Учреждение образования
«Брестский государственный университет имени А. С. Пушкина»

Г. В. Нестерчук

СТРАНОВЕДЕНИЕ

Учебно-методический комплекс
для студентов специальностей 1-02 03 06 «Иностранные языки (английский, немецкий)», 1-21 06 01-01 «Современные иностранные (английский, немецкий) языки (преподавание)» со специализацией 1-21 06 01-01-03 «Компьютерная лингвистика»

В двух частях

Часть 1

СОЕДИНЕННОЕ КОРОЛЕВСТВО ВЕЛИКОБРИТАНИИ И СЕВЕРНОЙ ИРЛАНДИИ

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Издание знакомит с географией, историей, культурой, политической и образовательной системой, а также с различными сторонами жизни современной Великобритании. Степень освоения теоретического материала проверяется вопросами к каждой лекции. Представлены также планы семинарских занятий, тестовые задания, краткий справочник персоналий и примерный перечень вопросов к зачету.

Издание адресовано студентам специальностей 1-02 03 06 «Иностранные языки (английский, немецкий)», 1-21 06 01-01 «Современные иностранные (английский, немецкий) языки (преподавание)» со специализацией 1-21 06 01-01-03 «Компьютерная лингвистика».

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ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Социокультурный и образовательный контекст изучения иностранных языков в Республике Беларусь и в Европе повысил статус иностранного языка как реально востребованной дисциплины в практической и интеллектуальной деятельности специалиста. Современная методическая наука требует сочетать преподавание иностранного языка с изучением страны и жизни народа – носителя этого языка, поскольку язык и культура неразрывно связаны между собой, а культурная составляющая является основополагающей для осмысления и интерпретации действий и мотивов партнера в ходе акта межкультурной коммуникации.

«Страноведение» является одной из дисциплин государственного компонента, относящихся к циклу общенаучных и общепрофессиональных дисциплин, определённых учебным планом для специальностей 1-21 06 01-01 «Современные иностранные (английский, немецкий) языки (преподавание) со специализацией «Компьютерная лингвистика» и 1-02 03 06 «Иностранные языки (английский, немецкий)», и изучается соответственно данным специальностям студентами 2-го и 3-го курсов факультета иностранных языков.

Программа курса служит формированию ценностной ориентации студентов через диалог культур родной страны и страны изучаемого языка, расширению их кругозора и воспитанию чувства сопричастности к мировой культуре, литературе и истории. Систематизированные фоновые знания, приобретаемые студентами в рамках изучения данной дисциплины, способствуют формированию общей и профессиональной культуры учителя, развивают умение использовать сведения об истории и культуре страны изучаемого языка в преподавании английского языка.

Основной *целью* изучения курса является формирование страноведческой и лингвострановедческой компетенции как составляющей иноязычной коммуникативной компетенции, которая достигается в ходе решения задач, раскрывающих его профессионально ориентированную направленность. Курс «Страноведение» строится на принципах высокой информативности предмета, координации по линии межпредметных связей со смежными дисциплинами практического курса английского языка и способствует комплексной реализации всех целей обучения языку: практической, общеобразовательной, воспитательной и профессионально-педагогической.

На изучение данной дисциплины, которая включает два блока – «Страноведение Великобритании» и «Страноведение США», отводится 168 часов. Лекционный и практический курсы представлены 20 и 10 часами соответственно в каждом блоке.

Учебно-методический комплекс «Country Studies» представляет собой лекционно-практический курс с необходимым минимумом фактологической и лексической информации, в основу которого положены современные методические принципы:

– коммуникативной направленности, предполагающей развитие коммуникативной компетенции как единства языковой, речевой и социокультурной компетенций;

– интерактивного обучения, основывающегося на активном взаимодействии участников образовательного процесса в едином творческом пространстве;

– интеграции языкового материала и речевой практики для развития представленного языкового минимума в страноведческом контексте.

Первая часть «The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland» знакомит с национальной символикой, населением, географическим положением, рельефом, важнейшими историческими событиями, системой образования, культурой, традициями и обычаями, а также государственным и политическим устройством Соединённого Королевства Великобритании и Северной Ирландии.

В структуру содержания УМК положен тематический принцип, который предполагает разбивку учебного материала на относительно самостоятельные темы (разделы) курса. Каждый раздел включает лекцию, предлагающую информацию по изучаемой теме, а также вопросы, позволяющие проконтролировать понимание прочитанного, умение извлекать информацию и выражать собственное суждение с опорой на языковой материал лекции. Каждая лекция требует использования глоссария персоналий, помогающего понять сведения об исторических, социальных и политических реалиях страны изучаемого периода (Supplement 1).

Поскольку количество аудиторных часов, отводимых на изучение данной дисциплины, весьма ограничено, большое значение приобретает активное использование инновационных методов обучения, включая проектные, коммуникативные, интерактивные, мультимедийные и информационные технологии. Эффективность учебного процесса достигается оптимальным сочетанием аудиторной и самостоятельной работы студентов.

Задания для семинарских занятий предполагают обсуждение вопросов по теме на основе содержания базового лекционного курса, умения самостоятельно находить нужный материал в процессе разработки проекта по индивидуально избранной теме, его защиту в аудитории и готовность к тематической дискуссии (Seminars). Данный вид работы направлен на систематизацию страноведческой информации, развитие

умений критически её оценивать, используя элементы научно-исследовательской деятельности, осуществлять анализ культурно-исторических и социально-политических реалий и представлять результаты в виде презентации.

Усвоение теоретического материала проверяется тестовыми заданиями по основным темам курса (Tests), к которым даются ключи (Supplement 4). Список рекомендуемых интернет-ресурсов может быть полезен для студентов при подготовке проектных работ, а рекомендуемые учебные пособия содержат различные упражнения, выполнение которых способствуют лучшему усвоению и закреплению материала.

Формой контроля знаний по курсу «Страноведение» является зачёт в конце 3-го семестра для студентов специальности 1-21 06 01-01 «Современные иностранные (английский, немецкий) языки (преподавание) со специализацией «Компьютерная лингвистика» и в конце 5-го семестра для студентов специальности 1-02 03 06 «Иностранные языки (английский, немецкий)», который включает ответ на теоретический вопрос (Supplement 2). В содержание экзамена в 4-м и 6-м семестрах для этих специальностей соответственно входит ответ на один теоретический вопрос по страноведению США (УМК, часть 2) и объяснение трех реалий по географии, истории и культуре Великобритании (Supplement 3).

Работа с УМК будет стимулировать сознательное отношение студентов к изучению английского языка, способствовать развитию умений и навыков извлечения смысловой информации, анализа, отбора и творческого использования изучаемого материала в речи для изложения собственных суждений и оценок.

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ УЧЕБНОГО МАТЕРИАЛА

Тема 1. Географическое положение Великобритании

Соединённое Королевство Великобритании и Северной Ирландии. Национальные символы. Состав территории. Основные острова и группы островов. Проливы и моря, омывающие острова. Изрезанность береговой линии. Особенности рельефа. Горы и горные цепи. Реки и озёра. Климатические условия. Минерально-сырьевые ресурсы. Значение залежной нефти и газа Северного моря для экономики страны. Ведущие отрасли национальной экономики. Население. Этнический состав. Регионы и города Великобритании.

Тема 2. История заселения Британских островов

Древняя Британия. Иберийский период. Стоунхендж. Кельтская Британия. Друиды. Покорение Британии римлянами и их наследие. Вторжение германских племён. Формирование англосаксонских королевств. Распространение христианства. Единое королевство Англия. Альфред Великий. Рейды викингов. Правление датских королей. Возвращение престола англосаксонскому королю Эдуарду Исповеднику.

Тема 3. Средневековая Англия

Вильгельм Завоеватель и нормандское вторжение. Введение феодальной системы. Книга страшного суда. Французские нравы и язык. Правление Генриха I. Династия Плантагенетов. Великая хартия вольностей и падение феодализма. Симон де Монфор. Зарождение Британского парламента. Покорение Уэльса. Вмешательство в дела Шотландии. Возврат к официальному английскому языку. Культурное развитие Англии в XIII в. Первые Британские университеты.

Тема 4. Англия в эпоху Тюдоров (XV–XVI вв.)

Правление Генриха VII и установление абсолютной монархии. Общая хронология эпохи Тюдоров. Столетняя война. Войны Алой и Белой роз. Путешествия в Северную Америку. Генрих VIII и Реформация. Англиканская церковь. Упразднение монастырей и конфискация их имущества. Елизавета I. Развитие промышленности и вешней торговли. Основание первой колонии в Америке. Уничтожение испанской Непобедимой Армады. Английский Ренессанс.

Тема 5. Англия в XVII–XVIII вв.

Династия Стюартов. «Пороховой заговор» 1605 г. Пуританизм и религиозные распри. Правление Карла I. Роспуск парламента, созыв нового парламента. «Петиция о правах». Английская революция. Казнь

Карла I. Установление республики и военная диктатура Кромвеля. Восстановление монархии. Ганноверская династия. Первый британский премьер-министр. Образование Королевства Великобритании. Промышленная революция. Развитие культуры и науки.

Тема 6. Великобритания в XIX–XXI вв.

Образование Соединенного Королевства Великобритании и Ирландии. Война с Наполеоном. Битва при Трафальгаре. Вступление на престол именем Георга IV. Викторианская эпоха. Открытие Всемирной выставки 1851 г. в Хрустальном дворце. Расцвет Британской империи. Великобритания в Первой мировой войне. Всеобщая стачка. Вторая мировая война. Государство «всеобщего благосостояния». Маргарет Тэтчер и эра консерваторов. Возвращение лейбористов к власти с Тони Блэром. Великобритания как союзник США в военной кампании в Афганистане. Референдум о независимости Шотландии. Выход из Европейского союза.

Тема 7. Государственное и политическое устройство Великобритании

Великобритания – конституционная монархия. Королевская власть и её роль в современной Британии. Парламент – высший законодательный орган страны. Палата общин, её структура и права. Палата лордов, её права и значение. Реформа палаты лордов. Избирательное право: мажоритарная система, её плюсы и минусы. Правительство. Кабинет министров. «Теневой кабинет». Основные политические партии: консервативная, лейбористская, либерально-демократическая и их роль в общественной и государственной жизни страны. Содружество наций.

Тема 8. Система образования Великобритании

Основные тенденции развития системы образования. Национальная программа образования. Государственные и частные школы. Типы школ и их характеристика. Сохранение элитных public schools. Система высшего образования. Основные типы университетов: старейшие университеты (Оксфорд и Кембридж), шотландские университеты, «краснокирпичные университеты», новые университеты. Подготовка учителей. Изменения в организации высшего образования в 1990-е гг. Преобразование polytechnics в университеты. Система отбора в университеты. Open University.

Тема 9. Культура Великобритании

Вклад Великобритании в сокровищницу мировой культуры. Богатое наследие выдающихся художников. Современная английская живопись и

скульптура. Музеи и картинные галереи. Архитектура. Архитектурные памятники прошлого и современности. Облик городов Великобритании. Музыкальная жизнь. Народные музыкальные традиции. Современные выдающиеся композиторы. Театр и кино. Выдающиеся драматические актеры и режиссеры. Фестивали музыкального и драматического искусства.

Тема 10. Образ жизни британцев

Церковь и религия. Британский характер и менталитет. Национальные стереотипы Великобритании. Современные тенденции в жизни британского общества. Спорт в жизни британцев. Национальные виды спорта. Национальное хобби.

Примерный тематический план

№	Тема	Количество часов	
		Лекции	Семинары
1	Географическое положение Великобритании	2	2
2	История заселение Британских островов	2	–
3	Средневековая Англия	2	2
4	Англия в эпоху Тюдоров (XV–XVI вв.)	2	–
5	Англия в XVII–XVIII вв.	2	–
6	Великобритания в XIX–XXI вв.	2	2
7	Государственное и политическое устройство Великобритании	2	2
8	Система образования Великобритании	2	–
9	Культура Великобритании	2	–
10	Образ жизни британцев	2	2
	Итого:	**20**	**10**

Lecture 1

GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE BRITISH ISLES

The British Isles, which include over 5,000 islands, are situated off the north-west coast of Europe. The total area of the British Isles is 322,246 sq. km. Great Britain is the larger of the two big islands. Ireland is the smaller island to the west of Great Britain. The territory of Great Britain is divided into three countries: England, Scotland and Wales. The territory of Ireland is divided into the Irish Republic, or Eire (official name from 1937 to 1949), which is an independent and separate country and Northern Ireland. England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are the four parts of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

The term 'Britain' is used when talking about 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 properly be called English, people from Scotland Scottish, people from Wales Welsh and people from Northern Ireland Irish.

The territory of the U.K. is 244,100 sq. km, which is half the size of France. From south to north, from Land's End to John O'Groats, the island of Great Britain stretches for about 900 km, and is just 500 km across in the widest part and 60 km in the narrowest. Due to the numerous bays and inlets no place in Britain is as much as 120 km from the sea coast. The warm waters of the Gulf Stream move from the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea across the Atlantic, and so reach the shores of Northwest Europe. That is why in winter the coasts are ice free and the warm air passes over the British Isles throughout the year.

From the European continent the British Isles are separated by the English Channel and the North Sea. The English Channel in its widest part is 220 km and in the narrowest (what is called the Strait of Dover) is only 32 km. So the islands have had an easy and mainly profitable contact with mainland Europe. However, the separation of Britain from the continent has had a tremendous impact on the British nation. For centuries the British felt safe and secure protected by the Channel, and no foreign army has ever invaded the country since the Norman Conquest in the 11^{th} century. No wonder the British are so different in their behaviour from other Europeans living on the continent, despite all the changes caused by modern technology and transport facilities. In 1994, a major breakthrough occurred when the Channel Tunnel between Folkestone, on the British side, and Calais, on the French side, began to operate with high speed trains covering the tunnel distance in about 35 minutes. The new transport link

did not mean an end to the ferry service, because ferries do a great job taking travellers to more distant ports.

The most important sea routes pass through the English Channel and the North Sea linking Europe with the Americas and other continents. The advantageous geographical position of Great Britain created favourable conditions for the development of shipping, trade and economy as a whole.

The United Kingdom is highly developed economically, preeminent in the arts and sciences, sophisticated in technology. In general, the British enjoy a high standard of living compared to the rest of the world.

The English language is a chief medium of communication of people in the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and numerous other countries. It is the official language of many nations in the Commonwealth of Nations and is widely understood and used in all of them. It is spoken in more parts of the world than any other language and by more people than any other tongue except Chinese.

Historical and Poetic Names for the Country

Britannia is the name that the Romans gave to their southern British province which covered, approximately, the area of present-day England. It is also the name given to the female embodiment of Britain, always shown wearing a helmet and holding a trident (the symbol of power over the sea), hence the patriotic song which begins "Rule Britannia, Britannia rule the waves". The figure of Britannia has been on the reverse side of many British coins for more than 300 years.

Albion is a word used in some poetic or rhetorical contexts to refer to England. It was the original Roman name for Britain. It may come from the Latin word *albus*, meaning "white". The white chalk cliffs around Dover on the English south coast are the first land formations one sees when crossing the sea from the European mainland.

Symbols of the United Kingdom

The Flag of the UK, known as the Union Jack, is made up of 3 crosses. The upright red is the cross of St. George, the patron saint of England. The white diagonal cross is the cross of St. Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland; the red diagonal cross is the cross of St. Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland. St. David is the patron saint of Wales.

The royal coat-of-arms is the shield which is supported by an English lion and a Scottish unicorn, standing on a field with the national emblems: the rose, the thistle and the shamrock.

The red rose was the emblem of one of two Houses which fought for the English throne in the Wars of the Roses (1455–1485), dynastic struggle between the two most powerful feudal families – the House of Lancaster (red rose) and the House of York (white rose). That terrible war lasted for 30 years. All rivalry between the Roses ended by the marriage of Henry VII (Lancaster) with Princess Elizabeth (daughter of Edward IV, York). The red rose has since become the national emblem of England.

The thistle is the national emblem of Scotland. The legend says that in ancient times when the Scots suffered from many invaders, they pitched their

camp near the river Tay. They were so tired that they went to sleep, not expecting the enemy before the next day. But the enemy, the Norsemen, were near; they crossed the river and decided to take the Scots by surprise. So they took off their shoes not to make any noise. But one of the Norsemen stepped on a thistle and gave a cry of pain. The alarm was given in the Scots camp. The enemy was beaten. In acknowledgement of the unexpected help the Scots took the thistle as their national emblem.

The Irishmen always wear the shamrock on St. Patrick's Day, March 17. A popular notion is that when preaching the doctrine of the trinity to the pagan Irish St. Patrick used the shamrock, a small white clover having 3 leaves on the stem as an illustration of his ideas.

The leek is the national emblem of Wales. St. David is supposed to have lived for several years on bread and wild leeks.

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

The Coastline

The coastline of Great Britain is 8,000 km long and immensely varied. The British, whenever they travel, are constantly bumping up against the coast, and when they get there they may find long sand beaches, rocky inlets, tall cliffs, mudflats or placid covers. Tides reach up the rivers; the Thames is tidal in London and London smells of the sea.

The coastline of the British Isles is greatly indented; therefore there are many bays and harbours, peninsulas and capes on the coast. The western coasts of Scotland and Wales are very much indented. This phenomenon offers economic advantages, giving the possibility to establish ports in these inlets, which are important to keep ships safe from storms and to give them access deep into the country. The east coast is less lofty and more regular than the west coast, and the coastal lowlands are flooded frequently. However, even here there are major inlets such as the estuary of the Thames, the Wash, the Humber and the Firth of Forth.

Steep is the English coast of the Strait of Dover. When approaching it by boat on a sunny day, the visitors are impressed by the white cliffs of Dover.

The Irish coasts are more like those of England. The west coast is more indented, while the east coast is relatively smooth.

Most of the British ports are situated in the wide estuaries of rivers. Of great importance for port activity are tides when rising water reaches its maximum mark at high tide of 6 metres in the lower Thames (London), 8.5 metres in the Mersey estuary (Liverpool), 12 metres in the Bristol Channel at Bristol. Thanks to the high tides many of the cities which are situated

comparatively far from the coast (London – 64 km, Glasgow – 35 km, Hull – 32 km and many others) have become busy sea ports.

Living on islands, and therefore near the sea, the British naturally grew into a nation of sailors. Their love of the sea led them to become navigators and discoverers of new lands in many parts of the globe.

Islands

The British Isles, apart from the two largest islands of Great Britain and Ireland, include several other important islands and groups of islands. Off the northwestern coast of Great Britain there is a group of islands known as the Hebrides, which are divided into the Inner and Outer Hebrides. They are separated from each other by the Sea of Hebrides and the Little Minch. The main occupation of the people there is farming and fishing.

Off the northern coast of Scotland are the Orkney Islands which comprise about a hundred islands. Most of the 20,000 residents are engaged in dairy and poultry farming. The Shetland Islands are situated about 100 km north off the Orkneys. The population of about 18,000 is actively engaged in herring-fishing. Apart from fish, the only exports from the islands are Shetland ponies and lace knitted from the wool of local sheep.

In the middle of the Irish Sea lies the Isle of Man (571 sq. km). From the Middle Ages the island is administered by its own Manx Parliament and has a population of about 50,000 chiefly engaged in farming, fishing and tourist trade. The largest settlement is the holiday resort of Douglas.

Another important island in the Irish Sea is Anglesey situated off the north coast of Wales and separated from the latter by the Menai Strait. It is a place of a very famous village with the longest place name in Great Britain ‘Llanfairpwllgwyngyllgogerychwyrndrobwllllantysiliogogogoch’. In English it means ‘St. Mary’s church by the pool of the white hazel trees, near the rapid whirlpool, by the red cave of the Church of St. Tysilio’ (the railway timetable simply shows it as ‘Llanfair PG’. The English cannot pronounce it in full so they pronounce only the beginning ‘Llanfairpg’. The name is retained due to its unique character and also to attract tourists. All signs in Wales are written in English and Welsh. Only 52,000 people inhabit Anglesey, and more of the working population is now engaged in local industry than in fishing and agriculture. This is partly due to an increase in tourism and partly to the introduction of several new industries, including the operation of a nuclear power plant at Wylfa.

The Isle of Wight lies in the English Channel. It is diamond-shaped, 40 km from west to east and about half as much from north to south. With its sunny beaches and pleasant varied countryside, the island forms one of the most important tourist resorts in the country. It is linked to London by ferry and rail services.


The British Isles
Capital
High point
International boundary
0 25 50 75 100 mi
0 25 50 75 100 125 150 km
ATLANTIC OCEAN
North Sea
Irish Sea
English Channel
St. George's Channel
Bristol Channel
Shetland Is.
Orkney Is.
Scapa Flow
Pentland Firth
Dunnet Head
Duncansby Head
C. Wrath
Hebrides
The Minch
Moray Firth
Buchan Ness
Loch Ness
THE HIGHLANDS
GRAMPIAN MTS.
Aberdeen
Ben Nevis
Dundee
Staffa I.
Fingal's Cave
Scotland
Firth of Lorne
Loch Lomond
Glasgow
Edinburgh
Firth of Forth
R. Clyde
R. Tweed
Firth of Clyde
North Channel
Inishtrahull Rock
Malin Head
Londonderry
Lough Neagh
Northern Ireland
Belfast
Lough Erne
Donegal Bay
Sligo Bay
Slieve Donard
CHEVIOT HILLS
Newcastle-upon-Tyne
R. Tyne
Carlisle
Solway Firth
Scafell Pike
Lake District
PENNINE CHAIN
Isle of Man
R. Tees
Flamborough Head
York
Leeds
Bradford
R. Derwent
Hull
R. Humber
R. Boyne
Liverpool
R. Mersey
Manchester
R. Trent
Sheffield
The Wash
Anglesey
Snowdon
R. Dee
Nottingham
England
Galway
IRELAND
DUBLIN
Dún Laoghaire
(Kingstown)
R. Shannon
WICKLOW MTS.
Limerick
(Luimneach)
Foynes
Tipperary
Lakes of Killarney
Waterford
Wexford
Cardigan Bay
CAMBRIAN MTS.
Birmingham
Coventry
Cambridge
R. Ouse
R. Wye
R. Avon
COTSWOLD HILLS
Oxford
Carrantuohill
Cork
Cobh (Queenstown)
Wales
Swansea
Cardiff
Severn R.
LONDON
Thames R.
North Foreland
Canterbury
Dover
Folkestone
The Downs
Bristol
Bantry Bay
Fastnet Rock
Cape Clear
Southampton
Brighton
Strait of Dover
Calais
Boulogne
Portsmouth
Isle of Wight
Exeter
Dartmoor
Plymouth
Land's End
Scilly Is.
Bishop Rock
Lizard Point
Eddystone Rocks
Dieppe
FRANCE
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An annual sailing and yachting regatta at Cowes in August is regarded as one of the most important sporting and social events of the year. Among the many races one of the best known is the Britannia Cup. Also lying in the English Channel off the extreme south-western coast of Great Britain is a tiny group of the Isles of Scilly, another resort area.

