters. In general the climate here is the driest in all the British Isles. It is very favourable for farming in the South-east where the warm sunshine enables a good ripe crop almost every year.

9. IRELAND



Ireland is the western most part of the British Isles. It is situated on that side of the British Isles away from the trade routes with Europe. In fact, its main **links** are across the Irish Sea with Great Britain. Its total area is 86, 473 sq km. (The Republic of Ireland – 70,300 sq km., Northern Ireland – 14, 148 sq km.). The capital is Belfast. The saint patron of the country is St. Patrick.



Geographical map of Northern Ireland



Flag of Northern Ireland (Saint Patrick)

The Saint Patrick's Saltire represents Northern Ireland indirectly as Ireland in the Union Jack. It is sometimes flown during Saint Patrick's Day parades in Northern Ireland, and is used to represent Northern Ireland during some royal events.

The Island of Ireland is separated from Great Britain to its east by the North Channel, the Irish Sea, and St George's Channel. Ireland is the second-largest island of the British Isles, the third-largest in Europe, and the twentieth-largest on Earth.

The total population of Ireland is over 4 ml. people (Northern Ireland – 1,8 ml.). During the last hundred years, thousands of people left Ireland to find work in North America and Great Britain. The numbers emigrating were highest in the middle of the 19th century after the Potato Famine 1847. By 1861 over three million had left the country. Emigration has continued at a slower rate up to the present time. The population of the Republic of Ireland (Eire) has increased slightly in 1961, but in Northern Ireland (Ulster) it has been rising slowly since the beginning of this century. Therefore, in order to find some of the reasons for these changes the geography of Ireland must be observed.

In its relief and the structure of its rocks another type of link exists between Great Britain and Ireland. The relief of Ireland is represented with its low lying Central Plain surrounded by a **rim of highlands**. The highlands are found in two main areas. In the north lie the Antrim Plateau and in the north-west there are the mountains of Donegal. In the south are the Wicklow Mountains, to the west of them lie many separate ranges including Slieve Bloom, Carry Mountains and Mackgillycuddy's Ranges. In the latter is Carrantouhill (1.041m), the highest peak in Ireland.



City Hall, Belfast

Belfast is the capital and largest city of Northern Ireland, and the second largest on the island of Ireland. It is situated on the River Lagan. Belfast was granted city status in 1888.



Giant's Causeway, Northern Ireland

The Giant's Causeway is an area of about 40,000 interlocking basalt columns, the result of an ancient volcanic eruption. It is located in County Antrim on the north coast of Northern Ireland.

The geology of these mountainous areas gives evidence that at some time Great Britain and Ireland were joined. The old resistant rocks of the Highlands of Scotland are similar to those in the mountains of Donegal and some others. These rocks are of the older Paleozoic age.

The climate of Ireland has some features that have an important influence on agriculture. It is very **humid** and the rainfall is generally high. Ireland's climate is the most **equable** in the British Isles. The mild climate enables plants to grow all the year round, especially in the south and west, but the high rainfall and cool summers prevent many crops from ripening. Grasses grow well in these conditions and this has earned Ireland the name *Emerald Isle*. Ireland is very **breezy**, so gales are very common here. The driest season is spring. The main rivers are the Shannon (the longest), the Lee, the Bann, the Lagan, the Foyle,

The physical features (position, relief, soils and climate) have greatly affected the way of life of the people, but the political division of Ireland has also played a part in this. There are two distinct political units:

The Republic of Ireland, which is independent of the Commonwealth. *Eire* is the name of the country, the capital is Dublin and Irish is the official language in addition to English.



Rural Antrim

The green, rolling farmland of County Antrim stretches toward Slemish Mountain in northeastern Northern Ireland.

Northern Ireland, which is part of the UK, *Ulster* is the name of the country, it sends 12 members of Parliament to Westminster; the capital is Belfast.

The two countries have been developed by man in different ways, so the occupations of their peoples must be considered separately.

Self-checking Questions



1. Why do the British Isles have a favorable position?
2. What are the main countries of the UK and their capitals?
3. What smaller isles do the British Isles comprise?
4. What kind of relief is presented in the British Isles?
5. What are the latitudes on which the British Isles lie?
6. What is the Continental Shelf? Dwell on its importance in the economy of the country.
7. What does “temperate maritime” climate mean?
8. What does Highland Britain comprise?
9. What does Lowland Britain comprise?
10. What is the highest point in the British Isles?
11. What are the chief waters of the British Isles?
12. Why is Scotland not densely populated?
13. Into what regions can Scotland be divided?
14. What kind of individuality is observed in Wales?
15. What is one of the principal physiographic features of England?
16. Why has Northern Ireland earned the name *Emerald Isle*?

PRACTICAL PART



ASSIGNMENTS



1. Study the following proper names and practice their pronunciation:

The British Isles [ðə 'brɪtɪʃ aɪlz]	The Thames [ðə tɛmz]
The Continental Shelf [ðə ,kɒntɪ'nɛntl ʃɛlf]	The Severn [ðə 'sɛvən]
The Isle of Wight [ði aɪl ɒv waɪt]	The Antrim Plateau [ði 'æntɪrɪm 'plætəʊ]
The Gulf Stream Drift [gʌlf stri:m drɪft]	The Weald [ðə wi:ld]
The Isle of Scilly [ði aɪl ɒv 'sɪli]	Durham ['dʌrəm]
Edinburgh ['ɛdɪnbərə]	Emerald Isle ['ɛmərəld aɪl]
The Channel Islands [ðə 'ʃænl 'aɪləndz]	Cardiff ['kɑ:dɪf]
The Isle of Man [ði aɪl ɒv mæn]	The Royal Eisteddfod [ðə 'rɔɪəl aɪs'teɪdʋɒd]
The Cumbrian Mountains [ðə 'kʌmbriən 'maʊntɪnz]	
The Pennines [ðə 'pɛnaɪnz]	The Southern Uplands [ðə 'sʌðən 'ʌpləndz]
The Lake District [ðə leɪk 'dɪstrɪkt]	The Orkneys [ði 'ɔ:kneɪz]
The Cheviot Hills [ðə 'ʃeɪvɪət hɪlz]	The Strait of Dover [ðə streɪt ɒv 'dʌvə]
The Highlands [ðə 'haɪləndz]	The Lowlands [ðə 'ləʊləndz]
Emerald Isle ['ɛmərəld aɪl]	Eire ['eərə]
The Cambrian Mountains [ðə 'kæmbriən 'maʊntɪnz]	Ulster ['ʌlstə]



2. Note down from the theoretical material phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme "Geography of the British Isles". Translate them into Ukrainian.



3. Find in the text the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

Temperate maritime, glacial troughs, racial elements, armchair-shaped hollows, transatlantic shipping lanes, self-administrated, fishing grounds, natural scenery, the belt of variable westerly winds, depopulation, subcontinent, hanging valley, mountain masses, sparsely peopled, densely populated, natural features, high-pressure systems, rolling valley, peninsular, resistant to erosion, deeply

indented coast, dome-shaped, ribbon-lakes, limestone cliffs, sand dunes, the Weald, rim of highlands.



4. Write all you can (What? When? Where? How?) about the following concepts and proper names:

The Continental Shelf, the Ice Age, Emerald Isle, the Weald, the Potato Famine, Ulster, Eire, equable climate, human settlement, glaciation, the Isle of Man, U-shaped valleys, indentations, armchair-shaped hollows, national identity, The Southern Uplands, the Midland Valley, The Highlands and Islands, depopulation, ethnically controversial group.



5. Study the peculiarities of the chief mountains of Great Britain and fill in table 1.

Table 1

N	Name of the mountains	Geographical position	Medium heights	Highest point	Additional information
1	The Grampians				
2	The Cheviot Hills				
3	The Pennines				
4	The Snowdon mountains				
5	The Cambrians				
6	The Donegals				
7	The Sperrins				
8	The Cumbrians				

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES



6. Study the basic characteristics concerning Great Britain and fill in table 2.

Table 2

Description	England	Scotland	Wales	Northern Ireland
Area				
Population				
Language (dialect)				
Capital, Cities				
Rivers				
Relief				
National emblems				



7. Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.

Озерний край

Озерний край - один з найбільших національних парків північного заходу Англії, знаменитий своїми шістнадцятьма великими озерами, розкиданими серед пагорбів-гір. Загадкові озера, неприступні гори, низькі зелені долини в туманному серпанку - все це збереглося тут, у гірському регіоні Камбрія, на висоті більше 900 метрів. Кожне з озер унікальне, але найкрасивішими вважаються Уіндермер, Уоллсвотер і Грасмер. Гірський рельєф графства сприяв збереженню цієї заповідної території, і лише в 1830-х роках тут, як доповнення до пароплавного транспорту, була прокладена залізниця.

Озерний край знаменитий також Каслрігським кам'яним кільцем, побудованим приблизно в 3200 р. до н. е. Ця споруда являє собою 38 сланцевих каменя заввишки 1-1,5 м, встановлених еліпсом діаметром майже 30 м, всередині якого пагорб. Розкопки на цьому місці не проводилися. Вважають, що ця споруда планувалося як обсерваторія: найвищий камінь перебуває на одній лінії з точкою сходу Сонця в день початку зими.

В Озерному краї серед невеликих сіл були побудовані дві приватні школи. Зараз Озерний край вважається одним із найбільших мальовничих та екологічно чистих районів Англії. З гір відкривається захоплюючий вид на місто, а в ясну погоду можна побачити Ірландське море і береги Уельсу.

В Озерному краї починаються Чевіотські пагорби - природний географічний кордон із Шотландією. Оголошений заповідником в 50-х роках ХХ ст Лейк-Дістрікт як і раніше приваблює мільйони людей, тут своє натхнення знаходять поети і художники.



8. *Be prepared to speak about these geographical objects using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme and the following clichés:*

to be unevenly (evenly) distributed
 to be experienced
 to be submerged
 the final parting
 to provide water
 day-by-day weather
 to be governed by the position
 to be composed of
 to be separated by
 to take up
 mountain masses
 densely populated
 sparsely peopled
 maritime influence
 broad peninsular
 to be represented with

to be located
 to be bounded by
 to form an extensive area
 to be deeply dissected (by)
 on the edge of
 dome-shaped
 resistant rocks
 to be greatly influenced by
 to leave its imprint on
 to affect the way of life
 severe climate
 natural features
 to form a barrier
 the frontier extends from\to
 deeply indented coast
 to be descended from

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES



Ben Nevis



Lake District



The Grampian Mountains



The Cambrian Mountains



GENERALIZING TEST

1. Snowdonia is in the North of...?
 - a) England;
 - b) Wales;
 - c) Scotland;
 - d) Northern Ireland;
2. Swansea, Newport and Cardiff are the towns of...?
 - a) Wales;
 - b) Scotland;
 - c) Northern Ireland;
 - d) England;
3. The River Clyde is the main river of...?
 - a) England;
 - b) Scotland;
 - c) Wales;
 - d) Northern Ireland;

4. Ben Nevis is the highest point of...?
 - a) the Cumbria Mountains;
 - b) the Pennines;
 - c) the Grampians;
 - d) the Donegals;
5. Lake District is situated in...?
 - a) Scottish Uplands;
 - b) Welsh moors;
 - c) English mountains;
 - d) Irish plateau;
6. Central Scotland is often called...?
 - a) the Weald;
 - b) the Great Plateau;
 - c) the Midland Valley;
 - d) the Rocky Valley;
7. The British Isles are situated in the...?
 - a) north latitudes;
 - b) mid-latitudes;
 - c) south latitudes;
 - d) east latitudes;
8. Cheviot sheep are found in...?
 - a) England;
 - b) Scotland;
 - c) Wales;
 - d) Northern Ireland;
9. Wales lies to the...of England?
 - a) east;
 - b) west;
 - c) south;
 - d) north;
10. The Republic of Ireland...?
 - a) is an independent state;
 - b) has a special treaty with the British Parliament;
 - c) has a special treaty with the USA;
 - d) has a special treaty with Canada;

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

11. The United Kingdom is an island state: it is composed of ...islands?
- a) 50;
 - b) 500;
 - c) 5000;
 - d) 50000;
12. The UK is situated off ... coast of Europe?
- a) east;
 - b) west;
 - c) south;
 - d) north;
13. Over 75% of the people of Scotland live in...?
- a) Highlands and Islands;
 - b) Southern Uplands;
 - c) Cheviot Hills;
 - d) Lowlands;
14. The present Welsh people and their language are descended from the ...inhabitants of past times?
- a) Saxon-speaking;
 - b) Celtic-speaking;
 - c) Roman-speaking;
 - d) Jute-speaking;
15. River Tay is the longest river of.... ?
- a) England;
 - b) Scotland;
 - c) Wales;
 - d) Northern Ireland;
16. Dover, Hastings, Eastbourne, Brighton, Portsmouth are the towns of...?
- a) Wales;
 - b)Scotland;
 - c) England;
 - d) Northern Ireland;
17. The climate of Northern Ireland is very...?
- 1) severe;
 - 2) humid;
 - 3) dry;
 - 4) hot;

18. Ireland is the ... most part of the British Isles?
- a) southern;
 - b) eastern;
 - c) northern;
 - d) western;
19. Cornwall is a part of...?
- a) England;
 - b) Scotland;
 - c) Wales;
 - d) Northern Ireland;
- 20....are often called “the backbone of England”?
- a) the Grampians;
 - b) the Cambrians;
 - c) the Pennines;
 - d) the Donegals;



TESTS IN THEMATIC VOCABULARY

Test 1. Choose the one word or phrase that best keeps the meaning of the original sentence if it is substituted for the capitalized word or phrase:

1. The Continental Shelf was SUBMERGED when the vast ice-sheets and glaciers slowly melted at the end of the Ice Age period.
- a) disappeared
 - b) vanished
 - c) split
 - d) immersed
2. The surrounding seas are SHALLOW and less than 600ft (200m) deep.
- a) deep
 - b) profound
 - c) flat
 - d) narrow

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

3. Parts of the ocean FLOOR seem to be constantly shifting.
 - a) bottom
 - b) surface
 - c) storey
 - d) current

4. The deep valleys, the result of GLACIATIONS, dissect the mountains.
 - a) melting
 - b) weathering
 - c) erosion
 - d) freezing

5. For so small group of islands, Britain has a great variety of natural SCENERY.
 - a) landform
 - b) life
 - c) power
 - d) phenomena

6. The most FERTILE soil is found in the low-lying fenland of Lincolnshire.
 - a) poor
 - b) shallow
 - c) rich
 - d) acidic

7. The temperature rarely EXCEEDS 32* C.
 - a) tops
 - b) reaches
 - c) depress
 - d) reduces

8. DROUGHTS occur, but rarely, and crops are never a complete loss.
 - a) moisture
 - b) flood
 - c) dry
 - d) devastation

9. The occasional little WHIRLWIND can destroy the roofs of the houses.
- a) storm
 - b) flood
 - c) drought
 - d) rainfall
10. The number of ducks, geese and other water fowl has DIMINISHED during recent years.
- a) disappeared
 - b) doubled
 - c) increased
 - d) lessened
11. Many of the former BREEDING areas of some birds are still numerous.
- a) reproduction
 - b) cultivated
 - c) arable
 - d) growing
12. Cornwall is known to have the most EQUABLE climate of the whole country.
- a) unique
 - b) balanced
 - c) predictable
 - d) rare
13. As the surface is chiefly of clay it becomes very STICKY in wet weather.
- a) solid
 - b) hard
 - c) light
 - d) muggy

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

14. The Uplands are SPARSELY inhabited.

- a) densely
- b) thinly
- c) evenly
- d) highly

15. Wales is a hill country composed of rocky outcrops DISSECTED by deep valleys.

- a) joined
- b) linked
- c) divided
- d) smashed

16. MOISTURE-loving species are found throughout Wales.

- a) heat
- b) cold
- c) frost
- d) humidity

17. The REMOTE parts of the country shelter some mammals and birds.

- a) isolated
- b) distant
- c) close
- d) proximate

18. The inhabitants of Scotland are UNEVENLY distributed.

- a) equally
- b) justly
- c) irregularly
- d) stably

19. Numerous mountain TORRENTS descend from the highland masses.

- a) rocks
- b) lavas
- c) fogs
- d) showers

20. There is a large natural reserve of water for URBAN use there.

- a) town
- b) rural
- c) coastal
- d) farming

21. Northern Ireland has a common FRONTIER with the Republic of Ireland.

- a) treaty
- b) anthem
- c) boundary
- d) flag

22. Since the middle of the last century DEPOPULATION has been taking place in the North-west Highlands.

- a) expansion
- b) reduction
- c) growth
- d) evolution

23. In the west the MARITIME influence is seen in the mild winters.

- a) rocky
- b) cliff
- c) tidal
- d) sea

24. The mountains are built of old rocks, RESISTANT to erosion.

- a) vulnerable
- b) firm
- c) open
- d) exposed

25. England is somewhat triangular in shape, with its APEX at the mouth of the Tweed River.

- a) summit
- b) foot
- c) bottom
- d) side

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

Test 2. *Fill in the blanks with the following words. You may use each word only once:*

- | | | | |
|----------|-----------|---------|------------|
| climbers | level | valleys | located |
| peak | ridges | trails | glaciation |
| points | connected | climbed | place |

The Snowdon mountain group is broken by into five minor groups, whose chief, Wyddfa (Snowdon) (1,085 meters above sea.....), is the highest mountain in southern Great Britain. The region is part of Snowdonia National Park and is in northwestern Wales. The other peaks are by sharp, the product of hard Lying within Snowdonia National Park, Snowdon can be by a number of or by a railway that goes all the way to the high of the mountains., hill walkers, sightseers, and fishers have made Snowdon a popular

Test 3. *Match the definition with the correct word:*

1.	Cape	a) an area of moor
2.	fiord	b) either the shortest day of the year or the longest day of the year
3.	isle	c) a group of islands
4.	island	d) a steep high rock face, esp. one that runs along the seashore
5.	shelf	e) magma emanating from volcanoes and other openings
6.	archipelago	f) a long narrow raised land formation with sloping sides esp. one formed by the meeting of two faces of a mountain
7.	peninsula	g) a gap or space made by cleaving or splitting

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

8.	cliff	h) the main part of a land mass as opposed to an island or peninsula
9.	moorland	i) the total or partial obscuring of one celestial body by another
10.	lava	j) a level or almost level tract of country, esp. an extensive treeless region
11.	ridge	k) point of land that projects out into a body of water
12.	mainland	l) a long narrow inlet of the sea between high steep cliffs formed by glacial action
13.	solstice	m) a mass of land that is surrounded by water and is smaller than a continent
14.	eclipse	n) a narrow strip of land projecting into a sea or lake from the mainland
15.	plain	o) an island, esp. a small one
16.	rift	p) the sea bed surrounding a continent at depths of up to about 200 meters

Test 4. *Find the synonyms and group them correspondingly:*

Inlet, plain, constant, mainland, fiord, sea, outback, promontory, current, chain of mountains, freeze, bay, shallow, lowland, harbor, moisture, peak, bottom, stream, headland, mountain range, top, prairie, hill, rocky, point, permanent, dampness, stony, maritime, equable, shoal, floor, torrent, humidity, glaciatic.

Test 5. *Complete each of the following sentences with one of the words below:*

bird salmon wild sharks beech
dolphin turtles mole deer mammals

1. GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

1. Great Britain has about forty species of native freshwater fish, of which the largest is the
2. The saltwater fish include some quite dangerous species such as
3. Various species of seal and are found seasonally on British shores and coastlines, along with harbour porpoises, orcas, and many other sea mammals.
4. The is also widely recognized and its subterranean lifestyle causes much damage to garden lawns.
5. Large are not particularly numerous in Great Britain.
6. The largest wild mammals that remain in Britain today are predominantly members of the family.
7. There are also, such as leatherback turtles to be found in the Irish Sea.
8. Oak, elm, ash, and are the most common trees in England.
9. vegetation consists of the natural flora of woods, fens and marshes, cliffs, chalk downs, and mountain slopes.
10. Other well known species include the golden eagle, grey heron, kingfisher, pigeon, sparrow, pheasant, partridge, and various species of crow, finch, gull, auk, grouse, owl and falcon.



2. GEOGRAPHICAL WONDERS OF THE BRITISH ISLES

THEORETICAL PART



PRELIMINARY DISCUSSION

- What are the names of the islands situated in northern Scotland?
- What is the age of these islands?
- What tribes settled on the territory of the isles?
- What part of Britain is noted for its striking white limestone cliffs?
- What kind of attraction is situated in Northern Ireland?
- What do you know about Stonehenge?
- How did the Roman invasion affect the emergence of the British capitals?

1. THE ISLANDS AND ISLES

1.1. The Isle of Man

The Isle of Man (also Mann) is situated in the Irish Sea, between the coasts of Northern Ireland and England. It is a **self-governing crown dependency**. The head of state is Queen Elizabeth II, who holds the title of Lord of Mann.

The island has been inhabited since before 6500 BC. During the early Celtic Christian era, the Isle of Man was closely associated with Ireland. It **fell under** Norwegian **control** in the 9th century and was ruled by Norway until the 13th century. Among the important **historical remains** on the island are **prehistoric** stone dwellings, runic and **druidic** monuments, and ancient forts, castles, round towers, and stone crossings.



The Isle of Man

In Manx mythology, the island was ruled by Manannán who would draw his misty cloak around the island to protect it from invaders. One of the principal folk theories about the origin of the name Mann is that it is named after Manannán.

2. GEOGRAPHICAL WONDERS OF THE BRITISH ISLES

Native to the island is the Manx cat, characterized by the absence of a tail. The cats have been used as a symbol of the Isle of Man on coins and stamps.

Manx, a language of the old group of Celtic **tongues**, is spread among a small group of the population, but English is the principal language of the island. The Isle of Man is a popular tourist resort.

1.2. The Shetland Islands

The Shetland Islands are situated in northern Scotland, in the North Atlantic Ocean, constituting Shetland Island Area (an administrative region). The **archipelago** consists of about 100 islands and **islets**, of which only 19 are inhabited. In the 8th and 9th centuries the Shetland Islands were invaded by the Vikings, who ruled them until 1472, when they were added to **the domains** of the kings of Scotland. In November 1939 the islands were the target of the first German air raids on Britain in World War II.

Shetland is extremely rich in physical remains of the prehistoric eras and there are over 5,000 **archaeological sites**.

The local way of life reflects the Scots and Norse **heritage** of the isles including the **fire festivals**, and a strong musical tradition, especially the traditional fiddle style. The islands have produced a variety of writers of prose and poetry, often in Shetland dialect.

Lack of industry and high unemployment caused the islands' population to decline.



The Shetland Islands

The name of Shetland is derived from the Old Norse words, hjalt (hilt), and land (land).

1.3. The Orkney Islands

The Orkney Islands, or sometimes “The Orkneys”, is an archipelago in northern Scotland. The Orkneys comprise approximately 70 islands of which 20 are inhabited. The name “Orkney” dates back to the 1st century BC or earlier. It is believed that the islands have been inhabited for at least 8,500 years. Originally occupied by Mesolithic and Neolithic **tribes** and then by the Picts, the Orkneys were invaded and forcibly joined by Norway in 875 and settled by the Norse. Later they were joined to the Scottish Crown in 1472. The Orkneys contain some of the oldest and best-preserved Neolithic sites in Europe. The “Heart of Neolithic Orkney” is a **designated** UNESCO World Heritage Site (it refers to a group of Neolithic monuments found on the Mainland, one of the islands of Orkney).

The element *Orc-* is usually interpreted as a Pictish tribal name meaning “young pig” or “young boar”. The Picts were a group of Late Iron Age living in what is now eastern and northern Scotland.



Heart of Neolithic Orkney

The Heart of Neolithic Orkney World Heritage Site (WHS) was established in 1999 in recognition of the importance of the cultural monuments here along with the significance of the historical landscape.

1.4. The Hebrides

The Hebrides comprise a widespread archipelago off the west coast of Scotland. There are about 500 islands and isles of which 100 are inhabited. There are two main groups: the Inner and the Outer Hebrides. These islands have a long history of **occupation** dating back to the Mesolithic era (around 6500 BC or earlier) and the culture of the **residents** has been affected by the influences of Celtic, Norse and English-speaking peoples. Such diversity is reflected in the names given to the islands, which are derived from the languages that were spoken there in historic and perhaps prehistoric times.



The Hebrides

In 55 BC, the Greek historian Diodorus Siculus wrote that there was an island called Hyperborea (which means "beyond the North Wind"), where a round temple stood from which the moon appeared only a little distance above the earth every 19 years.

The Hebrides have much to offer the naturalist: their flora and fauna are diverse and rich. Seals, for example, are present around the coasts in great numbers.

A variety of artists have always been inspired by the Hebrides and created their works there. Felix Mendelssohn composed his famous overture Hebridean Symphony while residing on these islands.

Today's Hebridean culture is rich in the arts with a number of fine artists, musicians and writers living and working in the Hebrides.

2. GEOGRAPHICAL ATTRACTIONS



2.1. The Snowdon mountains

The Snowdon mountain group (Wales) is broken by valleys into five minor groups, whose chief **peak**, Wyddfa (Snowdon)(1,085 meters above sea level), is the highest mountain in southern Great Britain. The region is part of Snowdonia National Park and is located in northwestern Wales. The other peaks are connected by **sharp ridges**, the product of **hard glaciation**. Lying within Snowdonia National Park, Snowdon can be climbed by a number of **trails** or by a railway that goes all the way to the high points of the mountains. Climbers, hill walkers, sightseers, and fishers have made Snowdon a popular place.



Snowdonia National Park

Many of the hikers in the area concentrate on Snowdon itself. It is regarded as a fine mountain, but can become quite crowded, particularly with the Snowdon Mountain Railway running to the summit.

2.2. The Seven Sisters

The Seven Sisters are white **limestone cliffs** which are visible from far away because of their striking colour.

This attraction is situated on the coastline of southeastern England near the town of Eastbourne. These cliffs are composed of white chalk, a type of limestone, and are found on both the English and French sides of the English Channel. They were given poetic name “Albion” because of their colour.



The Seven Sisters

The Seven Sisters cliffs are occasionally used in filmmaking and television production as a stand-in for the more famous White Cliffs of Dover, since they are relatively free of anachronistic modern development and are also allowed to erode naturally.

2.3. Lands End (Cornwall)

It is the **cape** of Lands End in Cornwall (England). The cape marks the westernmost part of the English **mainland**. Tourists are attracted to Cornwall because of its favorable climate and **wild natural beauty**.

Historically, England's oldest male **heir** to the throne is named Duke of Cornwall, the oldest and most prestigious county in England. The county occupies a **peninsula** bordered on the north and west by the Atlantic Ocean and on the south by the English Channel. The Isles of Scilly are also considered part of Cornwall. The region is known for its **deeply indented coasts**, rocky cliffs, and **moorlands**—scenic beauty that has many visitors. The **craggy shores** of Cornwall are the county's principal tourist attraction and were once a haven for pirates. Cornwall is rich in prehistoric stone monuments. Cornish, one of the Celtic languages, was spoken here as a first language until the late 18th century, when the last native speaker died. In the 20th century renewed interest in Celtic history and culture among the Cornish people led to a gradual revival of the Cornish language.



Lands End

In May 2012, Land's End received worldwide publicity as the starting point of the 2012 Summer Olympics torch relay.

2.4. Giant's Causeway

It is a rocky cape on the northern coast of Northern Ireland. It consists of thousands of **polygonal columns** of **basalt**, with the height of more than 6 m. It is thought by geologists to have formed when an ancient lava flow cooled and solidified. Its name is derived from a local legend that the formation was built by giants as part of a roadway to Scotland. According to legend, the basalt columns of Giant's Causeway are ancient stepping stones giants used to cross the channel between Ireland and Scotland. Based on geological evidence, scientists believe the distinct **pillars** formed during the cooling and contracting phase of a lava flow.



Giant's Causeway

The discovery of the Giant's Causeway was announced to the wider world in 1693. The site first became popular with tourists during the nineteenth century. Visitors can walk over the basalt columns which are at the edge of the sea, a half-mile walk from the entrance to the site.

2.5. Stonehenge

Stonehenge is prehistoric monument on Salisbury Plain, in southwestern England. It dates from the late Stone and early Bronze ages (about 3000-1000 bc). The monument, now in ruins, consists of a circular group of large **upright stones** surrounded by a **circular earthwork**. Stonehenge is the best preserved and most famous of the monuments of Europe. It is not known for certain what purpose Stonehenge served, but many scholars believe the monument was used as a **ceremonial** or **religious center** to predict solstices, equinoxes, eclipses, and other events of the **solar calendar**. Today it is widely believed that Neolithic peoples of the British Isles began constructing the monument about 5,000 years ago.



Stonehenge

*In the twelfth century, Geoffrey of Monmouth included a fanciful story in his *Historia Regum Britanniae* ("History of the Kings of Britain") that attributed the monument's construction to the wizard Merlin. The rocks of Stonehenge were healing rocks, called the Giant's dance, which Giants had brought from Africa to Ireland for their healing properties.*

There are more than 1,000 stone circles in the British Isles, but Stonehenge is unique among them. No other circle has massive stones trimmed into neat shapes, like giant building bricks. The skillful engineering used at Stonehenge suggests that it was built by people who were skilled in making great structures. Archaeologists now know that Stonehenge was just one of many prehistoric structures, collectively called **hedges**, built of earth, river gravel, timber, or stone. Like the surviving stone circles, most were circular in shape.

3. PRINCIPLE CITIES AND TOWNS

3.1. Hastings

Hastings is situated in the southeastern England. The **site** was probably occupied in prehistoric times. By the early Middle Ages the town was a flourishing port, and in the 11th century it was conquered by the duke of Normandy, later William I, king of England in 1066. The battle, known as the Battle of Hastings, in which William defeated the English king Harold II, occurred inland from the town.



Hastings Duke William of Normandy stabs King Harold of England at the Battle of Hastings. 14th-century manuscript

3.2. Cardiff

Cardiff is the capital of Wales since 1955 and the eleventh-largest city in the United Kingdom. Cardiff had barely 1,000 inhabitants at the beginning of the 19th century. The Romans settled in what is now Cardiff in about AD 75. The Normans arrived 700 years later, and on the site of the old Roman fort the Norman **landowner** Robert FitzHamon built Cardiff Castle in 1093. Since 1081 Cardiff was an English city, but the Welsh rulers also took part in its history.

Cardiff Castle is still the greatest **fortress** in Great Britain.



Cardiff

Today the castle is run as a tourist attraction, with the grounds housing the "Firing Line" regimental museum and interpretation centre. The castle has also served as a venue for events, including musical performances and festivals.

3.3. Edinburgh

One of the loveliest cities of Europe, historic Edinburgh is the capital of Scotland. It is built on a **series of ridges**, separated by **riffts**, and its buildings harmonize with its unusual **setting**. Edinburgh was affectionately nicknamed "Auld Reekie" because of the smoke (reek) from its thousands of chimneys. Edinburgh's name comes from the Gaelic word *Duneideann*, meaning "fortress on a hill." It is also associated with Edwin, the 7th-century king of Northumbria. In 1436 Edinburgh became the capital of Scotland.

The union of Scotland and England in 1707 reduced Edinburgh's importance, but it remained the legal and cultural center of Scotland. In the 18th and 19th centuries it was the center of a brilliant **literary** and **philosophical circle** that included David Hume, Adam Smith, Robert Burns, and Sir Walter Scott. Since 1947 Edinburgh has held an annual three-week international festival of music and drama.



Edinburgh

Edinburgh has a long literary tradition, which became especially evident during the Scottish Enlightenment. This heritage and the city's lively literary life in the present led to it being declared the first UNESCO City of Literature in 2004.

3.4. Belfast

The capital and largest city of Northern Ireland and the busiest port in all Ireland is Belfast. Belfast's founding dates from 1177, when a Norman castle was erected.

In the 16th century there was only a little fishing village at Belfast which soon was taken by the English. The people who live in the city today are chiefly the Protestant **descendants** of Scottish and English colonists who arrived in the 17th century. In 1685 French Huguenots **found refuge** in the city. They brought with them the improved methods of linen making that made Belfast the center of the Irish linen trade. The harbor was improved in the late 18th century, and shipbuilding was begun on a large scale. The city was made the capital of Northern Ireland in 1920.



Belfast

The site of Belfast has been occupied since the Bronze Age. The place remained a small settlement of little importance during the Middle Ages. Belfast blossomed as a commercial and industrial centre in the 18th and 19th centuries and became Ireland's pre-eminent industrial city. Industries thrived, including linen, rope-making, tobacco, heavy engineering and shipbuilding, and at the end of the 19th century, Belfast briefly overtook Dublin as the largest city in Ireland.

3.5. London

London was founded as a communications center by the Romans shortly after they invaded Britain in AD 43. Known as Londinium, the town was located at the northern end of the bridge the Romans had built across the Thames.

The Norman Conquest in 1066 set the stage for mixing French into London's Saxon character. During this period, London emerged as the English capital. In the 1340s about a third of London's residents fell victim to the Black Death (bubonic plague), but the population recovered to about 40,000 by 1500. The **medieval labyrinth** of London was characterized by narrow, congested streets lined with tiny shops and houses built of wood and plaster, with second stories jutting out beyond the ground floor. This tendency **to cluster** into crowded spaces even applied to London Bridge, which was considerably more than just a river crossing.



Big Ben London (contributed: O. Kovalenko)

Big Ben is the nickname for the Great Bell of the clock at the north end of the Palace of Westminster in London and is usually extended to refer to both the clock and the clock tower as well. The tower is officially known as Elizabeth Tower, renamed to celebrate the Diamond Jubilee of Elizabeth II in 2012. The tower is one of the most prominent symbols of the United Kingdom and is often in the establishing shot of films set in London.



London (contributed: O. Kovalenko)

London contains four World Heritage Sites: the Tower of London; Kew Gardens; the site comprising the Palace of Westminster, Westminster Abbey, and St Margaret's Church; and the historic settlement of Greenwich (in which the Royal Observatory, Greenwich marks the Prime Meridian, 0° longitude, and GMT). The London Underground is the oldest underground railway network in the world.

London was still the largest city in the world at the beginning of the 20th century, but was surpassed by New York by 1920.

Self-checking Questions



1. What is the unusual symbol of the Isle of Man?
2. What islands are presented with an archipelago of about 100 islands and islets?
3. In what connection is the Shetland dialect mentioned in the text?
4. How is the element *Ork*- interpreted?

5. Why is “The “Heart of Neolithic Orkney” a designated UNESCO World Heritage Site?
6. What archipelago is divided into Inner islands and Outer islands?
7. What islands still attract people of art and science?
8. Where is Snowdonia National Park located?
9. What sight was given a poetic name “Albion»? Why?
10. What isle preserved its native language?
11. Is the Cornish language still spoken in Cornwall?
12. What attraction is presented with thousands of polygonal columns of basalt?
13. Is Stonehenge the only construction of stone in the British Isles? What are the theories of its appearance?
14. What town is connected with the great historical event of 1066?
15. What capital is the youngest (the oldest) of the four (London, Edinburgh, Cardiff, Belfast)?
16. What city was affectionately nicknamed “Auld Reekie”?
17. What city was the center of the literary and philosophical circle in the 18th and 19th centuries?
18. The local population of what city is the Protestant descendants of Scottish and English colonists?
19. What city was founded in AD 43?
20. When did London emerge as the English capital?

PRACTICAL PART



ASSIGNMENTS



1. Study the following proper names and practice their pronunciation:

The Shetlands [ðə 'ʃetləndz]

The Isle of Man [ði aɪl ɒv mæn]

The Hebrides [ðə 'heɪbrɪ,di:z]

Belfast ['bɛlfɑ:st]

The Snowdon Mountains [ðə 'snəʊdɒn 'maʊntɪnz]

London [lʌndən]

the English Channel [ði 'ɪŋɡlɪʃ 'ʃænl]

The Orkneys [ði 'ɔ:kni:z]

The Seven Sisters [ðə 'sevn 'sɪstəz]

Edinburgh ['ɛdɪnbərə]

Giant's Causeway ['dʒaɪənts 'kɔ:zweɪ]

Cardiff ['kɑ:dɪf]

Stonehenge ['stəʊnhendʒ]

Hastings [heɪstɪŋz]

Salisbury Plain ['sɔ:lzb(ə)rɪ pleɪn]

Cornwall [kɔ:nwɔ:l]

Northumbria [nɔ:'θʌmbriə]

Huguenots ['hju:gənɒts]



2. Note down from the theoretical part phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme "Geographical wonders of the British isles". Translate them into Ukrainian.



3. Find in the theoretical part the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

Self-governing crown dependency, to hold the title, to fall under control, historical remains, runic and druidic monuments, the domain of the king, designated site, sharp ridges, hard glaciation, wild natural beauty, deeply indented coast, scenic beauty, revival of the language, circular earthwork, ceremonial and religious center, flourishing port, landowner, unusual setting, to reduce the importance, legal center, to find refuge, communications center, to fall victim, medieval labyrinth, congested streets.

2. GEOGRAPHICAL WONDERS OF THE BRITISH ISLES



4. Write all you can (What? When? Where? How?) about the following concepts and notions:

Celtic Christian era, Lord of Mann, ancient forts, the Manx cat, Celtic tongues, the Shetland Islands, the Isle of Man, archaeological sites, Shetland dialect, Pictish tribal name, widespread archipelago, Snowdonia National Park, “Albion”, Lands End, Duke of Cornwall, the Cornish language, Giant’s Causeway, Stonehenge, solar calendar, the Battle of Hastings, Cardiff Castle, “fortress on a hill”, French Huguenots, the Black Death, prehistoric times.



5. Study the basic characteristics concerning the theme “Geographical wonders of the British isles” and fill in table 1.

Table 1

Name of the attraction	Geographical position	Brief description
1. The Isle of Man		
2. The Shetland Islands		
3. The Orkney Islands		
4. The Hebrides		
5. The Snowdon mountains		
6. The Seven Sisters		
7. Lands End		
8. Giant’s Causeway		
9. Stonehenge		
10. Hastings		
11. Cardiff		
12. Edinburgh		
13. London		
14. Belfast		



6. Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.

Мостова Гігантів

Мостова гігантів - незвичайне природне явище, яке нікого не залишить байдужим, адже здається, що створене воно не природою, а якимось величезним і могутнім велетнем з казки. Існує легенда про створення цієї пам'ятки природи. В одному з переказів говориться про велетня на ймення Фінн Мак Кума. Вирішивши битися з жадливим однооком противником Голлом, він, аби не замочити ноги, вбив у дно Ірландського моря ряд колон і таким чином побудував міст. Втопившись, він приліг відпочити. Саме у цей час Голл перейшов по мосту в Ірландію і з'явився перед Фінном. Дружина Фінна, Ума, вказавши на сплячого чоловіка, збрехала, сказавши, що це її немовля-син. Крім того, вона пригостила Голла коржиками, всередині яких запекла плоскі залізні сковороди, і коли велетень почав ламати о них зуби, дала другий корж – простий – «немовляті» - Фінну, який спокійно з'їв його. Уявивши, яким же гігантом виявиться батько цього немаленького «немовляти», Голл в жаху втік, по шляху руйнуючи міст.



7. Be prepared to speak about these geographical objects using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme and the following clichés:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| To be inhabited | to be located |
| To fall under control | to be extremely rich in |
| To be closely associated with | the remains of the prehistoric eras |
| To be ruled by | archaeological sites |
| To use as a symbol | to be forcibly joined |
| best-preserved sites | to be derived from |
| prehistoric times | to be inspired by |
| to be broken by | to be connected by |
| to be composed of | wild natural beauty |
| the most prestigious county | to be descended from |
| deeply indented coasts | principal tourist attraction |
| geological evidence | to be widely believed |
| to be occupied by | to fall victim to |
| to emerge as a capital | to find refuge |

2. GEOGRAPHICAL WONDERS OF THE BRITISH ISLES



The Isle of Man



The Orkney Islands



The Shetland Islands



The Hebrides



Giant's Causeway



Stonehenge



GENERALIZING TEST

1. Cornwall is the part of....
 - a) Scotland
 - b) England
 - c) Wales
 - d) Northern Ireland
2. UNESCO designated Neolithic site found in.....as World Heritage.
 - a) the Isle of Man
 - b) the Shetland Islands
 - c) the Orkney Islands
 - d) the Hebrides

2. GEOGRAPHICAL WONDERS OF THE BRITISH ISLES

3. In the 19th centurywas the centre of literature and philosophy.
- a) London
 - b) Edinburgh
 - c) Cardiff
 - d) Belfast
4. The Seven Sisters are white limestone cliffs in the.....of England:
- a) northwest
 - b) northeast
 - c) southwest
 - d) southeast
5. This prehistoric monument dates back to 3000-1000BC:
- a) Lands End
 - b) the Seven Sisters
 - c) Giants Causeway
 - d) Stonehenge
6. These Isles inspired many artists and composers who devoted their creations to them:
- a) the Orkneys
 - b) the Hebrides
 - c) the Shetlands
 - d) the Channel Isles
7. This city was founded by the Romans in AD 43:
- a) Edinburgh
 - b) London
 - c) Cardiff
 - d) Belfast
8. This place is the origin spot of the rare breed of cats without tails:
- a) Hastings
 - b) the Isle of Man
 - c) the Showdon mountains
 - d) Cornwall
9. The native language of this place is still spread among a small group of population (in addition to English):
- a) Manx language
 - b) Gaelic language
 - c) Germanic language

- d) Cornish language
10. Here is situated the National park of Great Britain:
- a) the Grampian mountains
 - b) the Cambrian mountains
 - c) the Donegal mountains
 - d) the Snowdonian mountains



TESTS IN THEMATIC VOCABULARY

Test 1. *Choose the one word or phrase that best keeps the meaning of the original sentence if it is substituted for the capitalized word or phrase:*

1. The Vikings ruled the Shetland Islands until 1472, when they were added to the **DOMAINS** of the kings of Scotland.
 - a) treasuries
 - b) territories
 - c) properties
 - d) registrations

2. The Shetlands are extremely rich in physical **REMAINS** of the prehistoric eras.
 - a) relics
 - b) things
 - c) subjects
 - d) leavings

3. The “Heart of Neolithic Orkney” is a **DESIGNATED** *UNESCO* World Heritage Site.
 - a) signed
 - b) marked
 - c) denominated
 - d) pointed

2. GEOGRAPHICAL WONDERS OF THE BRITISH ISLES

4. The culture of the RESIDENTS has been affected by the influences of Celtic, Norse and English-speaking peoples.
- a) settlers
 - b) invaders
 - c) tribes
 - d) inhabitants
5. The peaks are connected by sharp ridges, the product of hard GLACIATION.
- a) melting
 - b) weathering
 - c) freezing
 - d) flooding
6. Snowdon can be climbed by a number of TRAILS or by a railway.
- a) roads
 - b) paths
 - c) tracks
 - d) routes
7. Lands End is a large PROMONTORY in Cornwall.
- a) island
 - b) peninsular
 - c) bay
 - d) cape
8. Tourists are attracted to Cornwall because of its favorable climate and wild SCENERY.
- a) view
 - b) beauty
 - c) outlook
 - d) panorama
9. England's oldest male HEIR to the throne is named Duke of Cornwall.
- a) pretender
 - b) applicant

- c) successor
- d) follower

10. The region is known for its deeply INDENTED coasts, rocky cliffs, and moorlands.

- a) serrated
- b) cut
- c) carved
- d) waved

11. The craggy shores of Cornwall are the county's principal tourist ATTRACTION.

- a) sight
- b) view
- c) outlook
- d) site

12. Edinburgh is built on a series of RIDGES, separated by rifts.

- a) chains
- b) peaks
- c) points
- d) tops

13. The buildings harmonize with the unusual SETTING of the city.

- a) panorama
- b) site
- c) view
- d) sight

14. In 1685 French Huguenots found REFUGE in the city.

- a) settlement
- b) occupation
- c) shelter
- d) defense

2. GEOGRAPHICAL WONDERS OF THE BRITISH ISLES

15. The medieval labyrinth of London was characterized by the narrow and CONGESTED streets.

- a) unoccupied
- b) quiet
- c) busy
- d) overcrowded

Test 2. *Fill in the blanks with the following words. You may use each word only once:*

in-depth	awarded	dominates	panoramas
rock	unequaled	endeavours	inhabitants
castle	settlements	levels	ultimate
refuge	defensive		

Edinburgh Castle the city of Edinburgh like no other castle in Scotland, and it is in the whole of the British Isles. Over one thousand years of history sit on top of the famous Edinburgh....., and when you see Edinburgh Castle you will understand why over a million visitors a year visit it. When you come to Scotland and visit Edinburgh Castle you will see why the early of the area made their first..... here. People have always sought a safe, and the volcanic rock that forms the base of Edinburgh Castle, has always afforded the safe and position in Edinburgh. The visitor to the Castle is..... with magnificent in every direction when they visit it. No matter whether you are on the lowest of the Castle, or the highest points, visitors are delighted by what can be seen. Edinburgh Castle is every schoolboy's dream of what a..... should look like and the Edinburgh Castle website to give the Edinburgh visitor an view of Edinburgh Castle and it's history from early times right up until the present day.

Test 3. Match the definition with the correct word:

1. dependency	a) land governed by a ruler or government
2. druid	b) the piece of land where something was, is, or is intended to be located
3. islet	c) the evidence of the past, such as historical sites, buildings, and the unspoilt natural environment, considered collectively as the inheritance of present-day society
4. domain	d) a path, track, or road, especially one roughly blazed
5. site	e) the surroundings in which something is set; scene
6. tribe	f) a member of an ancient order of priests in Gaul, Britain, and Ireland in the pre-Christian era
7. setting	g) any place, person, action, or thing that offers protection, help, or relief
8. heritage	h) an ethnic or ancestral division of ancient cultures
9. refuge	i) a territory subject to a state on which it does not border
10. trail	j) a small island

Test 4. Find the synonyms and group them correspondingly:

Ridge, attraction, castle, domain, islet, scenery, patrimony, tribe, run, refuge, heir, settler, trail, inhabitant, island, folk, chain, range, place of interest, sight, view, estate, shelter, colonist, protection, successor, path, descendant, isle, territory, heritage, clan, palace, resident.

2. GEOGRAPHICAL WONDERS OF THE BRITISH ISLES

Test 5. Complete each of the following sentences with one of the words below:

sightseers residents fortress ancestors heritage
scenery overture prehistoric migrants site

1. One of my, who lived in the XVIIth century, was related to the Scottish kings.
2. The standing stones at Stonehenge date back to times.
3. Edinburgh Castle is a historic which dominates the skyline of the city of Edinburgh.
4. Evidence of prehistoric settlements have been found at the town
5. The site offers some of the best along the south coast.
6. London became the principal North Sea port, with arriving from England and abroad.
7. The first of the Isle of Man were hunter gatherers and fishermen.
8. The local way of life reflects the Scots and Norse..... of the isles.
9. Felix Mendelssohn composed his famous..... Hebridean Symphony while residing on these islands.
10. Climbers, hill walkers,, and fishers have made Snowdon a popular place.



3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

THEORETICAL PART



PRELIMINARY DISCUSSION

- What kind of economy does the UK have?
- The British agriculture is very intensive and highly productive, isn't it?
- What is livestock farming?
- What is arable farming?
- What are the main principles of the British agricultural policy?
- What natural resources are important for mining?
- What are the peculiar features of English manufacturing?

1. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ECONOMY

In the 19th century, Britain had the world's leading **economy**: Its overseas trade thrived, its standard of living rose steadily, and its citizens pioneered **industrial innovations**. With the growth of the economies of other nations in the 20th century, the British economy remained relatively strong. It has continued to grow, and Britain remains a major producer of industrial goods and provider of services, as well as a center of world **trade** and **finance**. In the 20th century the skills and ingenuity of Britain's highly trained workers, managers, and entrepreneurs have enabled the British economy to function well and provide for its large population.

Although Britain's economy was strong in the 20th century, it faced a number of persistent problems. The balance of trade was one. Britain has had to import more than a tenth of its food and much of its **raw materials**, as well as

**Shipbuilding**

Shipbuilding played a central role in the rise of British industry. Britain was the most powerful trading nation in the world, exporting goods all around its Empire. To a large extent, this success depended upon fast, reliable steamship services, supported by coaling and supply stations all over the world.

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN



Coal Miners in the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom relies on commercial and manufacturing enterprises to sustain its economy. Many of the country's population centers have developed around the rich mineral and energy reserves that fuel these industries. Here, coal miners go to work in Wales.



The textile industry

The textile industry was at the centre of Britain's industrial expansion in the Victorian period. Technological advances meant that cottons, wools, silks and dyestuffs could be produced at unprecedented rates, and the results were exported around the world.

many manufactured goods, and it has to export sufficient products and services to balance the cost of its **imports**. Another problem has been industrial inefficiency, which was particularly evident in older industries such as **coal mining**, **shipbuilding**, and **textiles**, which produced more products than they could sell. Some industries that had been **nationalized** (taken over by the state) after 1945, such as British Oil Corporation, British Airways, and British Telecommunications, were unprofitable and operated at a considerable cost to taxpayers. In addition, trade unions sometimes required companies to hire more workers than were needed, and time was lost due to strikes as workers pressed for higher wages. These trade union problems increased the cost of **goods**, which helped cause **inflation**. At the same time, **unemployment** remained high—11 percent of the workforce in the early 1980s—and efforts to lower it were not successful. These problems were particularly evident during the 1970s, when high oil prices triggered a worldwide recession.

Since the mid-1970s, Britain has benefited from a worldwide economic upswing as well as internal improvements. The government has taken a number of steps to encourage economic growth. It curtailed the power of unions and sold some nationalized industries, including British Airways and British Telecommunications, to private companies (called privatization). The government sought to encourage business and private **investment** by lowering **taxes** and easing restrictions, such as deregulating the **stock exchange** and lifting restrictions on certain business agreements. Simultaneously, it sought to curb its spending and services.



Oil industry

The British economy is boosted by North Sea oil and gas production.



The aerospace industry

The aerospace industry of the United Kingdom is the second-largest national aerospace industry in the world and the largest in Europe.

Newer, more profitable **high-tech industries** absorbed more workers and managers, while many older, less-efficient firms folded. Britain's economy received a boost with the discovery and exploitation of **abundant oil reserves** in the North Sea. Because of this oil, Britain no longer depends on imports of foreign petroleum products and also **profits** from **exports** of petroleum products. In 1997 Britain's economy grew at a rate of 2.5 percent, one of the highest rates among members of the European Union.

Like many modern developed countries, the United Kingdom has a **mixed economy**. This means that some sectors of the economy are operated by the government and some are operated by private businesses. Since World War II (1939-1945), Britain has worked to balance the mix of private and **public enterprises** in order to maximize the country's economy and ensure the economic well-being of its citizens. Historically, Britain's Conservative Party has sought a stronger private component in the mix while the Labour Party has sought to strengthen the public component. Both parties are committed to a healthy mix of both elements, however.

The public component consists of the **welfare system**, which includes socialized medicine, known as the National Health Service, plus government controls over business, banking, and the money supply. The welfare system provides support from before birth to the grave. The government is a major employer: public officials, the judiciary, the military, police departments, fire departments, educators, and health professionals are, for the most part, employed by the state. The government is also a major purchaser of goods, particularly military equipment.

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

After World War II the government nationalized, or took over, a number of large and troubled industries. These included **coal, electricity, transport, gas, oil, steel**, certain car and **truck manufacturing**, shipbuilding, and **aircraft building**. Since the 1950s, the government has privatized a number of these industries, selling them to private firms. The first sales were the steel and road transportation industries.

The Conservative governments between 1979 and 1996 **denationalized** oil companies, telecommunications, car and truck production, gas, airlines and **aircraft building**, electricity, water, railways, and **nuclear power**. By privatizing these industries, the government hoped they would become more efficient, due to pressure by stockholders demanding profits. Nevertheless, the government continues to regulate these newly privatized industries by controlling prices and monitoring performance. The government also seeks to encourage competition in the economy and increase **productivity** by sponsoring and subsidizing training and educational programs.

2. MINING

Mining has been enormously important in British economic history. Salt mining dates from prehistoric times, and in ancient times traders from the Mediterranean shipped tin from the mines of Cornwall. These tin mines are almost completely **exhausted** today, and the last tin mine in Britain closed in March 1998. Britain's abundant coal resources were critical during the Industrial Revolution, especially because the coal was sometimes conveniently located near **iron** and could be used in the iron and steel manufacturing processes. These mined resources were so important to the Industrial Revolution that entire populations moved to work at coal and iron sites in the north and Midlands of England. Today the iron is almost exhausted, and even though most good-quality coal seams are depleted, coal is still the third most **mined mineral** in Britain.



Mining in Cornwall

Cornwall and Devon provided most of the United Kingdom's tin, copper, and arsenic until the 20th century.

Besides coal, raw materials for construction form the bulk of mineral production, including **limestone**, **dolomite**, sand, gravel, sandstone, **common clay**, and shale. Some **china clay** and salt are also extracted. Small amounts of **zinc**, **lead**, **tin**, **silver**, and **gold** are mined. According to British law, the owners of land have title to the minerals below the surface. The only exceptions are gold, silver, oil, and natural gas, which the Crown owns and leases to producers. Mining and quarrying, including oil and gas extraction, accounted for 2.8 percent of the GDP in 1996 and employed 1 percent of the labor force.

3. MANUFACTURING

The history of **manufacturing** in Britain is unique because of Britain's role as the birthplace of the Industrial Revolution. During the Middle Ages the production of woolen textiles was a key industry in Britain. In the 16th and 17th centuries, new industries developed. These included **silk weaving**, **garment making**, and the manufacturing of hats, **pottery**, and **cutlery**. All of these operations were generally conducted in small **craft shops** and were labor-intensive.

In the 18th century a number of changes in British society prepared the way for the Industrial Revolution. Colonial and commercial expansion created markets in North America, Africa, and parts of Asia. Coal and iron mining developed as Britain's dwindling forests created the need for another energy source, and new **smelting techniques** made iron implements cheaper to produce. An agricultural revolution in the 18th century introduced new crops and **crop rotation techniques**, better **breeding methods**, and mechanical devices for **cultivation**. This coincided with a rapid increase in population, in part due to better hygiene and diets, providing both **consumers** and workers for the new manufacturing operations.



Manufacturing

Two important industries in the United Kingdom are chemical manufacturing and energy production. The United Kingdom has one of the largest chemicals industries in the world and also produces a surplus of energy.

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

During the Industrial Revolution new methods of manufacturing products were developed. Instead of being made by hand, many products were made by machine. Production moved from small craft shops to factories, and population shifted to urban areas where these factories were located.

Cotton textile factories using newly developed **steam-powered machines** produced more goods at a lower cost per item. Textiles, shipbuilding, iron, and steel emerged as important industries, and coal remained the most important **industrial fuel**. The Industrial Revolution dramatically raised the overall standard of living.

The structure of industry changed substantially in the last half of the 20th century. The coal mining and **cotton textile** industries declined. As coal production declined, oil production replaced it as a major industry. **Motor-vehicle production** became a significant part of the industrial base but was subject to severe foreign competition. As **incomes** increased, consumer demand rose for durable goods such as cars and kitchen appliances. British industrial production also expanded into **communications equipment**, including **fiber optics**, **computers**, **computer-controlled machine tools**, and robots. Britain now manufactures approximately 40 percent of Europe's desktop computers.

Scotland is also a major producer of computers. The so-called Silicon Glen between Glasgow and Edinburgh employs about 40,000 people in the electronics industry and is the site of many overseas computer firms. Scotland and Northern Ireland are still noted for their production of whiskey and textiles, especially linen from Northern Ireland and tweed from Scotland.



Motor-vehicle production

The origins of the UK automotive industry date back to the final years of the 19th century. By the 1950s the UK was the second-largest manufacturer of cars in the world (after the United States) and the largest exporter.

Britain remains an important manufacturing country, although it imports large quantities of manufactured goods from overseas, particularly vehicles and **electronic equipment**. About 4 million workers, about 20 percent of the workforce, were engaged in manufacturing in 1997. In 1996 manufacturing accounted for about 21 percent of the **gross domestic product (GDP)**. The leading traditional manufacturing regions of England are Greater London and the cities and regions around Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, and Newcastle upon Tyne.

4. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF AGRICULTURE

Britain's land surface is minimal compared to many other nations, but British agriculture is very intensive and highly productive. In recent decades output has risen steadily, and agricultural labor has become more productive, due to innovations in **farm machinery**, **biological engineering** of seeds and plants, and the increased use of **fertilizers**, **pesticides**, and **herbicides**. Consequently, imports of food, feed, and beverages dropped from 36 percent of total imports in 1955 to 11 percent in 1985, and to 10 percent by 1994. Compared to other nations in the European Union, Britain's agricultural sector is much smaller in terms of employment and contribution to the GDP (gross domestic product). In 1996 agriculture employed approximately 2 percent of the workforce and contributed 1.4 percent of the GDP.

About 74 percent of Britain's land area is devoted to some type of agricultural use. Large parts of Britain, notably Scotland and Wales are suitable only for **grazing**. In the mid-1990s, about 72 percent of Britain's agricultural land was used for grazing or grassland, or lay fallow, and about 28 percent was used to grow crops. There were about 234,300 farms, two-thirds of them owner-occupied.



Sheep in Derbyshire

Much of the land in Britain that is devoted to agricultural purposes is used for grazing. Sheep farming is an important part of the economy in Derbyshire.

4.1. Livestock farming

More than half of the full-time farms are devoted to **livestock farming**—**raising cattle** for **dairy products** or beef, or raising sheep for wool and meat. These animals contribute about 37 percent of the total value of agricultural output. The treatment of farm animals is a growing concern in Britain. Factory farming of chickens has produced protests in Britain, as has the practice of raising calves in confined spaces. These protests have been particularly strong at ports from which calves are exported to Europe. Concerns over animal welfare have led some British citizens to become vegetarians.

4.2. Arable farming

Arable farming refers to farming in which land is plowed and planted for crops. Most farming in Britain takes place in eastern and south central England and in eastern Scotland. Of the land used to grow crops in 1996, 42 percent was devoted to **wheat**, 27 percent to **barley**, and 7.5 percent to **rapeseed**. Other crops include **potatoes**, **sugar beets**, **peas**, and **beans**. The extensive use of machines, fertilizers, pesticides, fungicides, and biologically engineered **seeds** and plants has increased productivity dramatically. However, these modern farming techniques have drawn criticism from people concerned about the use of chemicals and their effect on the environment. Some farmers have curtailed the use of chemical agents, and a small number have turned to organic farming, with support from the government.



Arable farming

Arable crops such as oat and wheat require good soils and a warm climate to be grown successfully. To be grown and harvested they require flat land that allows machinery such as combine harvesters to be used. As such this type of farming is concentrated in the east and south of the UK where the climate, soil and relief of the land allow it to be profitable.

4.3. Agricultural policy

The British government began subsidizing the prices paid for agricultural products after World War II as a way to make farming profitable. In 1973 Britain joined the European Economic Community (EEC, now the European Union), and since then agricultural policy has been determined primarily by the EU's Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). This policy seeks to keep the agricultural market stable, ensure that farmers earn a fair living, and provide consumers with affordable food supplies. As a result of EU policies, products coming into Britain from non-EU countries are taxed, surplus products are bought and stored for later sale, and the cost of **exports** is subsidized if prices are low.

4.4. Forestry

Britain was once covered with thick forests, but over the centuries the expanding human population steadily deforested nearly the entire country, felling trees for fuel and building materials. Despite the fact that trees grow quickly in the cool, moist climate of the United Kingdom, only remnants of the great oak forests remained at the end of the 20th century.

In 1919 only 5 percent of the United Kingdom was forested; as of 2000 this had increased to 10.7 percent. In comparison, 25 percent of Europe was forested. Yet even this is more than the 5 percent of Britain that was forested in 1919. Only 8 percent of England is covered by forest, 15 percent of Scotland, 12 percent of Wales, and 6 percent of Northern Ireland. Most of the forested area consists of commercially planted, fast-growing coniferous trees in Wales and northeastern Scotland. Britain has made efforts to increase the managed forest areas.



Forestry

The United Kingdom is ideal for tree growth, thanks to its mild winters, plentiful rainfall, fertile soil and hill-sheltered topography. Nowadays, about 12.9% of Britain's land surface is wooded and this area is increasing.

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

Imports of wood and wood products are substantial because Britain produces only 15 percent of the wood it needs. The number of people employed in the **timber industry** is about 32,000, considerably less than 1 percent of the **workforce**.

A Forestry Commission sets standards and provides advice on forestry matters. It manages 38 percent of the United Kingdom's forests directly and offers various plans to expand woodlands. The commission also sells woodlands to the private sector. Local authorities have the power to protect trees and woodlands, and it is an offense to cut any tree down without permission. Protected trees that die must be replaced. The Forestry Commission has plans to plant a new national forest in the English Midlands and 12 community forests. It provides funds to encourage local communities to develop existing forests in England, Wales, and Scotland. The commission has its own research centers and provides aid for forestry research at universities.

5. FISHING

At one time the **fishing industry** not only provided a cheap source of protein for Britons, but it was also the training ground for the Royal Navy. Today fishing is a less vital economic activity, although the industry provides about 54 percent of Britain's **fish supplies** and involves both **deep-sea fishing** and **fish farming**. Fish and fish products are both imported into and exported from Britain. Substantial amounts of fish oils and fish meals are imported, along with saltwater fish and shellfish. Exports are significantly less than imports.



Hull Waterfront

For centuries the docks at Hull, pictured here, were part of Britain's main fishing port. However, in the 1970s the harbor at nearby Grimsby was improved and expanded, and Grimsby became the country's principal fishing port.

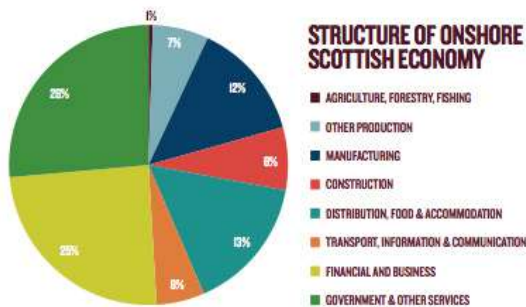
In recent decades overfishing and conservation restrictions imposed by the European Union have caused a decline in the deep-sea industry. Fishing remains an important source of employment in many ports in Scotland and southwestern England. Even so, in the 1990s fishing accounted for less than 1 percent of the GDP and employed less than 1 percent of the workforce. Angling, or sport fishing, is one of the more popular hobbies in Britain.

As with agriculture, fisheries policy in Britain is largely determined by the EU through the Common Fisheries Policy (CFP). It aims to protect the remaining fish stocks in European waters so that they can recover from severe **overfishing**. There are strict quotas on the kinds and amounts of fish that may be caught, and regulations detail the appropriate equipment to use. The CFP has caused some hardship to the British fishing fleet, especially through restrictions on the number of days that ships are permitted to fish. The government and the EU have sponsored various schemes to assist economically pressed fishers, including buying and decommissioning fishing boats and offering financial incentives for fishers to leave the industry or go into fish farming. The government has also provided aid to improve equipment and port facilities.

6. SCOTLAND

Geographically Scotland is divided into three parts:

- 1) The Highlands and Islands;
- 2) Central Scotland;
- 3) The Southern Uplands.



The structure of onshore Scottish economy

6.1. The Highlands and Islands

Until the 20th century the people of this area depended on farming and fishing for their **livelihood**. A form of farming based on the **crofting system** still survives in many counties. Today many **crofting households** still live in scattered settlements called “**townships**”, which consist of a number of individual crofts. These townships are situated at the coast around the shores of lochs where flat land and **deeper soils** occur, or on the Islands.

~ Agriculture in the interior

Some of the mountain **pasture** is used for grazing livestock, although large areas remain unproductive and are used for **sporting** purposes only. Sheep are reared on large farms especially in the south and east of the region. On the valley floors beef cattle are reared.

~ Hydro-electric power

The region lacks **coal deposits** but the **natural water resources** are used to provide power. The mountains are drained by streams which are easily dammed in their deep, narrow valleys. Here hard rocks provide a foundation for the construction of **dams**. The reservoirs and some of the lochs store up the water.

~ Forestry

The forestry Commission and private estates hold over 500.000 acres of planted land on the mainland. The trees are mostly conifers, pine and larch. These trees grow well in the poor, **shallow soils** and can withstand the severe weather. The area under forest is increasing at 5% a year.



In northern and western areas of Scotland, many people live in small crofting townships, such as here on the Isle of Skye.



The pulp-and-paper mill

The 1st paper mill in Scotland was established in 1590 at Dalry in Edinburgh.

~The pulp-and-paper mill

Depopulation of the Highlands and Islands is still a serious problem, but some of the new industries have attracted more people to live in the region. One reason for increasing of population is the opening of the **pulp-and-paper mill** at Corpoch, near Fort William. Pulp-and-paper making requires **bulky material** (logs, wood chips, chine clay) and fuel oil, all of which arrives here by sea, road and rail.

6.2. Central Scotland

There are a number of natural features that have favoured Central Scotland:

1. Much of it is below 500 ft (150 m) and so the climate is warmer and drier than that of the other regions.
2. Deep soils, suitable for farming, are widespread.
3. Mineral resources, especially coal, enabled the growth of **heavy industry**.
4. When the sea-level rose as the ice-sheets melted at the end of the Ice Age, the lower courses of the glaciated valleys were flooded, forming fiords, such as the Fiord of Clyde. These long, deep, sheltered inlets favoured the growth of ports, trade and the shipbuilding industry.
5. The lowland enabled the building of good road and **rail communications**.

~ Agriculture

The east and west of Central Scotland differ greatly in both climate and agriculture.

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

The West: This area receives over **40 inch of rainfall** a year, and it is much wetter than in the east. Cloudy skies limit the growing of wheat and other arable crops, but the rainy climate favours the growth of rich pastures. An important **dairy-milk farming** industry supplies the milk for the large cities near by. Until recently **oats** were the chief grain, but now much barley is grow. On the hills poor soils and cooler and wetter weather make the land suitable only for sheep-rearing.

The East: Here the summers are sunnier and drier with an annual rainfall of 25 inch. on the coast. These conditions favoured the growing of arable crops, of which barley is the most important. In most areas farms are mixed. **Beef-cattle** and sheep are reared in the hills.

~ Industries and towns

Only 3% of the employed people depend on agriculture for a living, the vast majority depends on industry. In the past the growth of industries was closely related to the **coalfields**, especially where **black iron ore** was found. The main industries that developed were coal-mining, the **iron and steel industry**, shipbuilding and heavy engineering. However, during the last fifty years there has been a steady decline in the output of coal and this has led to much unemployment in Central Scotland.

~ Iron and steel industry

This is one of the major iron and steel industries of Britain and arose because of local supplies of black iron ore. Today the iron ore comes from Canada, Sweden, North and West Africa and Spain. The products of this industry include **heavy goods**, such as **plates, rails, tubes and castings**.



Dairy-milk farming industry

Dairy farms tend to be concentrated in the south west of the country where grass growth is conducive to high yields. Scotland has approximately 9% of the UK dairy herd. The UK has the third largest dairy herd in the EU after France and Germany, and the largest average herd size.



Whisky distillery

Whisky is one of Scotland's more known goods of economic activity. Principal whisky producing areas include Speyside and the Isle of Islay, where there are eight distilleries providing a major source of employment. In many places, the industry is closely linked to tourism, with many distilleries also functioning as attractions.

~Engineering

The needs of mining and shipbuilding led to the growth of heavy engineering, which now produces **bridge sections, boilers, framework for buildings, colliery equipment, locomotives, pipes and heavy electrical equipment.** In recent years **light engineering has increased (goods for aero-engines, cars, refrigerators, nuts and bolts).**

The chief towns are Glasgow, Clydebank, Bowling and Greenock.

~ Textiles

The making of cotton textiles flourished in the 19th century. The industry, although now much smaller, is still important.

Cotton-thread is made at Paisley and **shirting** and **muslin cloth** in Glasgow. The making of woollen goods is also important, especially **carpet production** in Glasgow. Other products include **linen-thread, ropes, elastic fabrics** and **fibre-glass material.**



Carpet production

This fantastic carpet was designed by a company called William C. Gray & Sons Ltd. The company grew from small beginnings in 1876. William C. Gray produced carpets on two hand looms.

6.3. The Southern Uplands

~ *Agriculture*

The River Tweed has cut deep valleys in the eastern parts of the Southern Uplands. The deep soils developed intensive mixed farming. On about half of the arable land grain crops are grown, the most important of which is barley, used for fattening beef cattle and for beer. Oats are important, but in recent years both oats and barley have declined in production. **Turnips**, potatoes and sugar-beet are also grown. Much of the produce is for sale but some is used for winter **feed** for the beef-cattle and the sheep.

~ *The woollen industry*

This industry, based on local wool has been important since the Middle Ages, but when steam-power was introduced, this region with lack of coal, suffered severe competition from the industry of the West Riding of Yorkshire.

The local **mills** began making the finest quality **hosiery, knitwear, blankets** and “**tweed**” cloth. The famous sheep are Cheviot sheep.



Tweeds are an icon of traditional Irish and British country clothing, being desirable for informal outerwear, due to the material being moisture-resistant and durable. Tweeds are made to withstand harsh climate and are commonly worn for outdoor activities such as shooting and hunting, in both Ireland and the United Kingdom.

7. WALES

The mountainous nature of Wales has always had a great influence on communications. The difficulty of movement has meant that many people have lived in remote valleys. The isolation has enabled such traditional features as the Welsh language to survive, in spite of English influence in Wales over many centuries.

The large areas of the mountainous region of Wales are sparsely populated. In these areas natural resources are few and it is difficult to gain a living. According to the density of population Wales can be divided into a number of regions:

- 1) North and Central Wales (25 people to a square mile);
- 2) The North Wales Coalfield (250-500 people to a square mile);
- 3) South Wales (over 500 people to a square mile).

7.1. North and Central Wales

The soils of the interior are generally shallow and often **acidic**. The low temperatures restrict plant growth in these poor soils and the steep slopes make **ploughing** difficult. Most of the farms are small. Most farmers keep dairy cattle on the best valley land to provide milk for the large towns outside the mountains.

In contrast to the interior, the better climate and deeper soil makes possible the growing of the greater variety of crops. Dairying is an important type of farming in this area. Other farms specialize in rearing both cattle and sheep.

As much as 25% of the farmland is devoted to the growing of arable crops. In this area of high rainfall and deep valleys dams can be constructed. From dams water is piped to large cities, such as Liverpool, Birmingham and Cardiff.

As well as providing a water supply, the conditions favour the construction of **hydro-electric schemes**.



Hydro-electric scheme

North Wales
Hydro Power was created to specialise in the development of hydroelectric schemes in Wales and throughout the whole of the UK.

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

In this region there are few traditional manufacturing industries. Little remains of the old woollen industry. In the Conway Valley there is a paper-mill and near by is **aluminium smelter**.

Recently **industrial estates** and individual factories have been built. Because of the difficult communications in this region, these new light industries usually depend on few materials brought in by road from the Midlands and Lancastria.

7.2. The North Wales Coalfield

This is situated on the north-eastern edge of the Welsh Mountains. It is a small coalfield and most of the exposed section has been worked out. Coal is supplied to industries and households in North Wales and Cheshire. The varieties of industries that have become established in the area provide enough jobs to make this the second most densely peopled part of Wales.

Metal-working grew up on the coalfield using the iron ore and lead found in the limestone of the hills. The limestone is also a raw material for the **chemical industries**. Good road and rail communications link this area with the Midlands, Lancashire and the port of Liverpool.



Port Talbot Steelworks –
*once the largest employer
in Wales.*

7.3. South Wales

The great development of industry is the chief cause for the very high density of population found in many parts of South Wales. Most of the people live in the area of the South Wales Coalfield, for here are found the most important mineral resources of the whole country. The leading industries here are: coal-mining, the metal industries (iron and steel industry, the **tin-plater industry**, the **copper industry**), the **oil industry**, etc.

~Agriculture

South Wales enjoys a warmer, milder and slightly drier climate than the mountain regions. The chief crops include barley, wheat and sugar-beet. The climate favours the growth of pastures. Cattle can be grazed outside for a long period each year and so dairying is the main type of farming in this western peninsular.

The chief towns here are: Cardiff, Swansea, and Newport.

Cardiff is the capital of Wales, located in southern Wales. Cardiff is an important seaport and industrial center. Among its manufactures are steel, machinery, **processed foods**, metal products, textiles, and paper.

In 1839 the first docks were completed and Cardiff became the world's largest port for shipping coal, an activity that has since declined. During World War II (1939-1945) the city suffered damage from German bombing. Until 1974 Cardiff was just the county town. Nowadays it is the administrative center and the seat of a local government.



Cardiff

As the capital city of Wales, Cardiff is the main engine of growth in the Welsh economy. Industry has played a major part in Cardiff's development for many centuries. The main catalyst for its transformation from a small town into a big city was the demand for coal required in iron and steel making.

8. NORTHERN IRELAND

It is often called Ulster, but the old province of this name included part of the Republic of Ireland and six counties of Northern Ireland.

The best land in Northern Ireland is found in the lowlands, where the climate is mild and about 35 inch. of rain falls each year. The main type of agriculture is mixed farming. Dairying is widespread and especially important near Belfast, which is a large market for milk, butter, cheese and cream. Beef-cattle are reared in the south-east, especially in eastern county Down, which has the driest and sunniest climate. Cattle are fattened for export alive or as meat. **Intensive pig and poultry production** takes place on the lowlands and also bacon factories and **egg-packing stations** are located in these areas. Sheep are reared on the pastures of the uplands. In some of the mountainous districts forests of conifers have been planted.

The arable farming is limited by the climate. Barley is the chief crop. It is fed to pigs and cattle. Oats, also a feed crop, grow well even on the poor soils. Potatoes, especially seed potatoes, are grown for export.

In county Armagh is the major **fruit growing area**, where apples, **blackberries**, **raspberries** and **strawberries** are produced for the local **jam-making industry**. **Market-gardening** takes place near Belfast.



Apple growing

County Armagh is known as the Orchard County because of its many apple orchards, producing about 35,000 tonnes of Bramley apples annually. Around 90 percent the crop is processed into produce such as juice, fresh slices, diced, purée and canned apples. The remainder are sold as fresh packed apples to grocers and retailers.



Market-gardening

A market garden is a business that provides a wide range and steady supply of fresh produce through the local growing season. Unlike large, industrial farms, which practice monoculture and mechanization, many different crops and varieties are grown and more manual labor and gardening techniques are used.

~Manufacturing industry

Manufacturing is much more important than farming in Northern Ireland. This development has taken place in spite of the lack of raw materials. Northern Ireland is the chief linen manufacturing region in the British Isles. The industry was established by settlers from Scotland, who used **flax**, grown in the lowlands. In the 18th century this industry was domestic, but in the 19th century mills were built alongside the rivers. Most of these factories are located along the Lagan Valley at Belfast, but they are also found in many towns. More and more flax had to be imported as the industry grew. Today, this comes from Poland and other countries, and none is grown in Northern Ireland itself. Goods such as **tablecloths, handkerchiefs, sheets and towels** are exported to the U.S.A. and other countries.

Chemical plants have been built at Londonderry and other towns. The country now is the leading producer of fibres such as **nylon** and **acrilan**. Associated with the textile industry is the making of clothing at Belfast and Londonderry. The latter is famed for its shirts and **pyjamas**.

The textile industry was at one time the chief one in Northern Ireland, but now **engineering** is more important. Belfast is the centre of shipbuilding, which was set up in 1853, and today **liners, warships, tankers** are built. Other engineering industries, which are chiefly located at Belfast, include **marine engineering**, the construction of aircrafts and **guided missiles**, textile machinery and **ventilation equipment**. Next in importance are the **food, drink and tobacco industries**.

Belfast emerged as a commercial rival to Dublin and also provided an attractive site for the shipbuilding industry. During the 1850s some enterprises began to build ships on a new, inexpensive site with capital provided by English transatlantic shipping companies. Belfast **shipyards** built many of the ships that conveyed British and Irish migrants to North America from 1860 to 1914. The ill-fated Titanic was built in Belfast.

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN



Belfast

Belfast has been very famous in the last 100 years for its ship building. Ship building was one of Belfast's biggest industries, employing thousands of people in the days of its height. Many a Belfast man has worked in the ship yards and some of the biggest and best ocean liners of the early 20th century came from Belfast. At its height, Belfast had one of the biggest shipyards in the world, employing over 30000 people.

Northern Ireland is an attractive tourist destination for golfers, fishers, horseback riders, hikers, and campers. The province has many magnificent sandy beaches, although the water is too cold and the weather too unreliable for **beach tourism** to develop on a large scale. Some important heritage centers have been established, in Belfast, Londonderry, Armagh, and Omagh. There are some world-famous natural attractions, the most famous of which are the Glens of Antrim in the northeast, the Mourne Mountains in the southeast, and Giant's Causeway, a remarkable natural feature on the north coast near the town of Bushmills. According to legend, the basalt columns of Giant's Causeway are ancient stepping stones giants used to cross the channel between Ireland and Scotland. As for the scientists they believe that these strange stones were formed during the cooling of a lava flow.

9. ENGLAND



Economically England is divided into some industrial areas:

- 1) North-west England (Cumbria);
- 2) The Pennines;
- 3) North-east England;
- 4) Lancastria;
- 5) The Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire Coalfield;
- 6) The Midlands;
- 7) The Fens and their margins;

- 8) East Anglia;
- 9) The Bristol Region;
- 10) The Thames Basin;
- 11) Greater London;
- 12) The South-West Peninsula;
- 13) The Hampshire Basin;
- 14) South-East England.

9.1. Greater London

London is the capital and the largest city of the United Kingdom, and is also the chief city of the Commonwealth. The **built-up area** of this **conurbation** is so extensive that the county of Great London was created in 1965 to administer it. This includes the area of the London County Council established in 1888, most of Middlesex and parts of Kent, Surrey, Hertfordshire and Essex.

About 15% of all the people of Great Britain live in Greater London, and 20% of the working population is employed here.

London became important as a Roman settlement, situated at the first port upstream from the mouth of the Thames, where the river could be crossed easily.

Today London is one of the worlds leading commercial centres. In the City there are the offices of many **shipping firms**, established close to the ports. Near by, large **insurance companies**, such as Lloyds, have their head offices.

Because London is the largest city in Britain it has become the most important shopping centre. Oxford Street and Regent Street are world-famous for their shops.



Greater London



Lloyds of London

Lloyds of London is an insurance market located in London's primary financial district, the City of London. The market has its roots in marine insurance and was founded by Edward Lloyd at his coffee house on Tower Street in 1686.

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

They are situated in the West End, which also contains theatres, cinemas and clubs. It is a most important tourist centre.

In addition it has the largest university in Britain, and exhibitions of manufactured goods.

~ *Communications*

Visitors can reach London easily by land, sea and air. The main trunk roads of the country converge on the capital, and many of them follow the lines of old Roman roads.

The port of London is the leading port in the British Isles; it grew up downstream of London Bridge around the Pool of London.

In the times of Elizabeth I and after, voyagers were made to establish trade with North America, the West Indies, West Africa and other countries.



The London Eye

(contributed: O. Kovalenko)

The London Eye is a giant Ferris wheel on the South Bank of the River Thames in London.



Kensington Palace (contributed: O. Kovalenko)

Kensington Palace has been a residence of the British Royal Family since the 17th century, and is presently the official London residence of the Duke and Duchess of Cambridge, Prince Harry, the Duke and Duchess of Gloucester, the Duke and Duchess of Kent, and Prince and Princess Michael of Kent. Today the State Rooms are open to the public and managed by the independent charity Historic Royal Palaces, a nonprofit organization that does not receive public funds.



The Globe Theatre (contributed: O. Kovalenko)

The Globe Theatre was a theatre in London associated with William Shakespeare. It was built in 1599 by Shakespeare's playing company, but was destroyed by fire on 29 June 1613. A second Globe Theatre was built on the same site by June 1614 and closed during the Civil War (1642-1649). A modern reconstruction of the Globe, named "Shakespeare's Globe", opened in 1997 approximately 230 m from the site of the original theatre.



Tower Bridge (contributed: O. Kovalenko)

Tower Bridge was built between 1886 and 1894. The bridge crosses the River Thames close to the Tower of London and has become an iconic symbol of London. Tower Bridge is one of five London bridges now owned and maintained by the Bridge House Estates.



Covent Garden Market

Covent Garden Market is a district of Westminster, in Greater London, on the eastern fringes of the West End. It is associated with the former fruit-and-vegetable market in the central square, now a popular shopping and tourist site, and with the Royal Opera House, which is also known as "Covent Garden". The area was briefly settled in the 7th century when it became the heart of the Anglo-Saxon trading town Lundenwic.

~ Markets

London is a major centre for the **distribution of goods**, and each day large quantities of **foodstuff** and raw materials are transported to and from many markets in Central London. Smithfield Market, established in the 12th century, handles meat and poultry. The fish market at Billingsgate was built close to the river, as at one time fish were taken there by barge. Covent Garden Market trades in fruit, vegetables and flowers.

In the city close to the docks are markets for imported goods such as sugar, tea and furs.

~ Industry

Greater London is an industrial region. It has neither local power resources such as coal nor raw materials. But it contains the greatest concentration of manufacturing industry in Britain.

Many industries came to London to supply the large local markets, for a third of the population of Britain lives in South-east England. This large population also provides the workers for the factories.

The great variety of manufacturing industries falls into a number of groups according to their location. Industries using bulky raw material, that can be easily and cheaply transported by boat are situated along the banks of the Thames and its canals. Near the Thames Estuary are large **oil refineries** and **storage tanks**. **Flour-mills** and **sugar refineries** are located alongside the river or in the docks. Most of the **electricity generating stations** uses coal that comes from North-East England by special boats.

In the East End of London there are some old-established industries, such as **furniture-making**, clothing and **printing**. Many small firms employ less than ten workers, and often occupy one room in a block of workrooms.

The “lighter” industries using less bulky material are located on or near the main roads and railways radiating out from London. These factories depend on electricity from the National Grid for power. Many use small quantities of metals, plastic and other materials to produce **electrical apparatus**, electronics equipment such as television sets and computers, **razors blades**, metal boxes and **gramophone records**. Others make cosmetics, drinks, **chemical preparations** and vehicles.

During the last forty years industrial estates have been built, especially in Middlesex, to house large number of firms. On these estates roads, factories, gas, electricity and water, and often banks and restaurants, are provided for firms who rent or buy factories.

9.2. South-east England

This region extends from Sussex coast to the North Downs and from the Kent coast to the Hampshire Basin.

The climate is very favorable to farming in the South-east where the warm sunshine ensures a good ripe crop almost every year. In spite of the presence of different types of rocks there is a great demand for food and drink of the thirteen million people who live in Greater London and South-East England.

Farming is intensive and this is the chief fruit-growing district in England and Wales. It is the leading producer of apples, cherries, pears and plums and in addition soft fruit, such as strawberries, blackcurrants, gooseberries and raspberries are grown. The main crops are barley and wheat, but the rearing and dairy cattle and sheep are also important.

The high density of population in the South-



South-east England

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

east is partly related to the high demand for labor in intensive farming, but other factors are important, for many people living there work in London and others work in local factories. Although it is rural, this region was at one time known for its manufacturing industries. Coal has been discovered in east Kent in the 20th century. It is mainly used in power stations in the South-east. The great demand for electricity in this part of England has influenced the building of two **nuclear power stations**.



South-east England resorts
The seaside resorts in England represent escape and pure pleasure for grown-ups and kids alike.

Many of the towns became highly industrialized. The main industry of this region is **catering for holiday-makers**. **Resorts** line the coast, which is within easy reach of London by road and rail. The warm summers and long hours of sunshine attract the visitors. Brighton is the largest resort, and it was there that the Prince of Wales stayed in the late 18th century and set the fashion for seaside holidays. The town has grown rapidly and with the neighboring settlements forms a small conurbation.

10. East Anglia

This region is the chief part of the British Isles; it comprises Suffolk, Norfolk and northern Essex. On the west lie the Fens and on the north and east is the sea. The name of the region is derived from the Angle Kingdom of the 6th century.

The climate of East Anglia is the main factor favoring agriculture. Warm, sunny summers help to ripen the grain. But the variety of soils developed on many types of deposits in the region enables farmers to concentrate on special crops. Here the chief crops are barley, wheat, sugar-beet and **temporary grasses**, which are grown as part of rotation.

The keeping of livestock is not an



East Anglia

important part of farming in the region. Fewer sheep are reared now than in the past, but dairy is increasing now, especially in Norfolk. Suffolk is famous for its poultry, especially turkeys and ducks.

In the Middle Ages East Anglia had a flourishing woolen industry, and local wool supplies were used to make **worsted**s (the village Worsted) and **coarse cloths**. Many of the churches were in Norfolk were built by the prosperous wool merchants. This was the chief industrial area of England until the Industrial Revolution.

In the 18th century Huguenot refugees brought the silk industry to the region, but it has also declined. In north Essex rayon and nylon are produced especially in small towns.

Many of the industries are associated with farming. Much of the production is carried out in the towns where **canning works**, **sugar factories** and **quick-freezing plants** are situated. These works have influenced the location of the chief growing areas, for crops such as sugar-beet and peas are grown within easy reach of a factory. Agricultural machinery is made at many of the large towns, although general engineering has now become the largest industry in East Anglia. The new factories produce machinery, clothing, chip boards and music printing.



Norwich

Although there are not many sheep around in East Anglia nowadays, the prosperity of this region was based on wool in the Middle Ages, and most of the churches and other old buildings were financed by this once valuable trade with Europe. Norwich, the chief town of the County of Norfolk and the only city of any size in East Anglia (at one time it was the largest city in England after London), has many fine buildings, including 32 medieval churches, and a great cathedral.



Worstead

Worsted is a high-quality type of wool yarn, the fabric made from this yarn, and a yarn weight category. The name derives from Worstead, a village in the English county of Norfolk.

Self-checking Questions



1. What are the persistent problems of the contemporary British economy?
2. What steps has the government taken to encourage economic growth?
3. What is typical for the British mixed economy?
4. What does the welfare system include?
5. When did the history of manufacturing start in Britain?
6. What are the key features of the British agriculture?
7. Why is fishing a less vital economic activity today?
8. Why is deforestation still an important problem in Great Britain?
9. What settlements are called townships?
10. What are the natural features that have favored Central Scotland?
11. Into how many regions can Wales be divided according to the density of population?
12. What are the chief manufacturing industries of Northern Ireland?
13. What part of the UK is called Greater London?
14. What is the visit card of South-east England?
15. Is East Anglia a farming part of Great Britain? Prove it.
16. Why is Northern Ireland an attractive tourist destination?
17. What are the peculiar features of London markets?
18. What is Giant's Causeway?

PRACTICAL PART



ASSIGNMENTS



1. Study the following proper names and practice their pronunciation:

The Southern Uplands [ðə 'sʌðən 'ʌpləndz] Greater London [greɪtə 'lʌndən]
 Central Scotland ['sentrəl 'skɒtlənd] The Pennines [ðə 'penɪnz]
 the Highlands and Islands [ðə 'haɪləndz ænd 'aɪləndz]
 the European Union [ðə ˌjʊərə 'pi(:)ən 'ju:njən]
 North-east England [nɔ:θ-i:st 'ɪŋglənd]
 North-west England [nɔ:θ-west 'ɪŋglənd] The Thames Basin [ðə tɛmz 'beɪsn]
 The North Wales Coalfield [ðə nɔ:θ weɪlz 'kəʊlfɪ:ld]
 The Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire Coalfield [ðə 'jɔ:kʃɪə, 'nɒtɪŋəmfʃər
 ænd 'dɑ:brɪʃə 'kəʊlfɪ:ld]
 The Fens and their margins [ðə fenz ænd ðeə 'mɑ:dʒɪnz] East Anglia [i:st 'æŋɡlɪə]
 The South-West Peninsula [ðə 'saʊθ 'west pɪ'nɪnsjələ]
 The Hampshire Basin [ðə 'hæmpʃɪə 'beɪsn] The Midlands [ðə 'mɪdləndz]
 South-East [England 'saʊθ 'i:st 'ɪŋglənd] South Wales [saʊθ weɪlz]
 The Bristol Region [ðə 'brɪstəl 'ri:dʒən] British Airways ['brɪtɪʃ 'eəweɪz]
 North and Central Wales [nɔ:θ ænd 'sentrəl weɪlz]
 British Oil Corporation ['brɪtɪʃ ɔɪl ,kɔ:pə'reɪʃən]
 the National Health Service [ðə 'næʃənəl helθ 'sɜ:vɪs]
 The Industrial Revolution [ði m'ɪndʌstriəl ,rɛvə'lu:ʃən]
 British Telecommunications ['brɪtɪʃ ,telɪkə,mju(:)nɪ'keɪʃənz]



2. Note down from the theoretical part phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme "Economy of Great Britain". Translate them into Ukrainian.



3. Find in the theoretical part the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

Industrial estates, inflation, unemployment, investment, stock exchange, high-tech industries, mixed economy, welfare system, mined mineral, manufacturing, breeding methods, smelting techniques, crop rotation techniques, steam-powered machines, gross domestic product, biological engineering, livestock farming, dairy products, arable farming, workforce, overfishing, deforestation,crofting system, township, depopulation, industrial innovations, raw materials, processed foods, market-gardening, beach tourism, conurbation, distribution of goods, catering for holiday-makers.



4. Write all you can (What? When? Where? How?) about the following concepts and proper names:

Smithfield Market, carpet production, motor-vehicle production, Regent Street, built-up area, Giant’s Causeway, Titanic, market-gardening, processed foods, Cardiff, industrial estates, hydro-electric schemes, tweed cloth, Billingsgate Market, natural features, natural water resources, townships, livelihood, fish farming, timber industry, the European Union, livestock farming, arable farming, Covent Garden Market, breeding methods, the Industrial Revolution, silk weaving, Oxford Street, public enterprises,(de)nationalization.