The Channel Islands lie to the south-west on the French side of the English Channel. They are known to the French as the Isles of Normandes. The Channel Islands form an archipelago separated by shallow waters from northern France. The total area of the islands is only 194 sq. km, but the population is over 130,000. In summer the population increases greatly by holiday-makers who enjoy the warm climate and sand beaches. In rural areas many of the people speak a French-Norman dialect, but the official languages are English and French. The farmers produce early fresh vegetables and new potatoes as well as flowers for urban residents. Moreover, the sheep are reputed for their high quality wool sent to the mainland.

Cities and Towns

The British Isles in general, but especially England as part of the UK, form one of the most densely peopled areas in the world. With the present population of more than 67 million, many problems emerge with land use, road construction and city sprawl. The British may love and enjoy their countryside but most of them live in cities and towns.

Some of the British towns have recorded origins nearly two thousand years ago when Britain was part of the Roman Empire and when strategic roads were built across England for military purposes. They needed military stations which quickly developed as towns for trade and construction.

In terms of population (more than 9 million), London is among the largest cities in the world. Its name is probably derived from the Celtic *Llyndyn* meaning ‘a fortified place’. (*Llyn* means ‘a lake’ or ‘a pool’. The Thames at an earlier period expanded into a sizeable lake, the part immediately below London Bridge is still ‘The Pool’. *Dyn* means ‘a hill, fort, or place of strength’.) When the Romans conquered Llyndyn, they latinised the name to Londinium. Great military roads which were called streets radiated from the city to various parts of Britain, and distances were measured from *lapis milliaris* (mile-stone) in the Forum of Agricola, in the very heart of the town. The stone, now known as the London Stone, may still be seen in the wall of St. Swithin’s Church in Cannon Street.

Under the Saxons London became the metropolis of the kingdom of Wessex. Alfred the Great who ruled the country in the 9th century made it the capital of England. The first bridge across the Thames was built in 994.

The White Tower, which is the central structure of the Tower of London, was erected by William the Conqueror in 1078. The Tower received such a

name because of the white stone brought from Normandy in France. It was put up on the site of the previous Roman fort.

The oldest part of London is the City. Centuries ago there was a high wall around the City of London which today is the financial and business heart of the capital. London is a city of all seasons with millions of tourists visiting this famous metropolis.

According to the most recent UK census which took place in 2011 the next biggest cities after London are Birmingham, Manchester, Newcastle, Sheffield, Liverpool and Leeds. All these cities expanded as major industrial cities in the 19th century. The largest city outside London which was already highly developed in mediaeval times as a port and commercial centre is Bristol with 617,000 inhabitants.

Scotland's largest city is Glasgow with a population of 611,000, followed by Edinburgh (the capital) with 489,000. Cardiff, the capital of Wales, has a population of about 447,000 and Belfast, the capital of Northern Ireland, with a population of 275,000.

Apart from big cities the land of the country is filled with hundreds of towns with populations between 20,000 and 150,000. They are usually historic market towns, or towns which developed with specific industries based on local resources (such as wool for glove-making or suitable sand and clay for making bricks). Most of them have a centre where some of the streets have buildings dating back to the 16th and 17th centuries.

Landscape

Britain has a great diversity of physical characteristics which make it a pleasure to travel about the country. The casual traveller will hardly become bored with the surrounding landscape. There is a contrast between the relatively high relief of western and northern Britain traditionally known as highland country and the lowland areas of the south and the east.

Though ***England*** cannot be considered a very hilly country still it is far from being flat everywhere. The most important range of mountains is the Pennine range, regarded as the 'backbone of England'. It stretches for about 250 km. The highest point is Cross Fell (893 m). Being an upland region, the Pennines form a watershed separating the westward-flowing from the eastward-flowing rivers of northern England. They also form a barrier between the industrial areas of Lancashire and Yorkshire on their opposite sides. Rainfall in the Pennines is abundant, and today the area is used for water storage: reservoirs in the uplands supply water to the industrial towns on each side of the Pennines.

Across the north end of the Pennines are the grassy Cheviot Hills. The highest point is Cheviot (816 m) near the Scottish border. The Cheviot Hills

serve a natural border between England and Scotland. The region is noted for sheep-breeding.

The Cumbrian Mountains lie in north-west England. The highest peak of the Cumbrians is Scafell (978 m). The valleys, which separate the various mountains from each other, contain some beautiful lakes (Windermere, Grasmere, Ullswater and others). This is the famous Lake District, the favourite place of holiday-makers and tourists. It is here that the great English poets Wordsworth, Coleridge and Southey lived and wrote. This region is sparsely populated and sheep-raising is the main occupation of farmers. The Lake District is exposed to westerly winds and rainfall is exceptionally high. The region is claimed to be the wettest part of the British Isles.

South-west England is noted for two interesting things: the westernmost point of the English mainland is Land's End, a mass of granite cliffs which plunge with dramatic steepness into the sea. The most southerly point of Great Britain is Lizard Point, a mass of serpentine greenish rock. The south-west peninsula offers numerous attractions to holiday-makers and tourists. Land's End is very much commercialised with pubs, hotels and other entertainment centres, as well as the beautiful towns of Torquay, Exmouth, Penzance and many others which attract multitudes of holiday-makers during the summer months.

Wales is the largest of the peninsulas on the western side of Britain. It is a country of hills and mountains deeply cut by river valleys. The mountains cover practically all the territory of Wales and are called the Cambrian Mountains. The highest peak, Snowdon (1,085 m), is in the north-west, and the whole surrounding area is a National Park noted for its beauty. The region due to its remoteness is inhabited by the Welsh who have retained the traditions and language of their Celtic ancestors. In the south the Cambrian Mountains include an important coalfield, on which an industrial area has grown. It is the most densely populated part of Wales, with some two-thirds of the total population inhabiting this area. In the past the region's economy was firmly based upon coal mining and heavy industry, but today with the decline of coal extraction the economic face of southern Wales has changed substantially. In the upland areas sheep are the basis of rural economy.

Geographically ***Scotland*** may be divided into three major physical regions: the Highlands, the Central Lowlands and the Southern Uplands. The Highlands lie to the west of a line from Aberdeen to the mouth of the river Clyde. The mountains are separated into two parts by the long straight depression known as Glen More, running from north-east to south-west. To the south are the Grampian Mountains, which are generally higher than the Northwest Highlands, including the loftiest summit on the British Isles such as Ben Nevis (1,344 m). An observatory has been erected at the very top of Ben Nevis.

Glen More contains several lakes, including Loch Ness, which has become world famous for its 'monster'. In the early 19th century the lochs (lakes) were joined to form the Caledonian Canal which connected two coasts. The Highlands comprise 47 % of the land area of Scotland with less than 15 % of the Scottish population. The region has the most severe weather experienced in Britain.

The Central Lowlands of Scotland, sometimes known as the Midland Valley, lie between the Highlands and the Southern Uplands. The Central Lowlands have the most fertile soil, the most temperate climate, the best harbours, the only supply of coal and the major oil pipelines to transport the North Sea oil to the terminals of the region. Occupying about 15 % of Scotland's area, the region contains about 80 % of its people. Here stand Scotland's major cities: Edinburgh, the beautiful capital of the country, and the industrial giant, Glasgow, with its major industries of engineering and ship-building. The region is also a major farming area of the country.

The present-day economy of the Southern Uplands is dominated by agriculture. Sheep have grazed on the uplands for centuries, and they are of hardy breeds which withstand the snows in winter and produce excellent mutton as well as wool. The population distribution is sparse and limited to isolated farmsteads and occasional villages and towns in the valleys.

In ***Northern Ireland*** (traditionally called Ulster) the chief mountains are in the extreme north-east. They are the Antrim Mountains which rise above 400 metres and are composed of basalt. Off the north coast is the famous Giant's Causeway, where the basalt solidified in remarkable hexagonal columns. It is a major natural spot of beauty which attracts lots of tourists who enjoy the tales about the legendary giants and their exploits. The Sperrin Mountains (500 m) are located in the central part of Northern Ireland, and the Mourne Mountains are in the extreme south-east.

Rivers and Lakes

The rivers in Britain have been major sources of communication and travel since ancient times. They also acted as borders between people and served as boundaries between geographical and administrative areas. Rivers and a series of canals built to connect some of them were important for transporting goods and raw materials during the Industrial Revolution. They are an important natural resource and provide a habitat for many animals, birds and plants in the UK. Though generally short in length, they are navigable. The mild maritime climate keeps them free of ice throughout the year.

The longest river in Great Britain is the Severn (350 km) which begins in central Wales and flows into the Bristol Channel. The River Thames (332 km), which flows through the capital, is the deepest river in the UK. The Thames and the Trent (274 km) flow into the North Sea. Among other important rivers,

which also flow eastwards are the Ouse, the Humber, the Tees and the Tyne in England, and the rivers Tweed, Forth, Dee and Spey in Scotland. The rivers flowing into the Irish Sea are the Mersey and the Clyde on which Glasgow stands. The longest river on the British Isles is the Shannon (384 km) flowing from north to south in the Republic of Ireland.

Important ports in the UK grew up at the mouth of navigable rivers including Liverpool (the River Mersey), Bristol (the River Severn), Newcastle (the River Tyne) and Glasgow (the River Clyde).

Rivers in Britain also provide an area for one of the UK's most popular pastimes: fishing as well places to row, punt and kayak. The River Cherwell in Oxford and the River Cam in Cambridge are famous for their university students' punting through the dreaming spires.

Ranging in size and depth, there are more than 40,000 lakes across the country. In Scotland, lakes are called lochs. The biggest loch in Scotland is Loch Lomond, covering a surface of 70 sq. km. It is one of Scotland's most beautiful and peaceful lochs, and the inspiration for one of Scotland's most famous songs: *The Bonnie Banks o'Loch Lomond*. The loch contains around 30 islands, some of which form a Special Area of Conservation, home to otters, black grouse and golden eagles. Loch Ness is the second largest Scottish loch by surface area at 56 sq. km after Loch Lomond, but due to its great depth, it is the largest by volume on the British Isles. Loch Morar in Scotland has the title of the UK's deepest body of fresh water, with a maximum depth of 310 m. The loch, formed through glacial action 10,000 years ago, now boasts wonderful opportunities for salmon and trout fishing.

The largest natural lake in Wales, Llangorse is particularly popular for boating and fishing and as a site of Special Scientific Importance. Llangorse is also known for being the location of the only Crannog in Wales, an ancient lake defence thought to be constructed in the 10^{th} century.

The largest fresh water lake of the whole British Isles is Lough Neagh (381 sq. km) in Northern Ireland. It supplies 40 % of Northern Ireland's water and is the biggest lake in Ireland. Legend has it that the lough has its very own underwater Atlantis, after a spring rose up and flooded an ancient kingdom. There are now numerous activities to enjoy at Lough Neagh, from waterskiing to golf, as well as tours of the ancient ruins of Shane's Castle, recently used as a filming location for *Game of Thrones.*

Of all the national parks in Britain, the Lake District in Cumbria is arguably the most celebrated one. Famous for its iconic waters and fells, there are 16 lakes there. Windermere is the largest body of water in the Lake District. These days, the lake shore is home to hotels, activity companies and sailing centres. Ullswater is the second largest lake in the Lake District and is best known for its stunning scenery. Rydal Water is one of the smallest lakes in the

Lake District, but any lover of literature knows its connections with two of Wordsworth's homes situated on the banks of the lake, as well as a cottage formerly occupied by Thomas Quincey and Hartley Coleridge.

Climate and Weather

Weather is not the same as climate. The weather of the British Isles is greatly variable. No wonder the British never get tired of discussing the weather.

The geographical position of the British Isles is a basic factor in determining the main characteristics of the climate. Britain's climate is dominated by the influence of the sea. It is much milder than that in any other country at the same latitude. This is due partly to the presence of the Gulf Stream. This means that marine influences warm the land in winter and cool it in summer. This moderating effect of the sea is in fact the cause of the relatively small seasonal contrasts experienced in Britain.

The prevailing winds on the British Isles are from the west. They are extremely moist. North and north-west winds often bring heavy falls of snow to north Britain during late October and November, but they are usually short-lived. Continental winds from the east sometimes reach the British Isles in summer as a warm and dry air stream, but they are more frequently experienced in winter when they cross the North Sea and bring cold, continental-type weather to the eastern and inland districts of Great Britain.

Relief is the most important factor controlling the distribution of temperatures and precipitation in Britain. The actual temperatures in the hilly and mountainous parts are considerably lower than those in the lowlands. The effect of relief on precipitation is even more striking. The average annual rainfall in Britain is about 1,100 mm. But the geographical distribution of rainfall is largely determined by topography. The mountainous areas of the west and north have far more rainfall than the lowlands of the south and east.

In contrast, the eastern lowlands are much drier and usually receive little precipitation. Much of eastern and south-eastern England (including London) receive less than 700 mm each year, and snow falls on only 15 to 18 days of the year on the average. Such trends of precipitation have affected the distribution of crops: the main areas of arable farming and of growing wheat and other cereals are in eastern and south-eastern Britain, whereas pasture farming prevails in the western parts of the country and in the hilly regions.

Rainfall is fairly well distributed throughout the year; although March to June are the driest months and October to January are the wettest.

In Ireland the climate situation is a bit different; much of the Irish plain receives up to 1,200 mm of rainfall per year, usually in the form of steady and prolonged drizzle. Snow, on the other hand, is rare owing to the warming effects of the Gulf Stream.

Because of the Gulf Stream and predominantly maritime air masses that reach the British Isles from the west, the range in temperature throughout the year is never very great. The annual mean temperature in England and Wales is about +10 °C, in Scotland and Northern Ireland about +9 °C. July and August are the warmest months of the year, and January and February are the coldest.

The mean winter temperature in the north is +3 °C; the mean summer temperature is +12 °C. The corresponding figures for the south are +5 °C in winter and +16 °C in summer. The mean January temperature for London is +4 °C, and the mean July temperature is +17 °C.

The distribution of sunshine shows a general decrease from south to north, the south has much longer periods of sunshine than the north.

No place in Britain is more than 120 km from the sea and its influence is felt permanently in the daily life of the British. The weather changes constantly, and no ordinary people can guess from one day to another which season they will find themselves in when they wake up in the morning. But although the weather of the country is most unreliable, the climate of the country – the average weather – is generally good. The winters are seldom very cold and the summers are seldom very hot. It is no wonder that living in a country with so many rules and with still more exceptions, the British people talk a lot about the weather which they generally adore.

Population

The first census in England was taken in 1801 and revealed the population to be around 10.5 million. At present the UK is the world's 21st largest country by population. According to the Office for National Statistics the United Kingdom's population in 2019 is 67.53 million. In terms of density there are 255 people living in every square kilometre of land which ranks the territory 12th in the world overall.

The distribution of the population is rather uneven. The majority of the UK's population lives in England, which accounts for just under 84 % of the total population. Scotland trails behind with 8.4 % of the population, followed by Wales at 4.8 %, and Northern Island – at 2.9 %. Urban population numbers 83.1 % of total population. Most of the largest cities are found in England.

The UK is currently experiencing substantial internal migration. The population of southern England and London is continuing to grow while northern areas decline. Most of the mountainous parts of the UK are very sparsely populated. Urbanization is the most prominent feature of this pattern, so the majority of the population lives in towns, cities and their suburbs.

The UK is inhabited by the English, the Scots, the Welsh and the Irish who constitute the British nation. White ethnic group constitutes 86 % of the population. Now there are also many people of all colours and races in the UK.

Theye are mostly former inhabitants of the former British colonies. These people, called “the coloureds”, came to the UK in search of better living standards. Among the ethnic minority population the largest groups are Pakistani, Indian, and Bangladeshi (6.8 %). London has the highest proportion of minority ethnic communities. India, Poland and Pakistan are top three countries foreign-born people in England and Wales come from.

The United Kingdom’s population is expected to continue its rise throughout the 21st century. Driven by modest natural increase and positive net immigration, the population will reach 77 million by 2050.

The government encourages the immigrant communities to continue speaking their own languages as well as English. At the same time there is still a serious problem of racial tension and racial prejudice in Britain today.

Mineral Resources

The rise of Britain as an industrial nation in the late 18th and early 19th centuries was partly due to its considerable mineral resources, – abundant supplies of coal and iron ore and non-ferrous metals, – copper, lead, tin. But in the course of the last 100 years the situation has gradually changed. Many of Britain’s most valuable and accessible resources have been worked out, coal has lost its former importance, and such minerals as oil, gas and uranium appear to be essential in the modern world.

Iron ore and coal were the most important minerals during the Industrial Revolution. However, less iron ore and coal are mined in the UK today. Most coal comes from Yorkshire and the Midlands which produce about 60% of the country’s output. These fields are easiest to mine because the coal seams are particularly thick. British iron ores are of poor quality and produced in small quantities. Most of the iron fields in Britain are to be found in the areas of major coal basins. So, Britain has to import iron ore mainly from Sweden, North and West Africa, Spain, Canada and South America.

Oil and gas have become particularly important for the economy. Up to the early 1960s over 99 % of Britain’s oil requirements were imported, primarily from the Middle East. Now Britain is the world’s fifth largest oil producer since the discovery of substantial offshore oil and gas reserves in the North Sea. The principal oil producing area lies between latitudes of the Tyne and Shetland Islands. Home produced natural gas accounts for about 80 % of the total natural gas consumption, the remainder coming from Norway and Algeria. Natural gas now replaces gas produced from coal for the public supply system (domestic gas stoves, systems of central heating, etc.). The North Sea oil and gas play a major role in boosting the development of the economy making it less dependent on outside factors.

As British economy has become orientated towards a more sophisticated industry some non-ferrous metals such as manganese, chrome, nickel, copper, tin, zinc are imported though they are found but not extensively worked. Globalization has made it cheaper to import them from other countries but to be dependent on imported raw materials. For example, copper ore is imported from Chile and North America.

A great variety of non-metallic minerals is produced in Britain. Granites are found in Devon, Cornwall and Aberdeenshire and basaltic rocks – in Northumberland and parts of the Scottish Lowlands. The Pennines are especially rich in sandstones and limestones. There are deposits of clay, especially in the Bedford and Peterborough areas and slates in Cumberland and North Wales. Chalk is mined on both banks of the Thames estuary. Sand and gravel come from midland and northern England and central Scotland. Important areas of common and rock salts are Cheshire and Worcestershire.

Today Britain is no longer the leading industrial nation in the world, which it used to be a century ago but it retains a respectable place among the most advanced countries of the world. The UK has the fifth largest economy in the world and the second largest in Europe.

British Economy

At the start of the 21st century however, the UK still possesses a significant role in the global economy, due to its large Gross Domestic Product and the financial importance that its capital, London, possesses in the world. The economy of the United Kingdom is highly developed, market-orientated and one of the most globalised economies in the world.

The nation's industries can be divided into three sectors of activity. The primary sector is concerned with raw materials such as cereals and minerals. Processing these materials is the field of the manufacturing sector. The service sector provides services of various kinds such as transport or distribution.

The Primary Sector

Most of the UK agriculture is intensive and highly mechanised, with the use of chemical fertilizers and insecticides. By European standards it is very efficient, producing about 50 % of food needs with less than 1.6 % of the labour force (535,000 workers). Two-thirds of the production is devoted to livestock, one-third to arable crops. The main crops that are grown are wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, sugar beets, fruits and vegetables. Agriculture has been heavily subsidised by the European Union's Common Agricultural Policy. Britain is self-sufficient in milk, eggs, to a very great extent in meat, potatoes and wheat. However, butter, cheese, sugar and some other agricultural products are imported.

East Anglia and south-east England have been centres for grain production, with some areas of south-east England also specialising in market gardening. The county of Kent was so well known for this that it is often referred to as the *Garden of England* and was particularly noted for hop growing. Dairy farming is most prevalent in south-west England.

The UK is one of the world's leading fishing nations. Its fleet brings home fish of every kind, ranging from sole to herring.

The country's primary industry sector was once dominated by the coal industry, heavily concentrated in south Wales, Midlands, Yorkshire, north-east England and southern Scotland. Today the major primary industry is oil. Its activity is concentrated on the east coast of Scotland and north-east England. The waters in the North Sea off the east coast of Scotland contain nearly half of the UK's remaining oil reserves, and a quarter of reserves are located in the North Sea near the Shetland Islands. Production is now in decline and the UK has been a net importer of oil since 2005.

A closely related industry is natural gas which, since the 1970s, has supplied all of the UK gas needs. Most natural gas production is in the North Sea and the Irish Sea. The largest reserves not related to oil production are in the southern North Sea between the UK and the Netherlands. In 2009 the UK was the 13th largest producer of natural gas in the world. Production is now in decline and the UK has been a net importer of natural gas since 2004.