5. Study the industrial areas of Great Britain and their specialization; be prepared to speak about them using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme and the clichés given below table 1:

Industrial area	Chief centres and branches of industry	Agriculture
<p>1. The South-East England (26% of the total area; 41% of the total population)</p>	<p>London –oil-refining industry, ship repairing, electronics, electrical engineering, light engineering, chemicals, printing, the manufacture of clothing, food and drink.. Portsmouth – shipbuilding, petroleum-refining industry, aircraft engineering. Plymouth – shipbuilding, a naval base, resort trade. Bristol – aircraft design, oil-refining industry, brewing, non-ferrous metallurgy, paper-making, printing Oxford – university town, the producer of motor-vehicles.</p>	<p>Dairying, bacon factories, poultry farming, egg-packing stations; basic crops: barley, wheat, oats, potatoes, sugar-beet, hops, vegetables, fruits.</p>

<p>2. The Midlands (11,7 % of the total population; 15,9% of the total population)</p>	<p>Birmingham – light engineering, non-ferrous metallurgy, electronics, aircraft engineering. Coventry – electrical engineering, aircraft design, motor vehicles, agricultural machinery, machine tools, telecommunication equipment, synthetic fibres, Nottingham – hosiery, knitwear, pharmaceutical chemicals, bicycles. Derby – engineering centre, aero-engines, man-made fibres.</p>	<p>Dairying, pig-breeding, sheep-rearing, crop-growing, vegetable-growing.</p>
<p>3.The Lancashire (3% of the total area; 11,4% of the total population)</p>	<p>Manchester – cotton and man-made fibre textile industry, electrical engineering, heavy production of machine tools, pharmaceutical chemicals. Liverpool – non-ferrous metallurgy, electronics, flour milling, sugar refining, rubber products. Chester – engineering, processing of lead. Lancaster – manufacture of linoleum, flour milling.</p>	<p>Dairying, pig-breeding, poultry farming, vegetable-growing.</p>
<p>4. The Yorkshire (6,5% of the total area; 8,7% of the total population)</p>	<p>Leeds – wool industry, ready-made clothing industry, engineering, aerospace industry, motor vehicle industry, the centre of the wholesale trade. Sheffield – steel industry, cutlery, military engineering, turbine.</p>	<p>Dairying, sheep-rearing; basic crops: wheat, barley, oats; vegetable-growing.</p>
<p>5.The North-East England (6,3% of the total area; 5,7% of the total population)</p>	<p>Newcastle – steel manufacture, shipbuilding, coal-mining, engineering. Sunderland – shipbuilding, sheep-repairing, making of ropes.</p>	<p>Cattle-breeding, sheep-rearing, vegetable-growing, grain-growing.</p>
<p>6. Wales (8,5% of the total area; 5,5% of the total population)</p>	<p>Cardiff – engineering, ship-repairing, making of railway wagons, oil engines, vehicles; light industry. Swansea – metallurgy (copper, tinsplate, zinc industries); steel works, light industries. Newport – ship-repairing, coal-mining industry, steel works.</p>	<p>Cattle-breeding, sheep-rearing, oats-growing.</p>

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<p>7. Scotland (32,2% of the total area; 9% of the total population)</p>	<p>Edinburgh – electronics, light engineering, printing, pharmaceutical chemicals, rubber production, baking industry, milling industry. Glasgow – heavy industries, shipbuilding, metallurgy, production of marine engines, aero-engines, road vehicles; hosiery, wool industry / carpets /; cotton production, jam making. Aberdeen – fishing industry, food industry.</p>	<p>Dairying, sheep-rearing, wheat-growing, vegetable-growing.</p>
<p>8. Northern Ireland (5,8% of the total area; 2,8% Of the total population)</p>	<p>Belfast – shipbuilding, linen production, electronics. Londonderry – chemical industry, garment factories.</p>	<p>Pig-breeding, poultry-farming, sheep-rearing, sugar beet.</p>

a major producer of	to be a vital economic activity
to be engaged in manufacturing	the overall standard of living
to decline in production	intensive agriculture
a center of world trade and finance	to be determined by
to face a problem	to cause a decline (hardship) in industry
to encourage economic growth	the source of employment
to be operated by	an attractive tourist destination
to encourage competition in economy	to be imported
to be exhausted,	to be exported
to depend on farming and fishing	to be suitable for
to graze livestock	to increase productivity
to lack mineral resources	to be forested
intensive mixed farming	to be limited by the climate
to provide consumers with affordable food	the leading industries
to be next in importance	to specialize in
to emerge as an important industry (as a commercial rival)	to gain a living



6. *Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.*

Великобританія була батьківщиною промислової революції, вона ж першою пройшла трансформацію від трудо-, енерго- та матеріалоемної економіки до розвитку сучасних наукоємних галузей промисловості та сфери послуг.

Втративши світове лідерство у старих галузях (вугільна промисловість, металургія, суднобудування, виробництво текстилю), Британія не змогла втримати світове лідерство, бо товари, що вироблялись у нових галузях, були неконкурентоспроможними на світовому ринку.

Незважаючи на всі економічні та соціальні потрясіння, Велика Британія залишається одним із світових лідерів з виробництва споживчих товарів, надання фінансово-кредитних послуг, експорту капіталу, новітніх наукових розробок у військовій, космічній галузях, енергозберігаючих та комунікаційних технологіях.

Економічні райони Великобританії можна згрупувати за особливостями спеціалізації. Найпотужнішим промисловим районом з розвинутим портовим господарством є Південна Англія. Тут розташована могутня агломерація Великий Лондон, славетні університетські центри Оксфорд та Кембридж, а на узбережжі – курортні міста.

Індустріально-аграрною є західна частина району з промисловим вузлом Брістолем. В центральній Англії склалися індустріальні райони Мідленд, Йоркшир і Ланкашир. Переважно аграрною є Північна Англія. Уельс, Шотландія та Північна Ірландія переживають складні економічні проблеми. Для них характерні значні проблеми із зайнятістю населення.

В Уельсі на базі кам'яновугільного басейну працює металургійна промисловість, сільське господарство спеціалізується на розведенні великої рогатої худоби та овець. У Шотландія розвинуте суднобудування, металургія, текстильна і електротехнічна промисловість. Північна Ірландія (Ольстер) – найбільша соціальна проблема Великобританії внаслідок протистояння католиків і протестантів. Тут найнижчі показники економічного розвитку. У Північній Ірландії найвища в країні зайнятість у сільському господарстві та найвищий рівень безробіття.



GENERALIZING TEST

1. Northern Ireland is the main ... manufacturing region.
 - a) coal
 - b) food
 - c) linen
 - d) iron
2. Kent is famous for its
 - a) milk and cheese
 - b) fruit
 - c) tobacco
 - d) meat and fish
3. Woollen industry is the chief industry of
 - a) Scotland
 - b) Wales
 - c) Northern Ireland
 - d) England
4. Londonderry is the chief town of
 - a) textile industry
 - b) iron and steel industry
 - c) tobacco industry
 - d) food industry
5. "Black country" is in
 - a) Wales
 - b) England
 - c) Scotland
 - d) Northern Ireland
6. Geographically Scotland is divided into ... parts:
 - a) three
 - b) four
 - c) two
 - d) five
7. Wales can be divided into a number of regions according to...
 - a) industrial areas
 - b) density of population
 - c) mineral resources

- d) historical division
8. Belfast is the world famous centre of ...
- a) shipbuilding
 - b) coalmining
 - c) chemicals
 - d) metal working
9. The main type of agriculture in Northern Ireland is ...
- a) arable farming
 - b) specialized farming
 - c) mixed farming
 - d) meat farming
10. The “visit card” of Wales is ...
- a) linen
 - b) gas
 - c) oil
 - d) coal



TESTS IN THEMATIC VOCABULARY

Test 1. *Choose the one word or phrase that best keeps the meaning of the original sentence if it is substituted for the capitalized word or phrase:*

1. Today manycrofting households still live in scattered SETTLEMENTS called “townships”.
- a) colonies
 - b) towns
 - c) hedges
 - d) destinations

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

2. The region lacks coal deposits but the natural water resources are used to PROVIDE power.

- a) withstand
- b) scatter
- c) supply
- d) attract

3. Coal is not the only PRODUCE of this region.

- a) estate
- b) crop
- c) mill
- d) output

4. Many of the industries DECLINED in the 1930s during the economic depression.

- a) went up
- b) went bad
- c) went good
- d) went over

5. Among the cotton-manufacturing towns where MAN-MADE FIBRES are produced the most important are: Bolton, Stockport and Oldham.

- a) artificial fibres
- b) linen fibres
- c) woolen fibres
- d) muslin fibres

6. Beef-cattle and sheep are REARED on the hills.

- a) fed
- b) raised
- c) grown
- d) brought up

7. On the hills POOR soils and cooler weather make the land suitable only for sheep-rearing.

- a) shallow

- b) deep
- c) acid
- d) barren

8. The conifers, pine and larch grow well in the poor soils and can WITHSTAND the severe weather.

- a) submit
- b) resist
- c) relinquish
- d) forgo

9. In this area of high rainfall and deep valleys DAMS can be constructed.

- a) dikes
- b) canals
- c) ponds
- d) rivers

10. The climate favours the growth of PASTURES.

- a) estates
- b) greenlands
- c) hills
- d) valleys

11. MANUFACTURING industry is much more important than farming in Northern Ireland.

- a) processing
- b) cultivating
- c) remaking
- d) developing

12. The development of this industry has taken place in spite of the lack of RAW materials.

- a) cooked
- b) derived
- c) ready
- d) primary

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

13. The main trunk roads of the country CONVERGE on the capital.

- a) cross
- b) meet
- c) lead
- d) develop

14. London is a major centre for the DISTRIBUTION of goods.

- a) dispensing
- b) manufacturing
- c) importing
- d) exporting

15. Smithfield Market, established in the 12th century, HANDLES meat and poultry.

- a) exports
- b) imports
- c) produces
- d) trades

16. Covent Garden Market TRADES in fruit, vegetables and flowers.

- a) handles
- b) produces
- c) imports
- d) exports

17. Some industries use BULKY raw material, it can be easily and cheaply transported by boat.

- a) high
- b) solid
- c) heavy
- d) light

18. Belfast shipyards built many of the ships that CONVEYED British and Irish migrants to North America.

- a) transformed
- b) transported

- c) transmit
d) transuded

Test 2. *Fill in the blanks with the following words. You may use each word only once:*

quantities energy mined oil fuel employees source
nuclear manufactured hydroelectric offshore wind exports gas

Britain has more resources than any other country in the European Union, mostly in the form of and natural Other energy sources include coal and power. Scotland has some power stations. Some alternative energy sources, notably farms, are being developed in various parts of Britain. In 1996 about 3.5 percent of industrial were involved in energy production.

Oil was discovered in the North Sea in 1969. By the 1980s it was adding significantly to the British economy as oil increased during a period of high oil prices.

In 1997 Britain had more than 80 oil fields. The country also owns some onshore wells, but these are far less productive.

Gas has been used since the 19th century in London and other places, but it was from coal. Since the 1960s, when offshore gas fields were discovered, natural gas has been used.

Coal was Britain's traditional of energy for about 300 years. It was the main source of during the Industrial Revolution, when it was used, and exported in large

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

Test 3. Sort out the following thematic vocabulary in three columns:

branches of industry	raw material	produce
e.g. shipbuilding	coal	towels

electrical engineering	barley	colliery equipment
ship repairing	light engineering	printing
wheat	aircraft design	locomotives
oil-refining industry	sugar-beet	bridge sections
boilers	oats	heavy engineering
brewing	plates	petroleum-refining industry
rails	tubes	castings
aero engines	cars	refrigerators
non-ferrous metallurgy	nuts and bolts	ropes
paper-making	motor vehicles	agricultural machinery
machine tools	linen-thread	telecommunication equipment
synthetic fibres	hosiery	knitwear
pharmaceutical chemicals	bicycles	man-made fibres
textile industry	flour milling	sugar refining
rubber production	processing of lead	manufacture of linoleum
wool industry	grain	ready-made clothing industry
beer	blankets	“tweed” cloth
metal-working	iron ore	limestone
tin-plater industry	steel industry	copper industry
oil industry	milk	dairy industry
turbine	military engineering	zinc
rope making	railway wagons	baking industry
marine engines	carpets	wool
flax	jam making	linen
fruit	fishing industry	food industry
garments	cheese	cream
bacon	canning industry	tablecloths
guided missiles	handkerchiefs	sheets
pyjamas	shirts	liners
tobacco industry	warships	ventilation equipment

Test 4. Match the definition with the correct word:

1. township	a) (of land) being or capable of being tilled for the production of crops
2. raw material	b) goods that require infrequent replacement
3. manufacture	c) a business unit, a company or firm
4. tax	d) any substance, such as manure or a mixture of nitrates, added to soil or water to increase its productivity
5. mixed farming	e) goods or services that are bought from foreign countries
6. enterprise	f) the work or occupation in which a person is employed
7. welfare	g) the art or sport of catching fish with a rod and line and a baited hook or other lure
8. output	h) goods or services sold to a foreign country or countries
9. pasture	i) a compulsory financial contribution imposed by a government to raise revenue, levied on the income or property of persons or organizations, on the production costs or sales prices of goods and services
10. livestock	j) financial and other assistance given to people in need
11. arable	k) the material produced, manufactured, yielded
12. fertilizers	l) the total number of workers employed by a company on a specific job
13. import	m) an article of clothing
14. employment	n) material on which a particular manufacturing process is carried out
15. angling	o) cattle, horses, poultry, and similar animals kept for domestic use but not as pets
16. garment(s)	p) land covered with grass or herbage and grazed by or suitable for grazing by livestock
17. durable goods	q) combined arable and livestock farming
18. workforce	r) a smallcrofting community
19. export	s) the production of goods, especially by industrial processes

3. ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

Test 5. Find the synonyms and group them correspondingly:

Goods, stock, pasture, arable, sporting, engineering, rich, decrease, farming, trade, coal field, hosiery, manufacturing, dam, rearing, hydroelectric power station, ware, clothes, harvest, produce, ploughing, agriculture, craft, production, output, breeding, garments, , water power station, hunting, weir, grazing, fertile, crop, coal basin, decline, supplies, machine building, knitwear, hydro-electric scheme.

Test 6. Complete each of the following sentences with one of the words below:

Engineering monopoly hill-sheep farmland market gardening
manufacturing hand knitting mining crops hydroelectric
power

1. Glasgow is the centre of a great variety of industries.
2. The industry contributes greatly to the Islands' prosperity.
3. The development of is important as it brings light and power to the whole region.
4. The Highland population concentrates principally on farming.
5. The most extensive are wheat, barley, oats and mixed corn.
6. At one period Wales enjoyed a world in the manufacture of tin-plate.
7. in Cardiff includes ship-repairing and making of railway wagons, oil engines and vehicles.
8. The high quality of Welsh coal made in this area more costly than in other parts of Britain.
9. In the lower valleys..... is richer and settlements are larger.
10. Hampshire is particularly noted for, strawberries and flowers being especially prominent.



 4. THE HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN 

THEORETICAL PART



PRELIMINARY DISCUSSION

- What peoples settled the British Isles before the Norman invasion?
- How was the territory of the United Kingdom formed?
- What effect did the Norman Conquest have upon the development of feudalism in England?
- What kind of document was Magna Carta?
- What does the concept “parliamentary democracy” mean in Britain?
- What did the concept “divine right of kings” mean?
- What were the causes of the Civil War?
- What impact did the Industrial Revolution have on the British society?
- Who were the chartists?
- Who were the suffragettes?

PART I

1. THE FORMATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM 

The proper title of Britain is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Great Britain consists of England, Scotland and Wales. Not belonging to the United Kingdom, but existing as **dependencies** of the English Crown, are the Channel Islands, which lie to the south-west across the English Channel off the coast of France, and the Isle of Man, which is in the Irish Sea.

At least two parts of the United Kingdom became joined to England through **conquest**.

The first was Wales, a country in which *Edward I* of England (1239-1307) **waged** a long war during the 13th century.



Edward I of England (1239-1307)

Edward I is also known as Edward Longshanks was King of England from 1272 to 1307. He spent much of his reign reforming royal administration and common law.

In 1301, he “gave” to Wales his eldest son (later to become *Edward II*) as Prince of Wales, as all the native Welsh princes had been killed in the war. Twenty-one sons of English **monarchs** have been Princes of Wales.

The second conquered country was Ireland, a tragic land, where for centuries the people were cruelly treated by their English **masters**. Ireland became part of the United Kingdom in 1801. Over a century later, in 1922, after years of fighting by Irish patriots, twenty-six counties in the south became a separate country called *the Irish Free State*: this name has now been changed to *the Republic of Ireland*.

The other six counties in the north-east remained within the United Kingdom. These counties are called *Northern Ireland*, or sometimes *Ulster* – the name of the ancient **kingdom** which existed some two thousand years ago in much the same area as Northern Ireland now occupies.

Scotland became joined to England in 1603, when *James VI* (1566-1625), King of Scotland, also became *James I* of England.



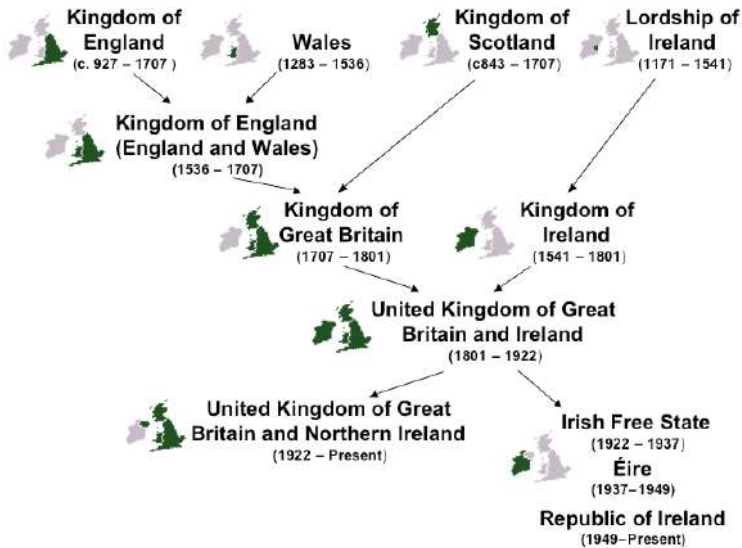
James I (1566-1625)

In Scotland, James was "James the sixth, King of Scotland", until 1604. He was proclaimed "James the first, King of England, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith" in London on 24 March 1603. On 20 October 1604, James issued a proclamation at Westminster changing his style to "King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, etc." The style was not used on English statutes, but was used on proclamations, coinage, letters, treaties, and in Scotland. James styled himself "King of France", in line with other monarchs of England between 1340 and 1800, although he did not actually rule France.

However, for nearly a century afterwards, the two countries were separate as far as government was concerned. They had separate **government departments** and also separate **laws** and **churches**. Even when, in 1707, England and Scotland were officially joined in “The United Kingdom of Great Britain”, Scotland kept her own church and her own laws, which she still has to this day.

All four parts of the United Kingdom send members to Parliament in London.

The Channel Islands and the Isle of Man also have their own Parliaments, as well as their own systems of taxations.



The formation of the United Kingdom

2. THE PEOPLE OF BRITAIN

2.1. Overall review

In the years before the Norman Conquest of 1066, Wales, Scotland and Ireland were inhabited by some of the same **immigrants** from continental Europe as England. A glance at people's appearance today could reveal just who some of these immigrants were.

If the eyes and hair are brown, then somewhere far back in that person's family there may have been one of the Roman soldiers who **invaded** Britain in AD 43 or helped rule it until the early 5th century, when the Roman armies were recalled to Rome.

A tall person with a broad head suggests **ancestry** that may go even further back, to the **invasions** of a **tribe** which crossed the Channel from the Low Countries some time between 1900 and 1800 BC.

Black hair may reveal **descent** from the Celts, who came to Britain in two great invasions, in about 600 and 400 BC. It was the Celts who brought with them the foot plough, a farming implement which can still be seen in use in parts of north-west Scotland. As for the Celts they are the people who dominated much of western and central Europe in the 1st millennium bc. They gave their language, **customs**, and **religion** to the other peoples of that area. In **medieval** and **modern times** the Celtic tradition and languages survived in Brittany (in western France), Wales, the Scottish Highlands, and Ireland.



Hadrian's Wall

Roman Emperor Hadrian (ad 117–138) ordered the construction of a wall in northern Britain, then part of the Roman Empire, to keep out the unconquered Caledonians of Scotland.



Celtic Cross

This Celtic cross near the Shannon River in Ireland, with its elaborate stylized relief of earth gods and woodland spirits, illustrates how the Celtic people preserved many of their Druidic beliefs.

The word *Celt* is derived from Keltói, the name given to these people by Herodotus and other Greek writers. To the Romans, the Continental Celts were known as Galli, or Gauls; the Celts in the British Isles were called Britanni.



Objects of Celtic Life

Celtic objects found in archaeological digs indicate the Celts inhabited what is now France and western Germany in the late Bronze Age, around 1200 bc. The bronze helmet (top center) probably belonged to a high-ranking Celtic warrior. Its hollow horns were made of riveted sheets of bronze, and the helmet was probably more for display than battle. The shiny sheath (third from left) also was made from sheets of bronze riveted together and had a birch-bark lining.



Viking Raiding Party

Viking ships, because of their shallow draft, were able to successfully navigate rivers and streams that many other vessels could not. This allowed the Vikings to raid settlements far upriver from the sea, settlements that frequently were not prepared for an attack from the water.

When the skin is dark-toned, there may be some connection with the Phoenicians from North Africa, who are thought to have settled in Cornwall. And in some Britons today, the tall, blond, blue-eyed characteristics still exist of Viking **warriors** from Scandinavia who crossed the North Sea to Britain in the 9th and 10th centuries. Vikings were the Nordic **peoples**: Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians. They **raided** and settled in large areas of eastern and western Europe during a period of about 800 to 1100 ad.

Other invaders were the Angles and Jutes (from Denmark), Saxons (from north Germany and Holland), Belgae (from France) and the short, dark **settlers** from the Mediterranean who came by sea to Wales and western England. Belgae were **bellicose people of antiquity**, who lived mainly in the region of the English Channel and the North sea (now Belgium is part of northeastern France, and a portion of the Netherlands). Jutes were the people of early Germanic tribe of Denmark or northern Germany. They participated in the conquest of southeastern Britain with the Angles and Saxons during the 5th century ad. These people were the **inhabitants** of Jutland (the territory of modern Denmark and part of Germany).

Iberians were the first inhabitants of Wales. Iberians themselves were ancient people of eastern and southern Spain. The Iberian Peninsula, comprising Spain and Portugal, takes its name from them. The first **historical references** to the Iberians date from the 6th century bc. Then they were succeeded by Celts, first of the Gaelic **division**, and then of the Cymric division. At the time of the coming of the Romans in 55 bc, the tribes of Wales represented a mixture of the primitive Iberians with the later invading Celts. They had the general name of Cymry.



King Arthur's Round Table

In Arthurian legend, based on stories about the Anglo-Saxon hero King Arthur, the Round Table at Camelot served as a gathering place for Arthur's knights. The table's shape ensured that all who sat around it were equals. This replica of the Round Table can be seen at Winchester Castle in England.

Picts were the ancient inhabitants of central and northern Scotland and of Northern Ireland. They were of rather short stature and of dark complexion. They are believed to have arrived in Scotland from the Continent about 1000 bc and in Ireland from Scotland about ad 200.

The original presence of these different peoples is revealed by the names of such towns as Colchester, Manchester or Leicester. These began as Roman **camps**: *castra* (anglicized to *-cester* or *-chester*) was the Latin word for camp.

The names of towns like Hastings and Worthing suggest Anglo-Saxon **origin**; and in the eastern half of England, the area closest to the original Viking **homeland** of Scandinavia, place names which come from these brave **seafarers** are plentiful. The ending *-by*, as in Grimsby, indicates a township; *-toft* in North meant **homestead**—hence the name Lowestoft; *-thorpe* (an offshoot from the original settlement) appears in such names as Scunthorpe or Cleethorpes; while the Viking word-ending for a creek or bay — *wick*- appears in such a name as Berwick.

Of the four countries in the United Kingdom, England was the easiest to invade from Europe. That part of the English coast which faces Europe is relatively flat and offers many natural landing places and harbours. Also, flowing back from the coast is a number of rivers which made it easier for immigrants to enter the country and set up **communities**.

In contrast, the Scottish Highlands, or the craggy hill country of Wales, as well as the Welsh marshes, presented a less attractive prospect to would-be settlers. The Romans, for example, never established any **permanent settlements** in Scotland and the Anglo-Saxons settled only in a small part of the country. And the Normans never made much **headway** in Wales or Ireland, and, as a result, left little of their influence behind.

Ireland, of course, was even less inviting, because settlers from the mainland had to brave the Irish Sea crossing. Its treacherous coastal waters and violent gales made Ireland difficult to reach safely and few, apart from the Vikings, were brave enough to attempt it.

So it is in Wales, Ireland and Scotland that the characteristics of the Celts, the people who reached Britain before any of the others, are most clearly seen today.

2.2. The Primitive Communal System

For some hundreds of thousands of years people lived under the **primitive communal system**. Labour gradually changed the life of man. The Iberians knew only **stone tools** and **weapons**; the Celts produced tools of metal—first, of bronze, that is, a mixture of copper and tin, and, later, of much harder metal, iron.

The improved tools of labour brought about important changes in the living conditions of primitive man. The Iberians had gathered or hunted their food, but the Celts began to tame and breed animals, to till the soil. Iron ploughs could cut the soil deeper, and so they could cultivate not only the light soil of the chalk downs but also the rich heavy soil in the valleys. They grew more and more corn. They began to build dwellings and to make clothing. They learned the art of pottery.

The life of the Celts differed greatly from that of the Iberians. But both the Iberians and the Celts lived under the primitive system. At all stages of its development primitive society had very much in common: the primitive people **worked collectively** in **clans** or family communities; they owned common property and were all equal.



Celtic cross

The Celtic cross is a form of Christian cross featuring a nimbus or ring that emerged in Ireland and Britain in the Early Middle Ages. A type of ringed cross, it became widespread through its use in the stone high crosses erected across the islands, especially in regions evangelized by Irish missionaries, from the 9th through the 12th centuries.



Celtic art symbols

Typically, Celtic art is ornamental, avoiding straight lines and only occasionally using symmetry, without the imitation of nature central to the classical tradition, often involving complex symbolism. Celtic art has used a variety of styles and has shown influences from other cultures in their knotwork, spirals, key patterns, lettering, zoomorphics, plant forms and human figures.

The related members of the clan jointly owned their **hunting-grounds**, lands, rivers and lakes. They worked together and shared the products of their labour. All food was divided equally among the members of the clan. Their tools were primitive and the labour productivity was low.

All the **tribesmen** became **warriors** in war-time, but in time of peace they hunted, tamed and bred animals and tilled the soil. A tribe was governed by a **council of elders**. The council distributed hunting- and fishing-grounds and tillable lands among the family communities and settled all disputes. The elders acted in the interests of the whole tribe. They were obeyed and trusted by all. They called meetings of all the tribesmen to discuss the most important problems.

In primitive society there was no **private property**; therefore there were no classes and no **exploitation**. Since there were no classes there was no state system, that is, no **armed forces**, no **prisons**, no **courts**, no **overseers**, no government bodies.

In the last centuries bc and in the first centuries ad the Celts were in a period of transition from primitive communal society to class society. The elders, military leaders and their warriors made up the **tribal nobility**. They were beginning to seize much land for themselves and they had more cattle than the other members of the clan. But still the communal way of life predominated among them.

2.3. Roman Influence in Britain

As a result of the conquest signs of Roman **civilization** spread over Britain. There had been no towns in Britain before the Romans conquered it. The civilized Romans were **city dwellers**, and as soon as they had conquered Britain they began to build towns, splendid villas, public baths as in Rome itself. York, Gloucester, Lincoln and London became the chief Roman towns; there were also about fifty other smaller towns. London which had been a small **trading settlement** before the conquest now became a centre for trade both by road and river. Colchester, Gloucester, York and Lincoln sprang up round the Roman military camps. The towns grew up as markets and centres of administration. In most towns there were market-places and plenty of shops where **merchants** sold their goods. The rich merchants and officials had luxurious houses which contained many rooms, with mosaic floors and central heating. Every Roman town had a drainage system and a good supply of pure water. **Temples** and **public baths** could be found in most towns. The Roman towns were military stations surrounded by walls for **defence** which were guarded by the Roman warriors.

The Romans were great **road-makers** and now a network of roads connected all parts of the country. One of the chief roads was Watling Street which ran from Dover to London, then to Chester and into Wales. Along the roads new towns and villages sprang up.



Roman roads

The Romans were noted for their straight roads that hardly deviated in course from one town to another no matter how far apart they were.



Ancient roman Britain

Although native British craftspeople were very skilled in their work, the Romans introduced new techniques for making things in materials like pottery, metal and glass to Britain. The craftspeople of Roman Britain worked in a great variety of materials including stone, metals, wood and clay. Their tools were simple compared to those used today, but still capable of making things which were useful and sometimes extremely beautiful. Metalworkers produced everyday items like tools, nails and horse harness, but also made weapons and jewellery. Metalworkers, especially blacksmiths, were thought to have magical powers because they could make things by controlling the fires in their hearths and forges.

Great tracts of forest were cleared, swamps were drained, and corn-fields took their place. The province of Britain became one of the **granaries** of the Roman Empire.

A constant trade was carried on with other parts of the empire. The chief exports were corn, lead, tin, and building tiles. The goods were sent in wagons along the roads of Britain, Gaul and Italy to Rome. Britain imported luxury goods, especially fine **pottery** and metalware.

But together with a high civilization the Romans brought exploitation and **slavery** to the British Isles. Rich Romans had villas in the country with large estates, which were worked by slaves. Prisoners of war were sent to the slave-market in the Roman Empire. The free Celts were not turned into slaves but they had to pay heavy taxes to the **conquerors** and were made to work for them. The Romans made them clean forests, drain swamps, build roads, bridges and walls for defence.

Among the Celts themselves inequality began to grow — the tribal chiefs and nobility became richer than other members of the tribe. Many of them became officials acting for Rome. Tribal chiefs who submitted were appointed to rule their people as before, but now they acted in the name of

the Roman Emperor. The noble Celts lived in rich houses and they dressed as Romans. They were proud to wear **the toga** which was the sign of being a Roman citizen. They spoke Latin, the language of the Romans. But the ordinary Celts went on living in their tiny huts; they spoke their native Celtic language and didn't understand the language of their rulers.

3. THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Though modern English is spoken all over the United Kingdom, there are also the "native" languages of Scotland, Ireland, Wales and the Isle of Man, all of which are Celtic in origin.

The English language is a **mixture of tongues**. English comes from a common *Indo-European* language. About 4,500 years ago, the people who spoke varying forms of this language split into groups that drifted into Europe and parts of Asia. Different speech communities developed, giving rise to several languages including *Latin*. From Latin many languages spoken in Europe today developed.

Many years ago the British Isles were inhabited by people who spoke Celtic languages. These languages still survive in Scotland, Wales and Ireland, and Brittany in France. The Celts were conquered by Romans and Latin became the language of government for 500 years.

In the V century Anglo-Saxons arrived from Europe and **occupied** most of England and parts of Scotland. The Anglo-Saxons spoke *Germanic* language which forms the basis of modern English.

This language **was modified** by Vikings who came in the VIII century. They spoke *Old North* which was related to Anglo-Saxons. The mixing of two languages **enriched** the vocabulary of English. From Scandinavia came such words as *skirt, skill, window, leg, birth, they, their, them*. Over 900 words of Scandinavian origin have survived in Modern Standard English.

The French-speaking Normans conquered England in 1066. *French* became the language of government. For 300 years *3 languages* co-existed. The **aristocracy** spoke *French*, the common people spoke *English* and *Latin* was used in the church. Very often we have two words that go back to the same Latin original – one brought in by the Normans, and one taken in directly. For example, words such as *paint* and *picture*.

**William Caxton (c. 1422 – c. 1491)**

William Caxton was an English merchant, diplomat, writer and printer. He is thought to be the first Englishman to introduce a printing press into England, in 1476, and was the first English retailer of printed books.

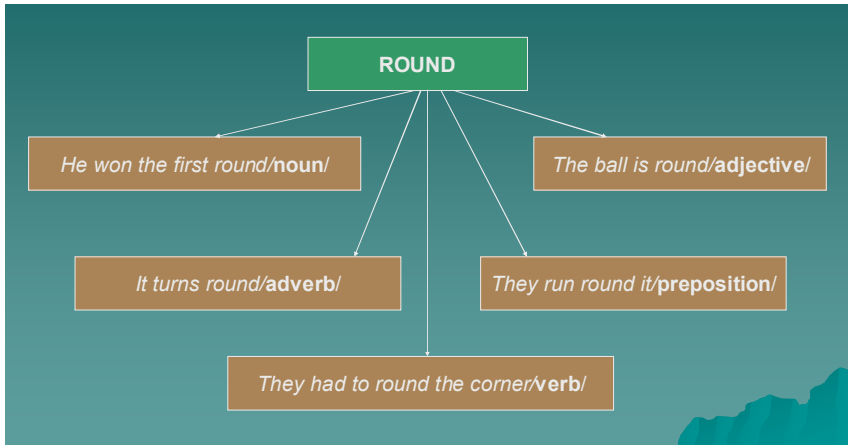
The Anglo-Saxons spoke the simple countryman's language and in Modern English simple everyday words are mostly Anglo-Saxon, like **eat, land, house** and others. But as there were no English words to describe the more complicated feudal relations many words were adopted from the French language. Thus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

Several factors contributed to establishing **Standard English spelling**. These factors included the introduction of the **printing press** into England in 1477 by William Caxton, the **revival of interest** in literature, and growth of popular education. The need for standardization was recognized in the 13th century. The London **dialect** was gradually adopted from the four main dialects as the basis for Standard English. The choice was made because *the London dialect* was the language of contracts and commerce and the **speech of the ruling court**. All official documents originated there were written in the London dialect. The translation of *the Book of Common Prayer* and the King James version of *the Bible* became tremendous forces for **elevated English**.

Today English vocabulary is *half Germanic and half Romance*. It has a lot of **borrowings** from other languages due to openness of vocabulary.

Old English was highly **inflected language**. Some modern forms still inflect, but much less than in other European languages. The trend towards

simplicity of forms is a strength of English. Another strength is **the flexibility of function** of words. E.g.



The flexibility of function of the word “round” in English

Self-checking Questions



1. What was the first country to be joined to England through conquest?
2. Where did the Jutes, Saxons and Angles live before their migration to Britain?
3. Why did the primitive people have to live collectively?
4. What did the primitive people own jointly?
5. What were the main differences between the slave owning system and the primitive communal social system?
6. By what means did the Romans secure their position in Britain?
7. How did the Roman way of life influence the life of the Celts?
8. What kind of record was the Domesday Book?

PRACTICAL PART



ASSIGNMENTS



1. Study the following proper names and practice their pronunciation:

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	[ðə jʊˈnaɪtɪd ˈkɪŋdəm ɒv greɪt ˈbrɪtn ænd ˈnɔːðənˈaɪələnd]	
Prince of Wales [prɪns ɒv weɪlz]		Ulster [ˈʌlstə]
the Irish Free State [ði ˈaɪrɪʃ friː stɛt]		Edward I [ˈɛdwəd ðə fɜːst]
the Republic of Ireland [ðə rɪˈpʌblɪk ɒv ˈaɪələnd]		James I [dʒeɪmz ðə fɜːst]
Parliament [ˈpɑːləmənt]		the Celts [ðə kɛltz]
the Norman Conquest [ðə ˈnɔːmən ˈkɒŋkwɛst]		the Danes [ðə deɪnz]
the Romans [ðə ˈrəʊmənz]		the Angles [ði ˈæŋɡlz]
the Swedes [ðə swiːdz]		
the Norwegians [ðə nɔːˈwiːdʒənz]		the Jutes [ðə dʒuːts]
the Mediterranean [ðə ˌmɛdɪtəˈreɪnjən]		the Saxons [ðə ˈsæksnz]
The Iberians [ði aɪˈbɪəriənz]		the Picts [ðə pɪkts]
The Iberian Peninsula [ði aɪˈbɪəriən pɪˈnɪnsjələ]		the Vikings [ðə ˈvaɪkɪŋz]
the Book of Common Prayer [ðə bʊk ɒv ˈkɒmən preə]		
William Caxton [ˈwɪljəm ˈkækstən]		the Bible [ðə ˈbaɪbl]



2. Note down from the theoretical part phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme “The history of Great Britain”. Translate them into Ukrainian.



3. Find in the theoretical part the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

Dependency, monarch, conquest, ancestry, descent, custom, warrior, bellicose people, camp, community, clan, tribesmen, council of elders, exploitation, overseer, tribal nobility, merchant, temple, granary, slavery, toga.



4. Write all you can (What? When? Where? How?) about the following concepts and proper names:

Prince of Wales, the Irish Free State, kingdom, Edward I, James I, government departments, the Roman soldiers, the Celts, the Viking warriors, bellicose people of antiquity, inhabitants of Jutland, the Gaelic division, the Anglo-Saxons, permanent settlements, primitive communal system, hunting-grounds, council of elders, private property, tribal nobility, trading settlement, the Roman Empire, Indo-European language, Standard English spelling.



5. Study the theoretical material of Part I and fill in table 1.

Table 1

Countries joined to	Dates	Events
England		
Wales		
Scotland		
Ireland		



6. Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.

Стародавні кельти населяли великі області в Європі. Перші згадки про цей народ зустрічаються в джерелах V-IV століть до нової ери. Зокрема, про кельтів згадує давньогрецький історик Геродот, розповідаючи про особливості племінних відносин, про їхні міста і культури, що вирізнялася яскравою своєрідністю.

У культурному житті кельтського суспільства важливу роль грали жерці – друїди. Вони були досить замкнутим співтовариством, що володіло серйозним політичним і релігійним впливом. Вважається, що друїди походили з древнього роду аристократів, що звалися вершниками. Влада жерців поширювалася на багато сторін життя суспільства. У функції друїдів входило керівництво релігійними церемоніями і ритуалами. Жерці відповідали за виховання підростаючого покоління. Тривалий час серед кельтів існувала релігійна заборона на писемність, тому інформація зазвичай

поширювалася у вигляді сказань, що передавалися від людини до людини. Найчастіше сказання приймали форму древніх міфів і легенд про казкових істот, наділених надприродною силою. З великою повагою кельти ставилися до сил природи.

Спадщину кельтів в галузі мистецтва важко назвати численною. У більш-менш хорошому стані до теперішнього часу дійшли вироби з бронзи, золота і срібла. А ось предмети з дерева та шкіри збереглися лише частково, оскільки були сильно зруйновані часом. Також до сучасності дійшли предмети художньої культури, що дуже добре відображають життя кельтів. На посуді кельтів можна зустріти прикраси у вигляді листків пальми і лотоса, що вказує на зв'язок племен з південними областями. Кельти багато прикрашали свою зброю і піхви мечів, використовуючи гравіювання та штампування. У більш пізній період при оформленні озброєння стали використовуватися образи живих істот: лева, оленя, коня або казкового сфінкса.



7. Be prepared to speak about these tribes using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme and the following clichés:

to participate in the conquest
 to be inhabited
 to be recalled
 to be closely associated with
 to dominate
 to be derived from
 anthropometric characteristics
 bellicose people
 to be succeeded by
 permanent settlements
 to make much (little) headway in
 to tame and breed animals
 to cultivate (till) the soil
 to work collectively in clans
 to act in the interests of
 to be turned into slaves

to reveal descent from
 historical references
 to fall under control
 to be ruled by
 exploitation and slavery
 to navigate rivers
 to raid the settlements
 to invade
 primitive tribes
 to build dwellings
 tribesmen
 city dwellers
 a military camp
 the council of elders
 warriors
 a trading settlement



The Celts



The Vikings



The Anglo-Saxons



The Picts



The Romans



The Iberians

PART II

1. THE NORMAN CONQUEST

The Celts, Anglo-Saxons, Vikings and other immigrants to Britain were the “raw material” which formed the British people. The final **wave of invaders** – the Norman French – shaped that “raw material” into the kind of nation we know today.

The England of which William the Conqueror (1027-1287) became king after the Battle of Hastings in 1066 was mainly a land of forests, dotted with tracts of bleak moorland and uninhabitable marshes. Less than one and a half million people lived in it.

In general, these people were more conscious of being men and women of Sussex, Wessex or Mercia than of being “English”. This was not really surprising because most people lived in villages, many of which were very isolated. Some were so remote that it is possible that by the time William was crowned king on Christmas Day 1066, two months after the invasion, many people had not even heard that he had landed.

William’s **coronation ceremony** was just like an Anglo-Saxon one. Although he had taken the country by force, he did not want to alter its customs. William tried to organize a government in which Normans and English could take an equal part. Unfortunately, this did not work. There were many **armed rebellions** which William was forced to crush, and **harsh military rule** had to be imposed.

**The Battle of Hastings
(1066)**

The scene from the Bayeux Tapestry, made in the 11th century.



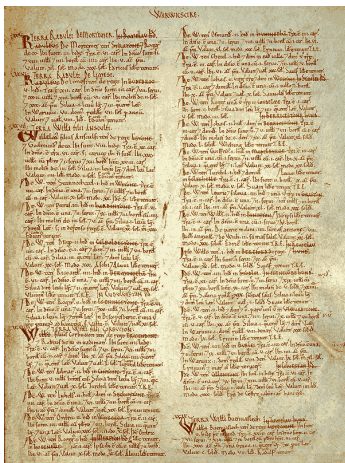
William I of England(1027-1087)

His reign, which brought Norman culture to England, had an enormous impact on the subsequent course of England in the Middle Ages. In addition to political changes, his reign also saw changes to English law, a programme of building and fortification, changes to the vocabulary of the English language, and the introduction of continental European feudalism into England.

William the Conqueror declared that all the lands of England belonged to him by right of conquest. The estates of all Anglo-Saxon lords who did not support him were confiscated. The Conqueror claimed that the forest lands belonged to him too. Thus the king of England became the richest **feudal lord** of all.

In 1086 William the Conqueror sent his men all over England, into every shire to find out what property every inhabitant of all England possessed in land, or in cattle and how much money this was worth. Everything was written down in the official state document – the Domesday Book. That was the first registration in England.

As time went on, the laws that governed England became as mixed in origin as the people themselves. Some were Norman and French, some were Danish, some Anglo-Saxon, some Celtic. The result was the melting pot of customs, many of which seemed quite opposed to each other.



The Domesday Book

It is the record of the great survey of much of England and parts of Wales completed in 1086. The survey was executed for William I of England (William the Conqueror): "While spending the Christmas of 1085 in Gloucester, William had deep speech with his counsellors and sent men all over England to each shire to find out what or how much each landholder had in land and livestock, and what it was worth" (Anglo-Saxon Chronicle).

For example, **the feudal system**, which made **peasants** the property of their **lords**, also bound the lords in their turn to perform duties for the king. At the same time, there was the Anglo-Saxon **belief** that the powers of kings should be limited, that they should not govern alone, but with the advice of their **nobles**.

Four hundred years before William the Conqueror became king, it was already well established that no man, however low his position in life, should be without the protection of the law.

Many of these ancient principles still exist today. As such, they are part of a solid framework of tradition within which many changes have taken place.

2. PARLIAMENTARY DEMOCRACY

This system is what **democracy** is all about. It has not been easy to achieve in Britain. In fact, the process has been extremely difficult and sometimes tragic.

Until as recently as 1928, there was always some section of the adult population that found itself without a chance to give opinions on the law it had to live by.

The story of how each of these sections managed to get the right to vote **representatives** into the House of Commons is the story of how Britain came to be what she is today.

Originally, the word *parliamentum* meant a “parley” or a “talking together” which took place when the king met in the Great Council with his **bishops** and **barons** to discuss matters affecting the government of the country. Bishops and barons at one time were the most **powerful subjects** in the kingdom and their support was of great importance to the king.

“The Father of the English Parliament” was *Simon de Montfort* (1208-1265), who ruled England by **military dictatorship**. He **summoned** the representatives of the counties (barons, bishops) to the Great Council, because he needed money to finance his wars in Wales, and these were the men who could give it to him.

So, the first English Parliament was established in 1265.

Gradually, as time went on, such men came to be regarded as people who spoke on behalf of the communities or communes from which they came. There was no doubt, though, that they were still much less important than the powerful nobles and **clergy**: in the Great Council, the representatives stood at the back of the hall, while the king and other great men did most of the talking.



Simon de Montfort (1208-1265)

Simon de Montfort was a French-English nobleman who inherited the title and estates of the earldom of Leicester in England. He led the rebellion against King Henry III of England during the Second Barons' War of 1263–64, and subsequently became ruler of England. During his rule, Montfort called two famous parliaments. The first stripped the King of unlimited authority, while the second included ordinary citizens from the towns. For this reason, Montfort is regarded today as one of the progenitors of modern parliamentary democracy.

By the end of the 14th century, the representatives were known as the House of Commons, though it was nothing like the Commons as we know it today. Its members included small **property owners, squires, lawyers and merchants**, who were far richer than the ordinary people.

As businessmen they were careful with money and because of this sometimes made life very difficult for the king, particularly if they thought him as extravagant. As a result, there were constant **financial tussles** between king and Parliament. These tussles went on for many years until the first Tudor king, *Henry VII* (1457-1509), came to the throne in 1485.

The great weakness of former kings had been their financial dependence on Parliament, so Henry VII proceeded to make himself rich, and therefore independent of Parliament. When he died he left his son a fortune of 1,5 million pounds, a huge sum indeed for those days.

3. HENRY VIII AND PARLIAMENT

The kings were not financially independent of Parliament for long. Within a few years of **succeeding** his father, Henry VIII (1491-1547) had squandered his **fortune** and found that, as before he had to ask Parliament for money when he needed it.



Henry VIII by Hans Holbein

Hans Holbein's famous portrait of Henry VIII shows the Tudor king as the quintessential Renaissance sovereign. Henry prided himself on his education and his patronage of humanist scholars such as Sir Thomas More, but his increasingly despotic behavior left a more enduring image. He is most famous for founding the Church of England and for having six wives, two of whom he had beheaded.

It seemed that the old quarrels over money would start again, but Henry, a cunning, ruthless man, found another use for Parliament in 1529 which gave it something even more important than control of the country's **purse strings**.

Even before that year Henry VIII had decided to divorce his wife *Catherine of Aragon* and marry her **lady-in-waiting**, *Anne Boleyn*. He applied to **the pope** in Rome for a divorce, but the pope refused to grant it. Determined to get what he wanted, Henry VIII then proceeded to abolish the pope's power in England, and himself became head of the *Church of England* with power to appoint bishops. In this powerful position, Henry pronounced himself divorced, and in 1533 he married Anne Boleyn.



Catherine of Aragón

Catherine of Aragón was the first wife of Henry VIII. The daughter of Ferdinand V and Isabella I of Spain, Catherine married Henry and bore him six children, but not the male heir he so desperately wanted. Henry broke with the Roman Catholic church to divorce her.



Anne Boleyn

Anne Boleyn was the second and most famous wife of King Henry VIII. Anne married Henry after the Church of England annulled his first marriage to Catherine of Aragón. Anne Boleyn failed to provide the male heir Henry so desperately wanted, but the princess she bore became Queen Elizabeth I.

To make this **revolutionary change** Henry VIII used Parliament, and in doing so he gave Parliament more power than it had ever had before.

By passing the various laws which made the Church of England independent of the pope, Parliament had transformed the organization of the country. As a result, Parliament started to realize its importance as an **instrument of government**. Individual members looked on themselves as special people. They began to claim **privileges** not open to ordinary citizens, such as freedom of speech and freedom from arrest.

The king kept the “Reformation Parliament”, as it was called, in existence for eight separate sessions spread over seven years. Thus its members began extremely experienced in parliamentary business and **formal procedure**.

In this way, Parliament began to grow into a power in its own right.

4. DIVINE RIGHT OF KINGS

When *James I* became king in 1603, one of the first things he did was to remove from the Commons the most brilliant **councilor**, Robert Cecil, and send him to the House of Lords. In Cecil’s place, James appointed two second-rate men who proved totally unable to get Parliament to agree to his wishes.

This was not surprising because James’s most frequent wish was for money to support a **lavish court** and an extravagant life. What was more, the Parliament of James I’s day became convinced that the king’s duty was to ask for its advice and take it, and not to expect automatic agreement to his policies whether Parliament approved of them or not.



James VI of Scotland, James I of England (1566-1625)

“Kings are justly called Gods” James I.

James I, son of Mary, Queen of Scots and cousin and successor of Elizabeth I, repressed both Catholics and Protestants alike and maintained the divine right of kings. James authorized a new translation of the Bible, generally called the King James Version.

Within this idea of the king’s role in government lay the germ of **constitutional monarchy**, where a king or queen, while not completely powerless, has no power to oppose Parliament’s will.

However, neither James I nor his son *Charles I* (1600-1649) was willing to hand over to Parliament the right it was now claiming – the right to rule the country. In the end, this right had to be taken from the Stuart Royal Family by force.

King and Parliament each had one important weapon. Only the king had the right to summon Parliament and he could **dissolve** it when he wished. Only Parliament, on the other hand, could **grant** the king money. If the king wished to rule without Parliament – and both James and Charles did for several years – he had to raise money by other means.

These “other means” included **forced loans**, the revival of half-forgotten taxes, as well as fines for **breaking ancient laws**. All of this angered Parliament deeply and made the members determined on revenge. When, as he eventually had to, James I was forced to summon Parliament in 1621, the members lost no time in attacking the king’s ministers, accusing them of bribery and corruption, fining them heavily and taking away their positions.

Charles I, who succeeded his father in 1625, learned nothing from this dramatic show of parliamentary power and angered Parliament even more by his continued belief in the “**divine right of kings**”.



Charles I of England (1600-1649)

Charles I was king of England from 1625 to 1649. Charles believed in the divine right of kings and did not feel accountable to Parliament. His behavior provoked the English Revolution, which was fought between the armies of the king and those of Parliament. Defeated and convicted of treason by Parliament, Charles was beheaded in January 1649.

This meant that Charles considered his royal powers came directly from God, and that he was therefore not accountable to anyone. This was a completely opposite view to the principle established in 1215 by Magna Carta: that the king was not **above the law** and had a duty to rule with the advice of his nobles.

Like his father, Charles ruled without Parliament, and also like his father he raised money by all sorts of underhand means. In 1640, when the king was finally forced to summon Parliament to grant him money, he found that a very sinister development had taken place: Parliament was angry, as he had expected, but its anger was directed not only against the king's ministers – it was also aimed at the king himself and at his powers.



The Magna Carta of 1215

King John of England set his seal to the Magna Carta on June 15, 1215. The document limited the power of the English monarchy and granted rights to John's vassals. Many English legal traditions, including the right to trial by jury and equal access to courts for all citizens, had their origins in the Magna Carta.

Self-checking Questions

1. Why is William the Conqueror considered the first king in the royal dynasty?
2. What kind of information did the Domesday Book, the official state document, contain?
3. What kind of government did William the Conqueror try to organize?
4. What does the word “parliamentum” mean?
5. What kind of authority was the Great Council?
6. What was the position of the representatives in the Great Council?
7. Who were the representatives?
8. Why were there constant financial tussles between the kings and Parliament?
9. How did Henry VIII manage to become independent of Parliament?
10. What were the reasons for the establishment of the Church of England?
11. What revolutionary change did Henry VIII make in England?
12. What were the main principles of the doctrine “Divine Right of kings”?
13. What were the main principles of Magna Carta?
14. Why did James I and later his son Charles I anger Parliament?

PRACTICAL PART



ASSIGNMENTS



1. Study the following proper names and practice their pronunciation:

William the Conqueror [ˈwɪljəm ðə ˈkɒŋkərə]	Sussex [ˈsʌsəks]
the Battle of Hastings [ðə ˈbætl ɒv ˈheɪstɪŋz]	Wessex [ˈwɛsɪks]
the Norman Conquest [ðə ˈnɔːmən ˈkɒŋkwɛst]	Mercia [ˈmɜːʃiə]
the Bayeux Tapestry [ðə beɪəks ˈtæpɪstri]	Tudor [ˈtjuːdə]
the Domesday Book [ðə ˈdʊmz,deɪ bʊk]	Parliament [ˈpɑːləmənt]
the Great Council [ðə greɪt ˈkaʊns]	Anne Boleyn [æn bu ˈlɪn]
Simon de Montfort [ˈsaɪmən diː montfɔːt]	Charles I [tʃɑːlz ðə fɜːst]
the House of Commons [ðə haʊs ɒv ˈkɒmənz]	James I [dʒeɪmz ðə fɜːst]
the House of Lords [ðə haʊs ɒv lɔːdz]	Henry VIII [ˈhɛnri ði eɪtθ]
Catherine of Aragon [ˈkæθ(ə)rɪn ɒv ˈærəɡən]	Magna Carta [ˈmæɡnə ˈkɑːtə]
the Church of England [ðə tʃɜːtʃ ɒv ˈɪŋɡlənd]	
the Stuart Royal Family [ðə ˈstjuət ˈrɔɪəl ˈfæmɪli]	



2. Note down from the theoretical part phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme “The history of Great Britain”. Translate them into Ukrainian.



3. Find in the theoretical part the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

Coronation ceremony, armed rebellions, harsh military rule (military dictatorship), feudal lord, registration, feudal system, nobility, parliamentary democracy, representatives, powerful subjects, to summon Parliament, to dissolve Parliament, clergy, merchant, squire, financial tussles, fortune, lady-in-waiting, the pope in Rome, instrument of government, freedom of speech, formal procedure, lavish court, forced loans, divine right of kings, to be above the law.



4. Write all you can (*What? When? Where? How?*) about the following concepts and proper names:

William the Conqueror, the Norman French, wave of invaders, the Battle of Hastings, the Domesday Book, feudal system, the House of Commons, Simon de Montfort, the Great Council, representatives, military dictatorship, clergy, Henry VIII, purse strings, lady-in-waiting, Catherine of Aragon, Anne Boleyn, the Church of England, revolutionary change, Reformation Parliament, James I, Charles I, Magna Carta.



5. Study the theoretical material of Part II (the history of the origin of the Church of England) and fill in table 1.

Table 1

№	Main points	Description
1.	historical period	
2.	historical figures	
3.	the cause and effect	
4.	the course of events	



6. Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.

Сорок п'ять років правління Єлизавети I Тюдор в Англії залишило помітний слід у розвитку цієї країни, а сама королева стала однією з найпопулярніших персон в історії острова. Однак єдиної думки з приводу особистості Єлизавети та її ролі у формуванні державної політики не існує. Є версія, представники якої вважають, що Єлизавета не була мудрим і сильним державним діячем, що проводив розумну політичну лінію згідно інтересам своєї країни. Вона була вкрай непослідовним і нерішучим монархом, що прагнув лише зберегти унітарність власної країни. Її багаторічне правління протрималося завдяки мужності, наполегливості та талантам державного секретаря Вільяма Сесіла. Як тільки Сесіла не стало, миттєво вся видима міць Єлизаветинської держави зруйнувалася: виявилося, що жодна проблема в державі не вирішена остаточно. Якову I належало виводити країну з важкої економічної кризи і розбиратися з численними незакінченими війнами.

Єлизавета так і не вирішила один з найголовніших етико-політичних питань: питання релігії. Через свого більш ніж лояльного ставлення до католиків Єлизавета створила колосальну проблему радикалів. Але величезна більшість істориків і літераторів вважає, що королева багато зробила для того щоб рідко населену й небагату країну вивести в лідери європейської політики і торгівлі. З її ім'ям пов'язують перемогу над Великою Армадою Іспанії, відродження культури та початок колоніального освоєння Північної Америки. Її посмертна репутація великої королеви - наслідок того, що, стурбована особистою безпекою та збереженням своєї влади, Єлизавета об'єктивно сприяла тривалому періоду відносно мирного розвитку країни. Її нерішучість і обережність вберегли Англію від зовнішньополітичних військових авантур або крайнощів релігійної боротьби. Звичайно, особисті якості королеви аж ніяк не були переважаючим фактором розвитку англійської економіки та суспільного життя цього періоду: швидкий розвиток буржуазних відносин, зростання впливу джентрі, посилення самостійності палати громад стали наслідком тривалого шляху історичного розвитку країни.



7. *Be prepared to speak about these historical figures using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme and the following clichés:*

to be crowned king
 to transform the organization of the country
 a coronation ceremony
 to be under the protection of the law
 to summon the representatives
 to be financially independent
 an instrument of government
 to govern with the advice of
 to abolish the pope's power
 the most powerful subjects
 to get the right to vote
 to be experienced in
 to raise money by underhand means

to rule by military dictatorship
 a feudal lord
 to dissolve Parliament
 an armed rebellion
 to take by force
 a harsh military rule
 by right of conquest
 to possess property
 to be established
 to claim privileges
 to come to the throne
 to break ancient laws
 to be imposed



William I



Henry VIII



Charles I



James I

PART III

1. THE CIVIL WAR

Charles I ruled without Parliament for 11 years, and like his father James I he raised money by all sorts of underhand means. It was through this that the tragic Civil War came about. The king's **enemies** were intent on reducing his **royal powers**, including taking away from him control of the army. Others, who did not agree with these ideas, rallied round the king.

The Civil War, which began in 1642, ended in 1649 with Charles's **execution**. The House of Commons, victors in the war, did away with the monarchy and the House of Lords and declared England a **republic**: this, its members thought, would be a better arrangement.

They quickly found out that they were wrong. The three-part system of king, Lords and Commons was already too strongly rooted in English tradition to be done away with.

Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658) was elected Lord Protector in 1653. His **reputation** was as a soldier rather than as a **politician**. He was a cavalry officer at the start of the Civil War; he founded New Model Army, which gained many victories over the Royalists.

**Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658)**

A member of England's Parliament and a Puritan, Oliver Cromwell led his forces to victory against the army of King Charles I. Even though he had no military experience, Cromwell was a brilliant cavalry leader. The defeat and subsequent execution of the king left Cromwell as virtual dictator of England.

In a 2002 BBC poll in Britain, Cromwell was selected as one of the ten greatest Britons of all time.

Cromwell came up against exactly the same problems as a king: lack of money and a hostile Parliament. And he found himself acting in just the same way: dissolving Parliament when it would not co-operate, raising money by forced loans and heavy taxes. The trouble was that he did not have a king's traditional **authority** and **glamour** (a country gentleman). For the first and only time, **the basis of government** in England was knocked off balance.

While Cromwell was alive, some sort of order was maintained. Despite **royalist plots** and constant threats to his life, he did much that was good for England. When Cromwell died in 1658, to be succeeded by his weak son Richard, nothing stood in the way of rule by **armed force**. In 1659, Richard Cromwell was made to retire, Parliament was dissolved and two army generals tried to take control.

2. RESTORATION OF THE MONARCHY

By this time, Britain was sick of the situation and many people longed for a return of the monarchy. This wish was clearly expressed in March 1660 when an **election** was held for a new Parliament: an overwhelming number of royalist members were returned.

Two months later, on 8th of May 1660, Charles I's son **was declared** king as Charles II (1630-1685), and on the 25th May he returned to England from the Continent where he had spent the years since his father's death. There was no doubt at all that the British people were delighted to have a king once more.



Charles II (1630-1685)

After eight years in exile, Charles II returned to England in 1660 and was proclaimed king. His reign brought a period of relative stability to a country that had been torn by dissent and uncertainty.

**Mary I (1516-1558) – Bloody Mary**

Mary I became queen of England after the death of her brother, Edward VI. The daughter of Henry VIII, she became known as “Bloody Mary” after she burned more than 300 high-ranking Protestant clergymen during her five-year reign. She had hoped to restore the Roman Catholic church in England.

As for Charles, he was just as glad to see his kingdom as his subjects were to see him. He was very careful not to do anything which might upset Parliament, because he was determined never **to go into exile** again. Parliament and the people, for their part, were equally afraid of another **civil war**. Parliament had learned a hard lesson from the years without a king: the British people could not be ruled successfully by Parliament alone. Parliament even agreed, though with some fears, when Charles insisted that his Catholic brother James (1633-1701) should succeed him as king. Ever since the time of the Catholic Queen Mary I in the 16th century, when several hundred people were burned at the stake for their **religious beliefs**, Catholicism had been feared and disliked in Britain.

Charles II died in 1685 and it became clear that it had been a great mistake to allow James to succeed him. The new king was stubborn and would not listen to advice. His one aim in life was **to restore** Roman Catholicism to Britain. James II even began to act like his father Charles, not only dissolving Parliament when it suited him, but claiming the right **to suspend laws** he did not like.

Memories of the Civil War were still painful, and Parliament was at first willing to let James keep his throne: it was thought that he would be succeeded by the Protestant daughters of his first marriage, Mary and Anne. However, when James II's second wife, also a Roman Catholic, gave birth to a son in 1688, Parliament saw before the country an endless line of Catholic monarchs.



James II (1633-1701)

James II converted to Roman Catholicism in Protestant England and fought several bloody power struggles to hold onto his throne. His son-in-law, William of Orange, finally overthrew him, taking the throne for himself and initiating the Glorious Revolution.

Some of the members sent a secret invitation to Mary's husband William of Orange, asking him to come to England with an army. William arrived in November 1688 and landed in Devon. In December, James, fearing that he would lose his head like his father, fled to France. This event got the name "**Glorious Revolution**" (and is still used by the British Parliament or as Bloodless Revolution) as all the developments came out peacefully.

On 13th February 1689, William III (1650-1702) and Mary II (1662-1694) were proclaimed **joint sovereigns** of England. William later became king of Scotland as well.



William III (of Orange) (1650-1702) and Mary II (1662-1694) – joint sovereigns of England

William, at the invitation of Protestant opponents of King James II, led a bloodless overthrow of the Catholic English monarchy in 1688. This event, known as the Glorious Revolution, established William and his wife, Mary, as rulers of England.

3. THE BILL OF RIGHTS

After its **disputes** with Charles I and James II, Parliament decided once and for all to limit the powers of the monarchy, and so protect what it regarded as its **rightful liberties**.

The Bill of Rights became law in 1689. It was declared **illegal** for a monarch **to tamper with** any law, or to collect taxes or keep a standing army without **the consent** of Parliament. Roman Catholics were barred for ever from the **throne**. Parliament claimed the right to complete **freedom of speech**: no monarch would ever again be able to tell them what they might or might not discuss. And they also claimed the right to approve or disapprove of the ministers the king chose. If Parliament disapproved, the king could do nothing about it.

This did not mean that a king or queen had no say at all in the government of the country. Both William III and his **successor** Queen Ann (1665-1714) **took charge** of meetings of the cabinet, which consisted of a small group of important **advisers** chosen from members of Parliament. It was only when the first Hanoverian kings came to the throne that this practice changed: the reason was that George I and George II spoke only German and so they handed over **chairmanship** of the cabinet to a “prime minister”.



The Bill of Rights of 1689

The Bill of Rights lays down limits on the powers of the monarch and sets out the rights of Parliament, including the requirement for regular parliaments, free elections, and freedom of speech in Parliament.



Queen Ann (1665-1714)

Anne, queen of England, Scotland, and Ireland, based much of her administration on the advice of her ministers, who directed England's efforts against France and Spain in the War of the Spanish Succession in the early 1700s.

This, more or less, is the situation that has existed in Britain ever since. Today, it appears that the Queen has a great deal of political power. It is the Queen who opens Parliament, the Queen who reads the speech from the throne, in which she informs both Houses of **the bills** that are to be presented for their consideration, and it is the Queen who officially chooses a prime minister.

In reality the Queen by herself has no political power at all. A **prime minister**, when he is appointed, is not really her personal choice: he is the choice of the voters of the country, because it is they who choose members to represent them in the House of Commons, and the leader of the party that gets the most seats in the House automatically becomes prime minister. And it is the prime minister and his government who **put forward the bills** contained in the Queen's speech.

She regularly summons the prime minister and other ministers to Buckingham Palace or one of the other **royal residencies**, and there discusses with them the country's affairs. Even here the Queen's power is strictly limited. She may express her opinion on any subject under discussion, but it is always the views of her ministers that are acted upon.



George I (1660-1727)

Great Britain's George I took a great interest in foreign affairs, helping to create the Triple Alliance, with the Netherlands and France, in 1717. George was the first of the Hanoverian line of British rulers and also elector of Hannover, in Germany. He never learned the English language and often took extended trips back to Hannover.

Another point of view on public matters is given by the House of Lords. As with the Queen, the powers of the House of Lords are limited because, in a modern democratic country like Britain, it is unacceptable for anyone who is *not* elected by the people to have a more important say in government than those who *are* elected.

But many of the people who sit in the House of Lords are men and women of considerable experience from various walks of life and their advice is worth listening to. The House of Lords debates in a calm atmosphere and acts rather like a wise and cautious father towards the House of Commons, where discussion can become rather heated and where, possibly, hasty decisions may be made.

As with the position of the Queen in Britain today, the present role of the House of Lords is the product of centuries of struggle.

4. FREEDOM OF SPEECH



In the 17th century, when both Houses of Parliament were trying to reduce the power of the king, there was very little difference between their members: both Houses contained men of property and **wealth**. These men, whether they had aristocratic **titles** or not, were the most powerful people in the country.

It was when the ordinary people, those without much money and little or no property, began to demand that they, too, should be represented in the House of Commons that arguments began to arise between that House and the House of Lords.

Two hundred years ago, when these arguments first began in earnest, it was very fortunate that Parliament was already well established as **the central authority** in Britain. Because of this, people did not aim simply at taking power away from those who already had it: they wanted instead to join them and share in that power.

This is still a distinctive characteristic of the British people. It means that, in general, that they do not want to achieve their aims by **violent revolution**, but by trying to influence those people who are already in authority – the people who can best help them.

It is important that people with a grievance should have a chance **to air** their **views**. The history of many countries has shown that the scene may be set for violent revolution when this right is suppressed. In just the same way as today, those people in the past who wanted to obtain for themselves a say in the way their

country was governed held meetings, staged **demonstrations** or presented **petitions** to Parliament.

At the time of the French Revolution in 1789, only about five in every hundred people in Britain had the right to vote in elections. Even half a century later, seven years after Parliament passed *the Great Reform Bill* in 1832; this number had risen to only 34 in every hundred.

Self-checking Questions



1. What were the reasons for the Civil War?
2. What was the outcome of the Civil War?
3. What form of government was established in the country as the result of the war?
4. What kind of politician was Oliver Cromwell?
5. How did he rule the country?
6. Why did the English people long for a return of the monarchy?
7. What lesson had Parliament learned from the years without a king?
8. Why was Catholicism feared and disliked in Britain?
9. What kind of monarch was James II?
10. What does the term “the Glorious Revolution” mean?
11. What were the chief principles of the Bill of Rights?
12. Why did the Hanoverian kings hand over chairmanship of the cabinet to a “prime minister”?
13. What is the position of a prime minister in the state?
14. In what way did people try to obtain a say for themselves?

PRACTICAL PART



ASSIGNMENTS



1. Study the following proper names and practice their pronunciation:

Roman Catholicism [ˈrəʊmən kəˈθɒlɪsɪzəm]	the Civil War [ðə ˈsɪvəl wɔː]
the House of Commons [ðə haʊs ɒv ˈkɒmənz]	Catholic [ˈkæθəlɪk]
the House of Lords [ðə haʊs ɒv lɔːdz]	Mary I [ˈmeəri ðə fɜːst]
Oliver Cromwell [ˈɒlɪvə ˈkrɒmwəl]	Lord Protector [lɔːd prəˈtektə]
Richard Cromwell [ˈrɪtʃəd ˈkrɒmwəl]	Charles II [tʃɑːlz ðə ˈsekənd]
William of Orange [ˈwɪljəm ɒv ˈɒrɪndʒ]	James II [dʒeɪmz ðə ˈsekənd]
Glorious Revolution [ˈɡlɔːrɪəs ˌrevəˈluːʃən]	Hanoverians [ˌhænəʊˈvɪəriənz]
Buckingham Palace [ˈbʌkɪŋəm ˈpæləs]	the Bill of Rights [ðə bɪl ɒv raɪts]
the French Revolution [ðə frenʃ ˌrevəˈluːʃən]	the Royalists [ðə ˈrɒəlɪsts]
the Great Reform Bill [ðə greɪt ˌriːˈfɔːm bɪl]	Bloody Mary [ˈblʌdi ˈmeəri]



2. Note down from the theoretical part phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme “The history of Great Britain”. Translate them into Ukrainian.



3. Find in the theoretical part the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

Royal powers, execution, republic, politician, forced loans, authority, plots, armed force, monarchy, exile, subjects, religious beliefs, to suspend laws, joint sovereigns, disputes, rightful liberties, to tamper with law, freedom of speech, successor, to take charge of meetings, chairmanship, to put forward the bills, to have a say, titles, to air the views, to present petitions.



4. Write all you can (What? When? Where? How?) about the following concepts and proper names:

The Civil War, Oliver Cromwell, New Model Army, the Royalists, the basis of government, royalist plots, Charles II, Roman Catholicism, Glorious Revolution, joint sovereigns, The Bill of Rights, advisers, Hanoverians, the House of Lords, the House of Commons, violent revolution, demonstrations.



5. Study the theoretical material of Part III and fill in table 1.

Table 1

Date	Historical event	Significance
1642-1649		
1660		
1688		
1689		



6. Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.

Ані завдяки своєму родоводу, ані за освіченістю Кромвель не міг претендувати на високу посаду в англійському парламенті. Це був міцний сільський трудівник-пуританин, дуже віруюча в Бога людина. Як політик він народився в 1628 році, коли жителі невеликого містечка неподалік від Лондона обрали його депутатом до парламенту. Кромвель вимовив там приголомшливу промову. Він виступив проти Папи Римського та проти підступності єзуїтів. Король Карл I злякався такої активності й розпустив парламент. Кромвель повернувся додому, зайнявся самоосвітою і своїм господарством. Через 12 років Кромвель знову зустрівся з королем. Він знову вимовив в парламенті приголомшливу промову, що у ній він закликав до зміщення монарха. Коли в 1642 році почалася Громадянська війна, на чолі парламентської армії був поставлений Кромвель. Він не мав військової освіти, ніколи не брав участі в боях, але всьому навчався на ходу. Він запрошував до себе на службу тільки істинно віруючих, готових віддати своє життя за ідеали пуританства. Він вимагав дотримуватися принципу справедливості: не чіпати мирних громадян, не вдаватися до пограбувань і

насилства. В 1645 році в битві проти королівських військ при Несбі його війська здобули переконливу перемогу. Осоромлений Карл втік до Шотландії. Це була поразка монархії, ураження абсолютизму, з якого почалося становлення республіки. Парламент оголосив короля зрадником, якого слід було зловити і стратити. Карла схопили на острові Уайт і доставили в Лондон. 30 січня 1649 року Карлу I як зраднику, тирану та ворогові вітчизни відрубали голову. Його страта для більшості британців означала кінець монархії. В 1653 Кромвелля призначили лордом-протектором, вся влада зосередилася в його руках, парламент був розпущений. Але Кромвель не вмів керувати «мирним життям». Він створив військову раду, розділив країну на 12 військових губернаторств з керованими особисто ним генерал-майорами. Економічне становище в країні поступово вирівнювалося. Англія ставала могутньою військовою і морською державою. Але Кромвелю, як і його попереднику, не вистачало грошей. Він змушений був скликати парламент, щоб налагодити збір податків. Помер Кромвель несподівано. Ходили чутки, що його отруїли. Поховали його з великими почестями в Вестмінстерському абатстві. Але в 12-ту річницю страти короля Карла I останки Кромвелля дістали з могили, повісили, а потім четвертували. Це було традиційним покаранням за зраду в Англії. Сьогодні в Вестмінстері лорду-протектору стоїть пам'ятник.



7. *Be prepared to speak about these events using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme and the following clichés:*

To maintain the order
to dissolve Parliament
to summon Parliament
to declare a republic
to be strongly rooted
to be knocked off balance
to suspend laws
to make smb. to retire
to be proclaimed king
to restore Roman Catholicism
to claim the right

to be succeeded by
to do away with
to rally round
to gain a victory
to go into exile
to do much good for
to have a say
to come about
to tamper with
to take charge of
to bar from the throne

to come out peacefully
to limit (to reduce) the powers
to protect rightful liberties
to hand over chairmanship to
to stage demonstrations

to achieve one's aims
to share in the power
to air one's views
to present petitions
to put forward the bills



The civil war



The Bill of Rights



Restoration of the monarchy



The Glorious Revolution

PART IV

1. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Between the two dates of 1789 and 1832 a remarkable and very **fundamental change** took place in British life. It was the coming of the Industrial Revolution, which introduced more and more **machines** to do work which had formerly been done by hand. Such machines were the “**flying shuttle**”, first devised in 1733 by John Kay (1704-1764), a Lancashire **weaver**; and the “spinning jenny”, perfected in 1767 by James Hargreaves (d. 1778), an **inventor** who also came from Lancashire. These machines, and others which were developed later, were able to do a vastly increased amount of work. The **spinning jenny**, for example, enabled one person to spin sixteen threads at a time.

Probably the most important machine invented around this time was the **steam engine**. The type of steam engine that really revolutionized factory practice was the one **patented** by in 1769. Steam engines were soon produced enough power to drive the machines in cotton mills or to operate bellows and hammers in iron works.



John Kay (1704-1764)

John Kay was the inventor of the flying shuttle, which was a key contribution to the Industrial Revolution.



James Watt (1736-1819)

James Watt was a Scottish inventor, mechanical engineer, and chemist who improved on Thomas Newcomen's 1712 Newcomen steam engine with his Watt steam engine in 1781, which was fundamental to the changes brought by the Industrial Revolution in both his native Great Britain and the rest of the world. He developed the concept of horsepower, and the SI unit of power, the watt, was named after him.

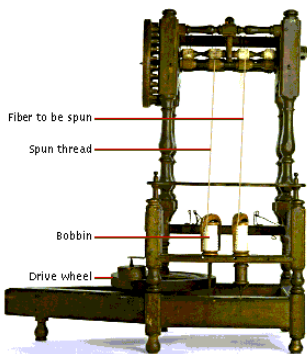


The “Spinning Jenny”

The spinning jenny is a multi-spindle spinning frame, and was one of the key developments in the industrialization of weaving during the early Industrial Revolution. It was invented in 1764 by James Hargreaves in Stanhill, Oswaldtwistle, Lancashire in England.

Naturally, weavers, spinners and other workers grew suspicious. They feared that machines were going to put them out of work and their first reaction was to wreck them. However they gradually came to realize that as machinery increased production it might also help them increase their small **wages**. As the 19th century opened, so more and more workers were leaving the countryside and flocking to the towns in the hope of earning more money.

Eventually, thinly populated country areas, which became known as “Rotten Boroughs”, were represented by members in the House of Commons while the now heavily populated new **industrial towns** were not. In September 1831, a bill was introduced into the House of Commons which sought to put right this unfair situation. It never became law because it was rejected by the House of Lords. This was one of the first signs of trouble between the two Houses of Parliament. The solution was a drastic one. The Lords were told that, if they continued **to oppose** the bill, the king would **raise to the peerage** so many men who were known to favour it that the bill would be passed.



Flyer Spinning Frame

Introduced by Richard Arkwright in 1769, the flyer spinning frame reflects the move toward automation that characterized the Industrial Revolution. The machine is powered by the drive wheel at the bottom, drawing out the fiber into thread, then twisting it as it is wound onto the bobbins.



A "Poor Law Bastille": 1835 model design of a workhouse to hold 300 paupers...

The **threat** was sufficient. In June 1832, the Lords passed the First Reform Act under which seats in the Commons were redistributed so as to create new **constituencies** (as the **parliamentary divisions** of the country are called) in the towns. The effect of this bill, and of other similar ones which were passed separately for Scotland and Ireland, was to give the vote to those people who had recently become wealthy through the growth of the factories. Thus for the first time since the 13th century a new section of the community had representatives in Parliament **to challenge the economic and social interests** of the Lords, who were concerned with **ownership** of land.

There were still vast numbers of workers who did not have the right to vote simply because they were too poor; their pay was below the minimum amount which qualified men to vote. Tragically, a vote was not all these people lacked. Today, when most people in Britain live in clean, well ventilated houses and have enough to eat, it is terrible to realize that poor people a century or more ago lived in filthy, overcrowded homes, worked very long hours for very little money and often went hungry because they were too poor to buy food. Under these conditions, disease and early death were too common.

2. PETERLOO

In Manchester in August 1819, a large crowd gathered to hear speeches demanding a change in the government's attitude. Soldiers were ordered **to break up** the meeting and in the panic which followed six people were killed and some four hundred injured.

This **tragic event** happened in a large open space called St Peter's Fields, and came to be known as "Peterloo", a **sarcastic reference to the battle** of Waterloo (1815) which had been fought four years earlier. At least it shocked people into taking notice of the **dreadful conditions** of workers in particular, and



Elizabeth Fry (1780 –1845)

Elizabeth Fry was an English prison reformer, social reformer and a Christian philanthropist. She has sometimes been referred to as the "angel of prisons". Fry was a major driving force behind new legislation to make the treatment of prisoners more humane, and she was supported in her efforts by the reigning monarch. She was depicted on the Bank of England £5 note from 2001-2016.

the poor in general. During the next ten years people who were determined to improve those conditions – **the social reformers** – attracted more and more attention.

These were people like Elizabeth Fry who devoted herself to improving **prison conditions**, and **the earl** of Shaftesbury who worked to have the **employment of children** in factories banned.

In 1833, *the Factory Act* was passed which **prohibited** the employment of children under the age of nine in textile mills, and limited the amount of work older children should do to nine or twelve hours a day, depending on their ages. Most important, the Act appointed **factory inspectors** to see that the law was obeyed. It was also part of this law that children working in factories should receive at least two hours' education a day.

It took another eleven years of protest before *the Factory Act of 1844* was passed. This Act prohibited altogether the employment of children, made it necessary for dangerous machinery to be fenced in to prevent accidents, and laid down certain **regulations** about cleanliness in factories.



Child Labor in Textile Factory

During the Industrial Revolution, children were employed in factories and worked long hours. This photo by noted American photographer Lewis Hine shows young boys working at a spinning machine. Hine's photographs led to the passing of the first child-labor laws.

Having attacked conditions in the factories, the reformers in Parliament turned their attention to the mines. The result was *the Collieries Act* of 1842 which forbade the employment of women and children in the mines. It was in the textile factories and mines that the worst conditions existed, and although the laws of the 1830s and 1840s improved those conditions for women and children, there were still millions of men who suffered long hours, low wages and filthy surroundings.

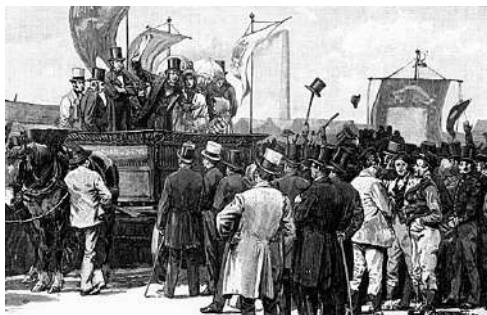
3. THE POOR LAWS. THE CHARTISTS



Members of Parliament – the only group of people in Britain with power to do anything to relieve this poverty – cared very little about it. They seemed determined to heap extra suffering on the poor. This is what many people thought when *the Poor Law Amendment Act* was passed in 1834. Ever since 1601, when *the Elizabethan Poor Law* was passed, it had been recognized that the State had a duty to help the poor. The new *Poor Law of 1834* did not alter this principle, but it did make people suffer for what was regarded as the “crime” of being poor. Under the law, no man could receive help from the State unless he entered a **workhouse**. Discipline was brutal; so brutal that many were called “houses of terror”. The conditions of work, the **living quarters** and the food were deliberately made as bad as possible, because the whole idea was to put people off from coming to the workhouse at all. It was thought that if the workhouse was made too attractive some poor people might not bother to go out and find work and would simply get the State to support them and their families.

The 1834 Poor Law caused a great deal of bad feeling, particularly in the northern countries, where there was a lot of poverty. Out of this grew the belief that the only solution was representation in Parliament for the ordinary working men.

In 1839, *the People’s Charter* was presented in Parliament by the **radical MP** Thomas Attwood. Its **requests** were simple: it asked for **universal male suffrage** (a vote for every adult man); **voting by ballot**; the payment of members of Parliament; and **the right to stand for election** whether or not one owned any property. The last two **demands** aimed to allow men who were not wealthy to sit in Parliament; at that time the cost of being MP was so great that only rich people could afford it.



Chartist Meeting

From 1838 to 1848 the London Working Men's Association sponsored a People's Charter demanding suffrage for all male citizens over age 21, a secret ballot, and other rights. An important part of the Chartist campaign was to hold large public meetings. These meetings gave great orators such as Feargus O'Connor and George Julian Harney the opportunity to persuade people to join the campaign for the charter. It was also a way of showing the government the scale of the support that there was for Chartism.

Parliament rejected the Charter. There were violent reactions. In November 1839, there was a **rising** by miners at Newport in Monmouthshire, but its leaders were arrested and many were imprisoned. Three years later, another **petition** containing three and a quarter million signatures was presented to Parliament and this time it was even more strongly worded than the first. This second petition was also rejected by Parliament. So was the third, presented in 1858.

Weakened by lack of co-operation within its own ranks, the Chartist Movement eventually collapsed. But the ideals that had inspired it survived, and in 1867 there came the first move towards fulfilling the main demand of the Chartists: a vote for every man in Britain.

In that year, the Conservative government headed by Benjamin Disraeli (1804- 1881) introduced *the Second Reform Act*. When this became law, it gave the vote to one million working men in the towns.

Seventeen years later, in 1884, the Liberal government under William Gladstone (1809-1898) passed *the Third Reform Act*, which gave the right to vote to about two million agricultural workers.



Benjamin Disraeli (1804- 1881)

Benjamin Disraeli was a British politician and writer who twice served as Prime Minister of the United Kingdom. He played a central role in the creation of the modern Conservative Party, defining its policies and its broad outreach. Disraeli is remembered for his influential voice in world affairs, his political battles with the Liberal Party leader William Ewart Gladstone, and his one-nation conservatism or "Tory democracy". He made the Conservatives the party most identified with the glory and power of the British Empire. He is the only British Prime Minister of Jewish birth.

These **reforms** did not come about simply because Parliament had had a sudden change of heart. Both Disraeli and Gladstone certainly had some sympathy with the idea that it was not right for people to be ruled by a Parliament they had not helped to choose. But a far more important reason was that by giving more people the vote, both Disraeli and Gladstone hoped **to enlist** more support for their parties.

It was the disaster of the First World War (1914-1918) that helped achieve a vote for every adult man in Britain. At the end of the war, in which nearly a million British soldiers were killed, the prime minister, David Lloyd George (1863-1945), promised to make Britain 'a land fit for heroes to live in'. To keep at least part of this promise, *the Representation of the People Act* was passed in 1918.



William Gladstone (1809-1898)

William Gladstone was a British Liberal and earlier conservative politician. In a career lasting over 60 years, he served as Prime Minister four separate times (1868–74, 1880–85, February–July 1886 and 1892–94), more than any other person, and served as Chancellor of the Exchequer four times. Gladstone was also Britain's oldest Prime Minister; he resigned for the final time when he was 84 years old.



David Lloyd George (1863-1945)

David Lloyd George was a British Liberal politician and statesman of Welsh parentage and upbringing. As Chancellor of the Exchequer (1908–1915), Lloyd George was a key figure in the introduction of many reforms which laid the foundations of the modern welfare state. His most important role came as the highly energetic Prime Minister of the Wartime Coalition Government (1916–22), during and immediately after the First World War.

This granted the right to vote to all men over the age of twenty-one, and also to married women, women who owned houses and women university graduates over the age of thirty.

4. THE SUFFRAGETTES

This right for women to vote was not given easily. Women had to fight for it, many had to suffer and some had to die. Like the Chartist Movement, the movement to gain votes for women started quite calmly. During the 19th century, many petitions had been presented to Parliament, while sympathetic MPs had fought within Parliament for the right of women to vote, and also for their right to own property and to receive similar education to men.

The idea that women were too fragile for the rough and tumble of everyday life was still widely believed at the beginning of the 20th century. Then a group of women called **suffragettes** proved that some women could be even more violent and determined than men.

In 1903, Mrs. Emmeline Pankhurst (1858-1928), already **an experienced fighter** for women's rights, formed *the Women's Social and Political Union* in Manchester. In this, she was joined by her two daughters, Sylvia and Christabel.

**Emmeline Pankhurst (1858-1928)**

Emmeline Pankhurst was a British political activist and leader of the British suffragette movement who helped women win the right to vote. In 1999 Time named Pankhurst as one of the 100 Most Important People of the 20th Century. She was widely criticised for her militant tactics, and historians disagree about their effectiveness, but her work is recognised as a crucial element in achieving women's suffrage in Britain.

For a period of eight years from 1905, the suffragettes brought attention to their demands by setting fire to pillar boxes and public buildings, cutting telephone wires, and tying themselves to railings outside the Houses of Parliament. When they were sent to prison as **punishment**, they refused to eat and had to be forcibly fed. And in 1913, one suffragette, Emily Davidson, threw herself under the king's horse as it ran in the Derby race. She died from her injuries.

Public sympathy for the suffragettes rapidly increased and many hundreds of thousands of pounds were contributed to help them in their fight. This activity came to an end at the outbreak of the First World War. The suffragettes used their energies in helping Britain's war effort and when men went off to fight, took over many of their jobs. Women delivered the post and the milk, worked in factories, drove buses and swept the streets.

**Emmeline Pankhurst, arrested in 1914**

In 1903 Emmeline Pankhurst founded the Woman's Social and Political Union (WSPU), an organization dedicated to obtaining the vote for women in Britain. The WSPU became militant over the years, smashing windows and burning unoccupied buildings to bring attention to its cause. Pankhurst was jailed for the first time in 1908, at which time she continued her protest through a hunger strike. She undertook hunger strikes during subsequent arrests and was released and then rearrested depending on her health

They did this work so well that by the time the war ended, it was realized at last that women deserved the right to vote. This they were granted, according to the *Act of 1918*, together with the right to sit in Parliament. Ten years afterwards, in 1928, women between the ages of twenty-one and thirty were also given the vote.

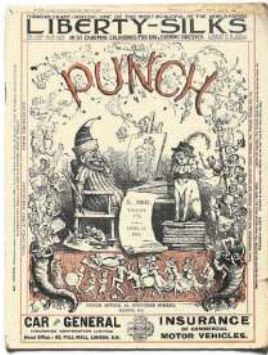
So, at last, just over 660 years after the first representatives of the people were summoned by Simon de Montfort to join the lords in the Great Council, a true parliamentary democracy was achieved.

5. TRADE UNIONS. ECONOMIC DEPRESSION

The most significant issues for workers, such as wages, hours, and working conditions, could only be addressed by organizations of workers themselves. Efforts at **trade union** organization went back to the late 18th century, but they were isolated until **socialist** Robert Owen founded the Grand National Consolidated Trades Union in 1833. Although this experiment quickly failed, it raised the prospect of a **national organization** of all workers.

In 1868 leaders of individual unions formed a Trades Union Congress to coordinate action among the unions, even though the formation of unions was illegal at the time. Up to that time, only highly skilled workers such as engineers had formed successful unions collectively. In 1871 the government formally recognized the existence of unions and their **right to strike**, although **picketing** remained illegal. In addition, the responsibility of unions for the acts of their members continued to threaten their financial existence. A strike by London dockworkers in 1889 got a victory for the labor movement. Despite the threats from the police and the government, dockworkers held firm until they won a minimum wage. Following the strike, the labor unions became a force in British politics. At the beginning of the 20th century, representatives from unions and other labor organizations formed the Labour Party. During the 20th century Labour Party was one of the two major political parties in Britain/Conservative Party/.

The beginning of the 20th century had some important changes. In towns the classes mixed more freely, and women got greater freedom of movement: they changed bulky long clothing and took to traveling by bicycle. When Victoria died in 1901, her son Edward VII ascended the throne. The Edwardian period (1901-1910) was the final age of **aristocratic excess**. The nobility's lavish spending, carefree lifestyle, and personal behavior that influenced the morals of the times



Punch

Punch was a British weekly magazine of humour and satire established in 1841 by Henry Mayhew and engraver Ebenezer Landells. Historically, it was most influential in the 1840s and 1850s, when it helped to coin the term "cartoon" in its modern sense as a humorous illustration. After the 1940s, when its circulation peaked, it went into a long decline, closing in 1992. It was revived in 1996, but closed again in 2002.

were chronicled in weekly magazines such as *Punch*, *Vanity Fair*, and the *Tatler*, which were illustrated by photographs of garden and shooting parties.

Railroads and motorized buses made possible the growth of the suburbs, where the middle classes could build large houses on spacious grounds. In the suburbs, they could isolate their children from crime and social problems, and yet still continue their **urban businesses** and professions.

The government introduced free school meals in 1906, and pensions for the elderly came two years later. In 1909 politician David Lloyd George, a Welsh socialist, introduced what became known as “the people’s budget.” The budget raised **taxes** on the wealthy to fund **extensive social programs** for the poor. The House of Lords opposed **the budget** but George V (1910-1936) threatened to create more than 250 new peers who would vote for the budget.

The worldwide **economic depression** of 1929 struck Britain hard. Unemployment rose to 2.5 million within a year and to 3 million by the beginning of 1933. The government put **emergency measures** into effect to raise income taxes on the wealthy, to reduce salaries of government workers, and to reduce **unemployment benefits**.



Tatler

Tatler is a British glossy magazine focusing on fashion and lifestyle, as well as coverage of high society and politics. It is targeted towards the British upper-middle class and upper class, and those interested in society events. It was founded in 1901 by Clement Shorter.

For the first time in a century, Britain abandoned **free trade**. The government placed duties on imports and encouraged the population to “buy British.” Government programs to build houses and automobiles and expand electric utilities had great effect on the domestic economy. During the 1930s the government began **to nationalize utilities**, including coal, and to set wages and prices in large industries such as steel. By 1933 unemployment began to decline, especially in the newer industries, and by 1935 most sectors of the economy were recovering. So the country endured the worst of the depression; its economy recovered as the result of a massive program of the government.

Self-checking Questions



1. What was the fundamental change which took place in Britain between 1789 and 1832?
2. What kind of machines did the Industrial Revolution introduce?
3. Why did the workers wreck the machines?
4. What areas were called “Rotten Boroughs»? Why?
5. What was the content of the bill introduced into the House of Commons in 1831?
6. In what way did the House of Commons challenge the economic and social interests of the Lords?
7. What was the chief point of the Elizabethan Poor Law of 1601?
8. What kind of institutions were the workhouses? Why were they called “houses of terror”?
9. Who were the chartists? What were their demands?
10. Who were the suffragettes? What were their demands?
11. How did the suffragettes bring the public attention to their demands?
12. In what way did the suffragettes deserve the right to vote?
13. What tragic event happened in St Peter’s Fields?
14. What steps did the social reformers take to improve the living conditions of the workers?
15. What kind of organization was the Grand National Consolidated Trades Union?
16. What party did the representatives from the unions form at the beginning of the 20th century?
17. In what way did the worldwide economic depression of 1929 strike Britain?
18. How did the country endure the economic depression?

KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND SINCE THE TIME OF WILLIAM I***NORMANS***

1. William I 1066-87
2. William II 1087-1100
3. Henry I 1100-35
4. Stephen 1135-54

PLANTAGENETS

5. Henry II 1154-89
6. Richard I 1189-99
7. John 1199-1216
8. Henry III 1216-72
9. Edward I 1272-1307
10. Edward II 1307-27
and
11. Edward III 1327-77
12. Richard II 1377-99

HOUSE OF LANCASTER

13. Henry IV 1399-1413
14. Henry V 1413-22
15. Henry VI 1422-61

HOUSE OF YORK

16. Edward IV 1461-83
17. Edward V 1483
18. Richard III 1483-5

TUDORS

19. Henry VII 1485-1509
39. Edward VIII 1936
20. Henry VIII 1509-47
21. Edward VI 1547-53
22. Mary I 1553-8
23. Elizabeth I 1558-1603

STUARTS

24. James I 1603-25
25. Charles I 1625-49
26. Charles II 1660-85
27. James II 1685-9
28. William III 1689-1702
29. Mary II 1689-94
30. Anne 1702-14

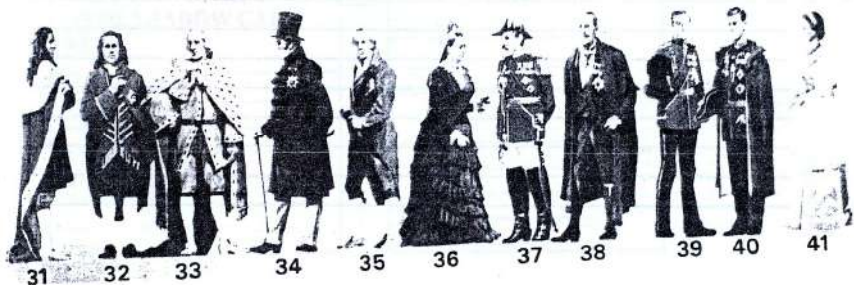
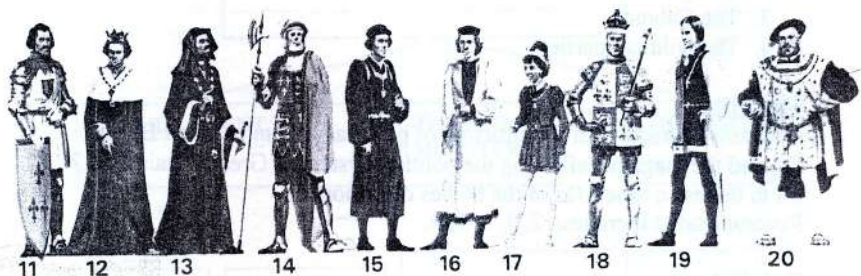
HANOVERIANS

31. George I 1714-27
32. George II 1727-60
33. George III 1760-1820
34. George IV 1820-30
35. William IV 1830-7
36. Victoria 1837-1901

HOUSE OF SAXE-COBURG

37. Edward VII 1901-10
38. George V 1910-36
39. Edward VIII 1936
40. George VI 1936-52
41. Elizabeth II 1952-

*** Not included in this gallery of sovereigns are Lady Jane Grey, who reigned as queen for nine days in 1553, and Oliver Cromwell, who ruled England during the time of the Commonwealth.