At one time or another virtually every product that can be imagined was made in the UK. The major British cities where manufacturing flourished were Birmingham (automotive), Glasgow (shipbuilding), London (various), Manchester (textiles), Newcastle (shipbuilding and steel), Nottingham (apparel, medicine), Sheffield (steel and steel products), Sunderland (shipbuilding and coal-mining), Leeds (textiles and engineering), Belfast (shipbuilding and textiles), Cardiff (steel). Today there is no heavy manufacturing industry in which the UK-based firms can be considered world leaders and no product in which a UK city or region is the world leader. (A lot of the heavy manufacturing industry was government run and failed to respond to world markets. State industries were sold off and over the 20th century many closed unable to compete.) The UK is left with a very small domestic manufacturing sector, though British companies worldwide continue to have a role in the sector through foreign investment. However, the Midlands, in particular, remains a strong manufacturing centre, with around a fifth of employment dependent on manufacturing.

The main industries today are machine tools, electric power equipment, automation equipment, railroad equipment, shipbuilding, aircraft, motor vehicles and parts, electronics and communications equipment, metals, chemicals, coal, petroleum, paper and paper products, food processing, textiles, clothing, and other consumer goods. Britain's aerospace industry is the second- or third-

largest aerospace industry in the world. British companies with a major presence in the industry include BAE Systems and Rolls-Royce. Its pharmaceutical industry, the tenth-largest in the world, plays an important role in the economy. The UK is home to GlaxoSmithKline and AstraZeneca, respectively the world's third- and seventh-largest pharmaceutical companies. The automotive industry is also a major employer and exporter.

The Service Sector

As the other economically developed countries at the end of the 20th century, Britain experienced a considerable shift towards rise in service industries, which is often referred to as the second industrial revolution. According to current estimates, service industries account for 80.2 % of the GDP (Gross Domestic Product) and employ around 70 % of the working population. There was a considerable growth in such services as distribution, catering, hotels, transport and communications but especially big in financial services such as banking, insurance, and business services.

Tourism is very important to the UK economy. With over 32 million tourists the country is ranked as the 8th major tourist destination in the world.

London is the world's largest financial centre. From around the early 1990s it has been able to boast of having more US banks than New York, as well as being host to branches of more than five hundred overseas banks. Now Leeds is the UK's 2nd largest financial and legal centre, and the UK's largest e-business sector with more than one-third of the UK's internet traffic passing through the city.

The currency of the UK is the pound sterling, which is used as a reserve currency by other governments and institutions, and is the third-largest after the US dollar and the euro.

Test Your Knowledge

1. What historical and poetic names are associated with Great Britain?
2. What parts is the territory of the United Kingdom divided into?
3. What is the national emblem of each part of the UK? Why was that particular emblem chosen?
4. What are patron saints of each part of the UK?
5. What are the capital cities of the four parts of the country?
6. What is the traditional name for Northern Ireland?
7. What three crosses does Union Jack present?
8. What part of the UK is not represented on the Union Jack? Why?
9. What languages are spoken in the UK?
10. What is the geographical position of the British Isles?
11. What islands do the British Isles consist of?

12. What water body separates the British Isles from the continent of Europe?

13. What climate does Great Britain enjoy? What are the characteristic features of the climate?

14. What main factors influence the British climate?

15. What are the warmest/coldest months of the year?

16. What is characteristic of the coastline of the British Isles?

17. What are the chief rivers in Great Britain?

18. What are the most important ports in the UK?

19. What is the largest fresh water lake of the British Isles?

20. What are the most important ranges of mountains in the UK?

21. What kind of country is Wales in terms of its relief?

22. What three regions is Scotland divided into?

23. What lake in Britain is world-famous? Why?

24. What is the origin of the name of the British capital?

25. What are Scotland's largest cities?

26. What mineral resources is Great Britain rich in?

27. What rare metals make Britain's economy depend on imported raw materials?

28. What are the most productive coal fields in the UK? What are the reasons for the decline of coal production?

29. What are the principal oil and gas producing areas in Britain?

30. What non-metallic minerals are produced in Britain?

31. What natural resources contributed to the development of the country in the 19th century? How did the situation change in the 20th century?

32. Why is tourism very important for the British economy?

33. What are the main industries in the UK's manufacturing sector today?

34. What are reasons for the uneven distribution of the population in the United Kingdom?

35. What ethnic minority groups are among the largest ones in the UK?

Lecture 2

SETTLEMENT OF THE BRITISH ISLES

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

Ancient Britain

The story of ancient Britain is traditionally seen as one of successive waves of settlers from the continent, bringing with them new cultures and technologies. Little is known about the ancient population of the British Isles. Archeological remains which date back to about 8500 BC show that at that time Britain was peopled by small groups of hunters, gatherers and fishers. They seem to have followed herds of deer which provided them with food and clothing. By about 5000 BC Britain had finally become an island, and had also become heavily forested.

In the course of time, different groups of people kept arriving in Britain, bringing their customs and skills. About 3000 BC Neolithic (or New Stone Age) people crossed the narrow sea from Europe in small round boats of bent wood covered with animal skins. Each could carry one or two persons. Those people kept animals and grew corn crops, and knew how to make pottery. They probably came from either the Iberian (Spanish) peninsula or even the North African coast and settled in the western parts of Britain and Ireland. They were small, dark, and long-headed, and may be the forefathers of dark-haired inhabitants of Wales and Cornwall today.

As they settled on the chalk uplands of south Britain they are called chalkland people. Today these uplands have poor soil and few trees, but they were not like that then. They were airy woodlands that could easily be cleared for farming, and as a result were the most easily habitable part of the countryside. After 3000 BC the chalkland people started building great circles of earth banks and ditches. Inside, they built wooden buildings and stone circles. These “henges”, as they are called, were centres of religious, political and economic power. By far the most spectacular, both then and now, was Stonehenge, which was built between 3100 and 1550 BC north of Salisbury, England. The precise purposes of Stonehenge remain a mystery. It is believed to have served varied purposes – a temple for sky worship; a calendar; an instrument to foretell solar eclipses, etc. But for sure Stonehenge was almost certainly a sort of capital, to which the chiefs of other groups came from all over Britain. Certainly, earth or stone henges were built in many parts of Britain, as far as the Orkney Islands, north of Scotland, and as far south as Cornwall. They seem to have been copies of the great Stonehenge in the south.

Nowadays Stonehenge is not only a tourist attraction. It functions as a gathering point for some minority groups (the hippies, new age travellers). The main thing is now to protect stones from damage (because some years ago some minority group made a fire in the middle of Stonehenge and damaged a lot of stones.) Some people say that if you touch some stone you'll be happy.

After 2400 BC new groups of people arrived in south-east Britain from Europe, probably originally from Spain. They were round-headed and strongly built, taller than Neolithic Britons. It is not known whether they invaded by armed force, or whether they were invited by Neolithic Britons because of their military or metal-working skills. Their influence was soon felt and, as a result, they became leaders of British society. Their arrival is marked by the first individual graves, furnished with pottery beakers, from which those people got their name: the "Beaker" people.

Why did those people decide to be buried separately and give up the old communal burial barrows? It is difficult to be certain, but it is thought that the old barrows were built partly to please the gods of the soil, in the hope that this would stop the chalk upland soil getting poorer. The Beaker people brought with them a new cereal, barley, which could grow almost anywhere. Perhaps they felt it was no longer necessary to please the gods of the chalk upland soil.

The Beaker people probably spoke an Indo-European language. They seem to have brought a single culture to the whole of Britain. They also brought skills to make bronze tools and they began to replace stone ones. But they accepted many of the old ways. Stonehenge remained the most important centre until 1300 BC. The Beaker people's richest graves were there, and they added a new circle of thirty stone columns, this time connected by stone lintels, or cross-pieces. British society continued to be centred on a number of henges across the countryside.

However, from about 1300 BC onwards the henge civilisation seems to have become less important, and was overtaken by a new form of society in southern England, that of a settled farming class. At first that farming society developed in order to feed the people at the henges, but eventually it became more important and powerful as it grew richer. The new farmers grew wealthy because they learned to enrich the soil with natural waste materials so that it did not become poor and useless. Family villages and fortified enclosures appeared across the landscape, and the old central control of Stonehenge and the other henges was lost.

From that time, too, power seems to have shifted to the Thames valley and south-east Britain. *Hill-forts* replaced *henges* as the centres of local power, and most of them were found in the southeast, suggesting that the land successfully supported more people here than elsewhere.

There was another reason for the shift of power eastwards. A number of better-designed bronze swords have been found in the Thames valley, suggesting that the local people had more advanced metalworking skills. Many

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

The Celts

Around 700 BC, another group of people began to arrive. Many of them were tall, and had fair or red hair and blue eyes. They were the Celts, who probably came from central Europe or further east, from southern Russia, and had moved slowly westwards in earlier centuries. The Celts were technically advanced. They knew how to work with iron, and could make better weapons than the people who used bronze.

The Celts came in three distinct waves:

1) the *Goidels* or *Gaels*, who were driven by later invaders into the less fertile and more mountainous western and northern regions (the original language of Ireland and of north-west Scotland is Goidelic Celtic (*Gaelic)*;

2) the Brythonic Celts or *Brythons*, from whose name the word Britain is derived, settled in the south of England, in Wales and in north-west England and south-west Scotland (their language developed into the Celtic language of modern Wales);

3) *Belgae* from northern Gaul arrived about 100 BC and occupied the greater part of central Great Britain.

Our knowledge of the Celts is slight. We do not even know for certain whether the Celts invaded Britain or came peacefully as a result of the lively trade with Europe. At first most of Celtic Britain seems to have developed in a generally similar way. But from about 500 BC trade contact with Europe declined, and regional differences between north-west and south-east Britain increased. As for the last Celtic arrivals from Europe, the Belgae tribes, they were different from the elder inhabitants. They probably pushed other Celtic tribes northwards. At any rate, when Julius Caesar briefly visited Britain in 55 BC he saw that the Celts were organised into different tribes, and tribal chiefs were chosen from each family or tribe, sometimes as the result of fighting matches between individuals, and sometimes by election.

The Celtic tribes continued the same kind of agriculture as the Bronze Age people before them. But their use of iron technology and their introduction of more advanced ploughing methods made it possible for them to farm heavier soils. However, they continued to use and build hill-forts. Their increase, particularly in the south-east, suggests that the Celts were highly successful farmers, growing enough food for a much larger population. The hill-fort remained the centre for local groups. The insides of those hill-forts were filled

with houses, and they became the simple economic capitals and smaller "towns" of different tribal areas into which Britain was now divided.

The Celts traded across tribal borders and trade was probably important for political and social contact between the tribes. Trade with Ireland went through the island of Anglesey. The two main trade outlets eastwards to Europe were the settlements along the Thames River in the south and on the Firth of Forth in the north. It is no accident that the present-day capitals of England and Scotland stand on or near those two ancient trade centres. Much trade, both inside and beyond Britain, was conducted by river and sea. For money the Celts used iron bars, until they began to copy the Roman coins they saw used in Gaul (France).

According to the Romans, the Celtic men wore shirts and breeches (knee-length trousers), and striped or checked cloaks fastened by a pin. It is possible that the Scottish tartan and dress developed from that "striped cloak". The Celts were also "very careful about cleanliness and neatness", as one Roman wrote. "Neither man nor woman," he went on, "however poor, was seen either ragged or dirty."

The Celtic tribes were ruled over by a warrior class, of which the priests, or *Druids*, seem to have been particularly important members. The Druids could not read or write, but they memorised all the religious teachings, the tribal laws, history, medicine and other knowledge necessary in Celtic society. The Druids from different tribes all over Britain probably met once a year. They had no temples, but they met in sacred groves of trees, on certain hills, by rivers or by river sources. They worshiped the sun. Stonehenge was used by druids perform different religious ceremonies when the appropriate day of a year came (the most important one was June 21).

During the Celtic period women may have had more independence than they had again for hundreds of years. When the Romans invaded Britain two of the largest tribes were ruled by women who fought from their chariots. The most powerful Celt to stand up to the Romans was a woman, Boadicea. She became queen of her tribe when her husband had died. She was tall, with long red hair, and had a frightening appearance. In 61 AD she led her tribe against the Romans. She nearly drove them from Britain, and she destroyed London, the Roman capital, before she was defeated.

The Celts are important in British history because they are the ancestors of many of the people in Highland Scotland, Wales, Ireland, and Cornwall today. The Iberian people of Wales and Cornwall took on the new Celtic culture. Celtic languages have still been spoken in some areas since that time.

Celtic presence in the English language is not abundant and found mostly in place-names, e. g. *Kent, York*, as well as the names of the rivers *Ouse*, *Esk*, *Avon, Thames, Dover*, etc. Some of the Celtic borrowings have survived only in dialects, e. g. *loch* 'lake'.

The Romans

Julius Caesar first came to Britain in 55 AD but it was not until almost a century later, in 43 AD that a Roman army actually occupied Britain. The Romans were determined to conquer the whole island. They had little difficulty, apart from Boadicea's revolt, because they had a better trained army and because the Celtic tribes fought among themselves.

The Romans invaded because the Celts of Britain were working with the Celts of Gaul against them. The British Celts gave them food, and allowed them to hide in Britain. There was another reason. The Celts used cattle to pull ploughs to farm heavy soil. As a result they could produce more food. The Romans wanted to make use of British food for their own army fighting the Gauls.

The Romans brought the skills of reading and writing to Britain. The written word was important for spreading ideas and also for establishing power. Britain was probably more literate under the Romans than it was to be again until the 15th century.

The Romans established a Romano-British culture across the southern half of Britain, from the River Humber to the River Severn. This part of Britain was inside the empire. Beyond were the upland areas, under Roman control but not developed. Those areas were watched from the towns of York, Chester and Caerleon in the western peninsula of Britain that later became known as Wales. Each of these towns was held by a Roman legion of about 7,000 men. The total Roman army in Britain was about 40,000 men.

The Romans could not conquer "Caledonia", as they called Scotland, although they spent over a century trying to do so. At last they built a strong wall along the northern border, named after the Emperor Hadrian who planned it. At the time, Hadrian's Wall was simply intended to keep out raiders from the north. But it also marked the border between the two later countries, England and Scotland.

The most obvious characteristic of Roman Britain was its towns, which were the basis of Roman administration and civilization. Many grew out of Celtic settlements, military camps or market centres. There were three different kinds of towns in Roman Britain: the *colonie*, towns peopled by Roman settlers, and the *municipia*, large cities in which the whole population was given Roman citizenship and the third kind, the *civitas*, included the old Celtic tribal capitals, through which the Romans administered the Celtic population in the countryside. At first those towns had no walls. Then, probably from the end of the second century to the end of the third century AD, almost every town was given walls. At first many of them were no more than earthworks, but by 300 AD all towns had thick stone walls.

The Romans left about twenty large towns of about 5,000 inhabitants, and almost one hundred smaller ones. Many of the towns were army camps and the

Latin word for camp, *castra*, has remained part of town names to this day (with the ending *-chester*, *-caster* or *-fester*): Gloucester, Leicester, Lancaster, Winchester, Chester, Lancaster and many others. The towns were built of stone as well as wood, and had planned streets, markets and shops. Some buildings had central heating. The towns were connected by roads which were so well built that they survived and continued to be used long after the Romans left, and became the main roads of modern Britain. Six of those Roman roads met in London, a capital city of about 20,000 people. London was twice the size of Paris, and possibly the most important trading centre of northern Europe, because south-east Britain produced so much corn for export.

Outside the towns, the biggest change during the Roman occupation was the growth of large farms, called "villas". They belonged to the richer Britons who were, like the townspeople, more Roman than Celt in their manners. Each villa had many workers. The villas were usually close to towns so that the crops could be sold easily. There was a growing difference between the rich and those who did the actual work on the land. Most people still lived in the same kind of round huts and villages which the Celts had been living in 400 years earlier, when the Romans arrived.

In some ways life in Roman Britain seemed very civilized, but it was also hard for all except the richest. The bodies buried in a Roman graveyard at York show that life expectancy was low. Half the entire population died between the ages of twenty and forty, while 15 % died before reaching the age of twenty. It is very difficult to be sure how many people were living in Britain when the Romans left. Probably it was as many as five million, partly because of the peace and the increased economic life which the Romans had brought to the country. The new wave of invaders changed all that.

So, the Roman occupation lasted nearly 400 years and came to an end in the early 5th century AD when the Roman troops were withdrawn from Britain due to internal and external causes. After the departure of the Romans, Britain remained unprotected from numerous enemies surrounding it such as the Picts and Scots from Scotland and Ireland and Germanic tribes from the mainland which made raids on the British shores. The wealth of Britain, the result of its mild climate and centuries of peace, was a temptation to the greedy. Besides, the Britons fought among themselves which also weakened the country. So it is quite natural that they were unable to offer resistance to the enemies that attacked them in the middle of the 5th century.

The Anglo-Saxon Invasion

According to Venerable Bede (673–735), an ancient monastic scholar and historian who wrote the first history of Britain (*Historia Ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum*), the invaders came to Britain under the leadership of two Germanic

kings, Hengist and Horsa; they had been invited by a British king as assistants and allies in a local war. They came in multitude, in families and clans, to settle in the occupied territories.

The newcomers were of three strongest races of Germany, the Saxons, the Angles and the Jutes. It is uncertain whether they belonged to different tribes or perhaps constituted two mixed waves of invaders differing mainly in the place and time of arrival. They were called Angles and Saxons by the Romans and by the Celts but preferred to call themselves *Angelcyn* (English people) and applied that name to the conquered territories: Angelcynnes land (land of the English), hence England.

The conquerors settled in Britain in the following way: the Jutes or Frisians settled in Kent and the Isle of Wight; the Saxons occupied territories south of the Thames and some stretches north of it, and depending on location were called South Saxons, West Saxons and East Saxons (late also Mid Saxons). The Saxons consolidated into a number of petty kingdoms, the largest and most powerful of which was Wessex, the kingdom of West Saxons. The last people to settle in Britain were the Angles which occupied most of the territory north of the Thames up to the Firth of Forth, namely the districts between the Wash and the Humber, and to the North of Humber.

Since the settlement of the Anglo-Saxons in Britain the ties of their language with the continent were broken, and its further development went its own ways. It is at that time, the 5th century, that the history of the English language began. The Anglos-Saxons occupied the territory of modern England and part of Scotland while Wales, Ireland, the Scottish Highlands and Cornwall remained Celtic.

In the course of the struggle of the Celts against the Anglo-Saxons many legends emerged of which most famous is the legend of the Court of King Arthur.

The Germanic tribes founded seven separate kingdoms, which during four centuries struggled with one another for supremacy. They were Kent, Sussex, Essex, Wessex, Mercia, East Anglia and Northumbria. In this prolonged struggle

it was sometimes Kent, or Northumbria and sometimes Mercia and Wessex that would take the upper hand. In 828 the struggle came to an end with the decisive victory of Wessex. Ecgbert, king of Wessex, subdued Mercia and Northumbria. Since then kings of Wessex became kings of England, and the capital of Wessex, Winchester, became the capital of England.

The British Celts fought the raiders and settlers from Germany as well as they could. However, during the next hundred years they were slowly pushed westwards. Finally most were driven into the mountains in the far west, which the Saxons called "Wellas", or "Wales", meaning "the land of foreigners". Some Celts were driven into Cornwall, where they later accepted the rule of Saxon lords. In the north, other Celts were driven into the lowlands of the country which became known as Scotland. Some Celts stayed behind, and many became slaves of the Saxons.

The strength of Anglo-Saxon culture is obvious even today. Days of the week were named after Germanic gods: Tig (Tuesday), Wodin (Wednesday), Thor (Thursday), Frei (Friday). New place-names appeared on the map. The earliest Saxon villages, like the Celtic ones, were family villages. The ending *-ing* meant folk or family, thus "Reading" is the place of the family of Rada, "Hastings" of the family of Hasta. *Ham* means 'farm', *ton* means 'settlement'. Birmingham, Nottingham or Southampton, for example, are Saxon place-names. Because the Anglo-Saxon kings often established settlements, Kingston is a frequent place-name.

The Anglo-Saxons established a number of kingdoms, some of which still exist in county or regional names to this day: Essex (East Saxons), Sussex (South Saxons), Wessex (West Saxons), Middlesex (probably a kingdom of Middle Saxons), East Anglia (East Angles). By the middle of the 7th century the three largest kingdoms, those of Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex, were the most powerful.

It was not until a century later that one of these kings, King Offa of Mercia (757–796), claimed "kingship of the English". He had good reason to do so. He was powerful enough to employ thousands of men to build a huge dyke, or earth wall, the length of the Welsh border to keep out the troublesome Celts. But although he was the most powerful king of his time, he did not control all of England.

The power of Mercia did not survive after Offa's death. At that time, a king's power depended on the personal loyalty of his followers. After his death the next king had to work hard to rebuild these personal feelings of loyalty. Most people still believed, as the Celts had done, that a man's first duty was to his own family. However, things were changing. The Saxon kings began to replace loyalty to family with loyalty to lord and king.

The Saxons created institutions which made the English state strong for the next 500 years. One of these institutions was the King's Council, called the Witan. The Witan probably grew out of informal groups of senior warriors and churchmen to who kings like Offa had turned for advice or support on difficult matters. By the 10th century the Witan was a formal body, issuing laws and charters. It was not at all democratic, and the king could decide to ignore the Witan's advice, but he knew that it might be dangerous to do so for the Witan's authority was based on its right to choose kings, and to agree on the use of the king's laws. Without its support the king's own authority was in danger. The Witan established a system which remained an important part of the king's method of government. Even today, the king or queen has a Privy Council, a group of advisers on the affairs of the state.

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

Anglo-Saxon technology changed the shape of English agriculture. The Celts had kept small, square fields which were well suited to the plough drawn either by an animal or two people. The Celtic plough could turn corners easily. The Anglo-Saxons introduced a far heavier plough which was better able to plough in long straight lines across the field. It was particularly useful for cultivating much heavier soils. But it required six or eight oxen to pull it, and it was difficult to turn. This heavier plough led to changes in land ownership and organisation. In order to make the best use of village land, it was divided into two or three very large fields. They were then divided again into long thin strips. Each family had a number of strips in each of the fields, amounting probably to a family "holding" of twenty or so acres. Ploughing those long thin strips was easier because it avoided the problem of turning. Few individual families could afford to keep a team of oxen, and they had to be shared on a cooperative basis.

One of those fields would be used for planting spring crops, and another for autumn crops. The third area would be left to rest for a year, and with the other areas after harvest, would be used as common land for animals to feed on. This Anglo-Saxon pattern, which became more and more common, was the basis of English agriculture for a thousand years, until the 18th century. The Saxons settled previously unfarmed areas. They cut down many forested areas in valleys to farm the richer lowland soil, and began to drain the wet land.

In each district there was a "manor" or large house. This was a simple building where local villagers came to pay taxes, where justice was administered, and where men met together to join the Anglo-Saxon army, the

fyrd. The lord of the manor had to organize all that, and make sure the village land was properly shared. It was the beginning of the manorial system which reached its fullest development under the Normans.

At first the lords, or *aldermen*, were simply local officials. But by the beginning of the 11th century they were warlords, and were often called by a new Danish name, *earl*. Both words, alderman and earl, remain with us today: aldermen are elected officers in local government, and earls are high ranking nobles. It was the beginning of a class system, made up of the king, lords, soldiers and workers on the land. One other important class developed during the Saxon period, the men of learning. They came from the Christian Church.

The Spread of Christianity

In the last hundred years of Roman government Christianity became firmly established across Britain, both in Roman-controlled areas and beyond. However, the Anglo-Saxons belonged to an older Germanic religion, and they drove the Celts into the west and north. In the Celtic areas Christianity continued to spread, bringing paganism to an end. The map of Wales shows a number of place-names beginning or ending with *-llan*, meaning the site of a small Celtic monastery around which a village or town grew.

In 597 Pope Gregory the Great sent a monk, Augustine, to re-establish Christianity in England. He went to Canterbury, the capital of the king of Kent. He did so because the king's wife came from Europe and was already a Christian. Augustine became the first Archbishop of Canterbury in 601. He was very successful. Several ruling families in England accepted Christianity. But Augustine and his group of monks made little progress with the ordinary people. This was partly because Augustine was interested in establishing Christian authority, and that meant bringing rulers to the new faith.

It was the Celtic Church which brought Christianity to the ordinary people of Britain. The Celtic bishops went out from their monasteries of Wales, Ireland and Scotland, walking from village to village teaching Christianity. In spite of the differences between Anglo-Saxons and Celts, these bishops seem to have been readily accepted in Anglo-Saxon areas. The bishops from the Roman Church lived at the courts of kings, which they made centres of Church power across England. The two Christian Churches, Celtic and Roman, could hardly have been more different in character. One was most interested in the hearts of ordinary people, while the other was interested in authority and organisation. The competition between the Celtic and Roman Churches reached a crisis because they disagreed over the date of Easter. In 663 at the Synod (meeting) of Whitby the king of Northumbria decided to support the Roman Church. The Celtic Church retreated as Rome extended its authority over all Christians, even in the Celtic parts of the island.

Curiously, the spread of Christianity is also associated with the activities of St. Patrick, the national saint of Ireland. He was probably born in Wales, the son of a Roman father. Patrick became a monk in Gaul (= France) and went to Ireland in 432 AD. He converted many people to Christianity, and there are many stories about his great powers, including one which explains why there are no snakes in Ireland. Patrick is said to have tricked them all so that they went into the sea and drowned. He is also said to have used the shamrock plant to explain the Christian idea of the Trinity, because it has three leaves on one stem. That is why it is traditional for Irish people to wear a shamrock on St. Patrick's Day, March17.

England became Christian very quickly. By 660 only Sussex and the Isle of Wight had not accepted the new faith. Saxon kings helped the Church to grow, but the Church also increased the power of kings. Bishops gave kings their support, which made it harder for royal power to be questioned. Kings had "God's approval". The value of Church approval was all the greater because of the uncertainty of the royal succession. An eldest son did not automatically become king, as kings were chosen from among the members of the royal family and any member who had enough soldiers might try for the throne. In addition, at a time when one king might try to conquer a neighbouring kingdom, he would probably have a son to whom he would wish to pass his enlarged kingdom when he died. And so when King Offa arranged for his son to be crowned as his successor, he made sure that this was done at a Christian ceremony led by a bishop. It was good political propaganda, because it suggested that kings were chosen not only by people but also by God.

There were other ways in which the Church increased the power of the English state. It established monasteries, or minsters, for example Westminster, which were places of learning and education. Those monasteries trained the men who could read and write, so that they had the necessary skills for the growth of royal and Church authority. The king who made most use of the Church was Alfred, the great king who ruled Wessex from 871 to 899. He used the literate men of the Church to help establish a system of law, to educate the people and to write down important matters. He started the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, the most important source, for understanding the period.

This process gave power into the hands of those who could read and write, and in this way class divisions were increased. The power of landlords, who had been given land by the king, was increased because their names were written down. Peasants, who could neither read nor write, could lose their traditional rights to their land, because their rights were not registered.

The Anglo-Saxon kings also preferred the Roman Church to the Celtic Church for economic reasons. Villages and towns grew around the monasteries and increased local trade. Many bishops and monks in England were from France

and Germany. They were invited by English rulers who wished to benefit from economic contact with Europe. Most of these bishops and monks seem to have come from churches or monasteries along Europe's vital trade routes. In this way close contact with many parts of Europe was encouraged. In addition they all used Latin, the written language of Rome, and that encouraged English trade with the continent. Increased literacy itself helped trade. Anglo-Saxon England became well known in Europe for its exports of woollen and metal goods, cheese, hunting dogs and pottery. It imported wine, fish, pepper, and jewellery.

The Danish Invasion

In the 8th century raiders from Scandinavia (the Danes) made their first attacks on England. They were tempted by Britain's wealth. They were the Vikings, a word which probably means either "pirates" or "the people of the sea inlets", and they came from Norway and Denmark. Like the Anglo-Saxons they only raided at first. They burnt churches and monasteries along the east, north and west coasts of Britain and Ireland. London was raided in 842.

When in 865 the Vikings invaded Britain it was clear that the quarrelling Anglo-Saxon kingdoms could not keep them out. This time they came to conquer and to settle. The Vikings quickly accepted Christianity and did not disturb the local population. By 875 only King Alfred in the west of Wessex held out against the Vikings, who had already taken most of England. He was strong enough to make a treaty with the Vikings. In 878, the Peace of Edington divided England in two areas.

Viking rule was recognised in the east and north of England. It was called the *Danelaw*, the land where the law of the Danes ruled. In the rest of the country Alfred was recognised as king. During his struggle against the Danes, he built walled settlements to keep them out called *burghs*. They became prosperous market towns, and the word, now usually spelt *borough* is one of the most common endings to place names, as well as the name of the unit of municipal or town administration today.

King Alfred known as Alfred the Great is normally given credit not only for his military and diplomatic skills, but also for his literary and translating activities. Alfred is the only English monarch to be known as "the Great". He is claimed to have saved the English language, because it was under his reign that

learning and literature began to flourish in Wessex in the 9th century. He is said to have gathered a group of scholars at his court at Winchester. An erudite himself, Alfred realized that culture could reach the people only in their own tongue. He shared the contemporary view that Viking raids were a divine punishment for the people's sins, and he attributed that to the decline of learning, for only through learning could men acquire wisdom and live in accordance with God's will. Hence, in the lull from attack between 878 and 885, he invited scholars to his court from Mercia, Wales, and the European continent. He learned Latin himself and began to translate Latin books into English in 887. He directed that all young freemen of adequate means must learn to read English, and, by his own translations and those of his helpers, he made available English versions of "those books most necessary for all men to know," books that would lead them to wisdom and virtue. His reign also saw activity in building and in art, and foreign craftsmen were attracted to his court.

By 950 England seemed rich and peaceful again after the troubles of the Viking invasion. But soon afterwards the Danish Vikings started raiding westwards. The Saxon king, Ethelred, decided to pay the Vikings to stay away. To find the money he set a tax on all his people, called *Danegeld*, or "Danish money". It was the beginning of a regular tax system of the people which would provide the money for armies. The effects of this tax were most heavily felt by the ordinary villagers, because they had to provide enough money for their village landlord to pay Danegeld.

The struggle of the English against the Scandinavians lasted over 300 years, in the course of that period more than half of England was occupied by the invaders. The Scandinavians subdued Northumbria and East Anglia, ravaged the eastern part of Mercia, and advanced on Wessex. Like their predecessors, the West Germanic tribes, they came in large numbers to settle in the new areas. They founded many towns and villages in northern England with a mixed population made up of the English and the Danes.

The reconquest of Danish territories was carried on successfully by Alfred's successors. When Ethelred died Cnut (or Canute), the leader of the Danish Vikings, controlled much of England. He became king for the simple reason that the royal council, the Witan, and everyone else, feared disorder. Rule by a Danish king was far better than rule by no one at all. Cnut died in 1035, and his son died shortly after, in 1040. The Witan chose Edward, one of Saxon Ethelred's sons, to be king.

The Succession of the Kingship

Edward, known as "the Confessor" (ruled from 1042 to 1066), was more interested in the Church than in kingship. He encouraged church building and by the time Edward died there was a church in almost every village. The pattern of

the English village, with its manor house and church, dates from that time. Edward started a new church fit for a king at Westminster, just outside the city of London. In fact Westminster Abbey was a Norman, not a Saxon building, because he had spent almost all his life in Normandy, and his mother was a daughter of the duke of Normandy.

When Edward died without an obvious heir the question of who should follow him as king was one of the most important in English history. Edward had brought many Normans to his English court from France but those Normans were not liked by the more powerful Saxon nobles, particularly by the most powerful family of Wessex, the Godwinsons. It was a Godwinson, Harold, whom the Witan chose to be the next king of England. Harold had already shown his bravery and ability. He had no royal blood, but he seemed a good choice for the throne of England.

Harold's right to the English throne was challenged by Duke William of Normandy. William had two claims to the English throne. His first claim was that King Edward had promised it to him. The second one was that Harold, who visited William in 1064 or 1065, had promised William that he, Harold, would not try to take the throne for himself. Harold did not deny this second claim, but said that he had been forced to make the promise, and that because it had been made unwillingly he was not tied by it.

Harold was faced by two dangers, one in the south and one in the north. The Danish Vikings had not given up their claim to the English throne. In 1066 Harold had to march north into Yorkshire to defeat the Danes. No sooner had he defeated them than he learnt that William had landed in England with his army. Harold's men were tired, but they had no time to rest. They marched south as fast as possible.

Harold decided not to wait for the whole Saxon army, the fyrd, to gather because William's army was small. He thought he could beat them with the men who had done so well against the Danes. However, the Norman soldiers were better armed, better organised, and were mounted on horses. If he had waited, Harold might have won. But he was defeated and killed in the battle near Hastings. William marched to London, which quickly gave in when he began to burn villages outside the city. He was crowned king of England in Edward's new church of Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, 1066. A new period began.

Test Your Knowledge

1. How were the British Isles formed?
2. Who were the ancient people of the British Isles? Are there any features associated with ancient population? What are these features?
3. What is mysterious about Stonehenge?

4. What were the Beaker people skilled at?

5. What made Druids the most important among the Celts?

6. Why are the Celts associated today with Ireland, Wales, and Scotland?

7. Why did the Romans invade the British Isles?

8. Why was Hadrian's Wall built?

9. What was called "villa"' in Roman times?

10. What was the contribution of Roman civilization to British culture?

11. What place-names in Britain are of Roman origin?

12. When and how was Christianity brought to Britain?

13. What Germanic tribes invaded Britain? Where did they settle? What kingdoms did they form?

14. How is the strength of Anglo-Saxon culture felt today?

15. When did the Scandinavians come to England? What was the major Viking settlement? What is the Danelaw?

16. Who stood at the head of the resistance against the Danes?

17. What was King Edward "the Confessor" famous for?

18. What English king was defeated at the Battle of Hastings in 1066?

Lecture 3

LATE MEDIAEVAL ENGLAND

During this period the former Anglo-Saxon elite were replaced by a new class of Norman nobility, though in many areas of society there was continuity, as the Normans adopted many of the Anglo-Saxon governmental institutions, including the tax system and the centralisation of law-making. Nevertheless changes soon began to be felt; a feudal system was introduced and significant legal reforms, extending and widening the scope of centralized royal law, were implemented.

The Norman Conquest

The Norman Conquest of England proved to be a turning point in English history and had a considerable influence on the English language. The Normans were by origin a Scandinavian tribe. In the 9th century they began inroads on the northern part of France and occupied the territory on both shores of the Seine estuary. During the century and a half between the Normans' settlement in France and their invasion of England they had undergone a powerful influence of French culture. Mixing with the local population, they adopted the French language and in the mid-11th century, in spite of their Scandinavian origin, they were bearers of French feudal culture and of the French language.

Soon after Canute's death (1042) and the collapse of his empire, the old Anglo-Saxon line was restored but the reign was short-lived. The new English king, Edward the Confessor (1042–1066), who had been reared in France, brought over many Norman advisors and favourites; he distributed among them English lands and wealth to the considerable resentment of the Anglo-Saxon nobility and appointed them to important positions in the government and church hierarchy. He not only spoke French himself, but insisted on it being spoken by the nobles at his court. William, Duke of Normandy, visited his court and it was rumoured that Edward appointed him his successor. In many respects Edward paved the way for Norman infiltration long before the Norman Conquest. However, the government was still in the hands of Anglo-Saxon lords, headed by the powerful Earl Godwin of Wessex.

In 1066, upon Edward's death, the Elders of England (the Witan) proclaimed Harold Godwin king of England. As soon as the news reached William of Normandy, he mustered a big army and landed in Britain.

In the battle of Hasting, fought on October 14, 1066, Harold was killed and the English were defeated. This date is commonly known as the date of the Norman Conquest, though the military occupation of the country was not completed until a few years later. After the victory at Hastings, William by-passed London cutting it off from the north and made the Witan of London and the bishops at Westminster Abbey crown him king. William the Conqueror's

coronation did not go as planned. When the people shouted "God Save the King" the nervous Norman guards at Westminster Abbey thought they were going to attack William. In their fear they set fire to nearby houses and the coronation ceremony ended in disorder.

In the course of a few years, putting down revolts in various parts of the country, burning down villages and estates, the Normans became masters of England. Mercia and Northumbria, which tried to rise against the conquerors, were relentlessly crushed and almost depopulated. Old fortifications were replaced by huge stone Norman castles while most of the lands of the Anglo-Saxon lords passed into the hands of the Norman barons. William's own possessions comprised about one-third of the country. The Normans occupied all the major post in the church, government and army.

Following the Conquest hundreds of people from France crossed the Channel to make their home in Britain. Immigration was easy, since the Norman kings of Britain were also dukes of Normandy and, about a hundred years later, took possession of the whole western part of France, thus bringing England into still closer contact with the continent. French monks, tradesmen and craftsmen flooded the south-western towns, so that not only the higher nobility but also much of the middle class was French. Generally speaking, during the reign of William the Conqueror about 200 000 Frenchmen settled in England.

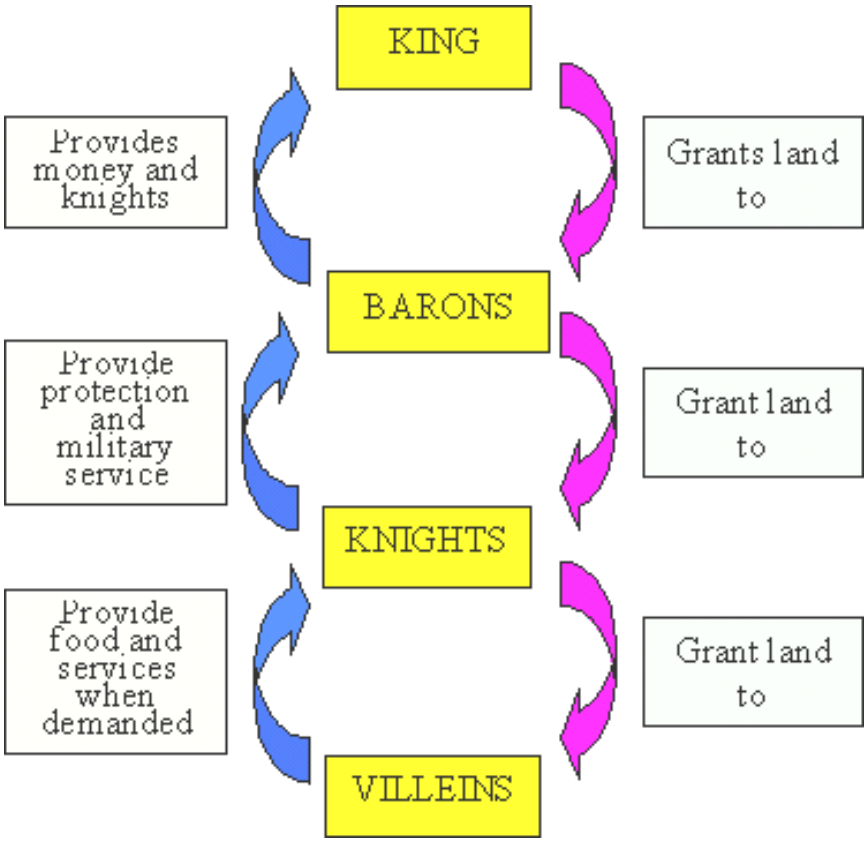
A New Social Order: the Feudal System

Twenty years after the arrival of the Normans, only two of the greater landlords and two bishops were Saxons. The Saxon lands were given to Norman nobles, but William was careful in doing that.

As each new area of land was captured, William gave parts of it as a reward to his captains. This meant that they held separate small pieces of land in different parts of the country so that no noble could easily or quickly gather his fighting men to rebel. William only gave some of his nobles larger estates along the troublesome borders with Wales and Scotland. At the same time he kept enough land for himself to make sure he was much stronger than his nobles. Of all the farmland of England he gave half to the Norman nobles, a quarter to the Church, and kept a fifth himself. He kept the Saxon system of sheriffs, and used them as a balance to local nobles. As a result England was different from the rest of Europe because it had one powerful family, instead of a large number of powerful nobles. William, and the kings after him, thought of England as their personal property.

William organised his English kingdom according to the feudal system which had already begun to develop in England before his arrival. The word "feudalism" comes from the French word *feu*, which the Normans used to refer to land held in return for duty or service to a lord. The basis of feudal society

was the holding of land, and its main purpose was economic. The central idea was that all land was owned by the king but it was held by others, called "vassals", in return for services and goods. The king gave large estates to his main nobles in return for a promise to serve him in war for up to forty days. The nobles also had to give him part of the produce of the land. The greater nobles gave part of their lands to lesser nobles, knights, and other "freemen". Some freemen paid for the land by doing military service, while others paid rent. The noble had "serfs" to work on his land. They were not free to leave the estate.



There were two basic principles to feudalism: every man had a lord, and every lord had land. The king was connected through this "chain" of people to the lowest man in the country. On the other hand, each lord had responsibilities to his vassals. He had to give them land and protection.

When a noble died his son usually took over his estate. But first he had to receive permission from the king and make a special payment. If he was still a child the king would often take the produce of the estate until the boy was old enough to look after the estate himself. In this way the king could benefit from the death of a noble. If all the noble's family died the land went back to the king, who would be expected to give it to another deserving noble. But the king often kept the land for some years, using its wealth, before giving it to another noble.

William gave out land all over England to his nobles. By 1086 he wanted to know exactly who owned which piece of land, and how much it was worth. He

needed this information so that he could plan his economy, find out how much was produced and how much he could ask in tax. He therefore sent a team of people all through England to make a complete economic survey. His men asked all kinds of questions at each settlement: How much land was there? Who owned it? How much was it worth? How many families, ploughs and sheep were there? And so on. Not surprisingly, it was most unpopular with the people, because they felt they could not escape from its findings. It so reminded them of the paintings of the Day of Judgement, or "doom", on the walls of their churches that they called it the *Domesday Book*. It contained the result of the first kingdom-wide census taken in Europe since the time of the Romans and the codification of land and territories conquered by Normans. The Domesday Book still exists, and gives us an extraordinary amount of information about England at that time.

William controlled two large areas: Normandy, which he had been given by his father, and England, which he had won in war. Both were personal possessions, and it did not matter to the ruler that the ordinary people of one place were English while those of another were French. To William the important difference between Normandy and England was that as Duke of Normandy he had to recognise the king of France as his lord, whereas in England he was king with no lord above him.

Kingship: a Family Business

When William the Conqueror died, in 1087, he left the Duchy of Normandy to his elder son, Robert and England to his second son, William, known as "Rufus" (Latin for 'red' because of his red hair and red face). This control of lands both in England and France would provoke great problems, thus, as a consequence, wars between England and France would become a commonplace from this point in history on. When Robert went to fight the Muslims in the Holy Land, he left William II (Rufus) in charge of Normandy.