GREAT EVENTS IN BRITISH HISTORY

BC	
750	Beginning of migration of Celtic people to Britain
55-54	Invasions of Britain by Julius Caesar
AD	
43	Roman invasion of Britain under Aulus Plautius
61	Unsuccessful rebellion of Boadicea, British warrior-queen, against Roman invaders
78	Julius Agricola becomes Roman governor of Britain
120	Visit of the emperor Hadrian
122	Building of Hadrians Wall to keep out northern tribes from Roman-occupied Britain
270	First attacks on England by Saxon pirates
410	Roman soldiers withdraw from Britain, which ceases to be part of the Roman Empire. Raids and settlements from about this time by the Jutes, Angles and Saxons
519	Saxon kingdom of Wessex founded
530	At about this time the Romano-British leader 'King' Arthur leads resistance to invaders of Britain
563	beginning of conversion of Picts
597	St Augustine lands in Kent, sent by Pope Gregory to spread Christianity in Britain
664	Synod of Whitby, which allies the English Church to Rome
828	King Egbert of Wessex is recognised as overlord of all England
844	Kenneth MacAlpine first king of a united Scotland
850-80	Danish invasions on a large scale
854	Norsemen from Denmark and Norway settle for the first time in England
871	Alfred becomes king of Wessex and fights the Danish invaders. He builds a navy
883	Winchester becomes capital town in Alfred's England
900	Edward the Elder succeeds Alfred and recaptures most of England from the Danes
980-1000	Further Danish invasions of England

1013	England submits to Sweyn, the Danish king, who is acknowledged as king of England
1017	Sweyn's son, Canute, becomes king of England and Denmark
1040	Duncan, king of the Scots, murdered by Macbeth, who takes the crown
1042	Edward the Confessor succeeds to the throne of England and, by tradition, names William of Normandy as his successor
1053	Harold becomes earl of Wessex
1064	Harold of Wessex is shipwrecked in Normandy and held captive by William, to whom he does homage
1066	Harold becomes king of England. William of Normandy invades England to claim the throne. He defeats the English at the battle of Hastings, at which Harold is killed
1069	Feudal system begins in England
1072	Rebellion of Hereward, the rebellion against the Normans is defeated
1135	Succession to the English throne is disputed between Stephen and Matilda. Stephen is eventually crowned king.
1138	Scots invade England on the side of Matilda but are defeated at battle of the Standard
1154	Henry of Anjou, ruler of most of France, becomes Henry II of England. Nicholas Break-spear becomes Pope Adrian IV, the only Englishman ever to be elected
1162	Becket becomes archbishop of Canterbury and refuses to submit to Henry II
1166	Assize of Clarendon sets up jury system. The beginning of 'Common Law'
1170	Ireland partly conquered. Henry II becomes lord of Ireland
1215	Barons rebel against King John. Signing of Magna Carta, which lessens the power of the king
1258	Great Council of Oxford. Simon de Montfort compels Henry III to rule with council of Barons.
1265	Simon de Montfort's Parliament sits. He is later killed at battle of Evesham by Henry III's son, Prince Edward
1284	Edward I conquers Wales. The first prince of Wales is born at Caernarvon

1297	Scottish war of independence. Battle of Stirling Bridge at which William Wallace defeats the English
1298	Wallace defeated at battle of Falkirk
1303	Execution of William Wallace
1306	Robert Bruce crowned king of Scotland
1314	Robert Bruce defeats Edward II at battle of Bannockburn
1337	Beginning of the 'Hundred Years' War' between England and France
1348	Black Death reaches England from the Continent
1356	English defeat the French at battle of Poitiers
1381	The Peasants' Revolt led by Wat Tyler
1415	Henry V defeats the French at battle of Agincourt
1431	Joan of Arc is burned as a witch by the English at Rouen
1450	Jack Cades rebellion, demanding reforms in government, is defeated
1455	Wars of the Roses begins between Yorkists (white rose) and Lancastrians (red rose)
1476	William Caxton's first printing press set up in England
1483	Murder of the boy king, Edward V and his brother in the Tower of London
1485	Battle of Bosworth Field. Richard III is defeated and Henry VII becomes the first Tudor king
1486	Henry VII marries Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV and unites the Houses of York and Lancaster
1513	Scots invade England and are defeated at battle of Flodden Field. James IV of Scotland killed
1525	William Tyndale's translation of the New Testament of the Bible is published
1534	Henry VIII denies the authority of the pope in England and becomes head of the English church
1536	Union of England and Wales
1549	The first Book of Common Prayer
1553	Execution of Lady Jane Grey
1558	Elizabeth I becomes queen of England and Protestantism is restored as the national religion
1570	Elizabeth I is excommunicated by the pope
1580	Francis Drake returns to England after his voyage around the world

1587	Mary, Queen of Scots, is executed.
1588	The Spanish Armada, sent by Philip of Spain to invade England, is defeated
1592	Presbyterian Church founded in Scotland
1603	James VI of Scotland becomes James I of England and the two kingdoms are united
1605	The Gunpowder Plot to blow up the House of Commons is discovered
1607	First British colony founded in Virginia
1620	Pilgrim Fathers sail in the <i>Mayflower</i> for America
1629	Charles I dissolves Parliament
1629-40	Personal government by Charles assisted by Strafford and Laud
1640	Charles I recalls Parliament
1641	Trial and execution of Strafford
1642	Civil war between Royalists and Parliamentarians begins
1644	Battle of Marston Moor in which the Royalists are defeated
1645	Formation of the New Model Army by Cromwell which wins an overwhelming battle at Naseby
1649	Trial and execution of Charles I
1653	Cromwell becomes Lord Protector of England
1656	Cromwell is offered the crown but refuses
1658	Death of Cromwell. He is succeeded by his son Richard
1660	Restoration of the monarchy under Charles II
1665	Great Plague in London
1666	Great Fire of London
1688	James II flees from England to France. William of Orange and Mary land in England and accept the throne
1689	Declaration of Rights establishes the rule of Parliament (Bill of Rights)
1694	Bank of England established
1707	The Act of Union unites the Parliaments of England and Scotland in the United Kingdom of Great Britain
1715	First Jacobite rebellion in Scotland
1752	Reformation of the calendar so that New Year starts on 1 January and not 25 March
1753	War between English and French colonists in Canada
1760	The conquest of Canada is completed

1775	Outbreak of the American War of Independence
1783	The Treaty of Versailles ends the American War and Britain recognizes the United States
1793	Outbreak of war between Britain and Revolutionary France
1798	Nelson destroys a French fleet at the battle of the Nile
1800	Parliaments of England and Ireland united by Act of Union. British forces capture Malta from the French
1801	Union Jack becomes flag of United Kingdom. First census taken in Britain
1807	Slave trade abolished by Act of Parliament. Beginning of Peninsular War against Spain
1815	Battle of Waterloo won by Wellington and abdication of Napoleon
1819	The 'Peterloo' massacre at Manchester
1832	First Parliamentary Reform Act in England
1833	First of many Factory Acts forbids employment of children under nine
1834	Passing of the Poor Law Amendment Act
1839	The first Chartist petition, calling for Parliamentary reforms, is presented to Parliament and refused. The colonisation of New Zealand
1840	Penny post introduced by Rowland Hill and the first use of adhesive postage stamps on letters
1841	Hong Kong becomes British colony
1845	The Potato Famine in Ireland
1846	Act passed for the abolition of the Corn Laws. Free trade begins
1848	Third Chartist petition fails
1870	First Elementary Education Act. The Irish Land Act
1877	Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress of India
1882	Britain occupies Egypt
1884	Third Reform Act passed
1886	Gladstone becomes prime minister for third time and introduces Home Rule Bill
1891	Education Act makes all elementary education free
1892	Gladstone becomes prime minister for fourth and last time
1911	National Insurance Act
1914	Outbreak of First World War.



2. Note down from the theoretical part phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme “The history of Great Britain”. Translate them into Ukrainian.



3. Find in the theoretical part the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

Constituency, ownership, inventor, steam engine, spinning jenny, flying shuttle, a weaver, a spinner, to put smb. out of work, wages, industrial towns, to oppose a bill, to raise to the peerage, to favour a bill, to challenge the economic and social interests, a workhouse, living quarters, universal male suffrage, radical MP, voting by ballot, to stand for election, a rising, petition, reforms, to enlist the support, suffragettes, social reformers, employment, factory inspectors, regulations, trade unions, picketing, free school meals, taxes, social programs, the budget, economic depression, emergency measures, to nationalize utilities, unemployment benefits.



4. Write all you can (What? When? Where? How?) about the following concepts and proper names:

The Industrial Revolution, steam engine, Rotten Boroughs, peerage, the Chartist Movement, the First World War, the suffragettes, Emmeline Pankhurst, the Women’s Social and Political Union, Peterloo, the social reformers, Elizabeth Fry, the Collieries Act of 1842, trade unions, the Grand National Consolidated Trades Union, picketing, the Labour Party, economic depression.



5. Study the theoretical material of Part IV and fill in table 1.

Table 1

Date	Historical event	Significance
1601		
1789-1832		
1819		

1834		
1839		
1903		
1929		



6. Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.

Королева Вікторія сама жила за певними правилами й розпорядком дня і вимагала того ж від своїх підданих. Користуючись своїм положенням монарха, вона власноручно розробляла правила етикету. Прагнення англійців додержуватися так званого «вікторіанського» етикету приймалося рештою народів світу за англійську манірність, чудово зображену в «Алісі в країні чудес» і розповідях про Шерлока Холмса й доктора Ватсона. Вікторіанську епоху часом згадують як епоху порядку й високих моральних принципів. Однак правління королеви відзначилось не тільки створенням нових моральних максим. У 1851 році у Лондоні відбулася Перша Всесвітня виставка, на якій були зібрані досягнення передової думки з усіх країн світу. Представлені в Кришталевому палаці експонати дали поштовх не тільки фантазіям Жуля Верна, але й реальному науково-технічному прогресу. Новаторство торкнулося всіх сторін життя: від перших у світі електродвигунів до бутерброда лорда Сендвіча. Найбільший флот з найсучаснішим озброєнням (перші броненосці з'явилися в Англії) дозволив Великій Британії розширити свої колоніальні володіння, зібравши під короною 40 країн та ставши, таким чином, найпершою колоніальною імперією в історії. Англія була центром світу, а англієць (подібно американцеві сьогодні) почував себе як удома майже в будь-якій точці земної кулі. Редьярд Кіплінг, «співець британського імперіалізму», оспівував у своїх баладах «тягар білої людини», що цивілізовані англійці мужньо несуть у колоніях серед тубільців, цих «похмурих» бентежних дикунів. Але час ішов і золота доба Британської імперії підходила до завершення. Старіючій королеві важко було встояти проти натиску проамериканської буржуазії, що потребувала більш агресивної зовнішньої політики. Королева намагалася влагодити всі справи по-домашньому, влаштовуючи шлюби своїх родичів зі членами монарших родин. 22 січня 1901 року у замському мастку Осборн

королева Вікторія доживала свою останню годину. Важка 82-літня жінка, що пересувалася за допомогою крісла-коляски, не втратила ілюзій про особливе призначення своєї влади й бажання правити. Увечері королеви не стало, а наступного дня ранком її старший син і спадкоємець престолу принц Уельський, хрещений під ім'ям Альберта Едуарда, відправився в Лондон. Тут у Сент-Джеймському палаці на засіданні Таємної ради його проголосили королем, клятву прийняв архієпископ Кентерберійський Фредерик Темп.



7. *Be prepared to speak about these events using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme and the following clichés:*

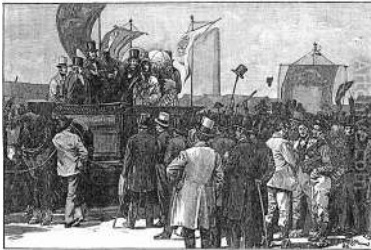
to challenge the economic and social interests	to enlist the support
to increase the amount of work	to remain illegal
to revolutionize factory practice	to patent an invention
to put smb. out of work	to raise to the peerage
to wreck machines	to receive education
to be represented in Parliament	the age of aristocratic excess
to oppose (to reject) a bill	to be imprisoned
to relieve poverty	to be arrested
to receive help from the State	voting by ballot
to enter a workhouse	to ascend the throne
universal male suffrage	to be chronicled
the right to stand for election	to hold firm
to present petitions	emergency measures
to fulfil the main demand	to put smth. into effect
to grant the right to vote	to abandon free
trade	
an experienced fighter	to bring smb.'s attention to
to deserve the right to vote	to recognize the existence
to coordinate action among the unions	to become a force in
politics	
to form unions collectively	to pass an act
to threaten one's financial existence	to nationalize utilities
to introduce the people's budget	to reduce unemployment benefits
to encourage the population to "buy British"	to endure the depression



The Industrial Revolution



The Suffragette Movement



The Chartist Movement



Peterloo



GENERALIZING TEST

1. Henry VIII applied to the Pope in Rome for...?

- a) money;
- b) power;
- c) divorce;
- d) support;

2. English language is...in origin?

- a) French;
- b) Celtic;
- c) German;
- d) Norman;

3. London was founded by...in 43 A.D?

- a) Celts;
- b) Anglo-Saxons;

- c)Romans;
 - d)Normans;
- 4.1215 is the date of...?
- a)foundation of first English Parliament;
 - b)signing of Magna Carta;
 - c)signing of the Bill of Rights;
 - d)foundation of Great Council;
- 5.The second conquered country was...?
- a)Ireland;
 - b)Wales;
 - c)Scotland;
 - d)England;
- 6.Norman French is still the local language of...?
- a)Northern Ireland;
 - b)the Isle of Man;
 - c)the Channel Islands;
 - d)Wales;
- 7.William the Conqueror conquered Britain in...?
- a)1166;
 - b)1060;
 - c)1066;
 - d)1611;
- 8.Oliver Cromwell...?
- a)ran away to France;
 - b)was beheaded;
 - c)died a natural death;
 - d)died a hero's death;
- 9.They were the people who reached Britain before any of the others?
- a)Normans;
 - b)Vikings;
 - c)Angles;
 - d)Celts;
- 10.1265 is the date of foundation of the first English...?
- a)parliament;
 - b)council;
 - c)church;

d)court;

11.The working houses were ... for the poor?

- a)prisons;
- b)small manual enterprises;
- c)taverns;
- d)hospitals;

12.Chartists demanded ...?

- a)presentation in Parliament;
- b)better working conditions;
- c)a vote for every man in the country;
- d)equal rights with members of Parliament;

13.Suffragettes demanded ...?

- a)abolishing of poverty;
- b)equal rights with men;
- c)presentation in Parliament;
- d)equal rights with members of Parliament;

14.The type of governing in Great Britain is ...?

- a)monarchy;
- b)parliamentary monarchy;
- c)republic;
- d)absolute monarchy;

15.Norman French is still the local language of ...?

- a)Northern Ireland;
- b)the Isle of Man;
- c)the Channel Islands;
- d)the Isle of Scilly;

16.As the result of the Civil War England was proclaimed ...?

- a)monarchic republic;
- b)president republic;
- c)parliamentarian republic;
- d)constitutional republic;

17.Magna Carta and Bill of Rights limited...?

- a)the power of the monarch;
- b)the power of the church;
- c)the power of the parliament;

d)the power of the president;

18.The industrial revolution began ...?

a)in the 19th century;

b)in the 17th century;

c)in the 15th century;

d)in the 20th century;

19.Trade Unions defended the rights of ...?

a)the poor;

b)the nobles;

c)the workers;

d)the monarch;

20.The monarchy in Britain in the 17th century was restored by...?

a)Charles I;

b)Charles II;

c)James I;

d)James II.



TESTS IN THEMATIC VOCABULARY

Test 1. *Choose the one word or phrase that best keeps the meaning of the original sentence if it is substituted for the capitalized word or phrase:*

1. From time to time the Celtic TRIBES were attacked and overcome by the invaders from the Continent.
 - a) traders
 - b) sellers
 - c) clans
 - d) sailors
2. Some of the Iberians were SLAIN in the conflict.
 - a) killed
 - b) imprisoned
 - c) honoured

- d) wounded
3. The military leaders were called kings and stood at the head of
DETACHMENTS of warriors.
- a) vanguards
 - b) lines
 - c) rows
 - d) crowds
4. This piece was MINTED to celebrate the victory at Trafalgar.
- a) spent
 - b) moulded
 - c) forged
 - d) coined
5. At the battle of Waterloo, Napoleon's forces RETREATED.
- a) attacked
 - b) withdrew
 - c) intercepted
 - d) pursued
6. Bread has been a STAPLE of the human diet since prehistoric times.
- a) basic part
 - b) fastener
 - c) great delicacy
 - d) highlight
7. The DERIVATION of the town-name is unknown.
- a) nature
 - b) history
 - c) origin
 - d) future
8. The castle was surrounded by a MOAT.
- a) dam
 - b) ditch

- c) pond
 - d) stream
9. The Union Jack is the national ENSIGN of Great Britain.
- a) flag
 - b) motto
 - c) standard
 - d) sign
10. There are some beautiful STAINED glass windows in Canterbury Cathedral.
- a) marked
 - b) drawn
 - c) designed
 - d) coloured glass
11. The king had no MERCY on any disloyal subject.
- a) allowance
 - b) compassion
 - c) regret
 - d) favour
12. During Queen Elizabeth I's REIGN, England's role in the world changed dramatically.
- a) sovereignty
 - b) coronation
 - c) ruling
 - d) monarchy
13. The prince ASSUMED power on the death of his father.
- a) undertook
 - b) consumed
 - c) underdid
 - d) resumed
14. The King was obliged to ABDICATE, and a republic was proclaimed.
- a) die
 - b) vacate

- c) renounce
 - d) leave
15. The conspirators were planning the OVERTHROW of the Government.
- a) deposing
 - b) withdrawal
 - c) disaster
 - d) demolition
16. The druids often acted as PROPHETS.
- a) chiefs
 - b) predictors
 - c) warriors
 - d) priests
17. In the course of the CONQUEST many of the Celts were killed.
- a) battle
 - b) war
 - c) devastation
 - d) invasion
18. A travelling PEDDLER sometimes called at the village.
- a) street trader
 - b) street clown
 - c) street lawyer
 - d) street troubadour
19. The CLERGY, royal warriors and officials supported the king's power.
- a) nobility
 - b) knights
 - c) ministry
 - d) government
20. The VILLEINS had to use their own carts and ploughs drawn by their own oxen.
- a) bondmen
 - b) freemen

- c) doormen
 d) landsmen
21. Belgae were BELLICOSE people of antiquity, who lived mainly in the region of the English Channel and the North Sea.
- a) brave
 b) noisy
 c) sly
 d) hostile
22. There were many armed REBELLIONS which William was forced to crush.
- a) revolts
 b) demonstrations
 c) invasions
 d) meetings

Test 2. *Fill in the blanks with the following words. You may use each word only once:*

shields axes oak-poles footmen fighting archers

tactics fire-arms outnumbered pitchforks peasants mass

superior well-armed bodyguard cavalry levies combination

The Battle of Hastings

The Normansthe Anglo-Saxon forces and were greatly in quality. They were all men for whom was the main occupation in life. They were and the chance of being killed was not so great, since they all wore armour and there were no..... at that time. The superior military of the well-trained Normans were unknown in England. They used a skilful of heavy-armoured and

The Anglo-Saxons had a small cavalry, it was mainly Harold's..... . The hastily gathered of freemade up the main body of the Anglo-Saxon army. Not all the were properly armed, many were armed with,, or only thick The Anglo-Saxon footmen usually

fought in a standing close together, so as to form a wall of to protect themselves.

Test 3. *Match the definition with the correct word:*

1. sovereign	a) a person holding the title of duke, marquess, earl, viscount, or baron, or a feminine equivalent
2. ancestry	b) the act, process, or right by which one person succeeds to the office, power, of another
3. invasion	c) a formal document granting or demanding from the sovereign power of a state certain rights or liberties
4. community	d) the right to vote, especially in public elections;
5. rebellion	e) an insurrection or rebellion; revolt
6. lord	f) one of the British counties
7. noble	g) a person who travels from place to place selling goods
8. bishop	h) the conscription of troops for service
9. dictatorship	i) the right of an eldest son to succeed to the estate of his ancestor to the exclusion of all others
10. succession	j) the period during which a monarch is the official ruler of a country
11. charter	k) absolute or supreme power or authority
12. suffrage	l) a clergyman having spiritual and administrative powers over a province of the Church
13. rising	m) a feudal superior, especially the master of a manor
14. shire	n) organized resistance or opposition to a government or other authority
15. peddler	o) a group of people having cultural,

	religious, ethnic, or other characteristics in common
16. levy	p) a person exercising supreme authority, a monarch
17. primogeniture	q) the raid with armed forces
18. heir	r) genealogy or descent, especially when ancient, noble, or distinguished
19. reign	s) a person legally succeeding to all property of a deceased person

Test 4. Sort out the following thematic vocabulary in five columns:

Royal family	Royal household	nobility	armour	castle
e. g. king	page	peer	sword	tower

Spear	consort	dagger	earl	moat
Shield	axe	banqueting-hall	courtyard	lady-in- waiting
Fortress	baron	drawbridge	gauntlet	lance
Prince	battlement	duke	herald	marquess
Bedchamber	princess	turret	dungeon	jester
Minstrel	queen	footman	bishop	baron
hauberk	throne	gun	councilor	guard
halberd	arbalest	longbow	arrow	spire
chapel	arsenal	lord	regent	empress
knight	lady's maid	dame	heir	viscount

Test 5. Find the synonyms and group them correspondingly:

Tribe, slave, weapon, raid, heir, farmworker, revolt, battle, bellicose, ancient, descendant, monarch, successor, gentry, title, county, dominion, master, ruler, clan, settlement, conquest, reign, lord, family, armour, peasant, rebellion, hostile,

antique, shire, serf, invasion, offspring, colony, subdual, fight, sovereign, rank, nobility, rule, governor.

Test 6. Complete each of the following sentences with one of the words below:

unification crafts trial vassals summoning heirs
treason serfs duke raids craftsmen succession

1. The Danish sped up the impoverishment of the Anglo-Saxon peasants.
2. The process of turning the free peasants into was not completed by the 11th century.
3. The Normans lived under the rule of their own
4. All the kings' were registered in the Domesday Book.
5. The final of Scotland and England took place in 1707.
6. Charles I tried to rule without Parliament for 11 years.
7. Charles was captured and put on for In 1649.
8. Soon after Charles Britain had two major catastrophes - the Plague in 1665 and the Great Fire of London the following year.
9. Charles produced no legitimate
10. The number of in towns increased and new appeared.



 5. STATE SYSTEM OF GREAT BRITAIN 

THEORETICAL PART



PRELIMINARY DISCUSSION

- What are the powers of the monarch in the UK?
- What do the letters MP stand for?
- What is “a reading” in Parliament?
- Who were called “the Tories” and who were called “the Whigs”?
- What does the concept ‘primogeniture’ mean?
- Who chooses the Cabinet of Ministers?

1. THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT 

Great Britain is usually called the mother country of capitalism. It was the first country that had built up heavy industry. As for its **political system** Great Britain is a **parliamentary monarchy** now. The official head of the state is the **sovereign** /the present one is the Queen Elizabeth II/, but the **monarch** has no real power. The power of the Queen is limited by Parliament. By the way it is the oldest Parliament in the world which exists in Great Britain since 1265.

The **supreme legislative power** in the country belongs to Parliament which consists of two Houses: the House of Lords (**the upper chamber**) and the House of Commons (**the lower chamber**).

The House of Lords consists of about 800 **peers** who are not elected. The peers have five ranks: duke, marquise, earl, viscount and baron. Peerage in Britain is more privileged than the royal membership. The head of the House is the Lord Chancellor, who is appointed by prime minister. He **conducts** the meeting, sitting on the wool sack, which is a symbol of the times when the power of the country mainly depended on the sheep-breeding and wool production. These powers of the House of Lords are limited because most Britons believe that in a modern democracy a **nonelected house** should only act as a **forum for opinion**, one that is comparatively free from party politics and pressures.



The Houses of Parliament, London, England

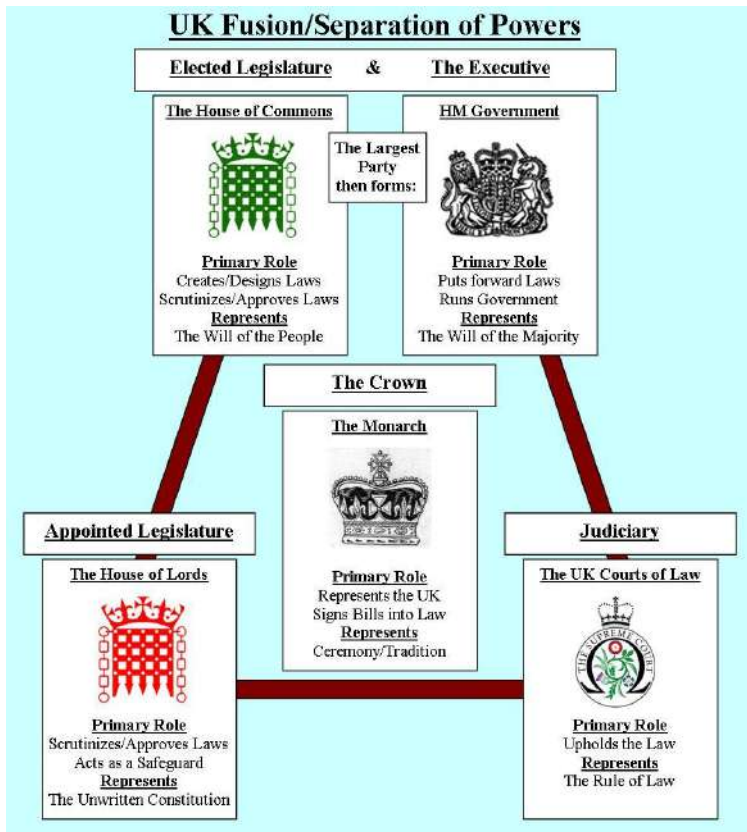
The city of London, capital of the United Kingdom, is the seat of government. Parliament, seen here, consists of the House of Lords and the House of Commons. Built between 1840 and 1850, the neo-Gothic complex of buildings is still officially called the New Palace of Westminster.

The House of Lords today is more a place of discussion and debate than one of power, and it normally passes legislation already approved by the House of Commons. The House of Lords comprises the **lords temporal**, the **lords spiritual** and the **law lords**. The lords temporal are either **hereditary peers** or **life peers**. Life peers are appointed by the monarch for the duration of the person's lifetime. These appointments are usually made in recognition of outstanding careers or contributions to society. Famous people who have been made peers are former British prime ministers Winston Churchill and Harold Wilson. The lords spiritual include the **archbishops** of Canterbury and York; the **bishops** of London, Durham and Winchester; and the twenty one next most senior bishops. The law lords assist in the judicial functions of the House of Lords.

The House of Lords has the power to introduce bills, although bills dealing with financial matters can only originate in the House of Commons. The Lords can also offer **amendments** to bills passed by the House of Commons, and the Commons is obligated to consider these amendments before passing a bill into law. The Lords have the right **to delay legislation**, and may delay bills for up to about a year.

Although this house has relatively little power, many Britons would like to either abolish it completely or replace it with some form of elected second chamber.

Traditionally **the sittings of Parliament** are opened by the Queen who sits on the throne in the House of Lords.



Separation of Powers in the United Kingdom

The House of Commons consists of 650 **elected members**. It is the source of real political power in the United Kingdom. Its members are democratically elected by **universal suffrage** of citizens over the age of 18. General elections are held every five years. Certain groups that are denied the right to vote, however, include: members of the House of Lords, some detained mental health patients, sentenced prisoners, and those convicted in corrupt or illegal election practices in the previous five years. In addition, certain persons are excluded from **standing for election** to the House of Commons, they include: peers, clergy from the Church of England, the Church of Scotland, the Church of Ireland, or the Roman Catholic Church.



The House of Commons

The House of Commons is the lower house of Parliament of the United Kingdom. Like the upper house, the House of Lords, it meets in the Palace of Westminster. The House of Commons of England evolved in the 13th and 14th centuries. It eventually became the House of Commons of Great Britain after the political union with Scotland in 1707, and assumed the title of "House of Commons of Great Britain and Ireland" after the political union with Ireland at the start of the 19th century.

Members of the House of Commons are elected from **geographical constituencies** determined by population, and each MP (Member of Parliament) represents approximately 60,000 people.

The head of the House is the Speaker, on whose chair there is the switch that put on the light on the Clock Tower above Big Ben to tell Londoners that Parliament is sitting. The members of Parliament sit on both sides of the Speaker, the Government on his right, **the opposition** on his left.



Lord Chancellor in formal clothing

Lord Chancellor is a senior functionary in the government of the United Kingdom. They are appointed by the Sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister. The Lord Chancellor is a member of the Cabinet and, by law, is responsible for the efficient functioning and independence of the courts.

5. STATE SYSTEM OF GREAT BRITAIN

The maximum life of a Parliament is five years. Elections are set by the prime minister on the basis of political necessity or advantage. If the cabinet, formed by the leading party in Commons, loses a **vote of confidence** or fails to carry its **legislation** in Commons, it must resign or request a **dissolution**. An election can be held in as short a time as three weeks. Because of the strict **party discipline**, important decisions are often made not in Parliament, but beforehand in the less formal meetings of the cabinet and **party caucus**.

Parliament's main functions are: 1) **lawmaking**, 2) **authorizing taxations and public expenditures**, 3) **examining the actions of the government**.

The **executive power** belongs to the sovereign, but it is **entrusted** to the Cabinet which consists of the most important **ministers** of the Crown, **presided over** the Prime Minister (usually the leader of **the party of the majority**). The party which loses the elections is called the opposition.



The House of Lords

The House of Lords is the upper house of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. Like the House of Commons, it meets in the Palace of Westminster. Unlike the elected House of Commons, all members of the House of Lords (excluding 90 hereditary peers elected among themselves and two peers who are ex officio members) are appointed. The United Kingdom's House of Lords is composed of hereditary peers, who inherit their titles, and life peers, who are appointed by the Crown in honor of their professional achievements. The lobby of the House of Lords, located in London, is shown here.

2. THE MONARCHY

The British monarchy stands for the continuity of British history going back to Anglo-Saxon times, and today it serves as a figurehead for the state. In theory, the British monarch has enormous powers, but in reality those powers are limited and the Crown follows the dictates and advice of the ministers in Parliament. The British monarchy has been a **hereditary position** since the 9th century, although

Parliament has stepped in at times to alter the **succession**, for example, in 1701 when the house of Hannover was selected to replace the Stuart dynasty.

Primogeniture, the passing of the throne to the eldest son when a monarch dies, has been the rule of succession, and when there are no sons, the eldest daughter ascends the throne. This was the case when Elizabeth II succeeded to the throne in February 1952 upon the death of her father, George VI. Her husband, Prince Philip, has the title of Prince Consort, but no rank or **privileges**. The current **heir** to the throne is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles, Prince of Wales. According to the Act of Settlement of 1701, only Protestants are **eligible** to succeed to the throne. A **regent** may be appointed to rule for the **sovereign** if he or she is underage or incapacitated.

As the official head of state, the monarch formally summons and dismisses Parliament and the ministers of the Cabinet. The monarch also serves as head of the judiciary, commander in chief of the armed forces, and Supreme Governor of the Church of England and the Church of Scotland. In reality, the government carries out the duties associated with these functions. Theoretically, the monarch appoints all judges, military officers, diplomats, and archbishops, as well as other



Queen Elizabeth II and Prince Consort Philip

Elizabeth II has been Queen of the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand since 6 February 1952. She is Head of the Commonwealth and Queen of 12 countries that have become independent since her accession: Jamaica, Barbados, the Bahamas, Grenada, Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Tuvalu, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Belize, Antigua and Barbuda, and Saint Kitts and Nevis.

Prince Philip is the husband and consort of Queen Elizabeth II. As consort to the Queen, Philip supported his wife in her new duties as sovereign, accompanying her to ceremonies such as the State Opening of Parliament in various countries, state dinners, and tours abroad.

church officers. The monarch also **bestows honors** and awards, such as **knighthoods** and peerages. In reality, all of these appointments are made upon the advice of the prime minister. The prime minister declares war and peace and **concludes treaties** with foreign states in the name of the Crown. The monarch serves as the **ceremonial head** of the Commonwealth of Nations and is the ceremonial head of state for 16 Commonwealth countries.

The real work of the monarchy consists largely of signing papers. The monarch has the right, however, to be consulted on all aspects of national life and review all important government documents. The monarch may also meet with the Privy Council, a now largely ceremonial body made up of Cabinet members that serves in an **advisory capacity** to the monarch. Since Britain is a democracy, the monarchy could potentially be abolished if a majority of the population decides to do so. In the early 21st century the monarchy generally remained popular, despite unpleasant media coverage surrounding the marriages and relationships of the royal family. Only Scotland had a small majority that wanted to make the United Kingdom a republic.

The royal family performs such ceremonial functions as cutting ribbons, opening businesses, launching ships, and laying cornerstones. Many members of the royal family are involved in charity work and maintain a public presence by visiting shelters, hospitals, and clinics. Because foreigners are attracted to the pageantry of royalty, tourism related to the royal family brings a substantial amount of money into the country.

3. THE GOVERNMENT



After each general election a King or a Queen invites the leader of the majority party in the House of Commons to become Prime Minister and form the Government. This Minister has an official London house while he or she is **in office**; it is at No.10, Downing Street. He also has the use of a country house, named Chequers.

The Prime Minister selects the other Ministers, men and women, whom he wishes **to take charge** of the chief **government departments** or to do other government work. About sixty members of Parliament are required for these special offices. Most of the Ministers are chosen from the House of Commons, but



Chequers

The country house in Buckinghamshire, gifted to the government in 1917, may be used as a country retreat for the Prime Minister.

a few must be in the House of Lords so that the government plans can be explained there.

Most Ministers are in charge of departments which keep them busy; a few are not in charge of departments but are free to advise and help wherever the government work requires (they are called **Ministers without portfolio**). The Prime Minister himself often takes charge of one of the departments. He is usually First Lord of the Treasury, the department which deals with the money collected and spent by the Government. Some Prime Ministers have also been Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

From all the Ministers the Prime Minister selects about twenty of his leading party members in the House of Commons to take the chief offices in the Government and sit with him in **the Cabinet**.

The Cabinet is a kind of “**inner government**” within the Government. Over the years the **membership** of the Cabinet has varied in size between 17 and 23 and includes the Lord President of the Council, the Lord Chancellor (who is the **representative** of the House of Lords), the Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs, etc.

The main feature of the British political system is “Cabinet Government”, that is, the leading role is played not by the Monarch, who remains head of the state, or Parliament, which is officially **the supreme lawmaking body**, but the Cabinet. The Cabinet directs the **administration**, controls the process of lawmaking, and **dominates** the House of Commons. It decides what subjects will be **debated** in the House, drafts and proposes all important **legislations**. Other MPs are limited to criticize these proposals. And in many cases the Cabinet takes **major policy decisions** without giving Parliament the opportunity to express its views. In such cases **supporters** of the Government in the House of Commons are instructed

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to vote in favour of the Cabinet decision; if they ignore the instruction, they risk to lose their party's support at the next election.

All Ministers must agree on the policy of the Cabinet. If a Minister finds he cannot agree, he **resigns**. The Prime Minister himself may require a Minister to resign, though in fact **resignation** of Ministers are usually arranged so as to appeal to be **voluntary**, with polite letters exchanged and published in the newspapers.

From time to time there is a "**reshuffle**" of Ministers: one or two or three Ministers leave the Government, a few new ones are brought in, and several change jobs.

Although each Minister must speak only in the House to which he belongs, the Government is responsible only to the House of Commons and the work of each Minister is always **kept under observation** by the so-called *Shadow Cabinet*. The opposition has a duty to criticize Government policies and to present **alternative programme**.

Britain's democratic government is based on a constitution (which is uncodified) composed of various historical documents, laws, and formal customs adopted over the years. The British constitution comprises multiple documents. The written part consists of the Magna Carta, written in 1215; the Petition of Right, passed by Parliament in 1628; and the Bill of Rights of 1689. It also includes the entire body of laws enacted by Parliament, **precedents** established by decisions made in British courts of law, and various traditions and customs.



Guard at No. 10 Downing Street

A guard stands in front of No. 10 Downing Street, the official residence of the British prime minister in London.

The democratically elected House of Commons can alter these laws with a majority vote. The constitution continually evolves as new laws are passed and judicial decisions are handed down. All laws passed by Parliament are regarded as constitutional, and changes or amendments to the constitution occur whenever new legislation overrides existing law. Although the Crown gives its **royal assent** to legislation, this is a mere formality.

Stages of the bill adoption

Bill is also called “Act of Parliament”. It is a change in the law originating in Parliament and called a **statute**. Before an **act** receives the **royal assent** and becomes law, it is a bill. An act of Parliament in Britain may be either public (of general effect), local, or private. The body of English statute law comprises all the acts passed by Parliament. The existing list opens with the Statute of Merton, passed in 1235.

A bill may be introduced in either house of Parliament, with the exception of **money bills**, which only the House of Commons can **initiate**. The House of Lords can delay **fiscal bills** passed by the House of Commons, but for only one month. This and other restrictions on the House of Lords were introduced in the Parliament Act of 1911.

Any member of Parliament may introduce a **public bill**, but usually only government bills, or bills with government support, have much chance of passing into law. Public bills are debated in principle on the second and third readings, and in detail in committee or on report from committee to the whole house.

A private bill, affecting only some individual or corporation, is introduced by **petition** of the parties concerned, and passes through the same stages. If, however, the preamble (the introduction stating the purpose) of a private bill is not “proved”—that is, if the special committee to which it is referred finds that there is no evident cause for it—it is **thrown out**.

All acts are public unless otherwise stated. They are binding on all, and are not publicly **promulgated** (formally announced) because every citizen is presumed to know what is in them. Unless specified, the public acts of the United Kingdom do not apply to the crown, the Isle of Man, or the Channel Islands. An act may be temporary, and many **temporary acts** (100 or so) are renewed from year to year by the Expiring Laws Continuance Act. An act (unless it is stated to end after a definite period) remains **in force** in England until repealed, but in Scotland acts

that have never been repealed are sometimes held to have lost their force because of lapse of time.

4. THE CABINET



The Prime Minister of Great Britain forms and heads **the principle organ of the executive**, called the Cabinet:

Lord President of the Council is responsible for the committees of the Privy Council;

Lord Chancellor is the Speaker of the House of Lords, head of the **judiciary** and **the keeper** of the Great Seal;

Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs is responsible for the conduct of relations with foreign governments, with Commonwealth and the Republic of Ireland; controls the Foreign Service;

Secretary of State for the Home department is responsible for **the maintenance of law and order**, **efficiency** of the police, treatment of offenders, prisons, and care of children and young persons, civil defence; **he supervises** the fire Services , controls immigration;

Secretary of State for Trade and Industry is responsible for the control of exports and imports, the development of overseas trade and of commerce, standards of weights and measures, management and development in various branches of industry;

Secretary of State for Defence is responsible for **the general policy** of social development, family allowances, retirement and war pensions, sick-pays, general **medical services** and **public health**;

Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food is responsible for home-produced and imported food supplies, research and experimental services in these spheres, agriculture subsidies, fishing and food industries;

Secretary of State for the Environment is responsible for the preservation or improvement of the natural environment (water, soil, forest, wild life, etc.), as well as for the activities of **the local government**;

Secretary of State for the Employment is responsible for **employment exchanges**, industrial training, **arbitration** of industrial disputes, **the inspection** of working conditions and safety;



The British Cabinet (2016)

The British Cabinet is the collective decision-making body of Her Majesty's Government of the United Kingdom, composed of the Prime Minister and some 21 cabinet ministers, the most senior of the government ministers.

Secretary of State for Education and Science is responsible for universities, colleges and schools, teacher training and research in these spheres;

Secretary of State for Energy is responsible for atomic energy research, the construction and **maintenance** of power stations, coal, gas, and electricity and oil industries;

Secretary of State for Transport is responsible for the construction and maintenance of roads, road traffic and safety, railways, inland waterways, state airports;

Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster is responsible for the management and maintenance of royal palaces, parks and forests in Lancashire (north-west England); he performs any special duties **assigned** to him by the Prime Minister;

Secretary of State for Wales, Secretary of State for Scotland, Secretary of State for Northern Ireland – these Ministers are responsible for most matters within Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland correspondingly: for the maintenance of law and order, the activities of the local government, town planning, housing, roads, traffic control, etc.

5. THE POLITICAL PARTIES

Thanks to the British electoral system there are few **political parties** in Britain. The main of them are the following: *the Conservative Party, the Labour Party and the Liberal/Social Democratic Alliance*. In recent years *the Green Party*

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has **gained** a good number of **votes** but very few seats. Other smaller parties such as *the Scottish National Party*, *Plaid Cumry (the Welsh National Party)*, *the Protestant Northern Irish parties* and *Sinn Fein (the catholic Northern Irish party)* also have some representation in the House of Commons.

The Conservative Party mainly represents the **middle and upper classes**, but a high percentage of skilled and unskilled workers have always voted Conservative. Its support comes mostly from business interests and it **upholds the values of tradition**, free enterprise and privatization. The party's area where it is the most popular is in southern England.

The Conservative Party is often called the Tory Party. The word 'tory' means an Irish highwayman and was applied to the conservatives by their opponents but later they adopted the name to describe themselves. The Tories opposed the ideas of the French Revolution, Parliamentary Reform and the development of Trade Unionism. They supported the Anglican Church and the hereditary right to the throne.

The Labour Party has traditionally gathered its support from the Trade Unions, the working class and some middle class. Its **electoral areas** have always been in South Wales, Scotland, the Midlands and northern English industrial cities. Its policies are nationalization and the welfare state.

The Tories called the Liberals 'Whigs'. A 'whig' was a Scottish preacher who could go on for 4 or 5 hours at a time preaching moralizing sermons. In the middle of the 19th century the Liberal party represented the trading and manufacturing classes.

The Liberal/Social Democratic Alliance is dissatisfied with both the main parties and is critical of the **election system**.



The Conservative Party

Has been in power since 1670 (Tory); the official colours: green and blue; the official emblem – a tree



The Labour Party

Has been in power since 1906; the official colour: red; the official emblem- a fist with a red rose



The Liberal Party

Has been in power since 19th century (Whigs); the official colours: black and yellow; the official emblem- a rhomb

Self-checking Questions



1. Why is Britain usually called the mother country of capitalism?
2. To whom does the supreme legislative power belong in the country?
3. Who opens the sittings of Parliament?
4. What are Parliament's main functions?
5. To whom does the executive power belong in the country?
6. What is the Cabinet?
7. What is the Shadow Cabinet?
8. What Ministers are called Ministers without portfolio?
9. What are the main responsibilities of the Ministers of the Cabinet?
10. Are there many political parties in Great Britain? What are they?
11. What lords does the House of Lords comprise?
12. What groups are excluded from standing for election?
13. What does the real work of the monarchy consist of?
14. Who can introduce a public bill?
15. What does the concept "royal assent" mean?
16. Does the Monarch have the real legislative power in Great Britain nowadays?

PRACTICAL PART



ASSIGNMENTS



1. Study the following proper names and practice their pronunciation:

Queen Elizabeth II [kwɪːn ɪ 'lɪzəbəθ də 'sekənd]	Parliament ['pɑːləmənt]
the House of Lords [ðə haʊs ɒv lɔːdz]	the Speaker [ðə 'spiːkə]
the House of Commons [ðə haʊs ɒv 'kɒmənz]	Stuart ['stjuːt]
the Lord Chancellor [ðə lɔːd 'tʃɑːnsələ]	Harold Wilson [hærlɔːd 'wɪlsən]
Winston Churchill ['wɪnstən 'tʃɜːtʃɪl]	Prince Consort [prɪns 'kɒnsɔːt]
the Roman Catholic Church [ðə 'rəʊmən 'kæθəlɪk tʃɜːtʃ]	Prince of Wales [prɪns ɒv weɪlz]
the Prime Minister [ðə praɪm 'mɪnɪstə]	Privy Council [ˈprɪvi 'kaʊns(ə)l]
Supreme Governor [sjuː(ː) 'priːm ˈgʌvənə]	the Commonwealth of Nations [ðə 'kɒmənwelθ ɒv 'neɪʃənz]
the Expiring Laws Continuance Act [ði ɪks 'paɪərɪŋ lɔːz kən'tɪnjuəns ækt]	The Conservative Party [ðə kən'sɜːvətɪv 'pɑːtɪ]
The Conservative Party [ðə kən'sɜːvətɪv 'pɑːtɪ]	Chequers [tʃekəz]
the Tory Party [ðə 'tɔːrɪ 'pɑːtɪ]	The Cabinet [ðə 'kæbɪnɪt]
the Labour Party [ðə 'leɪbə 'pɑːtɪ]	Whigs [wɪgz]
the Liberal/Social Democratic Alliance [ðə 'lɪbərəl/'səʊʃəl ,demə'krætɪk ə'laɪəns]	
the Scottish National Party [ðə 'skɒtɪʃ 'næʃənəl 'pɑːtɪ]	
the Welsh National Party [ðə welʃ 'næʃənəl 'pɑːtɪ]	
the Protestant Northern Irish party [ðə 'prɒtɪstənt 'nɔːðən 'aɪərɪʃ pɑːtɪ]	
the catholic Northern Irish party [ðə 'kæθəlɪk 'nɔːðən 'aɪərɪʃ 'pɑːtɪ]	



2. Note down from the theoretical part phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme "State system of Great Britain". Translate them into Ukrainian.