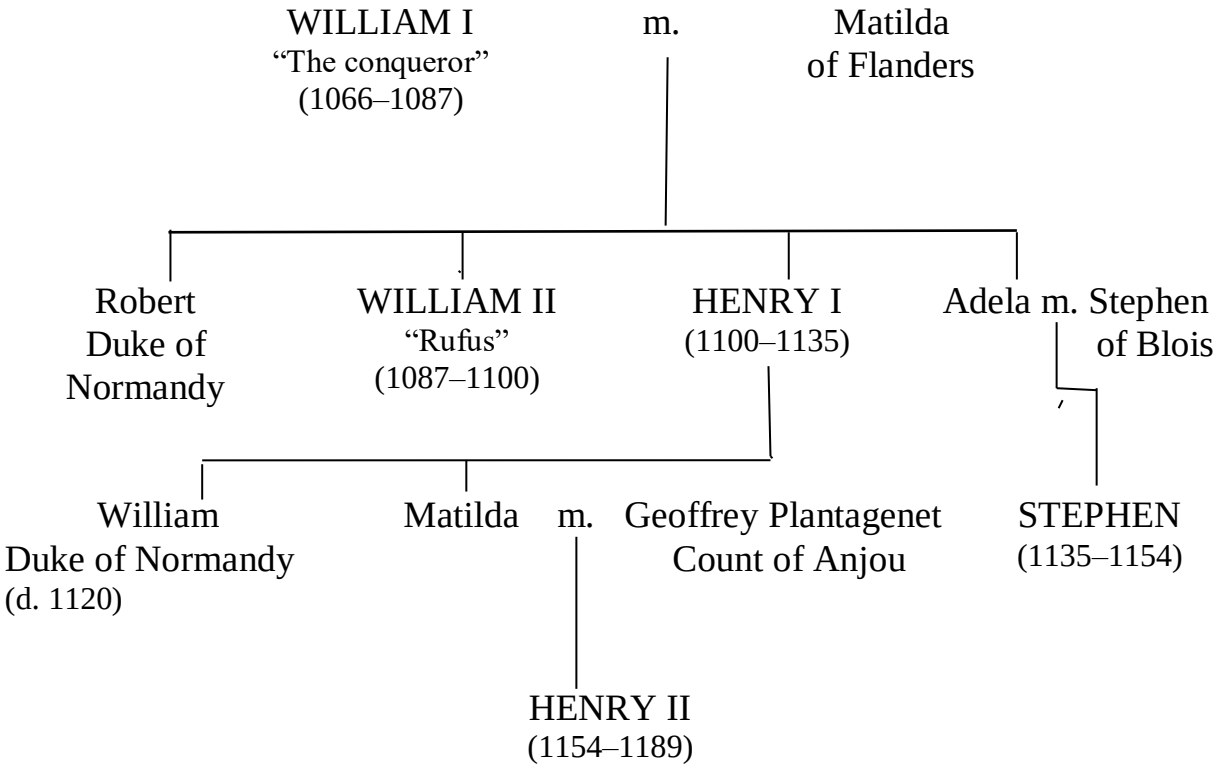
William Rufus died in a hunting accident in 1100, shot dead by an arrow. He had not married, and therefore had no son to take the crown. At the time of William's death, Robert was on his way home to Normandy from the Holy Land. Their younger brother, Henry, knew that if he wanted the English crown he would have to act very quickly. He had been with William at the time of the accident. He rode to Winchester and took charge of the king's treasury. He then rode to Westminster, where he was crowned king three days later. Robert was very angry and prepared to invade. But it took him a year to organise an army.

The Norman nobles in England had to choose between Henry and Robert. This was not easy because most of them held land in Normandy too. In the end they chose Henry because he was in London, with the crown already on his head. Robert's invasion was a failure and he accepted payment to return to Normandy. But Henry wanted more. He knew that many of his nobles would

willingly follow him to Normandy so that they could win back their Norman lands. In 1106 Henry invaded Normandy and captured Robert. Normandy and England were reunited under one ruler.

Henry I's most important aim was to pass on both Normandy and England to his successor. He spent the rest of his life fighting to keep Normandy from other French nobles who tried to take it. But in 1120 Henry's only son was drowned at sea. During the next fifteen years Henry hoped for another son but finally accepted that his daughter, Matilda, would follow him. Henry had married Matilda to another great noble in France, Geoffrey Plantagenet. Geoffrey was heir to Anjou, a large and important area south-west of Normandy. Henry hoped that the family lands would be made larger by that marriage. He made all the nobles promise to accept Matilda when he died. But then Henry himself quarrelled publicly with Matilda's husband, and died soon after. Such a situation left the succession in question.

The House of Normandy

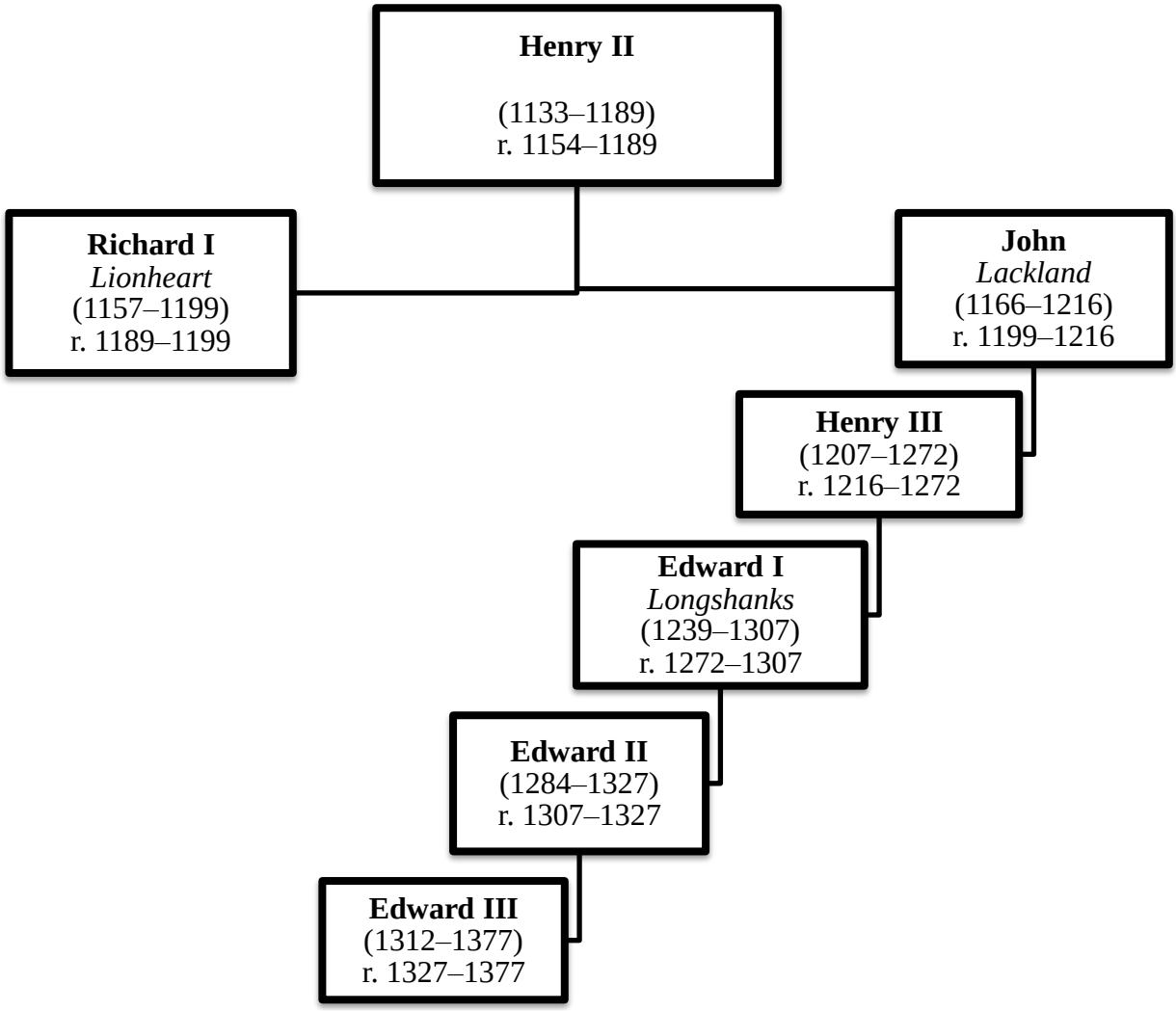


At the time both the possible heirs to Henry were on their own estates. Matilda was with her husband in Anjou and Henry's nephew, Stephen of Blois, was in Boulogne, only a day's journey by sea from England. As Henry had done before him, Stephen raced to England to claim the crown. Also as before, the nobles in England had to choose between Stephen, who was in England, and Matilda, who had quarreled with her father and who was still in France. Most

chose Stephen, who was good at fighting but little else. He was described at the time as “of outstanding skill in arms, but in other things almost an idiot”.

Only a few nobles supported Matilda’s claim. Matilda invaded England four years later. Her fight with Stephen led to a terrible civil war in which villages were destroyed and many people were killed. Neither side could win. Finally in 1153, Matilda and Stephen agreed that Stephen could keep the throne but only if Matilda’s son, Henry, could succeed him. Fortunately for England, Stephen died the following year, and the family possessions of England and the lands in France were united under a king accepted by everyone. In December 1154, the young and vigorous Henry II became king of England following the anarchy and civil war of Stephen’s reign.

The House of Plantagenet



Henry II was the first unquestioned ruler of the English throne for a hundred years. He destroyed the castles which many nobles had built without royal permission during Stephen’s reign, and made sure that they lived in manor

houses that were undefended. The manor again became the centre of local life and administration.

Henry II was a ruler of far more land than any previous king. As lord of Anjou he added his father's lands to the family empire. After his marriage to Eleanor of Aquitaine he also ruled the lands south of Anjou. Henry II's empire stretched from the Scottish border to the Pyrenees.

England provided most of Henry's wealth, but the heart of his empire lay in Anjou. And although Henry recognized the king of France as the overlord of all his French lands, he actually controlled a greater area than the king of France. Many of Henry's nobles held land on both sides of the English Channel.

However, Henry quarrelled with his beautiful and powerful wife, and his sons, Richard and John, took Eleanor's side. It may seem surprising that Richard and John fought against their own father, but in fact they were doing their duty to the king of France, their feudal overlord, in payment for the lands they held from him. In 1189 Henry died a broken man, disappointed and defeated by his sons and by the French king.

Henry II was followed by his rebellious son. Richard I was one of England's most popular kings, although he spent hardly any time in England. He was brave, and a good soldier, but his nickname *Coeur de Lion*, "lionheart", shows that his culture, like that of the kings before him, was French. Richard was everyone's idea of the perfect feudal king. He went to the Holy Land to make war on the Muslims and he fought with skill, courage and honour. On his way back from the Holy Land Richard was captured by the duke of Austria, with whom he had quarrelled in Jerusalem. The duke demanded money before he would let him go, and it took two years for England to pay. Shortly after, in 1199, Richard was killed in France. When he died the French king took over parts of Richard's French lands to rule himself.

So during the 12th century English kings ruled over areas of land on the continent and were often at war with the French kings in disputes over ownership. In England a strict feudal system was imposed. Great nobles, or barons, were responsible directly to the king; lesser lords, each owning a village, were directly responsible to a baron. Under them were the peasants, tied by a strict system of mutual duties and obligations to the local lord, and forbidden to travel without his permission. The peasants were the English-speaking Saxons. The lords and the barons were the French-speaking Normans. This was the beginning of the English class system.

Linguistic Situation in Norman Britain

One of the most obvious changes was the introduction of the *Anglo-Norman language* as the language of the ruling classes in England, displacing the

Anglo-Saxon language. Anglo-Norman retained the status of a prestige language for nearly 300 years and has had a significant influence on modern English.

The French language dominated in many spheres of life. It was the official language of administration, the language of the king's court, the law courts, the church, the army and the castle. It was also the everyday language of many nobles, of the higher clergy and of many town people in the south. The intellectual life, literature and education were in the hands of French-speaking people; French, alongside Latin, was the language of writing. Teaching was largely conducted in French and boys at school were taught to translate their Latin into French instead of English.

For all that, England never stopped being an English-speaking country. The bulk of the population held fast to their own tongue: the lower classes in the towns, and especially in the countryside, in the Midlands and up north, continued to speak English and looked upon French as foreign and hostile. Since most of the people were illiterate, the English language was almost exclusively used for spoken communication.

Norman barons and the French town dwellers had to pick up English words. At first the two languages existed side by side without mingling. Then, slowly, they began to permeate each other. The Normans used English to make themselves understood, while the English began to use French words in current speech. A good knowledge of French would mark a person of higher standing giving him a certain social prestige. Probably many people became bilingual.

The struggle between French and English was bound to end in the complete victory of English, for English was the living language of the entire people, while French was restricted to certain social spheres and to writing. The earliest sign of the official recognition of English by the Norman kings was the famous Proclamation issued by Henry III in 1258. It was written in three languages: French, Latin and English.

The three hundred years of the domination of French affected English more than any other foreign influence before or after. The French borrowings reflect the spheres of Norman influence upon English life.

One interpretation of the Conquest maintains that England became a cultural and economic backwater for almost 150 years after. Few kings of England actually resided in England, but ruled from cities in Normandy. The country remained an unimportant appendage of Norman lands. The conquerors remained ethnically distinct from the native population of England but over the centuries, the two groups merged.

Magna Carta and the Decline of Feudalism

After Richard's death, who had spent only six months of his reign in England and his wars on the Continent had cost England a lot of money and

weakened the Crown; his wicked brother John became king of England. He lost Normandy and other territories in the wars against the king of France. The fact justified his nickname "Lackland". His vassals came over to England to receive lands and titles. John began to give the lands and castles of the first Norman barons, who had come with the Conqueror, to the newcomers. Hatred for King John united the old barons, bishops and the Anglo-Saxons in their almost open struggle against the king. In the civil war which broke out, the barons worked out a programme which King John was finally forced to sign and seal. Magna Carta, or the Great Charter, was signed on June 10, 1215. The document was a detailed statement of how the king's government ought to work and what kind of relations there ought to be in a feudal state between the monarch and his vassals.

Magna Carta was the first document to lay the basis for the British Constitution. It marks a clear stage in the collapse of English feudalism. Vassals were gradually beginning to change into *tenants*. Feudalism, the use of land in return for service, was beginning to weaken.

At the beginning of the 13th century the strong system of government which the Normans had introduced meant that the Anglo-Norman kingdom was the most powerful political force on the British Isles. Not surprisingly therefore, the authority of the English monarch gradually extended to other parts of these islands in the next 250 years. By the end of the 13th century, a large part of eastern Ireland was controlled by Anglo-Norman lords in the name of the English king and the whole of Wales was under his direct rule (from that time the custom of naming the monarch's eldest son the 'Prince of Wales' began). Scotland managed to remain politically independent in the mediaeval period, but was obliged to fight occasional wars to do so. It was in this period that Parliament began its gradual evolution into the democratic body which it is today.

The Beginnings of British Parliament

The origins of the parliament are to be found in the reign of Henry III, whose accession to the throne is considered to mark the start of the Plantagenet dynasty. He tried to centre all power in his hands. Several times he demanded money from the Great Council but the barons refused to grant money. The first attempt to curb the power of the king and his foreign advisers was made by Simon de Montfort, the leader of barons and a new merchant class. In 1258, they took over the government and elected a council of nobles which Simon de Montfort called *parliament* (from the French word "parler" – "to speak"). The nobles were supported by the towns, which wished to be free of Henry's heavy taxes. In 1265, de Montfort called "two knights from every shire, two representatives from every borough" to his parliament. The first Parliament was quite a revolutionary body. It represented the interests of barons, the clergy and the new class of merchants.

In 1295, Henry III's son, Edward I, called a parliament that became known as the Model Parliament at which barons, earls and the high clergy were present, together with the knights and burgesses representing the shires and boroughs. The House of Commons as a separate Chamber resulted from the unofficial meetings of those knights and burgesses. The person, chosen to 'speak' for those 'commons' in Parliament, became known as *the Speaker*. So, at the end of the 13th century Parliament was divided into the Lords (the barons) and the Commons (the knights and the burgesses). The alliance between the merchants and the squires paved the way to the growth of parliamentary power.

England's Interest in Wales, Ireland and Scotland

Edward I was less interested in winning back parts of France than in bringing the rest of Britain under his control.

So, the Welsh who were free from English rule lived around Snowdon, were led by Llewellyn, prince of Gwynedd. Edward was determined to defeat him and bring Wales completely under his control. In 1282, Llewellyn was captured and killed. Edward then began a programme of castle building which was extremely expensive and took many years to complete.

In 1284, Edward united west Wales with England, bringing the English county system to the newly conquered lands. The English considered that Wales had become part of England. At a public ceremony at Caernarvon Edward I made his own baby son (later Edward II) Prince of Wales. From that time the eldest son of the ruling king or queen has usually been made Prince of Wales.

Before Edward became king of England his father Henry II had forced the Irish chiefs and Norman lords to accept his lordship. Henry II made Dublin the capital of his new colony. Edward I took as much money and as many men as he could for his wars against the Welsh and Scots. As a result Ireland was drained of its wealth. By 1318 it was able to provide the English king with only one-third of the amount it had been able to give in 1272. The Norman nobles and Irish chiefs quietly avoided English authority as much as possible. As a result, the English Crown only controlled Dublin and a small area around it, known as "the Pale".

In Scotland things were very different. Although Scottish kings had sometimes accepted the English king as their "overlord", they were much stronger than the many Welsh kings had been. Only the English king with a large army could hope to defeat the Scots. Most English kings hadn't even tried, but Edward I was different.

In 1290 a crisis took place over the succession of the Scottish throne. There were thirteen possible heirs. Among them the most likely to succeed were John de Balliol and Robert Bruce, both Norman-Scottish knights. In order to avoid civil war the Scottish nobles invited Edward I to settle the matter.

Edward had already shown interest in joining Scotland to his kingdom. In 1286, he arranged for his own son to marry Margaret, the heir to the Scottish throne, but she died in a shipwreck. Now he had another chance. He told both men that they must do homage to him, and so accept his overlordship, before he would help settle the question. He then invaded Scotland and put one of them, John de Balliol, on the Scottish throne.

De Balliol's four years as king were not happy. First, Edward made him provide money and troops for the English army and the Scottish nobles rebelled. Then Edward invaded Scotland again, and captured all the main Scottish castles. During the invasion Edward stole the sacred Stone of Destiny on which, so the legend said, all Scottish kings must sit. Edward believed that without the Stone, any Scottish coronation would be meaningless, and that his own possession of the Stone would persuade the Scots to accept him as king. However, neither he nor his successors became kings of Scots, and the Scottish kings managed perfectly well without it.

Edward's treatment of the Scots created a popular resistance movement. At first it was led by William Wallace, a Norman-Scottish knight. Edward captured Wallace and executed him, putting his head on a pole on London Bridge. Edward tried to make Scotland a part of England, as he had done with Wales. Some Scottish nobles accepted him, but the people refused to be ruled by the English king. Scottish nationalism was born on the day Wallace died.

A new leader took up the struggle. That was Robert Bruce, who had competed with John de Balliol for the throne. He was able to raise an army and defeat the English army in Scotland. Edward I gathered another great army and marched against Robert Bruce, but he died on the way north in 1307. On Edward's grave the words "Edward, the Hammer of the Scots" were written. He had intended to hammer them into the ground and destroy them, but in fact he had hammered them into a nation.

After his death his son, Edward II, turned back to England. Bruce had time to defeat his Scottish enemies, and make himself accepted as king of the Scots. He then began to win back the castles still held by the English. When Edward II invaded Scotland in 1314 in an effort to help the last English-held castles, Bruce destroyed his army at Bannockburn, near Stirling. Six years later, in 1320, the Scots clergy meeting at Arbroath wrote to the pope in Rome to tell him that they would never accept English authority: "for as long as even one hundred of us remain alive, we will never consent to subject ourselves to the dominion of the English".

The 13th-Century Culture in Britain

The 13th century in Britain witnessed the founding of the two great universities at Cambridge and Oxford. In 1214 Oxford received a charter from

the Pope, and by the end of the 13th century four colleges had been founded and the university had become famous all over Europe. Cambridge is generally considered to date from 1209.

The Norman barons were followed to England by the churchmen, minstrels, merchants and artisans. Each rank of society had its own literature. Monks wrote historical chronicles in Latin. Scholars in universities wrote about their experiments, also in Latin. The aristocracy wrote their poetry in Norman-French. But the peasants and townspeople made up their songs and ballads in Anglo-Saxon.

Ballads about Robin Hood were composed and sung throughout the 12th and the 13th centuries. They describe Robin Hood, the famous legendary outlaw of the period as a strong, brave and skilful archer who would not accept Norman rule but lived free in Sherwood Forest.

Architecture experienced the development of the early Gothic style. It was in this style that the original Westminster Abbey was constructed.

Test Your Knowledge

1. What date is commonly known as the date of the Norman Conquest?
2. What measures did William the Conqueror undertake to strengthen and centralize his power?
3. What was the basis of feudal society?
4. What is the Domesday Book?
5. What was the linguistic situation in England after the Norman Conquest?
6. Why was Henry II the first unquestioned ruler of the English throne for a hundred years?
7. What was the main reason for the barons' struggle against King John?
8. When was Magna Carta signed?
9. Why is Magna Carta so highly respected in the country?
10. What role did Simon de Montfort play in the history of Britain?
11. When was the first parliament summoned?
12. When was Parliament divided into the Lords and the Commons?
13. Who were the leaders of Scottish popular resistance movement against England?
14. When did the custom of naming the monarch's eldest son the 'Prince of Wales' begin?
15. Which English king was nicknamed "the Hammer of the Scots"?
16. When were the two great universities at Cambridge and Oxford founded?

Lecture 4

TUDOR ENGLAND (15th–16th CENTURIES)

The 14th–16th centuries was not always a peaceful time for England. Magna Carta, which limited royal power and established common law, formed the basis of many conflicts between the king and his vassals in the following century in the country. Catastrophic events, wars, social unrest were some of the key events, but there was also a highly remarkable period in the English history connected with flourishing of science, arts and literature.