3. Find in the theoretical part the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

Parliamentary monarchy, the supreme legislative power, the executive power, the upper chamber, the lower chamber, peerage, hereditary peers, life peers, to offer amendments, to delay bills, universal suffrage, to stand for election, geographical constituencies, a vote of confidence, dissolution, the party of the majority, a figurehead, a hereditary position, primogeniture, a regent, an heir to the throne, ceremonial functions, charity work, to be in office, to take charge, Ministers without portfolio, resignation, reshuffle of Ministers, uncodified constitution, the royal assent.



4. Write all you can (*What? When? Where? How?*) about the following concepts and proper names:

The House of Lords, the House of Commons, the Lord Chancellor, the Roman Catholic Church, geographical constituencies, the Speaker, the opposition, the Prime Minister, the Crown, succession, Prince Consort Philip, Elizabeth II, the Act of Settlement of 1701, the Cabinet, the Supreme Governor of the Church of England and the Church of Scotland, the Commonwealth of Nations, the Privy Council, Chequers, the Shadow Cabinet, the Magna Carta, the Conservative Party, the Labour Party, the Liberal Party, the French Revolution, the Trade Unions.



5. Study the theoretical material and fill in table 1 reflecting the basic functions of the bodies of authorities.

Table 1

№	Bodies of authorities	Basic functions
1.	The Cabinet	
2.	The Prime Minister	
3.	The House of Lords	
4.	The House of Commons	
5.	The Shadow Cabinet	
6.	The Queen	



6. Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.

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Палата лордів – це верхня палата Парламенту Великобританії. Точна дата заснування Палати лордів відсутня у правовій літературі, однак вже у XI та XII сторіччях королі скликали ради як допоміжний орган управління. Попервах ці ради склалися з найвпливовіших баронів англійського королівства та церковників. Ці ради мали допомагати королю у питаннях оподаткування населення, а також вносити пропозиції щодо прийняття деяких законів. Право засідати у раді швидко стало спадковим для багатьох баронів, через що Палата стала включати не стільки васалів короля, скільки синів його лордів. Протягом XIII сторіччя король почав запрошувати до цього відомства деяких буржуа та дворян. В XIV сторіччі барони та представники церкви відокремилися від дворян та буржуа. Таким чином, в Англії було створено дві палати: Палату общин та Палату лордів. Формально Палати були рівноправними, однак право встановлювати оподаткування швидко закріпилося за Палатою общин. Попри це, Палата лордів завжди була могутньою та впливовою частиною британського парламенту. Єдиним часом в історії Великобританії, коли Палата лордів не існувала, стали роки англійської революції (1649-1660). Починаючи з 1399 року Палата лордів виконувала функції вищої судової інстанції у державі. З 1876 року судові функції виконувались апеляційним комітетом палати, що складався з 12 лордів-суддів, довічних перів з юридичним досвідом.



7. *Be prepared to speak about these bodies of authorities using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme and the following clichés:*

To be appointed by	to assist in judicial functions
to present alternative programme	to lose the elections
to uphold the values of tradition	to serve as head of
to be elected by universal suffrage	to introduce bills
to be excluded from standing for election	to be limited by
to lose a vote of confidence	to delay legislation
to request a dissolution	to bestow honors
to be entrusted to the Cabinet	to ascend the throne
to serve as a figurehead	to conclude treaties
to be a hereditary position	to be in office

to be eligible to succeed
to summon\ to dismiss Parliament
to serve as the ceremonial head
to perform ceremonial functions
to be involved in charity work
to direct the administration
to be kept under observation
to receive the royal assent
to be introduced by petition

to vote in favour
to delay bills
to remain in force
to conduct meetings
to alter the succession
to agree on the policy
to take charge
to oppose the ideas of
to offer amendments



The House of Lords



The House of Commons



The Monarchy



The Cabinet



GENERALIZING TEST

1. As for its political system Great Britain is a ...now?
- a) parliamentary monarchy;
 - b) constitutional monarchy;
 - c) democratic republic;
 - d) parliamentary republic;

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2...sits on the Wool sack?

- a) the Speaker;
- b) the Queen;
- c) Lord Chancellor;
- d) Prime Minister;

3. State system of Great Britain is a ...parts system?

- a) two;
- b) three;
- c) four;
- d) five;

4. The Queen opens every session of Parliament sitting on a throne in the...?

- a) House of Lords;
- b) House of Commons;
- c) Cabinet;
- d) Privy Council;

5. The executive power belongs to...?

- a) Prime Minister;
- b) sovereign;
- c) Lord Chancellor;
- d) Speaker;

6. The opposition has a duty to...?

- a) support Government policies;
- b) criticize Government policies;
- c) ignore Government policies;
- d) change Government policies;

7... mainly represents the middle and upper classes?

- a) The Labour Party;
- b) The Liberal Party;
- c) The Conservative Party;
- d) The Green Party;

8. The principle organ of the executive power is...?

- a) Cabinet;
- b) House of Commons;
- c) House of Lords;
- d) Privy Council;

9. The head of the House of Commons is ...?
- a) Lord Chancellor;
 - b) Queen;
 - c) Speaker;
 - d) Prime Minister;
10. On ...chair there is the switch that put on the light on the Clock Tower above Big Ben to tell Londoners that Parliament is sitting?
- a) the Lord Chancellor's;
 - b) the Queen's;
 - c) the Prime Minister's;
 - d) the Speaker's;



TESTS IN THEMATIC VOCABULARY

Test 1. *Choose the one word or phrase that best keeps the meaning of the original sentence if it is substituted for the capitalized word or phrase:*

1. The official head of the state is the SOVEREIGN.
 - a) ruler
 - b) defender
 - c) monarch
 - d) governor

2. The supreme LEGISLATIVE power in the country belongs to Parliament.
 - a) lawgiving
 - b) executive
 - c) local
 - d) sovereign

3. The executive power is ENTRUSTED to the Cabinet.
 - a) proved
 - b) sent
 - c) given
 - d) delegated

5. STATE SYSTEM OF GREAT BRITAIN

4. The Cabinet consists of the most important ministers of the CROWN.
 - a) community
 - b) chamber
 - c) kingdom
 - d) house

5. The Prime Minister selects the other Ministers whom he wishes TO TAKE CHARGE of the chief government departments.
 - a) to take place
 - b) to take measures
 - c) to take possession
 - d) to take the lead

6. The Cabinet drafts and proposes all important LEGISLATIONS.
 - a) laws
 - b) petitions
 - c) papers
 - d) charters

7. If a Minister finds he cannot agree on the policy of the Cabinet, he RESIGNS.
 - a) surrenders
 - b) quits
 - c) drops out
 - d) resents

8. From time to time there is a “RESHUFFLE” of Ministers.
 - a) regrouping
 - b) reordering
 - c) removing
 - d) recovering

9. Secretary of State for the Home department is responsible for the MAINTENANCE of law and order.
 - a) keeping
 - b) ruling

- c) passing
- d) excepting

10. Secretary of State for Defence is responsible for the general policy of social development, family ALLOWANCES, retirement and war pensions.

- a) care
- b) budget
- c) expenses
- d) benefits

11. Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster performs any special duties ASSIGNED to him by the Prime Minister.

- a) signed
- b) entrusted
- c) rejected
- d) proposed

12. The Conservative Party UPHOLDS the values of tradition, free enterprise and privatization.

- a) approves
- b) delegates
- c) supports
- d) resents

13. Although the Crown gives its royal ASSENT to legislation, this is a mere formality.

- a) signature
- b) consent
- c) trust
- d) attention

14. Today the British monarchy serves as a FIGUREHEAD for the state.

- a) honorary head
- b) artificial head
- c) chief head
- d) nominal head

5. STATE SYSTEM OF GREAT BRITAIN

15. The British monarchy has been a HEREDITARY position since the 9th century.

- a) honorable
- b) assigned
- c) ancestral
- d) permanent

16. According to the Act of Settlement of 1701, only Protestants are ELIGIBLE to succeed to the throne.

- a) entitled
- b) abolished
- c) accepted
- d) allowed

17. As the official head of state, the monarch formally SUMMONS Parliament and the ministers of the Cabinet.

- a) dismisses
- b) calls
- c) appoints
- d) controls

18. The monarch BESTOWS honors and awards, such as knighthoods and peerages.

- a) grants
- b) appoints
- c) signs
- d) distributes

19. Members of the House of Commons are elected from geographical CONSTITUENCIES determined by population.

- a) points
- b) latitudes
- c) spots
- d) areas

Test 2. *Fill in the blanks with the following words. You may use each word only once:*

fair source democratically suffrage sentenced convicted constituencies
peers denied bankruptcy boundary detained clergy illegal

The House of Commons is the of real political power in the United Kingdom. Its members are elected by universal of citizens over the age of 18. Certain groups that are the right to vote, however, include members of the House of Lords, some mental health patients, prisoners, and those of corrupt or election practices in the previous five years. In addition, certain persons are excluded from standing for election to the House of Commons. They include; from the Church of England, the Church of Scotland, the Church of Ireland, or the Roman Catholic Church; people sentenced to more than a year in prison; and those with unpaid bills. Members of the House of Commons are elected from geographical determined by population, and each MP represents approximately 60,000 people. Four permanent commissions exist, one each for England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. Their purpose is to keep the constituencies equal and the boundaries..... .

Test 3. *Match the definition with the correct word:*

1. bill	a) a public vote on an official proposition;
2. sovereign	b) a practice which by long-established usage has come to have the force of law;
3. peer	c) the quality or state of being efficient; competence; effectiveness;
4. heir	d) the hearing and determination of an industrial dispute, by an impartial referee selected or agreed upon by the parties concerned;
5. legislation	e) plans or work to better the social or economic conditions of various underprivileged groups;

5. STATE SYSTEM OF GREAT BRITAIN

6. resignation	f) the right of an eldest son to succeed to the estate of his ancestor to the exclusion of all others;
7. election	g) a person exercising supreme authority; a monarch
8. defence	h) any person who carries on some tradition, circumstance, etc., from a forerunner;
9. subsidy	i) the act or process of making laws;
10. welfare	j) an addition, alteration, or improvement to a document;
11. custom	k) the act of providing with accommodation;
12. primogeniture	l) a formal document stating one's intention to resign;
13. amendment	m) a person who holds any of the five grades of the British nobility: duke, marquess, earl, viscount, and baron;
14. arbitration	n) a financial aid supplied by a government, as to industry, for reasons of public welfare, the balance of payments;
15. housing	o) resistance against danger, attack, or harm; protection;
16. efficiency	p) a statute in draft, before it becomes law;

Test 4. Find the synonyms and group them correspondingly:

Monarch, government, session, high, regrouping, charge, national, crown, department, secretary, legislative, chamber, lord, sitting, examination, sovereign, state, lawgiving, house, peer, inspection, administration, office, meeting, lawmaking, responsibility, supervision, ministry, service, subject, minister, supreme, reshuffle.

Test 5. Match the principal functions of the members of the Cabinet with their offices:

- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| a) Lord Chancellor | e) Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster |
| b) Secretary of State for Transport | f) Secretary of State for Energy |
| c) Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs | g) Secretary of State for the Home department |
| d) Secretary of State for the Employment | h) Secretary of State for Education and Science |
| | i) Secretary of State for Trade and Industry |
| | j) Secretary of State for Defence |

1. is responsible for the management and maintenance of royal palaces, parks and forests in Lancashire; he performs any special duties assigned to him by the Prime Minister.
2. is responsible for atomic energy research, the construction and maintenance of power stations, coal, gas, and electricity and oil industries.
3. is the Speaker of the House of Lords, head of the judiciary and the keeper of the Great Seal.
4. is responsible for the construction and maintenance of roads, road traffic and safety, railways, inland waterways, state airports.
5. is responsible for the conduct of relations with foreign governments, with Commonwealth and the Republic of Ireland; controls the Foreign Service.
6. is responsible for universities, colleges and schools, teacher training and research in these spheres.
7. is responsible for the maintenance of law and order, efficiency of the police, treatment of offenders, prisons, and care of children and young persons, civil defence; he supervises the fire Services, controls immigration.
8. is responsible for employment exchanges, industrial training, arbitration of industrial disputes, the inspection of working conditions and safety.
9. is responsible for the control of exports and imports, the development of overseas trade and of commerce, standards of weights and measures, management and development in various branches of industry.
10. is responsible for the general policy of social development, family allowances, retirement and war pensions, sick-pays, general medical services and public health.



6. JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM
SOCIAL DEFENCE OF THE CITIZENS



THEORETICAL PART

PRELIMINARY DISCUSSION

- What kind of body was the Great Council?
- What were the ways in which ancient judges dealt out justice?
- What kind of places were the Houses of Correction?
- What is the duty of a jury?
- What are the three highest bodies of judiciary in the country?
- What is the Welfare State?

1. THE HISTORY OF LAW

As well as their parts in Parliament, the House of Lords also acts as **the highest court of appeal** in Britain. This means that people **convicted** of some crime in the low court can, in **the last instance**, appeal to the Lords to have that conviction cancelled. The power to do this goes directly back to the days before Parliament began to develop out of the Great Council of the Norman kings. The Great Council, where king and nobles met together to make decisions affecting the government of the country, was also the place where people could come for **justice**. Judgment was given by judges who had been specially summoned for that purpose. Sometimes a monarch was present at the trial.



Circuit

King Henry II instituted the custom of having judges ride the circuit each year to hear cases, rather than requiring every citizen to bring their cases to London. The term "circuit court" is derived from the practice of having judges ride around the countryside each year on pre-set paths – circuits – to hear cases.

6. JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. SOCIAL DEFENCE OF THE CITIZENS

As the time passed, the business of ruling the country grew more complicated, and to reduce the amount of work the Great Council had to do, separate **royal courts** were set up for **the judges** to do their work in. These courts were not always at fixed places. The judges, who were regarded representatives of the king, traveled all over the country on planned routes known as “circuits”. They set up courts in the towns and villages at which they stopped.

Some of the ways in which they dealt out justice seem barbarous today. There was an ordeal by ducking: people were flung into a pond and if they sank to the bottom, they were pronounced **innocent**. If, on the other hand, they floated, they were regarded as **guilty**. There was also trial by burning. An accused man was given a piece of burning coal or a piece of iron bar into his hand. If within three days the wounds healed he was pronounced innocent. There also existed some unusual methods of dealing justice: trial by cake was one of them. An accused person was given a piece of a very dry crumble cake. If he managed to eat it up without choking he was pronounced innocent. Magic and **superstition** played a large part in this practice.

Another method of deciding disputes was **trial by battle**: whichever of the **opponents** was killed the other was regarded to be right. There was also **trial by ordeal**. Here, an **accused person** had to undergo certain **tortures**. If that person managed to endure them, then he was judged innocent.



The house of the Royal Courts in London

The house of the Royal Courts is a court building in London which houses both the High Court and Court of Appeal of England and Wales.



English King Henry II

English King Henry II is one of the most powerful rulers of his time, made lasting changes to Britain's judicial system. In the late 12th century he established a centralized system of justice and began implementing modern court procedures. A quarrel between Henry II and Archbishop of Canterbury Thomas à Becket over the jurisdiction of royal courts resulted in the murder of Becket by four of Henry's knights and Becket's subsequent martyrdom.

The principle that an accused person is considered innocent until proved guilty is a very important one in a democratic society. It had its beginnings during the reign of Henry II (1133-1189).

In 1166 Henry II set up a court known as the *ASSIZE CLARENDON*. At this court people came for justice if their land had been stolen from them. In this and other royal courts set up in the years that followed, decisions were given by judges who heard **evidence** from a panel of twelve local men who had taken a **solemn oath** to tell the truth.

2. THE JUDICIARY IN GREAT BRITAIN. TRIALS AND COURTS

There are three highest **bodies of judiciary** in the country. The House of Lords is the highest court of Appeal, presided over by the Lord Chancellor, who directs the activities of the Lords of Appeal and makes **the final judgment** on special **legal questions**.

Judicial Committee of the Privy Council is the Court of Appeal, presided over either by the Lord Chancellor or by the Lord President of the Council. Both Courts of Appeal are courts with **criminal jurisdiction**.

Supreme Court of Judicature is the court with criminal and **civil jurisdiction**. It consists of the Court of Appeal and the High Court of Justice. The latter in its turn includes the Queen's / King's/ Bench Division, Divorce and Admiralty Division.



The annual procession of judiciary

The legal year in English law is the calendar during which the judges sit in court. It is traditionally divided into periods called "terms." The legal year commences at the beginning of October, with a ceremony dating back to the Middle Ages in which the judges arrive in a procession from the Temple Bar to Westminster Abbey for a religious service, followed by a reception known as the Lord Chancellor's breakfast, which is held in Westminster Hall. Although in former times the judges walked the distance from Temple to Westminster, they now mostly arrive by car. The service is held by the Dean of Westminster with the reading performed by the Lord Chancellor.

The lower courts in England and Wales are the following.

Magistrates Courts – are courts with criminal and civil jurisdiction. In each Magistrates Court there is a right of Commitment for trial by a **higher court**, which is a Crown Court, and a **right of appeal** to the Queen's Bench Division.

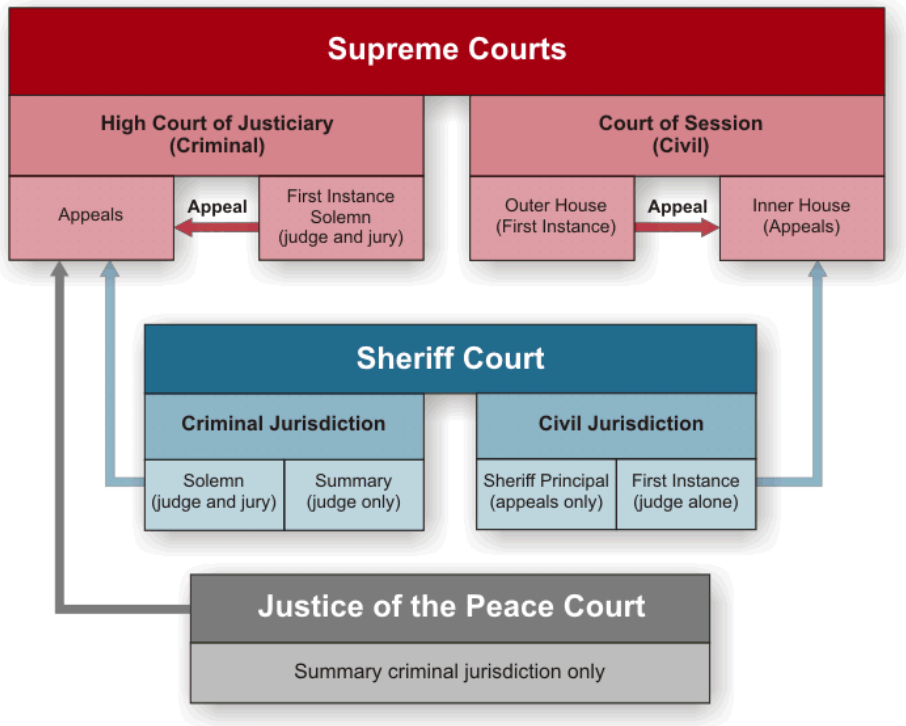
Juvenile Courts – are courts consisting of specially qualified **magistrates** one of which must be a woman.

County Courts – are courts existing in every county. They are presided over by a judge and deal with the rent **restrictions**, workmen's compensations, the **adoption** of children.

Both civil and criminal courts in Northern Ireland are similar to those in England and Wales with some slight modifications. There are two lowest courts in Scotland: the Police Courts and Justice of the Peace Courts. The Police Courts are the courts in cities and towns. Justice of the Peace Courts are the courts in rural regions. They are the courts with criminal jurisdiction, presided over by the magistrates and dealing with **breaches of the peace** and other **petty offences**. Sheriffs Courts, presided over by the **sheriffs-deputes** are higher courts dealing

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with civil and criminal cases. In each court there is a right of appeal to the High Court of Justice and the Supreme Criminal Court. In Scotland the High Court of Judiciary is headed by the Lord Justice General.



The British Court Structure

3. TRIAL BY JURY

Today, the duty of a **jury** is to judge **the case** being tried before it with complete **fairness**. This means the members of the jury must not favor or condemn an accused person before all the evidence on both sides has been heard.

The modern jury is completely free to make whatever decision it considers to be the right one, but this was not always so. For a very long time, juries were little more than the obedient servants of kings and judges. If juries tried to give **verdicts** that a king or a judge did not approve of, they were often **punished**.



*The young **barristers** in their traditional professional uniform – wigs and gowns*

The members of modern juries are men and women chosen at random from the list of those entitled to vote. Sitting on a jury and so taking part in the working of the **law**, is a very important **duty** in a democratic country. The right to vote gives men and women a say in the making of laws, and jury service requires them to take an active part in seeing that those laws are properly **applied** and **obeyed**.

The right to appeal against a verdict is a **protection** for the individual citizens against the danger of **injustice**. Persons convicted of **crime** can appeal first to the Court of Appeal and then, if necessary, to the House of Lords. If both the Court of Criminal Appeal and the House of Lords agree with the verdict then it must stand.

4. PROTECTION FOR THE POOR



Besides injustice there are many other things people need to be protected against; things over which they sometimes have no control, such as **unemployment**, **poverty** and ill health. These three conditions often go together and not until the 20-th century were people suffering from any or all of them.

In the days of Henry VIII, in the early 16-th century, **vagabonds** and **tramps** were whipped when caught. It was the custom **to brand** vagabonds with the letter “V” on their shoulders. They were often forced to wander the roads, begging for food and money simply because they were unable to live by any other means. There was a shortage of work, food cost a lot of money and religious **charities** almost did not exist.



The House of Correction in Manchester

The House of Correction was a type of building built after the passing of the Elizabethan Poor Law (1601). Houses of correction were places where those who were "unwilling to work" including vagrants and beggars were set to work. The building of houses of correction came after the passing of an amendment to the Elizabethan Poor Law.

In 1572, an Act of Parliament was passed under which every **parish** in the country had to collect a **tax** called the **poor rate**. This poor rate was to be used to set up the *Houses of Correction* which were worse places even than the work houses of the 19-th century.

As time passed, there were changes in the way the poor rate was distributed, but there was little or no change in the unsympathetic way poor people were regarded. There were some private charities and also the *Friendly Societies* which did much the same job as the *National Insurance Scheme* does now. Members of Friendly Societies got together and contributed money to a **fund** which, in the event of a member's unemployment or illness, was to be used to give support him an his family. The Friendly Societies also provided money to help members with such things as the expenses of traveling to find work, and **insurance** against loss or damage of tools.

This was not enough to deal with all the problems of poverty. Private charities and Friendly Societies were able to help only a small number of those people in Britain who were in need. Fortunately, there were many **social reformers** in the mid-19th century who insisted both in and out of Parliament on more help for the poor. It was the feeling that the community as a whole, headed by the government, should look after all its citizens that led to the creation of the *Welfare State*.

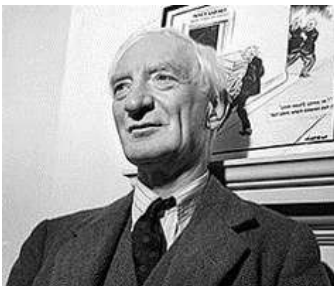
5. INSURANCE AND WELFARE

The foundations of the Welfare State were laid by the Liberal government in 1906. First, in 1909, they introduced old age **pensions**. Under this scheme, people over 70 received pensions of 5 shillings per week if their **incomes** were too small for them to live properly.

Then, in 1911, the *National Insurance Scheme* was introduced, under which both employers and workers contributed small weekly amounts to a central government fund. Then if workers were ill or out of work, they could get money from that fund to live on.

The Welfare State as we knew it today was planned during the Second World War (1939-1945). In 1942 William Beveridge published a report called *Social Insurance and Allied Services*, which was known as the *Beveridge Report*. Among its recommendations were plans for children's **allowances** and **health services**, and for steps to be taken by the government to prevent mass unemployment.

When war ended these proposals and many others became law. The National Health Service was set up, providing **free medical attention** for everyone in Britain; the *Industrial Injuries Act* was passed to help factory workers and others who were injured as a result of accidents at work; the family allowances were granted to help poor people bring up their children.



William Beveridge (1879 – 1963)

*William Beveridge was a British economist who was a noted progressive and social reformer. He is best known for his 1942 report *Social Insurance and Allied Services* (known as the *Beveridge Report*) which served as the basis for the post-World War II welfare state.*

Self-checking Questions



1. When did the House of Lords start to act as the highest court of appeal in Britain?
1. Why were the separate royal courts set up in Britain?
2. What kind of trial was the ordeal by ducking?
3. What were the main terms of the trial by burning?
4. Why was a person given a piece of a very dry crumble cake during a trial?
5. What were the terms of the trial by battle?
6. What kind of court did Henry II set up?
7. Why were vagabonds and tramps whipped when caught in the days of Henry VIII?
8. What kind of tax was called the poor rate?
9. What were the chief points of the *Beveridge Repor*?
10. What was the chief aim of Friendly Societies?
11. What are the lower courts in England and Wales?
12. What are the two lowest courts in Scotland?
13. Where can the right to appeal against a verdict be applied?
14. What jurisdiction does Supreme Court of Judicature have?
15. How are the members of modern juries chosen?

PRACTICAL PART



ASSIGNMENTS



1. Study the following proper names and practice their pronunciation:

the House of Lords [ðə haʊs ɒv lɔːdz] the Great Council [ðə greɪt 'kaʊns(ə)l]
 Assize Clarendon [ə'saɪz 'klærəndən] Henry II [ˈhenri ðə 'sekənd]
 the Lord Chancellor [ðə lɔːd 'tʃɑːnsələ] the Lords of Appeal [ðə lɔːdz ɒv ə'piːl]
 Judicial Committee of the Privy Council [dʒuː'diʃəl kə'mɪti ɒv ðə 'prɪvi 'kaʊns(ə)l]
 the Lord President of the Council [ðə lɔːd 'prezɪdənt ɒv ðə 'kaʊns(ə)l]
 Supreme Court of Judicature [sjuː(ː)'pri:m kɔːt ɒv 'dʒuːdɪkətʃə]
 the High Court of Justice [ðə haɪ kɔːt ɒv 'dʒʌstɪs]
 the Queen's / King's/ Bench Division [ðə kwiːnz / kɪŋz/ bɛnʃ dɪ'vɪʒən]
 Divorce Division [dɪ'vɔːs dɪ'vɪʒən] Juvenile Court [ˈdʒuːvɪnaɪl kɔːt]
 Admiralty Division [ˈædmərəlti dɪ'vɪʒən] the Police Court [ðə pə'liːs kɔːt]
 Magistrates Court [ˈmædʒɪstrets kɔːt] Sheriffs Court [ˈʃerɪfs kɔːt]
 Justice of the Peace Court [ˈdʒʌstɪs ɒv ðə piːs kɔːt] Henry VIII [ˈhenri ði eɪtθ]
 the Supreme Criminal Court [ðə sjuː(ː)'pri:m 'krɪmɪnəl kɔːt]
 the Lord Justice General [ðə lɔːd 'dʒʌstɪs 'dʒenərəl] County Court [ˈkaʊnti kɔːt]
 the Houses of Correction [ðə 'haʊzɪz ɒv kə'rekʃən]
 the Friendly Societies [ðə 'frendli sə'saɪətɪz] the Welfare State [ðə 'wɛlfə steɪt]
 the National Insurance Scheme [ðə 'næʃənəl ɪn'ʃʊərəns ski:m]
 the Industrial Injuries Act [ði ɪn'dʌstriəl ɪn'dʒərɪz ækt]
 Social Insurance and Allied Services [ˈsəʊʃəl ɪn'ʃʊərəns ənd ə'laid 'sɜːvɪsɪz]
 the Beveridge Report [ðə bevrɪdʒ rɪ'pɔːt]



2. Note down from the theoretical part phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme "Judiciary of Great Britain. Social defence of the citizens". Translate them into Ukrainian.



3. Find in the theoretical part the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

6. JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. SOCIAL DEFENCE OF THE CITIZENS

The last instance, to cancel a conviction, to give judgment, circuits, to deal out justice, ordeal by ducking, trial by burning, trial by cake, accusation, trial by battle, trial by ordeal, to hear evidence, bodies of judiciary, a court of appeal, legal questions, criminal jurisdiction, civil jurisdiction, breach of the peace, petty offence, jury, to try a case, a verdict, to apply the law, to obey the law, charity, parish, the poor rate, insurance, scheme, allowance, health services.



4. Write all you can (What? When? Where? How?) about the following concepts and proper names:

The Great Council, the highest court of appeal, superstition, Assize Clarendon, the Lord Chancellor, the Lords of Appeal, Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, Supreme Court of Judicature, Magistrates Courts, the Queen’s Bench Division, Juvenile Courts, County Courts, the Police Courts, Justice of the Peace Courts, Sheriffs Courts, injustice, Henry VIII, the Houses of Correction, the Friendly Societies, the National Insurance Scheme, insurance, the Welfare State, the Beveridge Report, the National Health Service.



5. Study the theoretical material and fill in table 1 reflecting the basic functions of the following bodies of authorities.

Table 1

№	Bodies of authorities	Basic functions
1.	the Great Council	
2.	Judicial Committee of the Privy Council	
3.	The House of Lords	
4.	Supreme Court of Judicature	
5.	the High Court of Justice	
6.	the Queen’s Bench Division	
7.	Magistrates Court	
8.	Justice of the Peace Court	
9.	Juvenile Court	
10.	Sheriffs Court	
11.	County Court	
12.	the Supreme Criminal Court	



6. Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.

В Британії правила та закони змінюються нечасто, а їх скасування годі й чекати. Тому досі живі деякі статті, що здаються кумедними в наш час. Так, англійцям заборонено переганяти череди корів міськими вулицями з 10 ранку до 7 вечора, якщо Комісар поліції не надав спеціального дозволу. Інший закон наказує володарям землі передавати її у спадок лише старшому синові. В Лондоні діє заборона на биття жінок після 21:00, «бо їх крики можуть заважати містянам». В тому ж Лондоні діє закон, що забороняє містянам видавати себе за «пенсіонера, що мешкає в Челсі». Привід для створення цього закону розшукати вже неможливо, але він все ще діє. Крім того, це один з найнепорушніших законів у світі: протягом останніх 150 років не зафіксовано жодного порушення цієї статті.

Жінкам заборонено їсти шоколад у громадському транспорті. Лондонським таксистам заборонено зазивати людей криками «Таксі!» під страхом кари в \$100. Для того, щоб придбати телевізор, британець спершу має купити ліцензію на нього, бо в Британії телебачення фінансується не за рахунок реклами, а за рахунок самих глядачів.

Більшість товарів заборонено продавати у неділю. Середньовічний закон зобов'язує чоловіків віком від 14 років виділяти дві години щотижня на заняття зі стрільби з лука. Контроль за виконанням цього закону покладається на церкву, а пояснення такого закону доволі просте: раніше саме церков контролювала усі бюрократичні процеси. Це дозволяло королю отримати боєздатну армію при мінімальних витратах.

Членам парламенту заборонено заходити до Палати общин в обладунку. У Йорці дозволено «стріляти до смерті з лука» по шотландцям в усі дні, окрім неділі. В Честері ж стріляти з лука можна по валлійцям, але тільки після півночі.

6. JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. SOCIAL DEFENCE OF THE CITIZENS



7. Be prepared to speak about the following points using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme and the following clichés:

to deal out justice
to cancel the conviction
to contribute money to a fund
to be pronounced innocent
to be pronounced guilty
to be regarded as guilty/ innocent
to direct the activities
to make the final judgment
to have criminal jurisdiction
to have civil jurisdiction
to give a say in the making of laws
to appeal against a verdict
to provide free medical attention

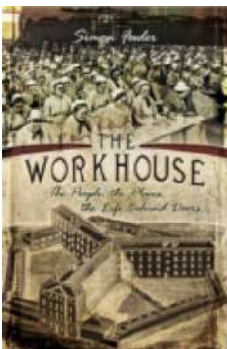
to come for justice
to decide disputes
to undergo tortures
to endure tortures
to hear evidence
to judge the case
to give a verdict
to obey the law
to be presided over
to approve of a verdict
to be chosen at random
to be convicted of crime
to be summoned for



Medieval judiciary



Modern judiciary



The poor laws



the National Insurance Scheme



GENERALIZING TEST

- 1.... is also the highest court of appeal in Britain?
 - a) The House of Commons;
 - b) The House of Lords;
 - c) Queen;
 - d) Prime Minister;
2. In 1166 ...set up a court known as the “Assize Clarendon”?
 - a) Henry I;
 - b) Henry II;
 - c) Henry III;
 - d) Henry IV;
3. There are ...highest bodies of judiciary in the country?
 - a) two;
 - b) three;
 - c) four;
 - d) five;
4. Police Courts of Scotland are the courts in ...?
 - a) villages;
 - b) valleys;
 - c) towns;
 - d) woods;
5. The members of modern juries are men and women chosen ...?
 - a) at random;
 - b) according to lots;
 - c) by voting;
 - d) by wish;
6. “Poor rate” was collected by...?
 - a) Friendly societies;
 - b) House of Commons;
 - c) country parishes;
 - d) House of Lords;

6. JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. SOCIAL DEFENCE OF THE CITIZENS

7. Friendly societies were the names of ...?
- a) clubs for aristocracy;
 - b) unions of clergy;
 - c) brotherhood of the workers;
 - d) private charities;
8. The Welfare State as we knew it today was planned during ...?
- a) The First World War;
 - b) The Second World War;
 - c) The Civil War;
 - d) The Religious War;
9. In the days of Henry VIII ... were branded the letter "V" on their shoulders?
- a) voyages;
 - b) victors;
 - c) vagabonds;
 - d) voters;
10. Modern jury consists of ... local men?
- a) twelve;
 - b) thirteen;
 - c) fourteen;
 - d) twenty;



TESTS IN THEMATIC VOCABULARY

Test 1. *Choose the one word or phrase that best keeps the meaning of the original sentence if it is substituted for the capitalized word or phrase:*

1. The Great Council **PRESIDED** over all serious trials.
- a) managed
 - b) chaired
 - c) controlled
 - d) considered

6. JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. SOCIAL DEFENCE OF THE CITIZENS

2. The king's laws were IN FORCE everywhere.
 - a) in operation
 - b) in function
 - c) in strength
 - d) in ability

3. Another change which William I introduced was the ABOLITION of the great earldoms.
 - a) reconstruction
 - b) demolition
 - c) rearrangement
 - d) abatement

4. The royal Sheriffs ADMINISTERED justice in the shire.
 - a) performed
 - b) controlled
 - c) carried
 - d) acted

5. Each Norman noble swore an OATH of allegiance to the king and became the king's vassal.
 - a) word
 - b) promise
 - c) vow
 - d) fidelity

6. People CONVICTED of some crime in the low court can appeal to the Lords.
 - a) sentenced
 - b) suspected
 - c) imprisoned
 - d) caught

6. JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. SOCIAL DEFENCE OF THE CITIZENS

7. Some of the ways in which the judges DEALT OUT justice seem barbarous today.

- a) administered
- b) kept
- c) practiced
- d) held

8. People were flung into a pond and if they sank to the bottom, they were pronounced INNOCENT.

- a) sentenced
- b) guiltless
- c) culpable
- d) blameworthy

9. Another method of deciding disputes was TRIAL by battle.

- a) controversy
- b) assize
- c) court
- d) test

10. There was also trial by ordeal; here, an ACCUSED person had to undergo certain tortures.

- a) charged
- b) imprisoned
- c) sentenced
- d) suspected

11. If that person managed to ENDURE them, then he was judged innocent.

- a) survive
- b) overcome
- c) undergo
- d) take

12. In the royal courts decisions were given by judges who heard EVIDENCE from a panel of twelve local men.

- a) proofs
- b) witness
- c) claim
- d) testimony

13. Lord Chancellor directs the activities of the Lords of Appeal and makes the final JUDGMENT on special legal questions.

- a) verdict
- b) answer
- c) statement
- d) remark

14. County Courts deal with the rent RESTRICTIONS, workmen's compensations, and the adoption of children.

- a) subsidies
- b) benefits
- c) limitation
- d) allowance

15. The Police Courts deal with BREACHES of the peace and other petty offences.

- a) maintenance
- b) establishment
- c) regulation
- d) violation

16. The members of the jury must not CONDEMN an accused person before all the evidence on both sides has been heard.

- a) convict
- b) support
- c) imprison
- d) suspect

6. JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. SOCIAL DEFENCE OF THE CITIZENS

17. Today, the duty of a JURY is to judge the case being tried before it with complete fairness.

- a) defendants
- b) assizers
- c) prosecutors
- d) lawyers

18. The jury service requires taking an active part in seeing that the laws are properly applied and OBEYED.

- a) used
- b) held
- c) complied
- d) done

Test 2. *Fill in the blanks with the following words. You may use each word only once:*

recommendations law welfare scheme slaves benefits
handicapped orphans contributions workhouse institution
commission insurance employers

Before the twentieth century, was considered to be the responsibility of local communities. The “care” provided was very often very poor. An especially hated in the nineteenth century was the, where the old, the sick, the mentally and were sent. People were often treated very harshly in workhouses, or even as virtual, to equally harsh During the first half of the twentieth century a number of welfare were introduced. These were a small old-age pension (1908), partial sickness and unemployment (1912) and unemployment benefits conditional on regular and proof of need (1934). The real impulse for the welfare state came in 1942 from a government, headed by William Beveridge, and its report on “social insurance and allied services”. In 1948 the National Health Act turned the report’s into and the National Health Service was set up.

Test 3. Match the definition with the correct word:

3. insurance	a) a breaking or violation of obligation, law;
4. judge	b) a group of, usually twelve, people sworn to deliver a true verdict according to the evidence upon a case presented in a court of law;
3. court	c) the findings of a jury on the issues of fact submitted to it for examination and trial;
4. assize	d) a person who institutes or conducts legal proceedings in a criminal court;
5. jurisdiction	e) the amount of monetary or other returns, either earned or unearned, accruing over a given period of time;
6. trial	f) matter produced before a court of law in an attempt to prove or disprove a point in issue, such as the statements of witnesses, documents, material objects;
7. jury	g) a person against whom an action or claim is brought in a court of law;
8. verdict	h) an institution or organization set up to provide help, money to those in need;
9. evidence	i) an amount of something, money or food, given or allotted usually at regular intervals;
10. prosecutor	j) a periodical journey around an area, as made by judges;
11. breach	k) the judicial examination of the issues in a civil or criminal cause by a competent tribunal; the determination of these issues in accordance with the law;
12. defendant	l) an authority having power to adjudicate in civil, criminal, military, or ecclesiastical matters
13. charity	m) system of providing financial protection for property, life, health against specified contingencies;
14. allowance	n) a public official with authority to hear cases in a court of law and pronounce judgment upon them;
15. income	o) the right or power to administer justice and to apply laws;
16. circuit	p) a trial or judicial inquest;

6. JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. SOCIAL DEFENCE OF THE CITIZENS

Test 4. Find the synonyms and group them correspondingly:

Magistrate, crimeless, tribunal, act, ordeal, jurisdiction, convicted, guilty, judge, bench, felon, attorney, plot, guiltless, culpable, principle, adversary, sentence, testimony, judicature, justice, law, criminal, trial, verdict, evidence, statute, opponent, cognizance, blameless, court, condemned, innocent, offender, prosecutor, conspiracy, action, unguilty, competence.

Test 5. Complete each of the following sentences with one of the words below:

allowances sentence crime jury random

verdict say force stand vagabonds

1. The judge will pass in a week.
2. The new law comes into..... On September 25.
3. The modern is completely free to make whatever decision it considers to be the right one.
4. The members of modern juries are men and women chosen at from the list of those entitled to vote.
5. The right to vote gives men and women a in the making of laws.
6. The right to appeal against a is a protection for the individual citizens against the danger of injustice.
7. Persons convicted of can appeal first to the Court of Appeal.
8. If both the Court of Criminal Appeal and the House of Lords agree with the verdict then it must
9. The family were granted to help poor people bring up their children.
10. It was the custom to brand with the letter "V" on their shoulders.



7. THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE

THEORETICAL PART



PRELIMINARY DISCUSSION

- Why is Saint Patrick considered the father of the Catholicism in Ireland?
- What kind of epic is *Beowulf*?
- What is the origin of the stories of *King Arthur and his knights*?
- Where did the age of the Renaissance start?
- Why is William Shakespeare believed to be the greatest playwright in the world?
- What kind of epic is *Paradise Lost*?
- What are the best representatives of classicism in the English literature?
- What are the main trends of romanticism in the English literature?
- Who are the greatest English novelists of the 19th century?
- What kind of association was the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood?
- Who are the greatest English novelists of the 20th century?

PART I

1. CELTIC LITERATURE

Ireland was Christian from the 5th century and preserved, with other Celtic countries, a strong oral tradition. From this period dates the *Tain Bo Cualnge* (The Raiding of the Cattle of Cooley), an **epic tale** first written down in the 7th century. This epic, which deals with the hero Cuchulinn, is a great and tragic story. The epic survives in two main written versions in 12th century **manuscripts**, the first a **compilation** largely written in Old Irish, the second a more consistent work in Middle Irish. A similar tale set in the West of Ireland is *Tain Bo Flidhais*. Traditionally set in the 1st century AD in an essentially pre-Christian **heroic age**, the *Tain* is the central text of a group of tales known as the Ulster Cycle. *The Cattle Raid of Cooley* is a legendary tale from early Irish literature, often considered an epic, although it is written primarily in prose rather than verse.

**Saint Patrick**

Legend credits St. Patrick with teaching the Irish about the theory of the Holy Trinity by showing people the shamrock, a three-leaved plant, using it to illustrate the Christian teaching of three persons in one God.

Apart from this work the earliest Irish literature is religious and dates from the time of St Patrick (385-461 BC). Three works are believed to be by St Patrick himself, but for the rest the authors are mostly unknown. Saint Patrick was the father of the Catholicism in Ireland and the first bishop of the Catholic Church.

He wrote many **literary works** of religious character. He began to establish Christianity in Ireland in the 5th century. The 17th of March is the Day of St. Patrick – the national holiday of Ireland.

It was in the period between the 6th and 9th centuries that the greatest Irish literature was produced. Ireland was known at this time as the “land of saints and **scholars**”, and was famous throughout Europe for its books and its **learning**.

Irish literature, like that of the Scandinavian countries, had developed outside the influence of Rome, though it is recognized that Latin ways of writing poetry had some effect on Irish fashions after the 6th century. It is therefore rather surprising that we find almost no evidence of Roman culture on the earliest English literature, although Britain had been a Roman province. The answer lies in the two words – Britain and England. Rome conquered the Britons, and although they probably had some literary tradition, nothing of this has survived. The name England comes from the Angles, a Germanic tribe, who, with Saxons and probably some Jutes of the same stock, overran the Roman province of Britannia in the 5th and 6th centuries.



Beowulf is an Old English epic poem consisting of 3182 alliterative long lines.

In 1820 was the first modern language translation of *Beowulf*.

Thus, the earliest English literature is Germanic in culture. In fact, the great Anglo-Saxon epic *Beowulf*, which was probably composed in the 7th century though it was not written down until considerably later, deals with adventures which took place in Denmark in the 5th and 6th centuries. It is a splendid **adventure story**. Apart from *Beowulf* quite a lot of Anglo-Saxon **poetry** has come down to us. The poetry is primitive in its choice of subject that is restricted to religion, war and **tribal glorification**. There are no love poems, no nature poems – nothing which from our knowledge of Greek poetry we have learned to call **lyric**.

2. THE ROMANCE

Another kind of **narrative poetry** began in the 12th century. It was read by **literate** and cultured society of the court. It was **the romance**, and the most famous of them were those dealing with the stories of *King Arthur and his knights*.



King Arthur

A legendary British leader of the 5th and 6th centuries in medieval histories and romances. He led the defence of Britain against Saxon invaders. His historical existence is debated by modern historians.



King Arthur and his knights

The Knights were men of courage, honor, dignity, courtesy, and nobleness. They protected ladies and damsels, honored and fought for kings, and undertook dangerous quests.

The original **legends** about Arthur were probably Celtic in origin, but they came into France from the work of Robert Wace, who translated, adapted and added to the “*History of the Kings of Britain*” by the Welsh historian Geoffrey of Monmouth (1100-1154).

The romance was a serious and **courty** kind of literature, but there were also other lighter forms, e.g. **fables**.

In England the Norman conquest of 1066 put an end to Anglo-Saxon both as literature and as a language. A Norman-French court meant that all serious literature was written in French or in Latin and only a small quantity of poetry of a simpler kind was written in English. Even in those English poems the influence of France is very clearly seen. Many words adapted from French came into the English language.



The emblem of the Knights of the Round Table

The emblem of the Knights of the Round Table worn round the necks of all the Knights was given to them by King Arthur as part of the ceremony of their being made a knight. The Order's dominant idea was the love of God, men, and noble deeds. The cross in the emblem was to remind them that they were to live pure and stainless lives, to strive after perfection and thus attain the Holy Grail. The Red Dragon of King Arthur represented their allegiance to the King. The Round Table was illustrative of the Eternity of God, the equality, unity, and comradeship of the Order, and singleness of purpose of all the Knights.

Most prose written in England at this time was in Latin, though the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* was continued and religious books were written in contemporary speech, later it was called Middle English. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicles are a collection of seven manuscripts written by **monks** living in England between the 9th and 12th centuries. The account begins with the start of the Christian era and extends to 1154. Much of the very early material is drawn from Saint Bede's history (673?-735; English monk and **scholar**). From the period of the wars between Saxons and Danes, most of the chronicles are original and are the sole source for information about certain events. The writing is generally in prose, but some poems are also inserted.

Other, more famous Middle English works were written in the 14th century.

3. THE RENAISSANCE. ENGLISH "NEW LEARNING"

In England and France the 15th century was not a great literary age. This was true of Italy, where the new age of the Renaissance or "Rebirth of Learning", had already begun. The Renaissance came later to England, partly because the country is cut off from the Continent, partly because it was too deeply involved in the civil Wars of the Roses (1455-1485), and it was not until the Tudors were securely established that the "New Learning" began to be felt. Perhaps the greatest man of the early English Renaissance was Sir Thomas More, who was a statesman, a scholar and a saint (1478-1535). He was the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, Speaker of the House of Commons.

He sympathized with those who wished to reform the church, but did not wish to break with Rome. He refused to acknowledge Henry VIII as head of the Church, and was beheaded in 1535.



Sir Thomas More

Sir Thomas More opposed the Reformation; wrote Utopia; was honoured by the Soviet Union, due to the Communistic attitude regarding property in Utopia

**Sir Thomas Wyatt**

Sir Thomas Wyatt was an English ambassador and lyrical poet. He is credited with introducing the sonnet into English literature.

At that time a chance to learn was extended to more children than it had ever been before, so other scholars began to make English translations of the bible, so that it would be available to all who could read.

In poetry Sir Thomas Wyatt (1503-1542) and Earl of Surrey (1517-1547) first attempted English **sonnets** and they were followed by Sir Philip Sidney (1554-1586) whose *Astrophel and Stella* is worthy to be compared with Petrarch's sonnet to Laura.

It was the Reformation brought about by Henry VIII's rejection of the power of the pope in England, and the beginning of the Church of England, that made the Renaissance in England a greater force in morals and education than it was anywhere else on the Continent. In England, the new Learning came at a time when an old way of life was changing, and the ideas it brought with it did not apply only to literature but affected the lives of quite ordinary people.

4. DRAMA

People's lives were affected, too, by the sudden popularity of the theatre. This may have come from the personal delight which Queen Elizabeth took in plays, or there may have been other causes, but certainly this was the great age of **drama** in England.

The first really great English **playwright** was Christopher Marlowe (1564-1593), who took the "**blank verse**" introduced into the country by **William Shakespeare** Wyatt and Surrey and made it sound as natural as human speech can be.



Christopher Marlowe

Christopher Marlowe was an English playwright, poet and translator of the Elizabethan era; was the foremost Elizabethan tragedian of his day; greatly influenced William Shakespeare, who was born in the same year as Marlowe; was reputed to be an atheist; was admired and influential artist.

His life was mysterious and melodramatic. He may have been a spy; he probably did not believe in God, he was stabbed to death in a tavern brawl. Influenced by the ideas of Machiavelli, he was fascinated by the theme of power: power of the mind, of money, of a man (royal power). But Marlowe's plays lack shape and force when they are compared with those of William Shakespeare (1564-1616).

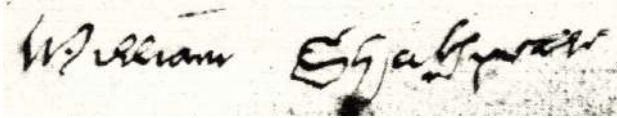
4.1. William Shakespeare

Shakespeare is probably the world's greatest playwright, yet we know little more about his life than we do of Marlowe's. He was born in Stratford-upon-Avon, and after beginning his writing career with two poems imitating Ovid, and a sequence of sonnets which are among the most beautiful in English poetry, he came to London.



William Shakespeare

William Shakespeare was an English poet, playwright, and actor, widely regarded as the greatest writer in the English language and the world's pre-eminent dramatist. He is often called England's national poet, and the "Bard of Avon". His extant works, including collaborations, consist of approximately 38 plays, 154 sonnets, two long narrative poems, and a few other verses, some of uncertain authorship. His plays have been translated into every major living language and are performed more often than those of any other playwright.

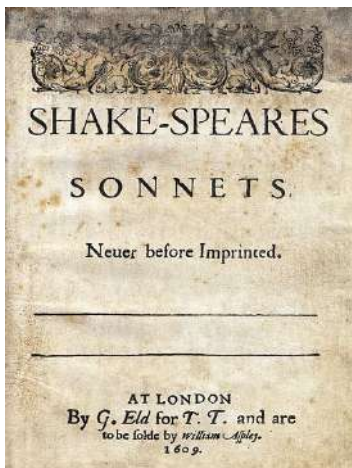


Signature

Here, he became an actor, shareholder and writer with one of the leading theatrical companies. His early work was varied and included a **comedy** and a **tragedy**; several **chronicle histories**, one romantic comedy, *Two Gentlemen of Verona*, and one romantic tragedy, *Romeo and Juliet*.

In 1592 the London theatres were closed because of the Plague and did not reopen for two years. The companies went on tour but we do not know whether Shakespeare went with them. But when the theatres reopened, he was writing a new kind of romantic comedy for them, in which characters are most important than story. To this group belong *The Merchant of Venice*, *As you like it* and *Twelfth Night*. His **history plays** were chronicles no longer, but history proper, selecting material to show the English people how England had become what she was.

By 1600 he had become interested in tragedy, and to this period belong perhaps the most famous of all his plays – *Hamlet*, *Macbeth*, *Othello* and *King Lear*.



Title page from 1609 edition of *Shake-Speares Sonnets*

After this he turned to a new sort of **romance comedy**, more serious and more tender than before – sometimes seeming close to tragedy in form – and among these are *Cymbeline*, *The Winter's Tale* and *The Tempest*.

After this, Shakespeare apparently felt that he had no further urge to write and he returned to his home at Stratford-upon-Avon, where he lived for several years in the quiet obscurity which he seems to have preserved even in London. He was apparently quite uninterested in the preservation of his own work, and a complete collection of his plays and poems was not published until the First Folio edition of 1623, seven years after his death.

4.2. Ben Jonson

Shakespeare's only rival in his own age, Ben Jonson (1572-1637), had very different ideas on this matter. He himself prepared his work for the publisher, and although his fame rests on his plays he did not consider himself a man of the theatre. Jonson, unlike Shakespeare, was **a classical scholar** who looked back to the plays of Greece and Rome in his work. His tragedies *Sejanus* and *Catiline* were failures. Today they are read more like translations and never come alive theatrically. But the comedies are the essence of life.

Jonson took the medieval **theory of "humours"** – simple, strong traits of personality which determine a man's whole character – and his comedies show the results of these "one-track" characters in conflict.



Benjamin (Ben) Jonson

Ben Jonson was an English playwright, poet, actor, and literary critic of the 17th century, whose artistry exerted a lasting impact upon English poetry and stage comedy. He popularised the comedy of humours. He is generally regarded as the second most important English playwright during the reign of James I after William Shakespeare.

He introduced the theory in *Everyman in his Humour*, whose success was such that it was followed by a **sequel**, *Everyman out of his Humour*. The **satire** in these plays is against folly and is not very strong, but Jonson, who hated above all things hypocrisy (that is the pretence of being other than one is), affectation and greed, moved on to sharper satire in *The Poetaster* and *Volpone*. Then, returning to his own theory that it is the duty of comedy “to spot with human follies, not with crimes” he turned to lighter matters in *The Alchemist*. Jonson at his best is brilliant and wildly funny, but it is not until *Bartholomew Fair*, his last and greatest play, that he shows some of the feeling for human beings that makes the least of Shakespeare’s characters come alive.

Although the playwrights of this age were many, none came up to the standards of Shakespeare and Jonson, although in their own time their works achieved much fame.

After Shakespeare tragedy gradually became even more horrific, and dealt primarily with cruelty and corruption rather than with the greatness of human sorrow.

Events of history in England had in the meantime brought first the Civil War and then the Commonwealth. In 1642 the Puritans closed the theatres, and they did not reopen until the Restoration of 1660. The Reformation, the Civil War and the Commonwealth had a profound effect on England and on the course of English literature.

5. 17TH –CENTURY ENGLAND



The 17th century in England was certainly not one of decline. There were new ideas about the writing of poetry in the work of John Donne (1572-1631), George Herbert (1593-1633) and Andrew Marvell (1621-1678). These poets were later called **metaphysical poets** because each of them used ideas and methods from philosophy and other branches of learning in their poetry. Above all, this century produced John Milton (1608- 1674), one of the greatest English poets.

He was a Puritan and Latin secretary to Oliver Cromwell. His **prose work**, which is mostly in support of the Puritan cause, shows the “grand style” of English at its height. But he is best remembered for his epic *Paradise Lost* in which he sets out to justify the ways of God to man.

**John Milton**

Paradise Lost is an epic poem in blank verse. The poem concerns the Biblical story of the Fall of Man: the temptation of Adam and Eve by the fallen angel Satan and their expulsion from the Garden of Eden. Milton's purpose, stated in his work, is to "justify the ways of God to men".

Literary criticism had its real beginnings in the 17th century with the *Essay of Dramatic Poesy* of John Dryden.

He was himself a poet and playwright, producing the best satirical poems and inventing two new **dramatic forms** – the short-lived English **heroic play**, and the **comedy of manners** which was to dominate the theatre for fifty years. This type of comedy dealt with the brilliant but artificial society of the court of Charles II. It was a society where morals counted for little against wit, polish and gusto.

**John Dryden**

John Dryden was an English poet, literary critic, translator, and playwright who was made England's first Poet Laureate in 1668. He is seen as dominating the literary life of Restoration England to such a point that the period came to be known in literary circles as the Age of Dryden. Walter Scott called him "Glorious John".

Self-checking Questions

1. What were the main subjects of Anglo-Saxon poetry?
3. What specific features characterized the earliest English literature?
4. What was the influence of Roman culture on the earliest English literature?
5. What peculiarities did the earliest Irish literature have?
6. What sort of literature did the literate and cultured society of the court read in the 12th century?
7. What kind of literature was the romance?
8. What did the most famous romances deal with?
9. In what languages was all the serious literature written at that time?
10. Why did the Renaissance come late to England?
11. Why was Sir Thomas More beheaded?
12. What was the result of the “New Learning” in England?
13. Who were the first English sonneteers?
14. Who was the first really great English playwright?
15. Who is considered the world’s greatest playwright?
16. Why were all the London theatres closed in 1592?
17. What kind of playwright was Ben Jonson?
18. What poets were called metaphysical?
19. What connection did John Milton have with Oliver Cromwell?
20. What sort of dramatic forms did John Dryden invent?

PRACTICAL PART



ASSIGNMENTS



1. Study the following proper names and practice their pronunciation:

Catholicism [kə'θɒlɪsɪzəm]	the Renaissance [ðə rə'neɪsəns]
St Patrick [seɪnt 'pætrɪk]	Robert Wace ['rɒbət weɪs]
Sir Thomas Wyatt [sɜː 'tɒməs wəjət]	Sir Thomas More [sɜː 'tɒməs mɔː]
Earl of Surrey [ɜːl ɒv 'sʌrɪ]	Macbeth [mæk'beθ]
Sir Philip Sidney [sɜː 'fɪlɪp 'sɪdni]	Machiavelli [mækiə'veli]
Christopher Marlowe ['krɪstəfə 'mɑːləʊ]	the Plague [ðə pleɪg]
William Shakespeare ['wɪljəm 'ʃeɪkspiə]	Hamlet ['hæmlɪt]
Romeo and Juliet ['rəʊmiəʊ ənd 'dʒuːliət]	Othello [ə(ʊ)'θeləʊ]
The Merchant of Venice [ðə 'mɜːtʃənt ɒv 'venɪs]	King Lear [kɪŋ liə]
Stratford-upon-Avon ['strætʃəd-ə'pɒn-'eɪvən]	Ben Jonson [ben 'dʒɒns(ə)n]
The Poetaster [ðə ,pəʊɪ'tæstə]	the Puritans [ðə 'pjʊərɪtənz]
The Alchemist [ði 'ælkɪmɪst]	John Donne [dʒɒn dɒn]
Bartholomew Fair [bɑː'θɒləmjʊ feə]	John Milton [dʒɒn 'mɪltən]
George Herbert [dʒɔːdʒ 'hɜːbət]	John Dryden [dʒɒn draɪdən]
Andrew Marvell ['ændruː mɑːvəl]	Oliver Cromwell ['ɒlɪvə 'krɒmwel]
King Arthur and his knights [kɪŋ 'ɑːθər ənd hɪz naɪts]	
Geoffrey of Monmouth ['dʒɛfrɪ ɒv mɒnməθ]	
the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle [ði 'æŋgləʊ'sæksən 'krɒnɪkl]	
the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster [ðə 'tʃɑːnsələɪ ɒv ðə 'dʌtʃɪ ɒv 'læŋkəstə]	
Two Gentlemen of Verona [tuː 'dʒɛnt(ə)lmən ɒv və'rəʊnə]	



2. Note down from the theoretical part phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme "The history of English literature". Translate them into

Ukrainian.



3. Find in the theoretical part the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

Oral tradition, epic tale, tribal glorification, poetry, lyric, narrative poetry, literate, romance, legends, courtly literature, fables, sonnets, drama, playwright, blank verse, comedy, tragedy, chronicle histories, a man of the theatre, a classical scholar, sequel, satire, metaphysical poets, prose work, literary criticism, heroic play, comedy of manners, manuscript, compilation.



4. Write all you can (What? When? Where? How?) about the following concepts and proper names:

Christianity, “The Raiding of the Cattle of Cooley”, epic tale, St Patrick, the Irish literature, “Beowulf”, lyric, the romance, fables, “the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle”, King Arthur, the Renaissance, Sir Thomas More, the Reformation, Queen Elizabeth I, playwright, Christopher Marlowe, William Shakespeare, blank verse, comedy, tragedy, chronicle histories, Ben Jonson, the Civil War, metaphysical poets, John Milton, comedy of manners.



5. Study the theoretical material of Part I and fill in table 1.

Table 1

№	Literary forms	Characteristics
1.	epic tale	
2.	fable	
3.	romance	
4.	sonnet	
5.	chronicle	
6.	history play	
7.	comedy of manners	
8.	blank verse	



6. Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.

Джефрі Готфрід Чосер є одним з основоположників англійської національної літератури та літературної англійської мови. Його творчість вважають передбаченням літератури англійського Відродження. Головним твором Дж. Чосера, на думку дослідників, є сповнений реалізмом збірник новел «Кентерберійські оповідання». Письменник мав широку славу ще за життя, але з плином часу відомість і популярність його творів лиш езросла. Протягом Ренесансу Кекстон надрукував його твори у 1478 та 1484 рр.; Спенсер бачить у роботах Чосера «чисте джерело англійської мови»; Сідней майже боготворить його творчість. У XVII ст. Джон Драйден редагує та оновлює казки Чосера. Врешті решт, у XIX сторіччі виникає так зване «Чосерівське товариство» (“Chaucer Society”). Його мета – видання критично перевірних текстів Чосера та вивчення біографії поета. Заслуги Чосера в історії англійської літератури та мови в цілому дуже значні. Він першим серед англійців вивів зразки широко художньої поезії, де скрізь панує художній смак, відчуття міри, витонченість форми та вірша, всюди можна побачити руку художника, який керує власними образами, а не підкорюється їм, що часто бувало у середньовічних поетів. Повсюди зустрічається критичне ставлення до своїх сюжетів і персонажів. Твори Чосера містять усі визначні риси англійської національної поезії: багатство фантазії, поєднання видумки із здоровим глуздом, гумор, спостережливність, здатність до яскравих характеристик, любов до контрастів, схильність до детальних описів – словом, все, що потім знайшло відображення у Шекспіра, Філдінга, Дікенса та інших видатних письменників Великобританії. Чосер надав завершеності самій формі англійського вірша, він довів до високої ступені витонченості літературну мову. Саме Чосер був першим, хто почав писати прозу рідною мовою, а не латиною (наприклад, «The astrolab» – трактат, створений у 1391 р. для сина). Він використовує національну мову цілком свідомо, аби виразити свої думки краще та точніше. Крім того, письменник мав високу патріотичну свідомість. Деякі його думки про благородність, виховання дітей, війну, сам характер його патріотизма стали б у нагоді навіть людині XXI сторіччя.

7. Be prepared to speak about these men of letters using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme and the following clichés:

the great age of drama

to attempt sonnets

to be fascinated by the theme of

to be influenced by the ideas of

to lack shape and force

to imitate the Greek lyrics

the complete collection of plays and sonnets

the medieval theory of “humours”

conflict in support of the Puritan cause

with cruelty and corruption

to come up to the standards of

to dominate the theatre

to deal with the greatness of human sorrow

the great English playwright

to achieve much fame

a man of the theatre

a classical scholar

to introduce a theory

to become interested in

to have a profound effect on

to show the characters in

to deal

to justify the ways of God to man

the “grand style” of English at its height

a “blank verse



Ben Jonson



William Shakespeare



Christopher Marlowe



John Milton

PART II

1. THE NEW CLASSICAL AGE 

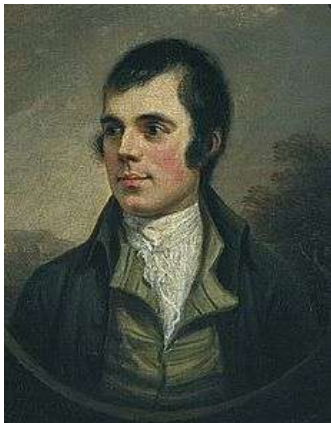
The 18th century brought to England a revival of the **classical spirit** in all the arts, and the chief aim of writers of the time was a blend of “correctness”, elegance and clarity. The way to this had been opened by Dryden, who had given much thought to the kind of language best suited for writing poetry, and who had begun to use the ten-syllabled lines rhymed in pairs which are called **heroic couplets**.

The work of the Scottish poet Robert Burns (1759-1796) is remarkable in that he was both a brilliant **satirist** and a **lyric poet** whose songs have achieved world-wide fame.

Even the fact that he wrote his best work in the dialect of southern Scotland has proved no drawback to his admirers.

In the work of William Blake (1757-1827) it is the apparent extreme **simplicity of style** coupled with the extraordinary difficulty of the mystical and visionary experiences he was trying to convey that have made his work so hard to understand.

Blake was a philosopher and an artist, and his philosophy is expressed in strange, haunting pictures and poems, and few people have ever felt that they wholly understood him.

**Robert Burns**

Robert Burns was a Scottish poet and lyricist. He is widely regarded as the national poet of Scotland and is celebrated worldwide. He is the best known of the poets who have written in the Scots language, although much of his writing is also in English. He is regarded as a pioneer of the Romantic Movement. Burns also collected folk songs from across Scotland, often revising or adapting them. In 2009 he was chosen as the greatest Scot by the Scottish public in a vote run by Scottish television channel STV.

**William Blake**

William Blake was an English poet, painter, and printmaker. Largely unrecognised during his lifetime, Blake is now considered a seminal figure in the history of the poetry and visual arts of the Romantic Age. In 2002, Blake was placed at number 38 in the BBC's poll of the 100 Greatest Britons.

The 18th century also saw the rise and development of one new and major literary form, **the novel**. There had been earlier works which were true novels, like *Don Quixote*, and there had been works which were close to the novel in form, such as *Gulliver's Travels* by Jonathan Swift (1667-1745). Swift intended this as a **social and political satire**, but it is also an excellent tale of **fantasy-adventure** in its own right and is more often read in this way today than as Swift intended it to be.

Daniel Defoe (1660-1731) was the first true English **novelist**, and his *Robinson Crusoe* and *Moll Flanders* have never lost their popularity, but he too had a didactic, or teaching, purpose in writing them.

**Daniel Defoe**

Daniel Defoe was an English trader, writer, journalist, pamphleteer, and spy, most famous for his novel Robinson Crusoe. Defoe is noted for being one of the earliest proponents of the novel, as he helped to popularise the form in Britain with others such as Samuel Richardson, and is among the founders of the English novel. He was a prolific and versatile writer, producing more than five hundred books, pamphlets, and journals on various topics, including politics, crime, religion, marriage, psychology, and the supernatural. He was also a pioneer of economic journalism.



Samuel Richardson

Richardson was an established printer and publisher for most of his life and printed almost 500 different works, including journals and magazines. In the London literary world, he was a rival of Henry Fielding, and the two responded to each other's literary styles in their own novels. His name was on the Index Librorum Prohibitorum, a list established by the Pope containing the names of books that Catholics were not allowed to read.

Samuel Richardson (1689-1761) was the true **founder** of the English novel, though *Pamela* and *Clarissa* are too deeply concerned with a narrow moral code to be satisfying today.

His influence in France, however, was considerable. Although Richardson was admired in France, his closest English contemporary, Henry Fielding (1707-1754), disliked his work. He wrote a **parody** of *Pamela* entitled *Shamela*, and later another book, *Joseph Andrews*, which is directly aimed at Richardson. In *Tom Jones*, however, he wrote a novel that has remained popular until the present time, and which presents a living picture of 18th century life.

Dr Samuel Johnson (1709-1784), most famous for his great dictionary of the English language, can best be compared with Voltaire, for his novel *Rasselas* served to express his philosophical ideas. Like Voltaire he was a satirist, a **pamphleteer**, a poet and a great **talker**.

Oliver Goldsmith (1728-1774) wrote one great novel, *The Vicar of Wakefield*, and is also remembered for his brilliantly funny comedy, *She Stoops to Conquer*.



Samuel Johnson

Samuel Johnson, often referred to as Dr. Johnson, was an English writer who made lasting contributions to English literature as a poet, essayist, moralist, literary critic, biographer, editor and lexicographer. He was claimed by some to be the only truly great critic of English literature.

With Goldsmith the first age of the novel ended, and a new fashion for **tales of horror and mystery** began. These were called Gothic novels, because of their frequent setting in the medieval period, and their most famous author was Horace Walpole (1717-1797), whose *Castle of Otranto* was enormously popular. In this fashion, too, was *Frankenstein* by Mary Shelly (1797-1851), which can now be regarded as the first **science-fiction story** to be written.

2. ENGLISH ROMANTICS

The English Romantic Movement borrowed from all sources, and its beliefs were in the power of the **creative imagination**, the necessity for genius to overthrow rules, and in Nature as a **source of inspiration**. It began with the publication of the *Lyrical Ballads* in 1798 by William Wordsworth (1770-1850) and Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772-1834).

The aims of these two poets were simplicity of form and the use of ordinary everyday speech for their poetry. The results were as far away as possible from the classical ideas of the 18th century.

It was not they, however, but George Gordon, Lord Byron (1788-1824), who enjoyed European fame as a **romantic poet**, and his **romances** and *Child Harold* were praised by Goethe and even translated into Russian. Nevertheless, Byron's best work lies in his satire, especially in the witty *Don Juan*, and he is more properly a follower of Dryden than a true romantic.



Samuel Taylor Coleridge

Samuel Taylor Coleridge was an English poet, literary critic and philosopher who, with his friend William Wordsworth, was a founder of the Romantic Movement in England and a member of the Lake Poets.



George Gordon Byron

George Gordon Byron was a British poet, peer, politician, and a leading figure in the Romantic Movement. Byron is regarded as one of the greatest British poets and remains widely read and influential.

The other two romantic poets of the age were Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792-1822) and John Keats (1795-1821). Shelley's lyric poetry has an unequalled delicacy but, despite his belief that poets are the prophets of their age, he produced no large works of any lasting quality. Keats was not really interested in **literary fashions**. For him an **essential doctrine** both for poetry and life was "What the imagination seizes as beauty must be truth", in other words "Beauty is truth, truth beauty", and his work is an attempt to show this. His **odes** are among the greatest in English poetry.

3. 19TH CENTURY ENGLISH NOVELISTS

The 19th century is the great age of the novel in England. Jane Austen (1775-1817), the daughter of a Hampshire rector, lived a quiet and secluded life, yet produced an unequalled portrait of the upper middle-class society of her day. She writes with a beautiful **gentle irony**, and her six novels, *Pride and Prejudice*, *Sense and Sensibility*, *Mansfield Park*, *Emma* are witty observed records of the lives and loves of characters that remain perfectly real to us today.



Jane Austen

Jane Austen was an English novelist known primarily for her six major novels, which interpret, critique and comment upon the British landed gentry at the end of the 18th century. Jane Austen's use of biting irony, along with her realism and social commentary has earned her great and historical importance to critics and scholars.



Charles Dickens

Charles Dickens was an English writer and social critic. He created some of the world's best-known fictional characters and is regarded by many as the greatest novelist of the Victorian era. His works enjoyed unprecedented popularity during his lifetime, and by the twentieth century critics and scholars had recognised him as a literary genius. His novels and short stories enjoy lasting popularity.

Sir Walter Scott (1771-1832), Scotland's greatest novelist, returned to the traditions of romance and history. It was Scot's tales of the tragic and stirring past of his own people in such books as *Rob Roy*, *The Fair Maid of Perth* and others that helped to make Scotland fashionable as a place to be visited.

Probably the greatest English novelist of the time was Charles Dickens (1812-1870), whose best work reveals some of the dreadful social conditions of his age, the miseries of child-workers and of the poor: by bringing these things to public notice he did much to remedy them.

Such books as *Oliver Twist* and *David Copperfield* are among these, while *The Pickwick Papers* is **pure comedy**, and *The Old Curiosity Shop* is a somewhat **sentimental story**.

William Makepeace Thackeray (1811-1863) uses satire to show the social silliness of the age. His *Vanity Fair* is one of the wittiest novels of the time.

The three Brontë sisters, Charlotte (1816-1855), Emily (1818-1848) and Anna (1820-1849), were, like Jane Austen, daughters of a country rector, but they were brought up at Haworth in the bleak moorlands of Yorkshire.



Charlotte Brontë

*Charlotte Brontë was an English novelist and poet, the eldest of the three Brontë sisters who survived into adulthood and whose novels have become classics of English literature. She first published her works (including her best known novel, *Jane Eyre*) under the pen name Currer Bell.*

Charlotte and Anne became governesses, then the only career open to middle-class girls, and their books describe their experiences in this capacity. Charlotte's Brontë *Jane Eyre* is a **love story** of a poor governess who ends by marrying her employer, but it also describes the terrible conditions at the boarding school to which the little Brontë sisters were sent. Emily Brontë remained at Haworth and her only novel *Wuthering Heights* is a strange and grim tale set in the bleak moors she loved so well.

Mary Ann Evans (1819-1880), who wrote under the name of George Eliot, deals with social conditions of farmers and tradesmen in the Midlands.

Thomas Hardy (1840-1928) returns to English **country settings**, but although many of his villagers are amusingly drawn he is aware of the hardships and sorrows of country life, and his books, such as *Tess of the D'Urbervilles*, are largely tragic.

After 1870 schooling became compulsory for all English children. As a result more people than ever before were reading books and a demand grew for **lighter reading** and more "good stories". This was met by such writers as Robert Louis Stevenson (1850-1894), whose *Treasure Islands* and *Kidnapped* are among the best adventure stories of all time, and by Rudyard Kipling (1865-1936), who wrote some of the best **children's books** (e.g. *The Jungle Books*).



Robert Louis Stevenson

Robert Louis Stevenson was a Scottish novelist, poet, essayist, and travel writer. A literary celebrity during his lifetime, Stevenson now ranks as the 26th most translated author in the world. His works have been admired by many other writers, including Arthur Conan Doyle, Henry James, Ernest Hemingway, Rudyard Kipling, Jack London, Vladimir Nabokov, and G. K. Chesterton, who said of him that he "seemed to pick the right word up on the point of his pen, like a man playing spillikins".

4. VICTORIAN WRITERS

After the romantic period ended in 19th century England there was no great literary “fashion”. At the beginning of the Victorian age there were two outstanding English poets, Alfred, Lord Tennyson (1809-1892) and Robert Browning (1812-1889). Tennyson wrote lyric poems and **verse dramas** not intended to be acted, and in his *Idylls of the King* he returned to the stories of King Arthur. A weakness in his work lay in his feeling that only old, beautiful and romantic themes were suitable for poetry, so that the truth to life which makes poetry “come alive” is missing.

Browning, too, preferred to set his poetry in past ages, but because he was chiefly interested in the kinds of moral and religious problems which have applied to all ages, his work is more alive and has remained so.

In the latter half of the 19th century a new movement grew up in revolt against the Industrial Revolution and all the ugliness and lack of grace to which the beginning of the “machine age” had led. This was an association of poets, painters and craftsmen, whose ideas were those of medieval times, and for this reason they called themselves the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood.



The Lord Tennyson

The Lord Tennyson was Poet Laureate of Great Britain and Ireland during much of Queen Victoria's reign and remains one of the most popular British poets. Tennyson excelled at penning short lyrics. Much of his verse was based on classical mythological themes. Tennyson also wrote some notable blank verse.



Dante Gabriel Rossetti

Dante Gabriel Rossetti was an English poet, illustrator, painter and translator. He founded the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood in 1848 with William Holman Hunt and John Everett Millais.

This was led by Dante Gabriel Rossetti (1828-1882), who was, like many of his colleagues, both painter and poet. The Brotherhood included William Morris (1834-1896), poet and a craftsman, and Rossetti's sister Christina (1830-1894), and its work shows the first conscious revolt against **mass-production** and the industrial uglification of what Blake had called "England's green and pleasant land".

5. 20TH CENTURY ENGLISH NOVELISTS

England began the 20th century with "novel-series" by John Galsworthy (1867-1933) and Arnold Bennett (1867-1931). Galsworthy's account of a wealthy family in his *Forsyte Saga* is still very popular today. Bennett deals with the poorer and more ordinary people of the industrial midlands of England.



John Galsworthy

*John Galsworthy was an English novelist and playwright. Notable works include *The Forsyte Saga* (1906–1921) and its sequels, *A Modern Comedy* and *End of the Chapter*. He won the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1932.*



Virginia Woolf

Virginia Woolf was an English writer and one of the foremost modernists of the twentieth century. During the interwar period, Woolf was a significant figure in London literary society and a central figure in the influential Bloomsbury Group of intellectuals.

The political struggle which at last gave women the right to vote in political elections was one of the things which inspired D.H.Lawrence (1885-1930) to consider the different ways in which men and women react to each other, and to consider the problems they encounter. Women, too, are at the centre of most of the novels of Virginia Woolf (1882-1941), though she is more interested in the way in which their minds work.

One of the greatest writers of this century was the Irishman James Joyce (1882-1941), who also **explored the minds of his characters**. To do this he invented a new style of writing –fascinating but often very difficult. His two most outstanding books are *Ulysses* and *Finnegan's Wake*.

Novels inspired by political and social ideas are associated particularly with the names of Hilaire Belloc (1870-1953), G.K. Chesterton (1874-1936), E.M. Forster (1879-1970) and George Orwell (1903-1950). Evelyn Waugh (1903-1966) and Graham Greene are thought of as “Catholic” novelists, though Waugh can also be classed with Aldous Huxley (1894-1963) and Compton Mackenzie (1883-1972) as one of the best satirical writers of his generation.

The fashion for **detective stories** began in the 20th century, and some of the very best are still the earliest to be written. Wilkie Collins (1824-1889) introduced the first great police detective, *Sergeant Cuff*, while the outstanding **amateur** at the job is certainly the immortal *Sherlock Holmes*, created by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle (1859-1930).

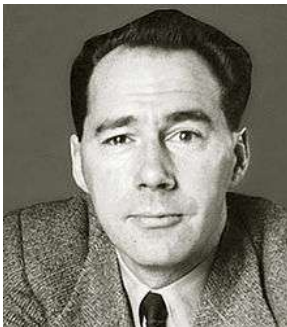


Sir Arthur Conan Doyle

Sir Arthur Conan Doyle was a British writer and physician, most noted for his character Sherlock Holmes and his detective fiction, which are generally considered milestones in the field of crime fiction. He was a prolific writer whose other works include fantasy and science fiction stories, plays, romances, poetry, non-fiction and historical novels.

Science fiction was partly the invention of H.G. Wells (1866-1946), and although this kind of book is often more sensational than **literary**, excellent stories have been written by C. S. Lewis and John Wyndham. C.S. Lewis (1898-1963) will be remembered by children for his *Narnia* stories, for the 20th century was also the age of novels for children.

Arthur Ransom (1884- 1967) deserves a mention for his enormously popular stories of the *Swallows and Amazons*, while for a younger age group *The wind in the Willows* by Kenneth Grahame (1859-1922) and the *Winnie the Pooh* books by A.A. Milne (1882-1956) are outstanding.



John Wyndham

John Wyndham was an English science fiction writer best known for his works written using the pen name John Wyndham, although he also used other combinations of his names, such as John Beynon and Lucas Parkes. Many of his works were set in post-apocalyptic landscapes.

6. MODERN POETRY



In the history of the poetry of this century the First World War inspired English poets as it did no others. Some, such as Rupert Brooke (1887-1915) and Julian Grenfell (1888-1915), saw the war as heroic and glorious. Others, like Wilfred Owen (1893-1918), found it a terrible experience, and their poetry is against war.



William Butler Yeats photographed in 1903
Yeats is generally considered one of the twentieth century key English language poets. He was a Symbolist poet, using allusive imagery and symbolic structures throughout his career. He chose words and assembled them so that, in addition to a particular meaning, they suggest abstract thoughts that may seem more significant and resonant.

William Butler Yeats (1865-1939), an Irishman, was more involved in the struggle for the independence of his own country than with the war in Europe. But his best work is not influenced by politics or wars but is an expression of his own vision in a rich yet simple and musical style.

His earliest **volume of verse** was published in 1889, and its **slow-paced and lyrical poems** display Yeats's debts to Edmund Spenser, Percy Bysshe Shelley, and the poets of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. From 1900, his poetry grew more physical and realistic. He largely renounced the transcendental beliefs of his youth, though he remained preoccupied with physical and spiritual masks, as well as with cyclical theories of life. In 1923, he was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature.

Thomas Stearns Eliot (1888-1965) was a British **essayist, publisher, playwright, literary and social critic**, and one of the twentieth century's major poets. Eliot attracted widespread attention for his poem *The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock* (1915), which was seen as a masterpiece of **the Modernist movement**. It was followed by some of the best-known poems in the English language, including *The Waste Land* (1922), *The Hollow Men* (1925), *Ash Wednesday* (1930), and *Four Quartets* (1943). He was also known for his seven plays, particularly *Murder in the Cathedral* (1935). A more complicated philosophy of life was expressed by T. S. Eliot in "**free verse**" without **rhyme** or **regular metre**. He was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1948, "for his outstanding, pioneer contribution to present-day poetry".



T.S. Eliot in 1934

In 1967, on the second anniversary of his death, Eliot was commemorated by the placement of a large stone in the floor of Poets' Corner in London's Westminster Abbey.

Wystan Hugh Auden (1907-1973) was an English poet, who later became an American citizen. He is best known for love poems such as *Funeral Blues*, poems on political and social themes such as *September 1, 1939* and *The Shield of Achilles*, poems on cultural and psychological themes such as *The Age of Anxiety*, and poems on religious themes such as *For the Time Being* and *Horae Canonicae*. Auden was a **prolific writer** of **prose essays** and **reviews** on literary, political, psychological and religious subjects, and he worked at various times on documentary films, **poetic plays**, and other forms of performance.

Throughout his career he was both controversial and influential, and critical views on his work ranged from sharply dismissive, treating him as a lesser follower of W. B. Yeats and T. S. Eliot, to strongly affirmative, as in Joseph Brodsky's claim that he had "the greatest mind of the twentieth century". After his death, his poems became known to a much wider public than during his lifetime through films, broadcasts, and popular media.



Wystan Hugh Auden in 1939

Wystan Hugh Auden published about four hundred poems, including seven long poems. His poetry was encyclopedic in scope and method, ranging in style from obscure twentieth-century modernism to the lucid traditional forms such as ballads and limericks, from doggerel through haiku and villanelles to a "Christmas Oratorio" and a baroque eclogue in Anglo-Saxon meters. He also wrote more than four hundred essays and reviews about literature, history, politics, music, religion, and many other subjects.

Self-checking Questions



1. What are the main trends of classicism in the English literature?
1. What are the best representatives of classicism in the English literature?
2. What kind of verse form were the heroic couplets of the 18th century?
3. Who is regarded as a pioneer of the Romantic Movement?
4. What new major literary form appeared in the 18th century?
5. Who is considered the first true English novelist?
6. The books of what English novelist were not allowed to read by Catholic Church?
7. Why did Gothic novel get such a name as a literary style?
8. What novel is regarded as the first science-fiction story to be written?
9. What aims did the Romantic poets pursue?
10. What literary man enjoyed European fame as a romantic poet?
11. Why have Jane Austen's novels earned her great and historical importance to critics and scholars?
12. Who brought to public the dreadful social conditions of his age, describing them in his novels?
13. Which of the three Brontë sisters became a classic of English literature?
14. Why was there a growing demand for lighter reading and more “good stories” in the 19th century?
15. Who were the two outstanding English poets at the beginning of the Victorian age?
16. Who are the greatest English novelists of the 19th century?
17. What were the reasons for the creation of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood?
18. When did the fashion for detective stories begin?
19. When did the fashion for science fiction stories begin?
20. What historical events inspired the men of letters of the 20th century?

PRACTICAL PART



ASSIGNMENTS



1. Study the following proper names and practice their pronunciation:

Thomas Stearns Eliot ['tɒməs stɜːnz 'eliət]	William Blake ['wɪljəm bleɪk]
Wystan Hugh Auden [wɪstən hjuː ɔːdən]	Virginia Woolf [vəː'dʒɪnjə wʊlf]
William Butler Yeats ['wɪljəm 'bʌtlə jiːts]	James Joyce [dʒeɪmz dʒɔɪs]
Jonathan Swift ['dʒɒnəθən swɪft]	Henry Fielding ['henri 'fiːldɪŋ]
Samuel Richardson ['sæmjʊəl 'rɪfədsən]	Daniel Defoe ['dænjəl dɪˈfəʊ]
Dr Samuel Johnson ['sæmjʊəl 'dʒɒns(ə)n]	Goethe ['gɜːtə]
Oliver Goldsmith ['ɒlɪvə 'gəʊldsmɪθ]	Horace Walpole ['hɒrɪs wɔːlpəʊl]
William Wordsworth ['wɪljəm 'wɜːdz, wəθ]	John Keats [dʒɒn kiːts]
Samuel Taylor Coleridge ['sæmjʊəl 'teɪlə kəʊlɪdʒ]	Jane Austen [dʒeɪn 'ɒstɪn]
George Gordon Byron [dʒɔːdʒ 'gɔːdən 'baɪrən]	George Eliot [dʒɔːdʒ 'eliət]
Percy Bysshe Shelley ['pɜːsi bɪʃɪ 'ʃeli]	Sir Walter Scott [sɜː 'wɔːltə skɒt]
Charles Dickens [tʃɑːlz 'dɪkɪnz]	Thomas Hardy ['tɒməs 'hɑːdi]
William Makepeace Thackeray ['wɪljəm 'meɪkpiːs 'θækəri]	
Charlotte, Emily, Anna Brontë ['tʃɑːlət, 'eməli, 'ænə brɒnti]	
Robert Louis Stevenson ['rɒbət 'ljuːɪs 'stiːvənsən]	
Rudyard Kipling [redʒɑːd 'kiplɪŋ]	George Orwell [dʒɔːdʒ 'ɔːwəl]
Alfred Tennyson ['ælfɾəd 'tenɪs(ə)n]	Robert Browning ['rɒbət 'braʊnɪŋ]
the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood [ðə priː ræfəɪl 'brʌðəhʊd]	
Dante Gabriel Rossetti [dʌnte 'geɪbrɪəl rɒ'seti]	Arnold Bennett ['ɑːnəld benət]
John Galsworthy [dʒɒn 'gɔːlz, wɜːði]	Wilkie Collins [wɪlki 'kɒlɪnz]
David Herbert Lawrence ['dɛrɪd 'hɜːbət 'lɒrəns]	Voltaire [vɒl'teə]
John Wyndham [dʒɒn wɪndhəm]	Robert Burns ['rɒbət bɜːnz]
Sir Arthur Conan Doyle [sɜː 'ɑːθə 'kəʊnən 'dɔɪl]	Rupert Brooke ['ruːpət brʊk]
Herbert George Wells ['hɜːbət dʒɔːdʒ wɛlz]	Mary Shelly ['meəri 'ʃeli]
Alan Alexander Milne ['ælən ,æɪlɪg'zɑːndə mɪln]	



2. Note down from the theoretical part phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme “The history of English literature”. Translate them into Ukrainian.



3. Find in the theoretical part the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

Heroic couplets, satirist, classicism, lyric poet, visual arts, literary form, social (political) satire, fantasy-adventure, novelist, didactic purpose, pamphleteer, prolific writer, parody, literary critic, biographer, lexicographer, editor, comedy, tragedy, tales of horror, science-fiction, lyrical ballads, romantic poet, literary fashions, ode, gentle(biting) irony, realism, fictional characters, sentimental story, love story, essayist, travel writer, children’s books, verse dramas, blank verse, saga, modernism, detective stories, crime fiction, historical novel, pen name(pseudonym), a symbolist poet, review, limericks.



4. Write all you can (What? When? Where? How?) about the following concepts and proper names:

The Lake Poets, to pen short stories, the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, the revival of the classical spirit, the Scots language, a pioneer of the Romantic Movement, extreme simplicity of style, the 100 Greatest Britons, social and political satire, the founders of the English novel, tales of horror and mystery, the first science-fiction story, the power of the creative imagination, to reveal the dreadful social conditions of the age, the Victorian era, a literary genius, a literary celebrity, lighter reading, children’s books, the stories of King Arthur, mass-production, the Bloomsbury Group of intellectuals, detective fiction, science fiction, a Symbolist poet, the Nobel Prize in Literature, the Modernist movement.



5. Study the theoretical material of Part I and Part II and fill in the chronological table dealing with the historical development of English literature (Table 1).

Table 1

Historical period	The main trends	Representatives	Literary works
Celtic 3-5 centuries			
Anglo-Saxon 5- 11 centuries			
Anglo-Norman 11-15 centuries			
The Renaissance 15-16 centuries			
The 17 th century literature			
The 17 th -18 th centuries literature			
The 18 th -19 th centuries literature			
The 19 th -20 th centuries literature			



6. Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.

Вальтер Скотт — творець жанру історичного роману. Більшу частину своїх великих знань Скотт отримав не в школі та університеті, а за допомогою самоосвіти. Все, що його цікавило, назавжди вкарбовується у його феноменальній пам'яті. Йому не було потрібно вивчати спеціальну

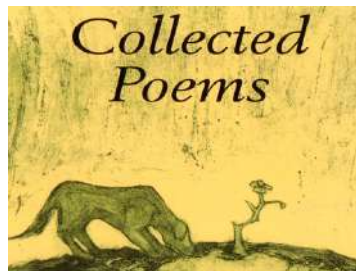
літературу перед тим, як скласти роман або поему. Колосальний обсяг знань дозволяв йому писати на будь-яку обрану тему. Романи Скотта спочатку виходили без імені автора і інкогніто було розкрито тільки в 1827 році. В 1797 Вальтер Скотт одружився на Шарлотті Карпентер. За життя був зразковим сім'янином, людиною доброю, чутливою, тактовною, вдячною; любив свій маєток Ебботсфорд, який перебудував, зробивши з нього невеликий замок; дуже любив дерева, свійських тварин, добре застїлля в сімейному колі. У 1825 році на лондонській біржі вибухнула фінансова паніка, і кредитори зажадали оплати векселів. Ні видавець Скотта, ні власник друкарні Дж. Баллантайн не змогли сплатити готівкою і оголосили себе банкрутами. Однак Скотт відмовився наслідувати їхній приклад і взяв на себе відповідальність за всі рахунки, на яких стояв його підпис, що склало 130000 фунтів стерлінгів, причому борги самого Скотта становили лише малу частину цієї суми. Виснажлива літературна праця, на яку він себе прирік, щоб виплатити величезний борг, відняла у нього роки життя. Скотт пережив чотири інсульти, але продовжував працювати. Протягом більш ніж 30-річної літературної діяльності письменник створив 28 романів, дев'ять поем, безліч повістей, літературно-критичних статей, історичних праць. Термін «фрілансер» (букв. «вільний митець») вперше був ужитий саме Вальтером Скоттом в романі «Айвенго» для опису «середньовічного найманого воїна».