England in the 14th Century

The 14th century in England saw the Great Famine. In the spring of 1315 unusually heavy rain began in much of Europe. Throughout the spring and summer, it continued to rain and the temperature remained cool. These conditions caused widespread crop failures. The price of food began to rise. Salt, the only way to preserve meat, was difficult to obtain because it could not be extracted through evaporation in the wet weather. All segments of society from nobles to peasants were affected, but especially the peasants who were the overwhelming majority of the population and who had no reserve food supplies. The height of the famine was reached in 1317 as the wet weather continued. Finally, in the summer the weather returned to its normal patterns. By now, however, people were so weakened by diseases such as pneumonia, bronchitis, and tuberculosis, and so much of the seed stock had been eaten, that it was not until 1325 that the food supply returned to relatively normal conditions and the population began to increase again.

The epidemic of plague, commonly known as the Black Death, covered southern England in 1348 and by the end of 1349 it had spread north to central Scotland, carrying death and destruction. It interrupted a process that had been transforming the villages for nearly a hundred years. By the time of the Black Death many of the serfs had come to an arrangement with their lords to pay money instead of services. The plan was convenient for both sides. The effects of the plague were momentous. The great decrease in population increased wages, gave more freedom to the serfs, and caused the land to decline in value. It disrupted industry and trade and depopulated whole villages. By 1350, the Black Death had reduced England's population by about a third. About 1,000 villages were destroyed or depopulated.

In 1337 the Hundred Years' War started between England and France. The high taxation necessary to finance the war and the Black Death led to such extreme hardship for the peasant class that there was a revolt in 1381. Sixty thousand people led by Wat Tyler marched from Kent to London. The rebels destroyed the Royal Courts, several prisons, killed the king's men, beheaded the

archbishop of Canterbury. On June 14 the rebels met the king, Richard II, who was only 14 years of age at the time, and handed their demands. The king promised to make everyone free man and abolish feudal dues. During the second meeting with the king Wat Tyler was treacherously killed and the rebels dispersed in confusion hoping that Richard would respect his promises. However, the king deceived the rebels and crushed the revolt. But though the rising failed, it led to some improved conditions for the peasant class (the serfdom was abolished, the serf was gradually becoming a free peasant) and it was the first step towards the ending of the feudal system in England.

In the 14th century new economic relations began to take shape within the feudal system. As England's wealth was its land, farming and cattle breeding were the main rural occupations. Corn and dairy goods were the main articles of agricultural produce. England's most important industry, textiles, was also based on the land, producing the finest wool in Europe. Wool trade became the most profitable business. A wool sack has remained in the House of Lords since that time as a symbol of England's source of wealth. As the demand for wool and cloth rose, the country began to export woollen cloth produced by the first big enterprises – the manufactures. Landowners evicted peasants and enclosed their lands with ditches and fences, turning them into vast pastures.

The growth of trade promoted the growth of towns. London, the residence of the Norman kings, became the most populous town of England. Many towns got 'charters of freedom'. People who lived inside the town walls were free from feudal rule. It was the beginning of a middle class and capitalist economy. In towns, the central role was played by guilds, brotherhoods of merchants or artisans. Each guild tried to protect its own trade interests.

The Hundred Years' War

The term "Hundred Years' War" (1337–1453) is used for a series of wars which lasted, including intervals of peace, for more than a hundred years. The causes of the war were both political and economic.

The struggle resulted from the English possession of territory in France, which began with William the Conqueror, and from the French desire to drive out the invaders. King Edward III of England claimed the French throne because he was a grandson of the late French king and wanted to get back the English possessions in France which had already been lost. One more reason was that English merchants traded with free towns of Flanders but the French feudal lords seized those free towns, deprived England of its traditional wool market. England could not afford the destruction of overseas trade. The threat to their trade with Flanders persuaded the English merchants that war against France was inevitable.

The beginning of the campaign was rather successful for England because of its military supremacy. Due to the newly invented cannons the English defeated the French army in several battles, regained their lands on the continent. But then the territories gained at the beginning of the war were lost. The French victory marked the end of a long period of instability that had started with the Norman Conquest, when William the Conqueror added "King of England" to his titles, becoming both the vassal to (as Duke of Normandy) and the equal of (as king of England) the king of France.

When the war ended, England lost its Continental possessions, having only Calais on the continent. The war destroyed the English dream of a joint monarchy and led to the rejection in England of all things French. English became the official language in 1362 and French was no longer used for teaching from 1385.

The 14th century gave the world Geoffrey Chaucer, a writer of the new class, the bourgeoisie. He was the first to break away from mediaeval forms and paved the way to realism in literature. His greatest work, *The Canterbury Tales*, is a series of stories told by a number of pilgrims on their way to Canterbury.

The Wars of the Roses

The Wars of the Roses (1455–1485) started on the background of England's defeat in the Hundred Years' War, after the end of which the feudal lords and their hired armies came home from France. They were greatly dissatisfied with their losses and could not adjust themselves to the serious changes in the economic life of the country, which had occurred during the long struggle between England and France. For these nobles and their bands of soldiers war had become a profession. They were unfit for peaceful work. Because of the lack of powerful central government and the reign of anarchy, a general outbreak of feudal strife was inevitable.

Two most powerful feudal families, the House of York and the House of Lancaster, started a series of wars fighting for the possession of the throne. That struggle turned into a civil war which was named the Wars of the Roses after their emblems – the white rose, which was the emblem of the House of York, and the red rose, which symbolized the House of Lancaster. The various noble families related to these two Houses formed ranks behind them. Towns loyal to Yorkist families closed their gates to all Lancastrians. The court shut out all Yorkists. London was filled by armed followers of both parties.

The battle of Bosworth, fought on August 22, 1485 ended the Wars of the Roses, which lasted 30 years, and with them the whole historic epoch in England. Henry of Richmond or Henry Tudor won this battle against Richard III. The latter was killed in battle. "The king is dead. Long live the king!" is a strange English saying. It means that as soon as a king is dead, another must take his place. Henry

Tudor became Henry VII. Moreover, Henry was wise enough to marry the heiress of the House of York, uniting the rival houses and forming a new monarchy, the Tudor monarchy. It was supported by the new nobility and the emerging bourgeoisie, clothiers, as the wool capitalists came to be called, that is those people, who valued security which was necessary for the development of the economy, and who feared the resumption of feudal wars and anarchy.

Henry VII's victory in 1485 conventionally marks the end of the Middle Ages in England and the start of the Early Modern period.

The Start of an Absolute Monarchy

The Tudor period usually refers to the historical period between 1485 and 1558, which coincides with the rule of the Tudor dynasty in England.

Henry VII felt that he had to restore the English Crown to its former position. The Wars of the Roses had undermined agriculture, trade and industry. Moreover, they had undermined confidence in monarchy as an institution: the king was seen unable or unwilling to protect the rights of all his subjects. The royal government was manipulated by individuals who fell in and out of favour. The king had to restore his right not only to reign, but also to rule.

Crushing down the old nobility, confiscating the lands of the defeated, Henry VII began to create a new nobility coming from the upper layers of society and directly dependent upon the Crown. Just as the king required the merchants, who supplied him with the money to govern, so did the merchants need a powerful king, who guaranteed their commercial activities against feudal anarchy. The peasantry too supported the Crown, for instead of many evils, feudal violence and lawlessness, it preferred one evil – the king.

King Henry VII established an absolute monarchy. Remembering the lessons of the civil war he forbade any nobleman to keep armed men. At the same time, the king built a regular army that obeyed nobody but him. Henry strengthened England's prestige and wealth by commercial treaties that restored the country's position in the European market. Realising that England's future depended on international trade, he freely spent money on building ships for a merchant fleet.

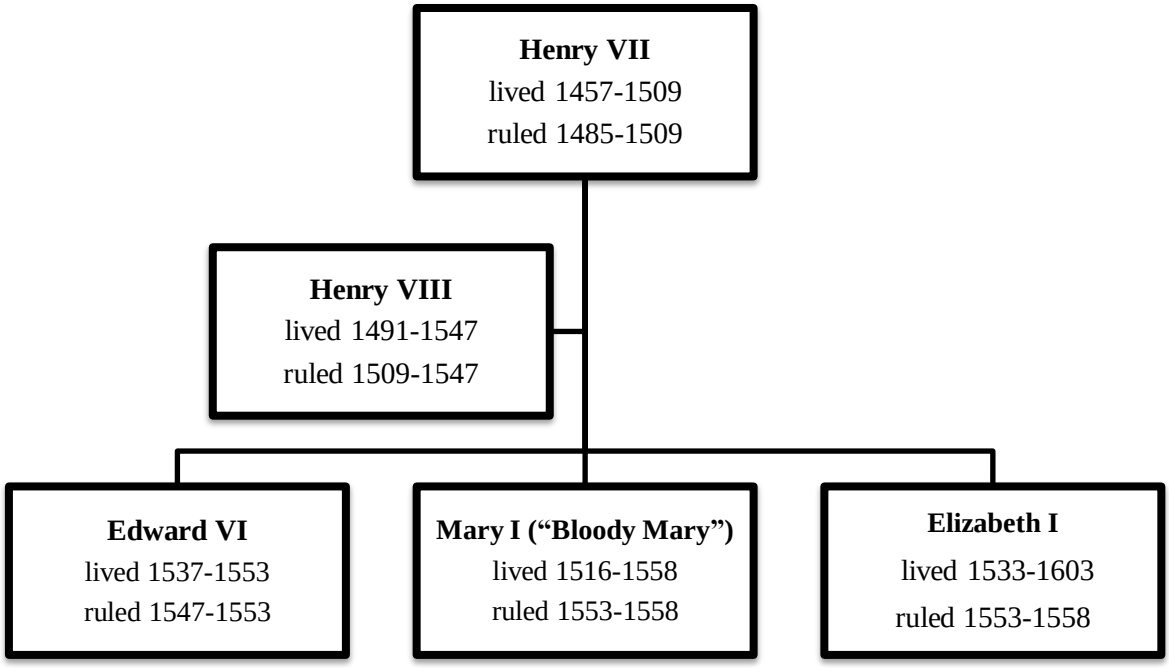
Henry VII made peace with France. In order to avoid military conflicts with Spain and Scotland he married his elder son Arthur, and after his death, Henry, to the Spanish princess Catherine of Aragon, and his daughter Margaret to King James IV of Scotland. It was also during his reign that England started its famous policy of 'divide and rule', preventing any country of Europe from becoming overwhelmingly strong.

Under Henry VII's reign England took an interest in North America. Although Henry refused to help Columbus who approached him in search of

financial support, he backed the voyages of James Cabot, who in 1497 discovered Newfoundland and sailed along the North American coast.

Henry VII was known for the efficiency of his financial and administrative policies. He introduced new methods of government concentrating all power in his hands. The ministers were personally selected by the king for their ability and loyalty. Henry VII was preoccupied with utmost economy. In a relatively short period of time he managed to establish a system of checks, the record of which never left his hands. He personally looked through all the record books and signed every page. When Henry VII died in 1509, he left about 2 million pounds, a vast sum equal to at least 15 years' ordinary revenue at the time.

The House of Tudor



The 15th century was the time of significant cultural outburst in England. In 1438 Johannes Gutenberg printed in Germany the first European book known as *The Gutenberg Bible*. The idea of printing quickly spread all over Europe. In 1476, the first English printer William Caxton printed the first English book, which made a great contribution to standardizing the English language. The concept of the norm had not existed before; it only appeared and was accepted as printed books spread all over England. The development of the printing technique promoted the spread of literacy and the literary norm.

The 15th century saw the increase of universities in number and scope. Oxford and Cambridge were joined by the University of St. Andrews in 1413, the University of Glasgow in 1451 and the University of Aberdeen in 1495.

The Reformation

By the beginning of the 15th century the Roman Catholic Church had become one of the greatest supporters of feudal power in England and one of the greatest feudal landowners. At the beginning of the 16th century it became evident that the existing feudal relations of production began to hamper economic progress both in industry and agriculture. Neither the English king, who was an absolute monarch, nor the English bourgeoisie, competing with their rivals in Europe to secure the expanding overseas colonial trade, could any longer afford to let the Pope intervene in English affairs. A major upheaval in this respect was the Reformation of the 16th century, the establishment of the Anglican Church with the king as its head.

The question of Henry VIII's divorce from his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, was a convenient pretext to break away from Rome. For this purpose Henry VIII called parliament, the so-called Reformation Parliament, which stayed in session seven years and passed several acts, of which the most important was the Act of Supremacy (1534) which recognized the Anglican Church as the official church in the country with Henry VIII as its head. However, the new church differed little from the former Catholic Church, which was a reason for further discontent in the country and which eventually led to the emergence of the Puritan movement in England.

When the Church was brought under the control of the State, the king took the English Reformation further. He ordered to have a careful survey of all Church property, the first properly organised tax survey since the time of the Domesday Book. Henry VIII closed down 823 monasteries and confiscated their property. As Church lands and property were sold to the rising classes of merchants and landowners, Henry's policy made him popular with them. Monastery buildings were either neglected or destroyed and the stone was used as building material.

The English bourgeoisie having accumulated power and wealth at home was interested in colonial expansion. In those ventures Henry VIII assisted the merchants by granting them charters and patents to trade and to found overseas settlements. He built a modern Royal Navy and got the nickname "Father of the English Navy". Upon his death, he left a fleet of 53 warships.

He patronized the arts and astronomy and was well-read in theology. At the same time, he was pleasure-seeking and wasteful with money. He spent so much on maintaining a magnificent court and wars, that his father's money was soon gone. Gold and silver from America added to the economic inflation. In order to raise more money, Henry ordered to reduce the amount of silver used in coins. Although that step resulted in immediate profit, it led to a dramatic rise in prices. Within twenty-five years, the English coinage was reduced to a seventh of its value.

As for Henry VIII's family life, he married Anne Boleyn who bore him a daughter, the future Queen Elizabeth I. Anne was suspected of adultery and beheaded in 1536 and Henry married Jane Seymour who died in 1537 leaving him a son. Then came Henry's marriage to Anne of Cleves which was later annulled. Henry's fifth wife, Catherine Howard, was executed for adultery in 1542. His last marriage was to Catherine Parr who survived him and died in 1548, a year after his death. Henry VIII died of leg ulcer which made his last years a misery.

Henry VIII's son Edward, who came to the throne at the age of 9, reigned only 6 years and died of tuberculosis. The crown went to Mary Tudor also known as Bloody Mary. The only surviving child of Henry VIII and Catherine of Aragon, Mary was a Catholic. She reestablished Roman Catholicism as the nation's only creed and burned 283 Protestant martyrs. After marrying King Philip of Spain she joined Spain in a war against France and lost the remaining English possession on the continent, Calais (1558). Upon her death, the throne went to her half sister Elizabeth.

Together with the ideas of the Reformation came the ideas of the Renaissance.

The Golden Age of English History

The most significant period of the Renaissance falls on the reign of Queen Elizabeth (1558–1603). The daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn, she was born out of wedlock and later legitimized by an Act of Parliament. Upon her mother's execution, she fell out of favour and was allowed to appear at court only when Henry married Catherine Parr. During the reign of her half sister Mary I, Elizabeth was imprisoned in the Tower.

When she came to the throne in 1558, she faced the problems of religious strife, unstable finance, war with France and tense relations with Scotland. She ended the war with France and re-established the Church of England. She imprisoned her rival – Mary, Queen of Scots – and in 1587 had her executed for treason.

Elizabeth was a strong and cautious ruler who set her enemies against one another in order to strengthen the position of England. During her reign, England established itself as a major European power in politics and commerce. England's success in commerce brought prosperity to the nation and gave a chance to many people of talent to develop their abilities. Merchants formed the East India Company in 1600.

Among the favourites of the Queen was the celebrated traveller Sir Walter Raleigh, who wrote poetry and history. Sir Walter organized expeditions to colonize North America. It was he who introduced tobacco and potatoes to

England. He also founded a colony on the American coast which he called Virginia in honour of Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen.

The Queen also favoured Sir Francis Drake, Admiral of Her Majesty's Navy. Searching for the passage around the north of America he was the first European to sight the west coast of present-day Canada. Then he sailed across the Pacific to the Philippines, and headed across the Indian Ocean for the Cape of Good Hope. In 1580 he returned into Plymouth Harbour with treasure and spices aboard.

For years Elizabeth played a diplomatic game with the rival interests of France and Spain. During the Elizabethan age, preying on Spanish ships became almost a national pastime. By 1580 it was clear that England couldn't avoid a direct military confrontation with Spain. The Spanish king Philip II began to assemble an enormous fleet to conquer Protestant England. Spain had the strongest fleet of ships called the Invincible Armada, which had never been defeated. In July 1588 the Invincible Armada reached England's waters. Fortunately for England, Spanish ships were not built for sea-battles, while the English vessels were capable of manoeuvering and fighting under sail: for Drake, the ship was a fighting unit. In 1588 the Queen's 30 ships led by Francis Drake defeated the enemy fleet, and a terrible storm destroyed what was left of it.

The defeat of the Armada was announced in the first newspaper printed in England, specially, for the occasion. The great victory inspired a burst of patriotism that was reflected in the poetry and the drama of the period.

Her reign is considered by many as the Golden Age of English history, producing not only a gallery of authors of genius, some of whom have never been surpassed. England experienced the true cultural reawakening of thought and art. Elizabeth's court was a magnet, which attracted the most talented individuals of the era. Music, poetry, literature and drama flourished, largely due to the Queen's love of the arts. Her tastes set the standards for the aristocracy and the rest of society; they fostered an atmosphere in which many of England's greatest writers found encouragement and financial support. A newly rich merchant class as well as the nobility wanted entertainment and fine arts and were willing to pay for them. Writers, painters, and musicians flocked to London, making it a European cultural centre.

Elizabethan architecture changed the medieval styles, bringing out the beauty of the Renaissance. More houses than churches began to be built. The most significant architectural features of the period were classical symmetry, which was the Elizabethan visual expression of order and harmony. The most famous architect of the period, Inigo Jones, was famous for building Banqueting House of Whitehall in London.

The Elizabethans created an elaborate system of activities and events to keep themselves entertained. The Queen herself was fond of hunting parties, dancing and music. Musical literacy was expected in the upper class of society. Many Elizabethans made their own music. The lute, virginal, viola, recorder, bagpipe and the fiddle were favoured instruments of that time. A popular form of entertainment in the countryside was the ringing of church bells. In the major towns, official musicians gave free public concerts. The wealthy people hired musicians to play during dinners. The new form of secular music was the madrigal which originally came from Italy. The first English musician to compose madrigals was William Byrd. He founded one of the strongest and most famous musical schools, especially in virginal playing.

It was a period of great advances in medicine, particularly in the study of human anatomy and surgical operations and the study of the universe. Inventions of the period include the graphite pencil, the modern calendar, wind-powered sawmill, and the thermoscope (primitive thermometer).

In natural philosophy, Sir Francis Bacon, completed the break from the mediaeval scholastic method, laid down for the first time the classification of the natural sciences, and prepared the way for modern experimental science. He made a distinguished parliamentary career under Elizabeth I. As a scholar, he wrote mostly in Latin as he believed English would not last. He is also known for his *Essays* – a collection of brief witty observations on various subjects: reading, education, death, revenge, gardens, etc. The essays are admirably clear and simple and some statements are as memorable as poetry: '*God Almighty first planted a garden*', '*Revenge is a kind of wild justice*', '*Men fear death as children fear to go in the dark*'. According to some critics (or fanatics?), it was Francis Bacon who wrote Shakespeare's plays among other things.

For different reasons Elizabeth never got married, but used this possibility as a diplomatic tool, and came to be known in history as the Virgin Queen. Long before her death, she had transformed herself into a powerful image of female authority, regal magnificence and national pride. She portrayed the image of herself as the humble wife to her superior husband, England, and as a servant of the people.

The Elizabethan Lifestyle

From the beginning to the end of each year, Elizabethans found ways to keep themselves entertained. A major part of the Elizabethan lifestyle was connected with feasts and festivals. Every season of the year had special days that drew the people together to celebrate. One of the greatest festivals of the year was held at Easter time. The Mayday celebration consisted of decorating the maypole and dancing around it. In summer, bonfires were burned and dances

were held to celebrate Midsummer's Eve on June 24. The winter holidays began with Christmas, ran through New Year's Eve and ended on the Twelfth Night, January 5. These holidays included gifts, bonfires, music and jollity.

Dancing was a popular activity and varied according to a social class. Sports played a major role in the leisure time of the Elizabethan Age. Some of the indoor games included dice, chess, checkers and a variety of card games. Some of the outdoor sports and games included golf, horse racing, swimming, fishing, hunting, fencing, duelling and cricket. While the upper class enjoyed tennis, common people preferred football.

The English Renaissance

The "English Renaissance" is a term often used to describe a cultural and artistic movement in England from the early 16th century to the mid-17th century. It is distinct from the Italian Renaissance in several ways. First, the dominant art form of the English Renaissance was literature, while the Italian Renaissance was driven much more by the visual arts. Second, the English movement came later than Italian.

By the middle of the 16th century, education had spread among the sons of common citizens. The development of literary competence of the language and advances in education were followed by new printing techniques. Accelerated output of printed books made lyric poetry and prose publicly available.

The Tudors badly needed educated diplomats, statesmen and officials. The new learning implied a systematic schooling in Latin and Greek authors.

English poetry and prose burst into sudden glory in the late 1570s. The greatest literature created during the period falls into two categories: poetry and drama. Influenced by Italian sonnets, English writers began introducing complicated poetic structures in both verse and prose.

Elizabethan drama was greatly influenced by Roman authors whose works were translated from Latin into English. University students translated Roman plays into English and tried to write plays of their own imitating the Roman patterns. Elizabeth I was a patron of drama and encouraged its development by frequently attending performances.

The most famous pre-Shakespearian writers of drama were George Peele, Robert Greene (comedies), Thomas Kyd and Christopher Marlowe (tragedies). They belonged to the group known as the "University Wits". They were graduates of Oxford and Cambridge, men with learning and talent but no money. Most plays were written in verse.

The three great poetic geniuses of that time were Christopher Marlowe, Edmund Spenser, and William Shakespeare.

Edmund Spenser's first poem *The Shepherd's Calendar* made him the first poet of the day. He wrote *The Faerie Queene*, an epic poem describing a

12-day feast honouring the Queen of Fairyland. It was a public poem addressed to Elizabeth I. When Spenser presented 'his simple song', as he called it, to the Queen, the success of the poem was tremendous. The Queen rewarded him with a pension of 50 pounds.

Christopher Marlowe was one of the first dramatists of the time. His reputation as a dramatist rests on four plays: *Doctor Faustus*, *Tamburlaine*, *The Jew of Malta* and *Edward II*.

The University Wits paved the way to William Shakespeare, the greatest of all humanists who marks the highest point of English Renaissance drama. Shakespeare produced most of his known works between 1589 and 1613. His early plays were primarily comedies and histories and are regarded as some of the best work produced in these genres. Until about 1608, he wrote mainly tragedies, among them *Hamlet*, *Othello*, *King Lear*, and *Macbeth*. In the last phase of his life, he wrote tragicomedies.

Nearing the end of the Tudor dynasty, philosophers like Sir Thomas More and Sir Francis Bacon published their own ideas about humanity and the aspects of a perfect society. As England abolished its astrologers and alchemists, it came closer to reaching modern science with the *Baconian Method*, a forerunner of the *Scientific Method*. All of these developments would lead England to reach a level of understanding like never before.

The end of this period in the history of England is marked by the increase of the power of the English monarch. The Tudor dynasty (1485–1603) established a system of government departments, staffed by professionals who depended for their position on the monarch. Parliament was traditionally split into two Houses. The House of Lords consisted of the feudal aristocracy and the leaders of the Church and the House of Commons consisted of representatives from the towns and the less important landowners in rural areas. It was now more important for monarchs to get the agreement of the Commons for policy-making because that was where the newly powerful merchants and landowners were represented.

Test Your Knowledge

1. What were the causes of the Great Famine of 1315–1317?
2. What were the results of the Black Death?
3. What were the reasons for the Peasants' Revolt in 1381?
4. Why did King Edward III of England declare war on France in 1337?
5. What was the result of the Hundred Years' War?
6. What item was the most profitable in the English trade of the 14th century?
7. Why was a series of wars of 1455–1485 called the Wars of the Roses?

8. Who was the first Tudor king who established an absolute monarchy? What monarchs belong to the House of Tudor?

9. Why did Henry VII freely spend money on building ships for a merchant fleet?

10. Can you prove that England took a great interest in North America in the 15th century?

11. Who made a great contribution to standardizing the English language?

12. What universities were founded in the 15th century?

13. What king of England got the nickname "Father of the English Navy"?

14. Why did Henry VIII quarrel with Pope and the Roman Church?

15. When did Elizabeth succeed to the throne? Under what circumstances did she become the Queen?

16. What Royal House did Elizabeth I belong to?

17. Why did the Elizabethan age become one of the most glorious periods in England's history?

18. When was the East India Company formed?

19. Who founded a colony on the American coast and called it in honour of Elizabeth?

20. When was the Invincible Armada defeated?

21. Who was the most famous architect of the period?

22. What name in natural philosophy became famous during the Golden Age?

23. What names in literature is English Renaissance connected with?

Lecture 5

ENGLAND IN THE 17th–18th CENTURIES

The 17th century became a period of constant change in British history. During the century Parliament established its supremacy over the monarchy in Britain. Anger grew in the country at the way that the Stuart monarchs raised money, especially because they did not get the agreement of the House of Commons to do so first. This was against ancient tradition. In addition Puritans regarded many of the practices of the Anglican Church, and also its hierarchical structure, as immoral. Some of them thought the luxurious lifestyle of the king and his followers was immoral too. They were also fiercely anti-Catholic and suspicious of the apparent sympathy towards Catholicism of the Stuart monarchs. This conflict led to the Civil War, which ended with complete victory for the parliamentary forces.

The First Stuart King of England

Until the early 17th century England and Scotland were two entirely independent kingdoms. The situation changed dramatically in 1603 on the death of Elizabeth I of England. James VI, king of Scotland, inherited the throne of England and became its king, James I of England. He was the first Stuart king of England. So the crowns of these two countries were united, though their parliaments, administrative and judicial systems continued to be separate.

Like all the Tudors, Elizabeth had appreciated the importance of trade and the merchant class. James I, who came from Scotland with its underdeveloped industry and negligible foreign trade, quickly threw them into opposition by his frankly pro-Spanish policy. In 1604 the war with Spain was ended with a peace treaty that was openly criticized in England, because it did not secure the right of trade with Spanish colonies. Soon peace with Spain passed into a policy of actual alliance, which infuriated the merchants and the Protestants. The navy was neglected. Traders complained of the attacks of pirates even in the English Channel. Holland began to replace Spain as England's chief rival at sea.

The change in James I's foreign policy led to serious problems in the situation at home. In 1605 a group of the king's opponents wanted to blow up the Houses of Parliament during the king's speech from the throne. The Gunpowder Plot was a failed attempt by a group of English Catholics to kill King James I, his family, and most of the Protestant aristocracy. The plot was intended to begin a rebellion during which James' nine-year-old daughter (Princess Elizabeth) could be installed as a Catholic head of the state.

At midnight on November 5, 1605 a party of armed men arrested Guy Fawkes who stated that it had been his purpose to destroy the King and the

Parliament. Today the English still mark Guy Fawkes' Night with bonfires and the following rhyme:

Remember, remember the Fifth of November –
Gunpowder Treason and plot.
For I see no reason why Gunpowder Treason
Should ever be forgot.

With the development of friendly relations with Spain, Catholics enjoyed a period of court favour. Both James I and his son Charles I were the descendants of the rebellious Mary, Queen of Scots. No wonder they were supported by Scotland and by English Catholics.

At the same time, the Puritans, who had developed their religious views in the relative freedom of Queen Elizabeth's reign, were outlawed by James I. In 1620 a large group of Puritans had to escape first to Holland, and then to America. They sailed on board the Mayflower which carried them from Plymouth to their new life in North America. They later came to be known as the Pilgrim Fathers. The Puritans, as well as the Protestants, opposed the regime of James I which, they believed, was working to restore Catholicism.

On the Eve of the Civil War

In the 17th century, England was still largely an agricultural country: only the east and the south were industrially developed. Yet, the bourgeoisie was powerful enough to organize a struggle against the monarchy, because it had the support of farmers and the new nobility – the gentry. Rich farmers were connected with the wool market, and their interests were the same as those of the bourgeoisie.

Convinced of the divine right of kings, the Stuart Kings James I and Charles I followed the medieval notion of monarchy, ignoring Parliament but Parliament had become powerful enough to quarrel with the King who raised taxes without the consent of the Commons. When in 1625 Charles I took his father's place on the throne he revived some feudal laws, which provoked a strong feeling of opposition. He also set Parliament against the royal family by marrying the sister of the French king, who was a Catholic and the marriage was unpopular in Protestant Britain. Charles I was eager to support the French king in his wars, and asked Parliament for money, explaining that England was in danger. Before granting him the money, the Commons wanted to know who the enemy was. Charles got out of the unpleasant situation by dismissing Parliament.

Then he summoned the second Parliament to ask for money. The Commons drew up a long list of complaints, and in a few months, the second Parliament was also dissolved. In the same way Charles I dissolved Parliament several times. Finally, the Commons put forward a list of demands: no taxation without the consent of Parliament, no imprisonment without trial, responsibility

of ministers appointed by the king to Parliament. Charles had to sign *The Petition of Rights*. The next day, the King, angry at the opposition, sent a message to the Speaker to dissolve Parliament, but Parliament refused to be dissolved. The infuriated King came down to Westminster himself. He arrested the leaders of the Opposition and decided never to call another Parliament.

For eleven years following 1628, the King ruled without Parliament. He chose his advisers who represented him in his relations with Scotland and Ireland. The harshness of their rule gave rise to a number of rebellions. In Parliament, the Puritans formed two parties: the Presbyterians and the Independents. The leader of the Independents was Oliver Cromwell, the man who later changed the course of events in English history.

In 1639, Scotland started a war against England. The need to have an army made the King call Parliament in 1640. The Commons criticized the King for mismanaging the country. Charles got angry and dissolved Parliament. In history, this Parliament is known as the "Short Parliament". But the Scots marched on into the north of England, and Charles was advised to summon Parliament again, so as to get money to raise the army. This parliament is known as the "Long Parliament" because it lasted for 19 years. Parliament passed an Act saying that the King's ministers should be responsible to Parliament, and that Parliament could be dismissed only by its own consent.

The Civil War and the Commonwealth

Charles I believed that he could turn the current of events in his favour by force. In the summer of 1642, the Civil War between the Cavaliers or the Royalists, supporters of the King, and the Roundheads, supporters of Parliament began. At the beginning, the war was favourable to the King. The Roundheads were brave enough but inexperienced in fighting, while the Cavaliers were all trained warriors. The Royalist leader was the King's nephew, Prince Rupert who had come from Germany to help his uncle. The most famous Parliamentarian general was Oliver Cromwell, a Member of Parliament. Cromwell started to train a body of soldiers, "a regiment on horse" and soon his army of a "New Model" was well-disciplined. Cromwell won two great battles against the Royalists – at Marston Moor, in 1644, and at Naseby, in 1645. Those two battles made Parliament supreme in the North and in the Midlands and finally, the King's army was destroyed.

The High Court was assembled together to try the King and to put an end to the war. The trial was held in Westminster Hall, and lasted several days. The King was found guilty and sentenced to death. Three days later, on January 30, 1649, Charles I was beheaded. England was proclaimed a Commonwealth (a Republic) and Oliver Cromwell became Lord Protector.

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

Cromwell's regime introduced a number of measures, which were to become moral rules for everyday life. Games and theatrical performances were prohibited. Statues and pictures were taken out of the churches. The music that followed services was excluded. Cromwell himself prohibited the celebration of Christmas and Easter.

When Cromwell died in 1658, the Protectorate, as his republican administration was called, collapsed.

The Restoration of Monarchy

But when Cromwell died, he, his system of government, and the puritan ethics that went with it became so unpopular that in 1661, Charles II, the son of the executed king was asked to take the throne. The laws and Acts of Cromwell's government were automatically cancelled. The Anglican Church was restored. That event is known as the Restoration. Charles II represented a complete contrast to the restrictive rule of Cromwell. He enjoyed horse-racing and was a great patron of the arts and sciences.

An interesting legend is connected with Charles II's return to London. On his way, Charles II stayed in the Tower. There, looking out of the window, he saw a flock of ravens on the lawn and ordered them to be shooed away. The soldiers started shooting them when the royal astrologist rushed into the king's chamber exclaiming, "Your Majesty! Don't you know that when the last raven leaves the Tower, great misfortunes will befall England?" Charles knew that the greatest misfortune that could befall England and him, personally, could be a loss of his head and ordered the ravens to be left in peace. Ever since that time, special provisions have been made for the ravens: they are fed and looked after by the Raven master.

Charles II managed his return with skill and wisdom. Unlike his father, he made peace with Parliament. Many MPs were given high positions. The King punished only those who were directly responsible for his father's death. Charles II hoped to make peace among different religious groups. He himself was attracted to the Catholic Church. Parliament knew that and was always afraid that Charles would become a Catholic. For this reason Parliament passed the Test Act in 1673, which prevented any Catholic from holding public office.

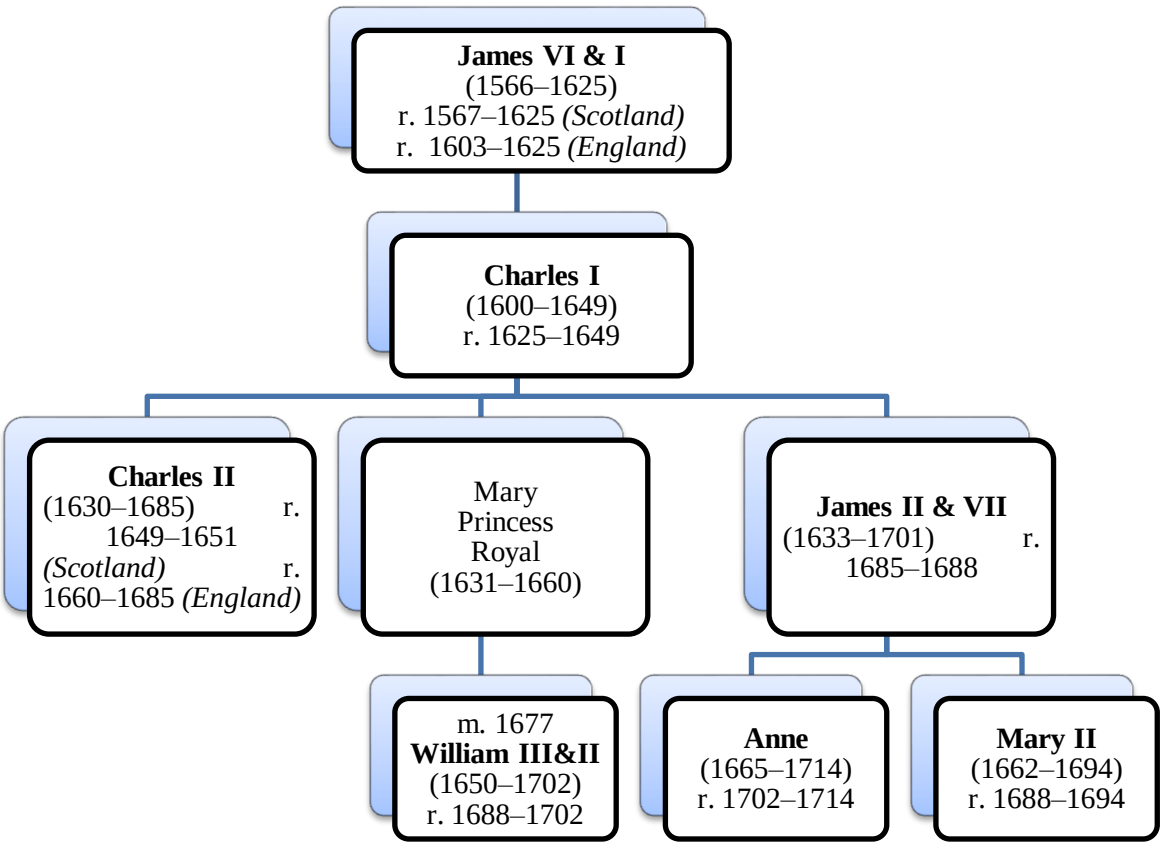
Fear of Charles's interest in the Catholic Church and of the monarchy becoming too powerful also resulted in the first political parties in Britain. One of these parties was a group of MPs who became known as "Whigs", a rude name for cattle drivers. The Whigs were afraid of an absolute monarchy, and of

the Catholic faith with which they connected it. They also wanted to have no regular or "standing" army. In spite of their fear of a Catholic king, the Whigs believed strongly in allowing religious freedom. Because Charles and his wife had no children, the Whigs feared that the Crown would go to Charles's Catholic brother, James. They wanted to prevent this, but they were undecided over who they did want as king.

The Whigs were opposed by another group, nicknamed "Tories", an Irish name for thieves. Generally speaking, however, the Tories upheld the authority of the Crown and the Church. The Whigs were not against the Crown, but they believed that its authority depended upon the consent of Parliament. These two parties, the Whigs and the Tories, became the basis of Britain's two-party parliamentary system of government.

The struggle over Catholicism and the Crown became a crisis when news was heard of a Catholic plot to murder Charles and put his brother James on the throne. In fact the plan did not exist. The story had been spread as a clever trick to frighten people and to make sure that James and the Catholics did not come to power. The trick worked. Parliament passed an Act forbidding any Catholic to be a member of either the Commons or the Lords. It was not successful, however, in preventing James from inheriting the crown.

The House of Stuart



James II became king after his brother's death in 1685 and introduced pro-Catholic reforms and, finally, converted to Catholicism himself. All that provoked Protestant hostility in the country. James II's opponents invited a Protestant – William, the Prince of Orange, to take the English crown. Parliament declared that James II had abdicated. The *'Glorious Revolution'* of 1688 ('glorious' because it was bloodless) followed, in which William and his Stuart wife Mary accepted Parliament's invitation to become king and queen and rule only with the support of Parliament. Parliament drew up the Bill of Rights, which limited some of the powers of the monarch and granted the rights of parliament. It also restricted the succession to the throne only to Protestants. The Bill of Rights laid the basis for constitutional monarchy.

King James II fled to Ireland but the Catholic Irish army he gathered there was defeated. Laws were then passed forbidding Catholics to vote or even own land. In Ulster, in the north of the country, large numbers of fiercely anti-Catholic Scottish Presbyterians settled. The descendants of those people are still known today as Orangemen.

Scientific Achievements in the Stuart Age

The Stuart age was the age of a revolution in scientific thinking. For the first time in history England took the lead in scientific discoveries. The Stuarts encouraged scientific studies. The Royal Society of London for the Promotion of Natural Knowledge was founded in 1645 and became an important centre for scientists and thinkers where they could meet and exchange ideas. Now it is Britain's oldest and most prestigious scientific institution.

Charles patronized trade, arts and science. Already at the beginning of the century, Francis Bacon argued that every scientific idea should be tested by experiment. Charles II gave a firm direction "to examine all systems, theories, principles, elements, histories and experiments of things natural, mathematical and mechanical". The English scientists of the 17th century put Bacon's ideas into practice.

In 1628 William Harvey discovered the circulation of blood, which led to great advances in medicine and in the study of the human body. The scientists Robert Boyle and Robert Hooke used Harvey's methods when they made discoveries in chemistry and mechanics of breathing.

In 1666 the Cambridge Professor of Mathematics, Sir Isaac Newton, began to study gravity and published his important discovery in 1684. In 1687, he published his *Principia*, one of the greatest books in the history of science. Newton's work remained the basis of physics until Einstein's discoveries in the 20th century. Newton's importance as a "founding father" of modern science was recognized in his own time.

In the 17th century there was a great deal of interest in astronomy. Newton's friend, Edmond Halley, is mostly remembered for tracking a comet in 1683, which has been known as Halley's Comet since. Charles II founded the Royal Observatory at Greenwich for observing heavenly bodies.

It was no incident that the greatest English architect of the time, Sir Christopher Wren, was also Professor of Astronomy at Oxford. After the Great Fire of London in 1666, the larger part of the City was destroyed, and when it was rebuilt, a new law made Londoners build new houses of stone and brick. Sir Christopher Wren was ordered to rebuild the churches destroyed in the Fire. The jewel of the new city was St. Paul's Cathedral. Almost every other church in the centre of London was designed by Wren or his assistants. The Royal Exchange and the Greenwich Observatory were also designed by Wren.

British Arts in the 17th Century

In the 17th century, English painting was greatly influenced by Flemish artists, especially Van Dyck. He spent a number of years at the court of Charles I, who was his patron. Towards the middle of the century, the name of the Englishman William Dobson became as well known as the name of his Flemish colleague. Another native-born English painter was Francis Barlow, who specialized in animal subjects, or scenes of country sports. One of his famous pictures is *Monkeys and Spaniels Playing* (1661). This kind of subject matter was to become immensely popular in the 18th and 19th centuries.

In music, the English finally produced a national composer who wrote operas. Henry Purcell, "the father of the English opera", may be compared to Bach and Handel. Purcell was also a talented keyboard player and song-composer. His most famous opera *Dido and Aeneas* is based on the ancient Roman story about a Trojan leader who escaped to Carthage after Troy was captured by the Greeks. There he met Queen Dido who fell in love with him. Dido killed herself when Aeneas had left her. The English organist and composer John Bull is credited with composing the English national anthem *God Save the King/Queen*.

As a result of the rapid spread of literacy and the improvement in printing techniques, the first newspapers appeared in the 17th century. The newspaper was a new way of spreading ideas – scientific, political, religious and literary.

The greatest of all publicists of the Puritan Revolution was John Milton. He kept a keen eye on the public affairs of the time. In his excellent pamphlets *The Tenure of Kings and Magistrates*, *Defence of the People of England* and *Image Breaker*, he made Europe realize that the Revolution was not just a great rebellion, as the Royalists insisted, but that it was the only force that could give the people rights and freedom. The execution of Charles I was not just the cruel bloodshed, but the only means by which the people could free themselves from the monarchy. He explained that the King was not a martyr, but the worst

reactionary in the cause of liberty. During the reign of Charles II, he created the things that made him one of the greatest poets of England. They were *Paradise Lost* and *Paradise Regained*. Milton's works form a bridge between the poetry of the Renaissance and the poetry of the classicists of a later period. He was attracted by the poetry of ancient mythology and drama, like the writers and poets of the Renaissance. At the same time, he was a champion of the revolutionary cause and thought that only a Republican government could provide a foundation for freedom.

The British Agricultural and Industrial Revolution

In the 18th century, the growth of the industrial mode of production together with advances in agriculture caused the greatest upheaval in the pattern of everyday life since the Anglo-Saxon invasion. These changes are commonly referred to as the Agricultural Revolution and the Industrial Revolution.

The British Agricultural Revolution was due to increases in labour and land productivity that took place between 1750 and 1850. In the country the open fields with their tiny strips of land worked by peasant farmers were replaced by compact farms, with large fields enclosed by hedges and ditches to prevent stray animals from ruining the crops or mixing with the new, improved breeds of sheep and cattle. This agricultural revolution left large numbers of the rural population landless and destitute, but also led to the massive increase in agricultural production necessary to feed the country's growing non-agricultural population.

Hundreds of thousands of people moved from rural areas into new towns and cities. Most of those new towns and cities were in the north of England where raw materials for industry were available. In this way, the north, which had previously been economically backward compared to the south, became the industrial heart land of the country. In the south of England, London came to dominate, not as an industrial centre but as a business and trading centre. By the end of the century it had a population close to a million.