7. Be prepared to speak about this periodization of the English literature (Part II) using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme and the following clichés:

to make lasting contributions to English literature	to be widely regarded as
to be a prolific and versatile writer	a revival of the classical spirit
to consider Nature as a source of inspiration	to achieve world-wide fame
to intend smth. as a social and political satire	the first true English novelist
a pioneer of the Romantic Movement	the founder of the English novel
to have mystical and visionary experiences	tales of horror and mystery
to be (un)recognized during one's lifetime	to present a living picture of
to be a seminal figure in the history of the poetry	the first science-fiction story
the earliest proponent of the novel	to enjoy European fame as
the power of the creative imagination	to be interested in literary fashions
to produce an unequalled portrait of	to earn the great historical importance

to bring the miseries of the poor to public attention
 to be recognised as a literary genius
 to return to English country settings
 to be based on classical/ mythological themes
 the first conscious revolt against mass-production
 to be one of the foremost modernists of the twentieth century
 to explore the minds of the characters
 to be inspired by political and social ideas
 to be considered milestones in the field of crime fiction
 to be involved in the struggle for independence
 to be considered as one of the key English language poets
 to be preoccupied with physical and spiritual masks
 to be awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature
 a masterpiece of the Modernist movement
 to be encyclopedic in scope and method

18th century English novelists19th century English novelists20th century English novelists18-20th century English poets



GENERALIZING TEST

1. The earliest English literature is In culture.
 - a) Latin
 - b) French
 - c) Germanic
 - d) Irish
2. The prose written in England in the 12th century was in
 - a) Norman French
 - b) Latin
 - c) Anglo-Saxon
 - d) German
3. Tales of horror and mystery were called
 - a) Fiction
 - b) Love
 - c) Gothic
 - d) Lyric
4. The romance as a narrative poetry was read by
 - a) church
 - b) peasants
 - c) common people
 - d) court
5. The first really great English playwright was
 - a) Christopher Marlowe
 - b) William Shakespeare
 - c) John Milton
 - d) Ben Jonson
6. The original legends of *King Arthur and his knights* were in origin.
 - a) Roman
 - b) French
 - c) German
 - d) Celtic

7. The heroic play and the comedy of manners dominated in England in century.
- a) the 15th
 - b) the 16th
 - c) the 17th
 - d) the 18th
8. For the English romantic-poets was a source of inspiration.
- a) freedom
 - b) nature
 - c) antiquity
 - d) industrialization
9. The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood grew up in revolt against.....
- a) the Renaissance
 - b) the Reformation
 - c) the Industrial Revolution
 - d) the First World War
10. The fashion for detective stories began in century.
- a) the 17th
 - b) the 18th
 - c) the 19th
 - d) the 20th



TESTS IN THEMATIC VOCABULARY

Test 1. *Choose the one word or phrase that best keeps the meaning of the original sentence if it is substituted for the capitalized word or phrase:*

1. Saint Patrick began to ESTABLISH Christianity in Ireland in the 5th century.
- a) impose
 - b) introduce
 - c) set up
 - d) hold up

2. The great Anglo-Saxon epic *Beowulf*, which was probably COMPOSED in the 7th century.
 - a) established
 - b) created
 - c) dated
 - d) found

3. The poetry is restricted to religion, war and tribal GLORIFICATION.
 - a) origin
 - b) narration
 - c) praise
 - d) description

4. Another kind of NARRATIVE poetry began in the 12th century.
 - a) lyric
 - b) tale
 - c) plot
 - d) epic

5. The narrative poetry was read by LITERATE and cultured society of the court.
 - a) educated
 - b) trained
 - c) high
 - d) elite

6. The original legends about Arthur were probably Celtic in ORIGIN.
 - a) plot
 - b) setting
 - c) sense
 - d) nature

7. SCHOLARS began to make English translations of the Bible, so that it would be available to all who could read.
 - a) artists
 - b) researchers

- c) philologists
 - d) innovators
8. The “BLANK VERSE” was introduced into the country by Wyatt and Surrey.
- a) macaronic
 - b) free
 - c) flat
 - d) rhymed
9. Christopher Marlowe was FASCINATED by the theme of power.
- a) involved
 - b) engaged
 - c) attracted
 - d) affected
10. Shakespeare is probably the world’s greatest PLAYWRIGHT.
- a) novelist
 - b) dramatist
 - c) author
 - d) writer
11. Shakespeare was born in Stratford-upon-Avon, and after beginning his writing career with SEQUENCE of sonnets, he came to London.
- a) issues
 - b) number
 - c) couple
 - d) series
12. Shakespeare apparently felt that he had no further URGE to write and he returned to his home at Stratford-upon-Avon.
- a) impulse
 - b) desire
 - c) objective
 - d) aim

13. The duty of comedy is to spot with human FOLLIES, not with crimes.

- a) hypocrisy
- b) thoughtlessness
- c) carelessness
- d) negligence

14. After Shakespeare tragedy dealt with cruelty and corruption rather than with the greatness of human SORROW.

- a) pain
- b) misery
- c) grief
- d) solitude

15. The comedy of manners dealt with the brilliant but ARTIFICIAL society of the court of Charles II.

- a) deceitful
- b) insincere
- c) unfriendly
- d) false

16. The 18th century brought to England a REVIVAL of the classical spirit in all the arts.

- a) coming
- b) beginning
- c) rebirth
- d) origin

17. Daniel Defoe had a DIDACTIC purpose in writing his novels.

- a) teaching
- b) moralistic
- c) moralizing
- d) learning

18. Dr Samuel Johnson was a satirist, a pamphleteer, a poet and a great TALKER.

- a) lecturer
- b) scholar
- c) orator
- d) interlocutor

19. A lyricist has to be extremely SENSITIVE to the music of words.

- a) touching
- b) gentle
- c) soft
- d) delicate

Test 2. *Fill in the blanks with the following words. You may use each word only once:*

Detective historical fantasy genre significant spy thriller novels

Crime romance designation fiction character graphic science series

Genre fiction in the twentieth-century

Many works published in the twentieth-century were examples of genre This includes the novels, novel, historical , fantasy, novel, and fiction. Agatha Christie (1890–1976) was an important crime writer of , short stories and plays, who is best remembered for her 80 novels as well as her successful plays for the West End theatre. Another noted writer in the spy novel was John le Carré, while in writing, Ian Fleming created the James Bond 007. The novelist Georgette Heyer created the romance genre. Among writers in the fantasy genre were Tolkien, the author of *The Hobbit* and *The Lord of the Rings* and J. K. Rowling, who wrote the highly successful *Harry Potter* Like in the later decades of the 20th century, the genre of science fiction began to be taken more seriously, and this was because of the work of writers such as Arthur C. Clarke's (*2001: A Space Odyssey*), and Michael Moorcock.

Test 3. Match the definition with the correct word:

1. fable	a) a long narrative poem recounting in elevated style the deeds of a legendary hero, especially one originating in oral folk tradition;
2. romance	b) a short poem of songlike quality;
3. ballad	c) a learned person, especially in the humanities;
4. saga	d) the genre of literature represented by works intended for the stage;
5. pamphleteer	e) unrhymed verse, especially in iambic pentameters;
6. epic	f) a short traditional verse or song for children;
7. playwright	g) a short moral story, especially one with animals as characters;
8. blank verse	h) a lyric poem, typically addressed to a particular subject, with lines of varying lengths and complex rhythms;
9. couplet	i) a person who writes or issues pamphlets, especially of a controversial nature;
10. drama	j) a dramatic or other work of light and amusing character;
11. chronicle	k) a series of novels about several generations or members of a family;
12. ode	l) a record or register of events in chronological order;
13. nursery rhyme	m) two successive lines of verse, usually rhymed and of the same metre;
14. comedy	n) a person who writes plays;
15. scholar	o) a narrative in verse or prose, written in a vernacular language in the Middle Ages, dealing with exciting adventures of chivalrous heroes;
16. lyric	p) a narrative poem in short stanzas of popular origin, originally sung to a repeated tune;

Test 4. Find the synonyms and group them correspondingly:

Scholar, author, protagonist, pseudonym, tale, fable, writing, belles-lettres lyric, rhyme, dramatist, troubadour, subject, legend, verse, scientist, publisher, poetry, minstrel, story, strophe, writer, scald, line, main character, literary work, fiction, composer, playwright, narrative, editor, plot, poem, pen name, hero, myth, parable.

Test 5. Sort out the following thematic vocabulary in three columns (some are to be used twice):

drama	poetry	prose
e.g. play	rhyme	novel
tragedy	actor	poem
Blank verse	essay	vers libre
amphibrach	playwright	plot
hymn	ode	fable
comedy	couplet	accentual-syllabic
narrative	interlude	limerick
antiutopia	sonnet	diptych
protagonist	antagonist	epic
saga	ballad	romance
pamphlet	feuilleton	act
chapter	chronicle	dactyl
apocrypha	footnote	note
summary	review	script
prologue	monologue	dialogue
treatise	scene	declamation

Test 6. Complete each of the following sentences with one of the words below:

subscription collections medieval mystery sonnets
romance satire legends theatre historiographies

1. Nearly all Anglo-Saxon authors are anonymous: twelve are known by name from sources.
2. The legends of King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table were the first written in English since the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.
3. Medieval plays focused on the representation of Bible stories.
4. There are four complete extant English biblical of plays from the late medieval period.
5. Swift intended his Gulliver's Travels as a social and political
6. Ben Jonson did not consider himself a man of the
7. In poetry Sir Thomas Wyatt and Earl of Surrey first attempted English
8. The original about Arthur were probably Celtic in origin.
9. The was a serious and courtly kind of literature.
10. Circulating libraries, that allowed books to be borrowed for an annual, were a further factor in the rising popularity of the novel.



8. BRITISH ART

THEORETICAL PART



PRELIMINARY DISCUSSION

- What were the most distinguished painters of the English Renaissance?
- How did the foreign painters influence on the English school of painting?
- What is a self-taught artist?
- What were the most influential foreign sculptors in Britain?
- What were the most prominent British watercolour painters?
- In what genres did the British music develop?
- What contribution did The Beatles make to the pop-music world?

1. BRITISH FINE ARTS

1.1. The Renaissance

England is exceptionally late, among the wealthier regions of western Europe, in developing a native **school of artists** of sufficient distinction for their names to survive. The exquisite *Wilton Diptych*, dating from the 1390s, may have been painted in England (its origin is uncertain), but it has no national characteristics (being classed in the International Style) and it is anonymous.

From the period when the great **Renaissance** masters were at work in Italy, the Netherlands or Germany, there was no English artist whose name survived. When English kings and nobles wanted their portrait painted, they looked to continental Europe for someone with the necessary skills.

The most distinguished **painter** to fulfill this function was Hans Holbein, who spent thirteen years in England between 1526 and 1543. Holbein provided the **images** by which we know members of the Tudor court, and in particular Henry VIII himself. He also profoundly influenced John Bettes, the first English **portrait painter** whose name has come down to us. Bettes' name has survived by a single lucky accident. A painting known simply as *A Man in a Black Cap*, now in Tate Britain, bears the inscription of Johan Bettes Anglois (made by John Bettes Englishman).

It is significant that his English origin is considered worthy of mention.



Wilton Diptych. *Richard II of England with his patron saints*

Hans Holbein. *A Man in a Black Cap*



Hans Holbein. *Henry VIII*

Later English aristocrats preferred to be depicted in sumptuous clothes and jewellery, often **half- or full-length** (thus showing more of a spectacular costume) and frequently with pale faces and distant, reserved expressions. One of the first **exponents** of this style was Hans Eworth, who came to England from Antwerp in about 1545 and remains until his death in 1573.

Later in the century a second John Bettes, son of the first, also painted in the new style. But the most fashionable painter was Marcus Gheeraerts the Younger, who arrived as a child in 1568 with his Protestant family, fleeing from religious persecution in Bruges. His painting of Elizabeth I, painted probably in 1592 and now in the National Portrait Gallery, is an outstanding example of this **ornate school of portraiture**.

Another splendid example, dating from some twenty years earlier, is an **oil painting** of the queen by Nicholas Hilliard (now in Tate Britain). With Hilliard the story of British painting reaches its first native-born artist of international reputation.

Holbein, while working in and around the English court in the 1530s, had developed a new interest.

He tried his hand at painting **miniatures**, tiny images on **vellum** or **ivory** of a kind which were being produced at the time by Flemish artists illuminating **manuscripts** for Henry VIII's library. In doing so he unwittingly encouraged the emergence later in the century of the first identifiable school of English art, with Hilliard as its founder.



Hans Holbein. *Portrait Miniature of Katherine Howard*

1.2. 17th –century English Painters

Nicholas Hilliard and Isaac Oliver

The first important English painter, Nicholas Hilliard, was born in 1547, four years after Holbein's death in London. When he wrote his *Treatise Concerning the Arte of Limning*, late in life, he said that his model in painting miniatures was always Holbein.

From the 1570s Hilliard was a prolific painter of the queen, of the nobility and of anyone else willing to commission him. More than 200 of his exquisite little portraits have survived (as opposed to only a dozen by Holbein). They are the first English view of the English. In addition to the usual tiny **head-and-shoulder portraits** (in precious **settings**, often worn as a jewel), Hilliard pioneered a new tradition - that of the **full-length miniature**.

One of Hilliard's earliest full-length miniatures is *the Young Man among Roses* of about 1587.



Nicholas Hilliard. *Queen Elizabeth I*



Nicholas Hilliard. *the Young Man among Roses*



Isaac Oliver. *Unknown Melancholy Young Man*

It has the dreamy quality characteristic of these larger miniatures, both by Hilliard himself and by his pupil Isaac Oliver (son of a Huguenot goldsmith, who brought his family to London in 1568). The same mood pervaded Oliver's miniature of the 1590s, now bewitchingly entitled *Unknown Melancholy Young Man*.

Isaac Oliver was followed as a painter to the English court by his son Peter. During Peter's career a foreign portrait painter arrived who easily outshined all English competition. But this foreigner made such an enormous contribution, and had such influence on the English portrait tradition, that he must be considered as part of British art. He is Anthony van Dyck.

Van Dyck

Van Dyck worked in Rubens' studio in Antwerp between 1618 and 1620 and then spent most of the 1620s in Italy. In Genoa he made an extremely successful career as a portrait painter, providing elegant and darkly dramatic full-length portraits of the city's aristocracy. It was that same elegance, in a slightly gentler **vein** and with a **lighter palette**, which later made van Dyck the favourite portrait painter in English court circles. He moved to London in 1632 and was immediately encouraged by Charles I, a most enthusiastic and knowledgeable **collector of paintings**. Within weeks of Van Dyck's arrival the king and queen were sitting for him. That same summer he was knighted.



Van Dyck. *Charles I of England*

There were to be many more such portraits of the royal pair. The charming but weak face of Charles I, with the delicately trimmed beard, and the fragile beauty of Henrietta Maria are the most familiar images of British monarchs, in the entire long span between the queens Elizabeth and Victoria, entirely thanks to the skill of van Dyck.

Other members of the aristocracy were eager to use his services. They glowed in his **canvases**, handsome and arrogant Cavaliers in fine fabrics (*John and Bernard Stuart* in London's National Gallery are a perfect example). Nemesis awaited them when civil war broke out in 1642. But the painter who gave them immortality had died in the previous year.

Unexpectedly, there was a talented English **portraitist** on hand to record the Cavaliers during the difficult years (1642-6) when the king established his court in exile at Oxford. Relatively little is known about William Dobson until he succeeded Van Dyck in 1641 as chief painter to the court, and he died in his mid-thirties in 1646. But in his four years at Oxford he produced some fifty portraits, closer in style to Titian and the Venetian school than to the refined elegance of Van Dyck.



William Dobson. *Endymion Porter*

Most notable of all among Dobson's works is the strongly characterized portrait of the Cavalier collector and **connoisseur of art**, *Endymion Porter* (now in Tate Britain).

1.3. 17th - 18th century Foreign Sculptors

There is a rich tradition of **tomb sculpture** in British **cathedrals** and **parish churches**, from the Middle Ages through to the 18th century, and most of these effigies are **carved** by local artists. But once fashionable **sculptors** became part of the scene, in the late 17th century, the story was the same as with painting. Almost without exception they came from the northern regions of continental Europe.

Even the most famous and the most English-seeming of them was born and trained in Holland. Grinling Gibbons, son of an English father, came to London in his late teens and rapidly established a reputation for his **still lives** of fruit, foliage, dead birds and musical instruments, carved with astonishing **realism** in lime wood.



Carving design by Grinling Gibbons

8. BRITISH ART

Gibbons' older contemporary, the Danish sculptor Casus Gabriel Cibber, had already been in London for a few years when Gibbons arrived in about 1667. Cibber worked in stone and on a more monumental scale. Indeed his first important commission was a **scene** for the **pedestal** of Wren's *Monument to the Great Fire*. His **panel** in relief (1673-5) shows Charles II, in Roman costume, offering comfort and protection to the inhabitants of the desolated city.

Antwerp was the home town of the next two distinguished continental sculptors to make their careers in England. They arrived in the early 18th century, by which time the peak of sculptural success was to carve **lavish baroque monuments** to famous Britons in Westminster Abbey.

John Michael Rysbrack, who arrived in about 1720, succeeded in this field with his tribute of 1731 to Isaac Newton, mourned by two plump **cherubs** as he reclines at ease in a Roman **toga**, resting an elbow on four of his great folio volumes.

Peter Scheemakers moved from Antwerp to London at the same period as Rysbrack. He showed his paces in Westminster Abbey with a monument to another British worthy, carving in 1740 a full-length standing version of Shakespeare. The bard leans an elbow on a pile of three folio volumes and points languidly to an unfurling manuscript version of a famous speech from *The Tempest*.

Some ten or fifteen years after the arrival of Rysbrack and Scheemakers, a French sculptor moved to London and soon outshined his Flemish predecessors. Born in Lyons, he is Louis François Roubiliac (also spelt Roubillac). More informal in style than the older pair, Roubiliac had an immediate and early success with a delightfully natural **statue** of Handel commissioned in 1735 for Vauxhall Gardens.



Michael Rysbrack. Model of Sir Isaac Newton



Peter Scheemakers. *Detail of the memorial to William Shakespeare*



Louis François Roubiliac. *George Frederic Handel*

But he prevails also in the less **frivolous surroundings** of Westminster Abbey, where he provided no fewer than seven major monuments. In the most famous of them a shrouded figure of Death emerges from a tomb to aim his lance at Elizabeth Nightingale.



Louis François Roubiliac. *Tomb of Sir Joseph and Lady Elizabeth Nightingale*

1.4. 18th century British art

In the 18th century native British artists at last made their mark. The first to do so was William Hogarth, but he was quirky and untypical, standing outside any school. **Portrait painting** is the more characteristic **theme** of British art, in England and also in Scotland. A Scot, Allan Ramsay, was the first **full-scale portraitist** of great distinction but he was soon followed by others both north and south of the border. Meanwhile another very British theme developed, from the second half of the century, in the tradition of landscape **watercolours**.

Hogarth and the English scene

William Hogarth is the first English painter on a grand scale and also the most English of painters. Hogarth observed London life with the keenest of eyes, and made his main contribution by presenting the bustling scene in vivid **narrative paintings**. His first great success was a picture in 1728 of the stage of the Lincoln's Inn Fields theatre during a performance of John Gay's *Beggar's Opera*, the smash hit of the day (over the next three years he painted several versions of the same picture). In 1731 Hogarth completed the six paintings which made up *A Harlot's Progress*, the first of his very successful **narrative sequences** in which a contemporary moral tale was told as if in a series of satirical scenes on a stage.



William Hogarth. *The Harlot's Progress. Plate I. The Arrival in London*



William Hogarth. *The Harlot's Progress. Plate II. The Jew, the Mistress and the Lover*

Hogarth engraved a version of the Harlot's Progress himself (his original trade was **engraving**) and published the six **plates** with great success in 1732. In this combination of narrative satirical paintings, followed by the publication of a set of engravings, Hogarth found his natural medium. Subsequent series were *A Rake's Progress* (1735), *Marriage à la Mode* (1742-4) and *The Election* (1754).



William Hogarth. *Marriage à la Mode*

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From the 1730s Hogarth also painted portraits. They tended to have a delightfully rough informality (such as *the infants of the Grey family* in 1740, cheerfully tormenting a puppy) or a sturdy masculinity (*Captain Coram* of the same year). But by that time a painter of more elegant portraits, Allan Ramsay, set up shop in London.

1.5. British portraits

Allan Ramsay, born in Edinburgh in 1713, studied in Rome and Naples during the 1730s before opening a **studio** in London in 1739 (together with another in Edinburgh). He brought to British portraiture a delicacy previously lacking, as seen to brilliant effect in his 1759 portrait of his wife (now in the National Gallery of Scotland).

By the 1750s Ramsay had a younger rival, of considerable skill and soaring ambition, with whom he found it hard to compete. Joshua Reynolds, who established himself in London in 1753 after two years in Italy, had a high notion of the dignity of art and the artist. He was the natural first president of the Royal Academy, when it was founded in 1768, and he endowed his **sitters** with an equivalent sense of importance.



Allan Ramsay . *Portrait of the Artists Wife*



Sir Joshua Reynolds
Portrait of a Woman



Gainsborough
The Painter's Daughters

Reynolds often painted his **subjects** full length, in splendid **poses** and in close proximity to a **classical column** or **urn**. These were the sort of people who go on the Grand Tour. Their easy self-confidence in Reynolds's canvases revived the great tradition of the English portraits of van Dyck.

The younger rival of Reynolds was Thomas. Gainsborough maintained a studio in fashionable Bath from 1759 to 1774, and then moved to London. The rich English gentry who posed in town for him and for Reynolds had country seats where they were intensely interested in horses.

These splendid animals also deserved a good portrait. England had just the man in George Stubbs.

Stubbs's wonderfully calm and elegant images of sleek horses with their grooms, huntsmen or jockeys in neatly tailored **landscapes**, or of conversation pieces with the family sitting proud and upright in their carriages, are in their own way as significant a part of the portraiture of prosperous 18th-century England as the work of Reynolds and Gainsborough.



George Stubbs. *Mares and Foals in a Landscape*

The generation after Reynolds, Gainsborough and Stubbs produced two artists who round off in **dramatic style** the great period of British portrait painting. Henry Raeburn stayed almost exclusively north of the border in Scotland, usually depicting his sitters in dramatic **lighting** against dark **sketchy backgrounds**. His striking image of *The Reverend Robert Walker Skating on Duddingston Loch* (early 1790s) is Scotland's most famous painting but is untypical.



Henry Raeburn. *The Reverend Robert Walker Skating on Duddingston Loch*

Thomas Lawrence, the youngest of this group, is also the most flamboyant and free in the brilliant facility of his **brush strokes**. As Holbein immortalized Henry VIII, so Lawrence did the same for the prince regent, or George IV. He and his most famous subject died in the same year, 1830.

1.6. British watercolours

In 1771 the topographical artist Paul Sandby set off with a wealthy patron for a tour of Wales. Sandby's job was to sketch the magnificent **scenery**, coming into fashion with the beginning of the Romantic Movement.

This new interest was popularized a decade later by the Rev. William Gilpin, an indefatigable pilgrim in pursuit of **the picturesque** who published accounts of his own sketching tours, beginning with *Observations on the River Wye*, relative chiefly to Picturesque Beauty (1782).

Watercolour is the natural medium for sketches of this kind. The passion for the picturesque therefore lies behind the development of the most distinctively British strand in art history - that of the landscape watercolour. The use of watercolour as the occasional medium for a rapid sketch goes back as far as Dürer, and many artists in the 17th century use **monochrome wash drawings** as studies for paintings. The difference in Britain in the 18th century is that specialists emerged who painted watercolours for their patrons (and later for a wider market) and in many cases restricted their work to this one medium.



Paul Sandby. *Windsor Castle: North Terrace looking west at sunset*



Rev. William Gilpin. *Landscape*

Soon British watercolour artists were travelling abroad to bring back views from regions such as the Alps which have scenery even more picturesque than Wales can provide. In a nice paradox, classical ruins in Italy were also now found to be romantic. From the start very individual styles emerged among these artists. Many attempted a neat **topographical precision**, particularly in subjects such as ruins. Others went for much bolder effects. John Robert Cozens, touring in Switzerland and Italy in 1776, brought back wonderfully misty and evocative images.



John Robert Cozens - *The Villa Madama near Rome*



Francis Towne, *Temple of Saturn*

Francis Towne, in the same regions in 1781, turned landscape into simple **blocks of wash** so bold that the effect is almost abstract.

Other leading watercolourists who developed their own personal vision of the British landscape include Thomas Girtin, John Sell Cotman, Joseph Mallord William Turner, David Cox and Peter de Wint. Vision tips over into visionary in the richly intimate views painted by Samuel Palmer at Shoreham in Kent (under the influence of William Blake, a master of watercolour in his own **visionary scenes**).

Turner was considered a controversial figure in his day, but is now regarded as the artist who elevated landscape painting to an eminence rivaling **history painting**.



Joseph Mallord William Turner. *Dutch Boats in a Gale*

Although renowned for his oil paintings, Turner is also one of the greatest masters of British watercolour landscape painting. He is commonly known as "**the painter of light**". Turner in his twenties painted brilliantly in the detailed topographical style. Later in his life he produced bright shimmering washes as bold as his large canvases of the same period. Constable said that "they seem to be painted with tinted steam, so evanescent and so airy".

2. BRITISH MUSIC



2.1. Traditional British music

England has produced some of the world's best music throughout history. In fact, as a country, England has spearheaded some of the world's most significant **musical movements** and **trends**. Since its earliest days, English music has been particularly diverse and culturally relevant. It was made up of **religious music**, **folk music**, **classical music** and many other styles. There were **styles** designed for the wealthy and elite and others for the working class and the poor. English music was particularly influenced by European movements. However, there are also many trends and styles that originated from within the country itself. Notable examples are the **Celtic chants** and the **medieval carols**.



Celtic chants



The court music

During the 16th Century, the Protestant Reformation hit England, introducing an increased tendency towards religious music. This restricted certain events that had been associated with music in the past and forced local **musicians** and **composers** to create distinct styles for **worship**, **nationalism**, and so on. The **court music** maintained its integration with Europe, while **opera** dominated other areas.

The Baroque era of the 17th and 18th centuries was characterized by formalized **orchestral classical music** that was **ornamental**, dramatic and complex. The Baroque style was especially popular amongst the royals and the elite, but was certainly not limited to these ones.

Folk music was the music of the people and was, therefore, distinctive to England (i.e. different to the folk music of Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales). This dynamic style evolved over the years and reflected the personal experiences of the immigrants, working classes and more esteemed classes. Folk music existed in various forms from the medieval times right through until the industrialization of the society during the 19th and 20th centuries. The folk style usually involved a combination of **song** and **dance**. This **musical form** has experienced several revivals over the years. Today, there continue to be folk artists, who combine a traditional style of storytelling with more modern media (such as **electronic equipment**, for example).

In the 1800's, **brass bands** were introduced and used to convey the typical classical styles of music in a more fun and modern way. This was largely brought about by the social and economic changes experienced by England at the time.



The Beatles

Then, during the 1930's, American **jazz music** infiltrated the English market. This forced the creation of local bands and musicians, who explored and experimented with their **genres**, styles and **audiences**. The radio belted out popular **dance tunes** and every occasion to celebrate was marked by the presence of vibrant music and dancing. By 1962, the English people were accustomed to using music as an expression of joviality and joy. However, The Beatles revealed an entirely new perspective on **musical entertainment** in this year.

This 60's band was the most popular of its time, luring young and old to their performances and hitting global charts over and over again. Their songs were catchy, displayed excellent musical abilities and sometimes broke the bounds of conservatism. Indeed, John Lennon, Paul McCartney, George Harrison and Ringo Starr revolutionized English and international music forever.



The London Beatles Store contains all kinds of memorabilia as well as other merchandise.
(contributed: O. Kovalenko)

2. 2. The British Invasion

The British Invasion was a musical movement of the mid-1960s composed of British rock-and-roll (“beat”) groups whose popularity spread rapidly to the United States. The Beatles’ triumphant arrival in New York City on February 7, 1964, opened America’s doors to a wealth of British musical talent. What followed would be called—with historical condescension by the willingly reconquered colony—the second British Invasion. Like their transatlantic counterparts in the 1950s, British youth heard their future in the frantic **beats** and suggestive **lyrics** of American **rock and roll**. But initial attempts to replicate it failed. Lacking the indigenous basic ingredients—**rhythm** and **blues** and **country music**—of rock and roll, enthusiasts could bring only crippling British decorum and diffidence. The only sign of life was in the late 1950s skiffle craze, spearheaded by Scotland’s Lonnie Donegan. **Skiffle groups** (like the Beatles-launching Quarrymen) were **drummerless acoustic guitar-and-banjo ensembles, jug bands** really, who most often sang traditional American folk songs, frequently with more spirit than instrumental polish.

By 1962, encouraged by the anyone-can-play populism of skiffle and self-schooled in the music of Chuck Berry, Elvis Presley, Little Richard, Eddie Cochran, Buddy Holly, James Brown, and Muddy Waters, some British teens had a real feel for the rock-and-roll idiom. Blending that with such local traditions as **dancehall**, pop, and Celtic folk, they formulated **original music** they could claim, play, and sing with conviction. Young groups with **electric guitars** began performing and writing **up-tempo melodic pop**, fiery rock and roll, and Chicago-style electric blues.



The Quarrymen

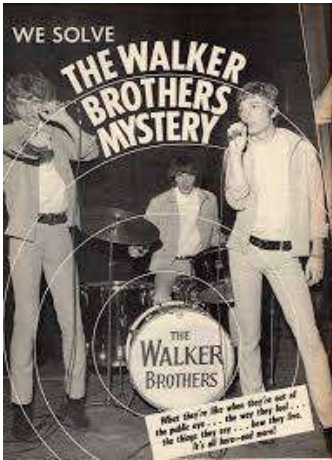
Liverpool became the first hotbed of the so-called “**beat boom.**” With the Beatles, other exuberant male quartets such as the Searchers, the Fourmost, and Gerry and the Pacemakers—plus the quintet Billy J. Kramer and the Dakotas—launched “Merseybeat,” so named for the estuary that runs alongside Liverpool. The Beatles first reached the British **record charts** in late 1962. By 1964 Greater London could claim the Rolling Stones, the Yardbirds, the Who, the Kinks, the Pretty Things, Dusty Springfield, the Dave Clark Five, Peter and Gordon, Chad and Jeremy, and Manfred Mann.

Manchester had the Hollies, Wayne Fontana and the Mindbenders, Freddie and the Dreamers, and Herman’s Hermits. Newcastle had the Animals. And Birmingham had the Spencer Davis Group (featuring Steve Winwood) and the Moody Blues. Bands sprang up from Belfast (Them, with Van Morrison) to St. Albans (the Zombies), with more inventive artists arriving to keep the styles moving forward, including the Small Faces, the Move, the Creation, the Troggs, Donovan, the Walker Brothers, and John’s Children. While the beat boom provided Britons relief from the postimperial humiliation of **hand-me-down rock**, the Beatles and their ilk brought the United States more than credible simulations.

They arrived as foreign ambassadors, with distinctive accents (in conversation only; most of the groups sang in “American”), slang, fashions, and personalities. The Beatles’ first film, *A Hard Day’s Night* (1964), further painted England as the centre of the (rock) universe. American media took the bait and made Carnaby Street, London’s trendy fashion centre in the 1960s, a household name.



The Rolling Stones



The Walker Brothers

From 1964 to 1966 the United Kingdom sent a stream of **hits** across the Atlantic. Behind the conquering Beatles, Peter and Gordon (“A World Without Love”), the Animals (“House of the Rising Sun”), Manfred Mann (“Do Wah Diddy Diddy”), Petula Clark (“Downtown”), Freddie and the Dreamers (“I’m Telling You Now”), Wayne Fontana and the Mindbenders (“Game of Love”), Herman’s Hermits (“Mrs. Brown You’ve Got a Lovely Daughter”), the Rolling Stones (“[I Can’t Get No] Satisfaction” and others), the Troggs (“Wild Thing”), and Donovan (“Sunshine Superman”) all topped Billboard’s singles chart. These charming invaders had borrowed (often literally) American rock music and returned it—restyled and refreshed—to a generation largely ignorant of its historical and racial origins.

2. 3. Keeping art alive

Any culture needs to be supported by specific organizations in order to proceed its development. British one is no difference.

The British Art Research School is an international community of scholars with a shared interest in the art of the British Isles and associated historical territories from the late antique to the present day. They enjoy a concentration of expertise in **medieval stained glass**, sculpture and **architecture**; seventeenth- and eighteenth-century architecture, painting, sculpture and **graphic art**; Victorian painting, sculpture and architecture; and modern British art and architecture.

Members of the School explore British art from a wide range of theoretical and historiographical position: alongside issues of materiality, iconography, class,

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gender, sexuality and ethnicity, and in relation to local, continental, imperial and post-colonial cultures. Since its launch at the University of York in 1998, staff and students connected to the School have made many important contributions to the field of British art studies through major **exhibitions**, publications, conferences and other events.

Government interest in the arts is expressed through grants to the Art Council of Great Britain, the British Council and other organizations. The Arts Council's main duties are to develop a greater knowledge and understanding of the **fine arts** by the public, and to advise and co-operate with Government departments, local authorities and other organizations.

Self-checking Questions



1. Who is regarded as the first English portrait painter?
2. Who was the founder of the first identifiable school of English art?
3. What contribution did Van Dyck make to the English school of painting?
4. Who were the first fashionable sculptors in England?
5. What sculptures are presented in Westminster Abbey?
6. When did the full-length miniatures become popular?
7. When were the head-and-shoulder portraits popular?
8. What is a narrative painting?
9. What role did William Hogarth play in the history of English art?
10. What artist was the natural first president of the Royal Academy in Britain?
11. What kind of images did George Stubbs depict?
12. What contribution did Thomas Gainsborough and Sir Joshua Reynolds make to the English school of painting?
13. What scenery did the English watercolour artists use?
14. What kind of artist is J. M. William Turner regarded now?
15. What trends and styles in music originated in England?
16. What kind of music prevailed in the 16th century in England?
17. In what way did instrumental music become engaged for various functions?
18. In what forms did the English folk music exist?
19. How did jazz music influence the English music market?
20. What kind of musical movement was The British Invasion?
21. What were the reasons for the establishment of The British Art Research School?

PRACTICAL PART



ASSIGNMENTS



1. Study the following proper names and practice their pronunciation:

The Renaissance [ðə rə'neɪsəns]	Van Dyck [væn dɪk]
Hans Holbein ['hɑ:nz həlbi:n]	John Bettes [dʒɒn bets]
The Walker Brothers [ðə'wɔ:kə'brʌðz]	Isaac Oliver ['aɪzək 'lɪvə]
the National Portrait Gallery [ðə'næʃənl'pɔ:trɪt'gæləri]	
Nicholas Hilliard ['nɪkələs hɪljɑ:d]	Allan Ramsay ['ælən ræmzi]
William Dobson ['wɪljəm dɒbsən]	George Stubbs [dʒɔ:dʒ stʌbz]
Grinling Gibbons [grɪnlɪŋ 'gɪbnz]	Paul Sandby [pɔ:l sændbi]
Westminster Abbey ['west,mɪnstər'æbi]	Francis Towne ['frɑ:n(t)s təʊn]
Peter Scheemakers ['pi:tə'fi:meɪkəz]	William Gilpin ['wɪljəm dʒɪlpɪn]
Louis François Roubiliac ['lu:ɪs frɑ:nswɑ:ruːbɪljæk]	
William Hogarth ['wɪljəm'həʊgɑ:]	The Baroque [ðə bə'rɒk]
Sir Joshua Reynolds [sɜ:'dʒɒʃʊə'reɪnəldz]	The Beatles [ðə'bi:tlz]
Thomas Gainsborough ['tɒməs'geɪnzb(ə)rə]	Hans Eworth ['hɑ:nz ewɜ:θ]
John Robert Cozens [dʒɒn'rɒbət'kɒznz]	
Joseph Mallord William Turner ['dʒəʊzɪf mɑ:ləd'wɪljəm'tɜ:nə]	
the Rolling Stones [ðə'rəʊlɪŋstəʊnz]	
The British Art Research School [ðə'brɪtɪʃɑ:t'sku:l]	
The Art Council of Great Britain [ðiɑ:t'kaʊns(ə)lɒvgrɛt'brɪtn]	



2. Note down from the theoretical part phrases and word combinations in bold letters corresponding to the thematic vocabulary of the theme "British Art". Translate them into Ukrainian.



3. Find in the theoretical part the following concepts; check your ability to explain them in English, and add them to your working vocabulary:

Artist, diptych, portrait painter, half/full-length portrait, ornate school of portraiture, oil painting, manuscript, head-and-shoulder portrait, setting, full-length miniature, vein, light/dark palette, collector of paintings, sitter, image, canvas,

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connoisseur of art, tomb sculpture, cathedral, parish church, carving, sculptor, still life, scene, pedestal, panel, baroque monument, cherub, toga, statue, watercolour, narrative painting, engraving, plate, studio, pose, classical column, urn, landscape, lighting, sketchy background, brush strokes, scenery, picturesque, monochrome wash drawings, topographical precision, blocks of wash, history painting, musical movement, trend, Celtic chants, medieval carols, musician, composer, court music, opera, orchestral classical music, electronic equipment, musical form, brass bands, jazz music, audiences, dance tune, musical entertainment, beat, lyrics, skiffle group, record charts, hit, architecture, graphic art, fine arts.



4. Write all you can (What? When? Where? How?) about the following concepts and notions:

The Renaissance, portrait painter, ornate school of portraiture, oil painting, head-and-shoulder portraits, full-length miniatures, collector of paintings, London National Gallery, connoisseur of art, the Middle Ages, tomb sculpture, still lives, lavish baroque monuments, Westminster Abbey, landscape watercolour, narrative paintings, the National Gallery of Scotland, the Royal Academy, classical column, the Romantic Movement, “the painter of light”, Celtic chants, medieval carols, court music, The Baroque era, The Beatles, The British Invasion, “beat boom”, The British Art Research School.



5. Study the basic characteristics concerning the theme “British Art” and fill in table 1.

Table 1

Trends	Characteristics	Representatives
Painting		
1.		
2.		
Sculpture		
1.		
2.		
Music		
1.		
2.		



6. *Make a summary of the text using the thematic vocabulary of the general theme. Emphasize: (a) its subject matter; (b) the main points described; (c) your personal impressions of the given material.*

Девіда Бові вважають одним із найвпливовіших діячів культури двадцятого сторіччя. Він запам'ятався своїй аудиторії не лише як музикант, що доклав зусиль до розвитку майже кожного існуючого музичного напрямку, але й як художник, продюсер, композитор і актор. Хоча й не був віртуозом, Девід володів багатьма музичними інструментами: саксофоном, гітарою, клавішними, губною гармонікою, кото, мандоліною, альтом, скрипкою, віолончеллю та стилофоном. Також знімався у кіно — його фільмографія налічує понад 30 фільмів. Цікаво, що Бові міг стати сером, але відмовився від лицарського титулу тричі. На його думку, «така винагорода суперечить поглядам, які декларуються у піснях». Девіда Бові вважають «людиною багатьох облич»: серед його сценічних образів особливої популярності набули прибулець із космосу Зіггі Стардаст, педантичний Худий Білий Герцог, прихильник електроніки Натант Адлер, а також допоміжні образи з пісень на кшталт Майора Тома. Потяг до мистецтва був сенсом життя митця. Він настільки серйозно ставився до творчого процесу, що використав для останнього перформансу власну смерть. Кліп на композицію «Lazaguz», в якому Девід у образі хворого прикутий до ліжка, розпочинається словами «подивись, тепер я на небесах». Наприкінці кліпу Бові ховається у шафі й зачиняє за собою двері. Через два дні після релізу кліпу у мережі YouTube Девід Бові назавжди покинув Землю.



7. *Be prepared to speak about these items concerning the general theme, using the thematic vocabulary and the following clichés:*

to provide full-length portraits
to depict in sumptuous clothes and jewellery
to convey the typical classical styles of music
to reach the international reputation
to try one's hand at painting miniatures
to outshine all English competition
to be considered as part of British art

to be quirky and untypical artist
to make an enormous contribution
to create distinct styles for a native school of artists
to paint the subjects full length
to be a prolific painter
to pioneer a new tradition

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to be the chief painter to the court
to carve lavish baroque monuments
to have an immediate and early success
to present the bustling scenes in narrative paintings
to have a delightfully rough informality
to bring delicacy to British portraiture
to endow sitters with a sense of importance
to attempt a neat topographical precision
to develop one's personal vision of the British landscape
to be considered a controversial figure
to spearhead the world's musical movements
to be influenced by European movements
to have tendency towards religious music
to reflect one's personal experiences
to experience several revivals over the years

to give smb. immortality
to work on monumental scale
to establish a reputation
to paint in a new style
to exist in various forms
to originate from within the country
to display excellent musical abilities
an ornate school of portraiture
to infiltrate the market
to sketch the magnificent scenery
the first English portrait painter
to enjoy a concentration of expertise



British watercolours



British portraiture



British sculpture



British music



GENERALIZING TEST

1. The great Renaissance masters worked in
 - a) France
 - b) Germany
 - c) Italy
 - d) Holland
2. was the first in Britain to try his hand at painting miniatures.
 - a) Isaac Oliver
 - b) Hans Holbein
 - c) Nicholas Hilliard
 - d) Van Dyck
3. was the favourite portrait painter in English court circles of the 17th century.
 - a) Isaac Oliver
 - b) Hans Holbein
 - c) Nicholas Hilliard
 - d) Van Dyck
4. The memorial to William Shakespeare by Peter Scheemakers is in
 - a) Westminster Abbey
 - b) St. Pauls Cathedral
 - c) Victoria and Albert Museum
 - d) Tower of London
5. was the first British full-scale portraitist of great distinction.
 - a) William Hogarth
 - b) Allan Ramsay
 - c) Joshua Reynolds
 - d) Thomas Gainsborough
6. was the natural first president of the Royal Academy.
 - a) William Hogarth
 - b) Allan Ramsay
 - c) Joshua Reynolds
 - d) Thomas Gainsborough

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7. is now regarded as the artist who elevated landscape painting to a history painting.

- a) William Turner
- b) Paul Sandby
- c) John Robert Cozens
- d) Thomas Girtin

8. During the 16th Century there was an increased tendency towards music.

- a) national
- b) classical
- c) folk
- d) religious

9. The Baroque style was popular amongst the

- a) royals and the elite
- b) clergy and nobility
- c) gentry and nobility
- d) royals and clergy

10. The British Invasion was a musical movement of the mid-1960s composed of British groups.

- a) folk
- b) jazz
- c) blues
- d) beat



TESTS IN THEMATIC VOCABULARY

Test 1. *Choose the one word or phrase that best keeps the meaning of the original sentence if it is substituted for the capitalized word or phrase:*

1. Some of the records had very imaginative designs on their SLEEVES.

- a) faces
- b) jackets
- c) covers
- d) flyleaves

2. The acoustics in the concert hall were very poor so it was necessary to AMPLIFY voices of the performers.

- a) increase
- b) reinforce
- c) expand
- d) exaggerate

3. Nicholas Hilliard was a PROLIFIC painter of the queen, nobility and of anyone else willing to commission him.

- a) fruitful
- b) fertile
- c) shallow
- d) beneficial

4. In addition to the usual tiny head-and-shoulder portraits in precious SETTINGS, Hilliard pioneered a new tradition - that of the full-length miniature.

- a) views
- b) sights
- c) sites
- d) scenery

5. The 18th century was the peak of sculptural success expressed in LAVISH baroque monuments to famous Britons.

- a) huge
- b) extravagant
- c) imposing
- d) pompous

6. In 1731 Hogarth completed the first six of his very successful narrative SEQUENCES.

- a) parts
- b) series
- c) episodes
- d) issues

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7. Hogarth made a version of the Harlot's Progress himself for his original trade was ENGRAVING.

- a) etching
- b) carving
- c) printing
- d) sketching

8. Hogarth published the six PLATES with great success.

- a) engravings
- b) sketches
- c) carvings
- d) canvases

9. Joshua Reynolds endowed his SITTERS with an equivalent sense of importance.

- a) subjects
- b) characters
- c) images
- d) models

10. The passion for the PICTURESQUE scenery is the most distinctively British strand in art history.

- a) scenic
- b) bright
- c) rich
- d) genuine

11. The use of watercolour as the occasional medium for a rapid SKETCH goes back to the 16th century.

- a) painting
- b) picture
- c) drawing
- d) figure

12. Many artists attempted a neat topographical PRECISION, particularly in subjects such as ruins.

- a) scale
- b) size
- c) correctness
- d) accuracy

13. The tune was played with thrilling VELOCITY.

- a) rate
- b) beat
- c) vein
- d) stress

14. The radio BELTED OUT popular dance tunes and every occasion to celebrate was marked by the presence of vibrant music and dancing.

- a) illuminated
- b) emitted
- c) announced
- d) broadcasted

15. The Beatles revealed an entirely new perspective on musical ENTERTAINMENT.

- a) performance
- b) amusement
- c) show
- d) concert

16. Their songs were CATCHY, displayed excellent musical abilities and sometimes broke the bounds of conservatism.

- a) loud
- b) bright
- c) easy
- d) tricky

8. BRITISH ART

17. Samuel Palmer produced intense and lyrical PASTORAL idylls in conditions of some poverty.

- a) rural
- b) farming
- c) bucolic
- d) country

18. The enormous variety and massive production of the various forms of British DECORATIVE art during the 19th century are too complex to be easily summarized.

- a) designed
- b) fine
- c) bright
- d) ornamental

Test 2. *Fill in the blanks with the following words. You may use each word only once:*

imagination	composition	nature	impression	paintings
brushstrokes	watercolours	full-scale	touches	landscapes
effects	exhibitions	brushwork	sketches	oils

Constable quietly rebelled against the artistic culture that taught artists to use their to compose their pictures rather than itself. Although Constable produced throughout his life for the "finished" picture market of patrons and, constant refreshment in the form of on-the-spot studies was essential to his working method. Constable painted many preliminary of his to test the in advance of finished pictures. These large sketches, with their free and vigorous, were revolutionary at the time, and they continue to interest artists, scholars and the general public. Constable's were also remarkably free for their time. The sketches themselves were the first ever done in directly from the subject in the open air. To convey the of light and movement, Constable used broken, often in small, which he scumbled over lighter passages, creating an of sparkling light enveloping the entire landscape.

Test 3. Match the definition with the correct word:

5.	art	a) a very small painting, especially a portrait, showing fine detail on ivory or vellum
6.	sketch	b) a person who is posing for his or her portrait to be painted or carved
3.	miniature	c) a person with special knowledge or appreciation of a field, especially in the arts
4.	setting	d) a painting or drawing of inanimate objects, such as fruit, flowers
5.	diptych	e) a painting on a heavy durable cloth made of cotton, especially in oils
6.	chant	f) a rapid drawing or painting, often a study for subsequent elaboration
7.	painter	g) the range of colours characteristic of a particular artist, painting, or school of painting
8.	sitter	h) the natural features of a landscape
9.	sculpture	i) the art or technique of painting with any water-soluble pigment
10.	connoisseur	j) the surroundings in which something is set; scene
11.	carol	k) the creation of works of beauty or other special significance
12.	still life	l) a painting or carving on two panels, usually hinged like a book
13.	canvas	m) a joyful hymn or religious song, especially one celebrating the birth of Christ
14.	palette	n) the art of making figures or designs in relief or the round by carving wood, moulding plaster, or casting metals
15.	scenery	o) a short simple melody in which several words or syllables are assigned to one note, as in the recitation of psalms
16.	watercolour	p) an artist who paints pictures

Test 4. Find the synonyms and group them correspondingly:

Ornamental, engraving, series, sketch, sitter, beat, tune, pastoral, portrait-painter, jacket, entertainment, palette, site, painter, landscape, show, picturesque, outline, chant, decorative, sequence, tomb, sleeve, group, hip-hop, picture, exhibition, portraitist, bucolic, amusement, scenic, model, etching, melody, painting, artist, drawing, print, scenery, song, rhythm, rap, color gamma, band, monument, scene.

Test 5. Complete each of the following sentences with one of the words below:

sculptures prints amateur impressionists watercolour
portraitist decorative caricature reproductions panel

1. Constable's art inspired the French of the late nineteenth century.
2. Reynolds established himself as the most fashionable London
3. Many British officers made the first Western images, often in
4. Thomas Rowlandson produced amiably comic watercolours and satirizing British life.
5. This artist was undoubted master of the political
6. There was a large collector's market for portrait prints, mostly of paintings.
7. This was also a great period for the arts in Britain.
8. The magisterial art critic John Ruskin was himself a very fine artist.
9. Antony Gormley produces....., mostly in metal and based on the human figure.
10. A few examples of top-quality English painting on walls or from before 1500 have survived.



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