Nevertheless at the beginning of the century, England was still a country of small villages. After London, the second largest city was Bristol. Its rapid growth and importance was based on the triangular trade: British-made goods were shipped to West Africa, West African slaves were transported to the New World, and American sugar, cotton and tobacco were brought to Britain. By the middle of the century Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield and Leeds were already big cities. As England was becoming the main commercial centre of Europe, London was turning into the centre of wealth and civilization.

Despite all the urban development, social power and prestige rested on the possession of land in the countryside. The outward sign of this prestige was the ownership of a country seat – a gracious country mansion with land attached. More than a thousand such mansions were in the second half of the 18th century.

The Industrial Revolution brought about the mechanization of industry and the consequent changes in social and economic organization. It is connected with the transition to new manufacturing processes in the period from about 1760 to sometime between 1820 and 1840. This transition included going from hand production methods to machines, new chemical manufacturing and iron production processes, improved efficiency of water power, the increasing use of steam power, and the development of machine tools, the change from wood to coal as a fuel.

The change from domestic industry to the factory system began in the textile industry in Lancashire. The area had a long textile tradition in the production of woollen goods (there was a mill for fulling wool in Manchester as early as 1282). Textiles were the dominant industry of the Industrial Revolution in terms of employment, value of output and capital invested. Textiles were also the first to use modern production methods. Spinning and weaving, the two very ancient crafts involved in the production of textiles, were both well suited to relatively simple mechanization and were transformed by such inventions as Kay's flying shuttle (1733) and Hargreave's spinning jenny (1764).

Several factors came together to revolutionize Britain's industry: money, labour, a greater demand for goods, new power and better transport.

By the end of the 18th century, some families had made huge fortunes. Growing merchant banks helped put this money to use. Increased food production made it possible to feed large populations in the new towns. They were the people who had lost their land as a result of enclosures. Starting with the early 18th century gradually simple machines were introduced for basic jobs. Those technical innovations allowed mass production.

Improved methods of making iron and steel products turned Britain into the leading iron producer in Europe. The demand for coal grew and the output of coal increased greatly. James Watt made a greatly improved steam engine in 1769. New machinery revolutionized cloth making which boosted production and quality of fabrics.

New waterways (canals) were dug between the towns and roads were improved. Soon Britain was not only exporting cloth to Europe. It was importing raw cotton from its colonies and exporting finished cotton cloth to sell to these same colonies. The centre of cotton industry was Manchester.

The use of machinery put many people out of work and changed "a cottage industry" into a factory industry. The workers tried to join together to protect themselves against employers. They wanted better wages and reasonable conditions. But the government banned these workers' societies. Riots occurred. In 1799 rioters known as Luddites began to break up the machinery that put them out of work. The government was afraid of the revolution similar to that in France.

Britain in the 18th Century

The 18th century was the age when England gained the dominant place in the Channel and in the seas and became the world's main market. It was the age of colonial wars in India and North America. The 18th century was a period of transition which saw the transfer of political power in Britain from an absolute to parliamentary monarchy.

Politically, this century was stable. The Monarch and Parliament got on quite well together. The habit of the monarch appointing *Prime Minister* from the ranks of Parliament to head his government was established. In 1707, by agreement (the Act of Union) the Scottish Parliament joined with the English and Welsh Parliament at Westminster in London. However, Scotland retained its own system of law and it does so to this day.

In the early 18th century Britain was ruled by the last Stuart monarch, Queen Anne, who became queen in 1702, and was immediately popular. In her first speech to the English Parliament, on March 11, she said, "As I know my heart to be entirely English, I can very sincerely assure you there is not anything you can expect or desire from me which I shall not be ready to do for the happiness and prosperity of England." Anne's reign was marked by the further development of a two-party system. In general, the Tories were supportive of the Anglican Church and favoured the landed interest of the country gentry, while the Whigs were aligned with commercial interests and Protestant Dissenters. As a committed Anglican, Anne was inclined to favour the Tories.

After Queen Anne's death according to the 1701 Act of Settlement, three kings – George I, George II, and George III – of the German House of Hanover assumed the English throne.

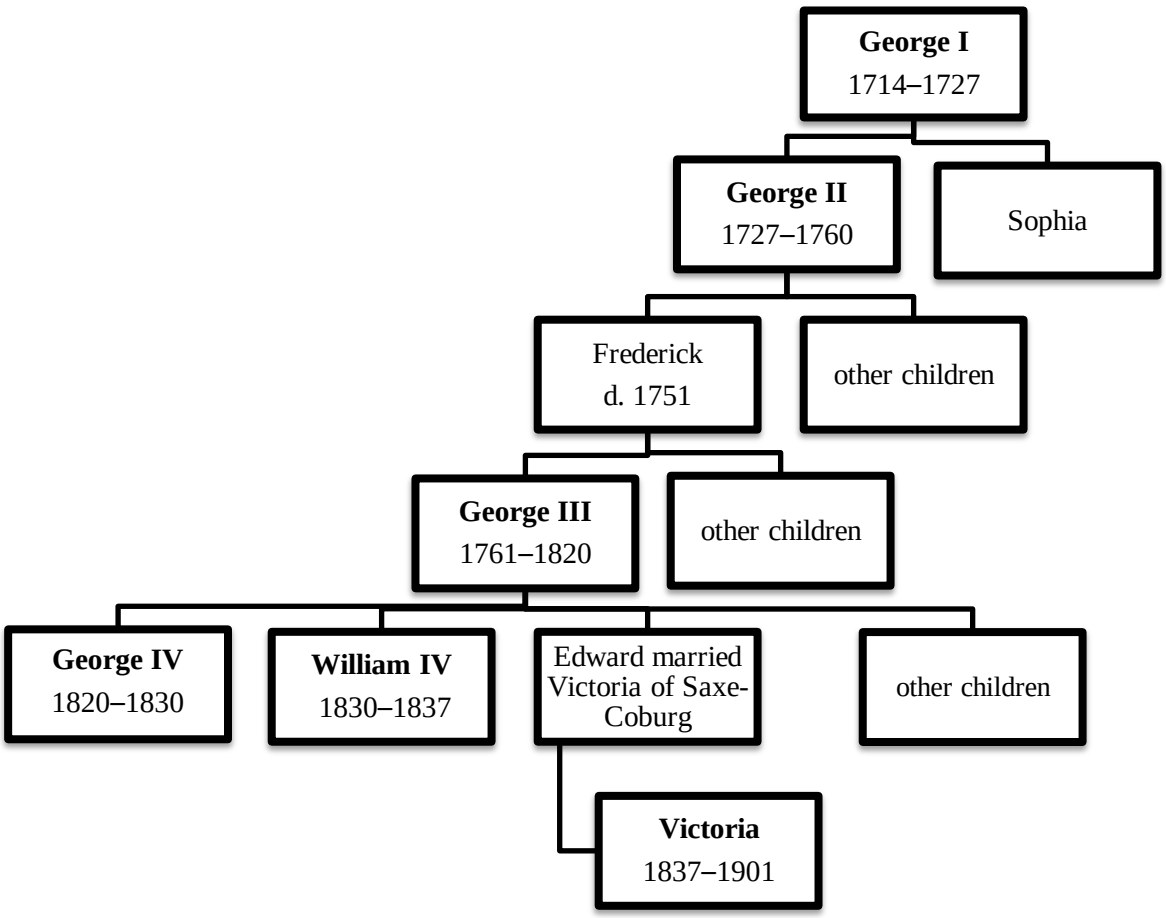
During the reign of George I, government power was increased because the new king spoke only German and relied on the decisions of his ministers. The most influential minister, who remained the greatest political leader of Britain for twenty years, was Robert Walpole who took advantage of George's absence at the meetings of the Cabinet to establish his own power. George seemed content to leave the business of ruling England to Walpole, Britain's first Prime Minister.

In politics, Walpole was determined to keep the Crown under a firm parliamentary control. Walpole stressed the idea that government ministers should work together in a small group called the Cabinet. He insisted that all Cabinet ministers should bear collective responsibility for their decisions. If any minister disagreed with a Cabinet decision, he was expected to resign. The rule is still observed today.

Robert Walpole's most influential enemy was William Pitt who stressed the importance of developing trade and strengthening Britain's position overseas even by armed force. Britain gradually expanded its empire in North America,

along the West African coast and in India. India became “a jewel in the crown” of Britain’s foreign possessions. Its main adversary in the fight for dominance on major trading routes was France. In Canada, the British army took Quebec, which gave Britain control over fish, fur and timber trades. The French army was also defeated in India and a lot of British went to India to make their fortunes. Britain became the most powerful country in the world. Britain’s colonies were an important marketplace in which the British sold the goods they produced.

The House of Hanover



In 1764, there was a serious quarrel over taxation between the British government and its 13 colonies in America. The British government felt that the overseas territory now required more control and better defence, but many in the colonies were beginning to regard any such interference as an intrusion. That difference in attitude led to rebellions of the colonists and to the War of Independence which lasted 8 years (1775–1783). Some American colonists decided that it was not lawful for the British to tax them without their agreement. Political opinion in Britain was divided. Some felt that the tax was

fair because the money would be used to pay for the defence of the American colonies against French attack.

The war was caused by the British attempts to tax the colonies and to make them pay for a standing army. The colonies revolted under George Washington and declared their independence. Military operations were held on the American continent. In 1783 the war ended with the Treaty of Paris, in which the independence of the USA was officially recognized. George Washington became the country's first president.

The 18th-Century Cultural Advance in Britain

Britain's naval supremacy in the 18th century gave rise to marine painting. Victories at sea led to a steady demand for pictures of sea-battles, and marine painters made a good living from naval commissions. Another factor that promoted marine painting was a changing attitude towards the sea and the seashore. Many of the novelists, poets and artists turned to the sea as a source of inspiration.

The 18th century was also the age of British landscape and portrait painting. Sir Joshua Reynolds dominated English artistic life in the middle and late 18th century. With the founding of the Royal Academy in 1768, Reynolds was elected its first president and knighted by King George III. Thomas Gainsborough was known for his portraits of fashionable society in the late 18th century and for his landscapes of the English countryside. His art could be described as "natural". One of Gainsborough's celebrated works is his portrait of Mr. and Mrs. Andrews featuring a wealthy Suffolk landowner and his wife against the background of their estate. William Hogarth is best known for his moral and satirical engravings and paintings and may well be called a painter and engraver of modern moral subjects.

In music, the leading musician of the 18th century was George Frederick Handel. He was a musician and composer of German birth and a naturalized Englishman, a great master of baroque music. For many years Handel ruled the English musical world. His music expresses the full range of human feelings; it is profoundly psychological and subtle.

Under the influence of Purcell (though he lived in the second half of the 17th century) music was experiencing change. Though the opera was still strongly influenced by the Italian and French operas the ordinary English music-lovers revolted against those influences demanding works which they could comprehend. The *Beggar's Opera* by John Gay and John Christopher Pepusch first staged in 1728 took London by storm. It broke all records for it was the first and the best of the ballad-operas which primarily attacked the corruption of the English prime-minister Walpole and the Whigs and also made fun of the Italian opera.

The 18th century English writers started a public movement of Enlightenment. They hoped to improve the world by teaching and bringing the light of knowledge to the population. The English writers of the Enlightenment formed two groups. Those who hoped to better the world merely by teaching were Joseph Addison, Richard Steele, Daniel Defoe, Alexander Pope, Samuel Richardson. The other group included the writers who openly protested against the vicious social order. They were Jonathan Swift, Henry Fielding, Oliver Goldsmith, Richard Sheridan, Tobias Smollett, and Robert Burns.

The poetry of the 18th century was didactic and satirical. It was the poetry of the town and its fashionable life as well as the poetry of worldly wisdom. The leading poet of the century was Alexander Pope – one of the first English classicists. His poems, such as *The Rape of the Lock*, are notable for their elegant style. Robert Burns, who is rightly considered to be the national pride of Scotland, published his first volume of poems – *Poems: Chiefly in the Scottish Dialect*, which won him immediate success. The source of Burns' poetry is Scottish folklore. He is well known for the songs which celebrate love, friendship, work, and drink with often hilarious and tender sympathy.

Samuel Johnson was a popular English poet, essayist, biographer, lexicographer and a critic of English literature. He compiled and published the *Dictionary of the English Language*.

The two outstanding figures in the 18th century literature of England were Daniel Defoe and Jonathan Swift. Swift was an Irish-born Englishman who spent a large part of his life in Ireland. He was one of the most critical and sarcastic journalists of the time. What brought him real fame was his book *Gulliver's Travels*. In it Swift satirized the evils of the existing society. It was altogether a novelty in English literature. Daniel Defoe started writing pamphlets when he was 23. In 1719 he tried his hand in fiction and wrote the famous novel about the adventures of Robinson Crusoe. The idea of writing about a man who had to live on a desert island was taken from a story published in the magazine "The Englishmen". His Robinson Crusoe spent 26 years alone on his island. The novel is praise to human labour and the triumph of man over nature.

The English drama of the 18th century is associated with the name of David Garrick, an actor and playwright. Sarah Siddons also adorned the stage. However, David Garrick was the greatest of all. He is rightfully considered as the founder of realism in the history of the English theatre. He performed successfully in comedy, tragedy, and in romantic plays. His contribution to the art of staging was known as character acting. His acting was realistic, simple and very expressive. Due to his character acting there was a revival of interest in the plays of Shakespeare. However, most important was the fact that he made the theatre an 'acting company' where strict discipline prevailed. The English

theatre of this period was fortunate to stage the plays of two outstanding playwrights Oliver Goldsmith and Sheridan.

The 18th century saw a remarkable rise in the fields of philosophy, natural sciences and political economy. Adam Smith, a Scottish economist, wrote his *Wealth of Nations* in 1776. His ideas as the founders of political economy dominated the whole of industrial Europe and America.

Test Your Knowledge

1. Who was the first Stuart king of England?
2. Why did James I's foreign policy lead to serious problems in the situation at home?
3. Why is Guy Fawkes' Night marked at present?
4. Who were the Puritans?
5. Why did Charles I's policy provoke a strong feeling of opposition in Parliament?
6. What demands of Parliament were included in *The Petition of Rights*?
7. What Parliaments are known as "Short Parliament" and "Long Parliament"?
8. Who did the Cavaliers support?
9. What was Oliver Cromwell's role in the history of Britain?
10. Why wasn't the Commonwealth successful?
11. Who was the king of England after the restoration of monarchy?
12. What was the reason for passing the Test Act in 1673?
13. What parties became the basis of Britain's two-party parliamentary system of government?
14. When did the *'Glorious Revolution'* take place?
15. What were the greatest scientific achievements in the 17th century?
16. Who is considered 'the father of the English opera'?
17. What were the reasons for the British agricultural revolution?
18. What did the Industrial Revolution bring about?
19. What were the main factors to revolutionize Britain's industry?
20. Who was Britain's first Prime Minister?
21. What was the main reason for the American War of Independence?
22. What was a source of inspiration for many artists in the 18th century?
23. Who was the leading musician of the 18th century?
24. What English writers started a public movement of Enlightenment?

Lecture 6

THE UNITED KINGDOM IN THE 19th–21st CENTURIES

The 19th century began with the Act of Union of 1801 which united the Kingdom of Great Britain and the Kingdom of Ireland to create the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The act came into force on January 1, 1801, and the Parliament of the United Kingdom had its first meeting on January 22, 1801. When the century began, the country was locked in a war with France, during which an invasion by a French army was a real possibility because Britain had a much smaller population (11 million compared to 27 million in France in 1801). This disadvantage was offset by Britain's wealth (from a more developed economy and extensive overseas trade) and by the British superiority at sea. In 1803 France had 23 ships of the line; Britain had 34 in service and another 77 in reserve.

The Napoleonic Wars

The French Revolution (1789) created fear all over Europe. The British government was also afraid that revolution would spread to Britain. As an island, Britain was in less danger, and as a result was slower than other European states to make war on the French Republic. But in 1793 Britain went to war after France had invaded the Low Countries (today, Belgium and Holland). One by one the European countries were defeated by Napoleon. Most of Europe fell under his control.

George III was the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland at that time until his death in 1820. He was the third British monarch of the House of Hanover, but unlike his two predecessors, he was born in Great Britain, spoke English as his first language, and never visited Hanover. His reign was marked by a series of military conflicts; the most serious of them was the war against revolutionary and Napoleonic France.

Britain decided to fight France at sea because it had a stronger navy, and because its own survival depended on the control of its trade routes. British policy was to damage French trade by preventing French ships, including their navy, from moving freely in and out of French seaports. The commander of the British fleet, Admiral Horatio Nelson, won brilliant victories over the French navy, near the coast of Egypt, at Copenhagen, and finally near Spain, at Trafalgar in 1805, where he destroyed the French-Spanish fleet. Nelson was himself killed at Trafalgar, and became one of Britain's greatest national heroes. His words to the fleet before the battle of Trafalgar, "England expects that every man will do his duty", have remained a reminder of patriotic duty in time of national danger.

In the same year as Trafalgar, in 1805, the British army landed in Portugal to fight the French. The army, with its Portuguese and Spanish allies, was eventually commanded by Wellington, a man who had fought in India. Like Nelson he quickly proved to be a great commander. After several victories against the French in Spain he invaded France. Napoleon, weakened by his disastrous invasion of Russia, surrendered in 1814. But the following year he escaped and quickly assembled an army in France. Wellington, with the timely help of the Prussian army, finally defeated Napoleon at Waterloo in Belgium in June 1815.

Political and Economic Issues

When peace came in 1815 Britain was in greater danger at home than abroad. During the Napoleonic Wars Britain had sold clothes, guns, and other necessary war supplies to its allies' armies as well as its own. And suddenly there came no longer such a need for factory-made goods, and many people lost their jobs. More than 300,000 men from Britain's army and navy now were looking for work. The general misery began to cause trouble. Many people looked for a better life in towns. Between 1815 and 1835 Britain changed from being a nation of country people to a nation mainly of townspeople.

In the 1820s, Prime Minister Robert Peel turned his attention to the problem of crime by establishing a regular police force for London in 1829. The government employed a specially trained army of men to catch criminals. Although at first Londoners laughed at the blue-uniformed men in their top-hats, during the next thirty years almost every other town started a police force of their own. The new police units soon proved themselves successful, as much crime was pushed out of larger cities, then out of towns and finally out of the countryside. Robert Peel was able to show that certainty of punishment was far more effective than cruelty of punishment.

The beginning of the century also saw the innovations of Robert Owen, a factory owner from Scotland, who gave his workers shorter working hours and encouraged trade unions. He built his factory in the countryside, away from the smog and dirt of big cities, and provided good housing for workers and a school for their children. Owen was able to prove that his workers produced more goods in less time than those forced to work longer hours. Better working and living conditions resulted in an increase in labour productivity.

The main political issue of the 1830s was the Reform Bill, which became law in 1832. The bill set up a system of registration that encouraged political party organization, both locally and nationally. That measure weakened the monarch and the House of Lords. Other reforms came in a quick succession. In 1833 slavery was abolished. By the New Poor Law of 1834 workhouses were opened. They were meant to provide the homeless with work and shelter. Abandoned children were also taken care of in workhouses. But

although the new system involved supervision by a central board (or committee), working and living conditions of people in workhouses were even worse than those of slaves. As the country's industry was rapidly developing, child labour became common practice. Children from poor families started working at the age of 4 or 5. They worked in textile factories and in mines for 16 hours a day. There were cases when little workers had to stay at work for 18 hours. They worked and slept in the same place. It was only in 1849, during the reign of Queen Victoria, that an act of Parliament limited the working hours of children under the age of 10 to 10 hours a day.

During the economic depression of 1837 the reform spirit declined. Working conditions became even worse. The protest organization, known in history as the Chartist movement, came into being. The Chartists demanded the immediate adoption of the People's Charter, which might have transformed Britain into a political democracy with universal male suffrage, equal electoral districts and the secret ballot. It was also expected to improve living standards. Millions of workers signed Charter petitions in 1839, 1842 and 1848. Some Chartist demonstrations turned into riots. Parliament repeatedly rejected the People's Charter and the idea was never realized.

Many British left the UK for North America or the colonies in search for a better life. At the same time the Irish moved in large numbers to England and Scotland. Migrants from across the world also settled in Britain, notably Jews from Europe and Russia. Between 1801 and 1871 alone the population of the United Kingdom doubled.

Outside Europe, Britain wished its trading position to be stronger than anyone else's. It defended its interests by keeping ships of its navy in almost every ocean of the world. That was possible because it had taken over and occupied a number of places during the war against Napoleon. The government's policy now was to control world traffic and world markets to Britain's advantage.

The British Empire

Britain's empire was built on trade and the need to defend it against rival European countries. After the loss of the American colonies in 1783, the idea of creating new colonies remained unpopular until the 1830s. Instead, Britain watched the oceans carefully to make sure its trade routes were safe, and fought wars in order to protect its "areas of interest". In 1839 it attacked China and forced it to allow the profitable British trade in opium from India to China. The "Opium Wars" were one of the more shameful events in British colonial history.

One section of this empire was Ireland. During this century the British culture and way of life came to predominate in Ireland. In the 1840s, the potato crop failed two years in a row and there was a terrible famine. Millions of

peasants with the Irish Gaelic language and customs either died or emigrated. By the end of the century almost the whole of the remaining population were using English as their first language.

Thousands of British civil servants and troops were used to govern India. At the head of this administration was *a viceroy* (governor) whose position within the country was similar to the monarch's in Britain itself. Because India was so far away, the British officials spent most of their working lives there and so developed a distinctly Anglo-Indian way of life. They imposed British institutions and methods of government on the country. Many Indians resented British interference in their religious and social customs and in 1857 Indian soldiers mutinied against their British officers. It was a major, but ultimately unsuccessful, uprising in India in 1857–1858 against the rule of the British East India Company, which functioned as a sovereign power on behalf of the British Crown. The rebellion posed a considerable threat to British power in that region. The rebellion known by many names, including the Indian Mutiny, the Great Rebellion, the Revolt of 1857, and the First War of Independence was suppressed in 1858. In 1876 Queen Victoria became Empress of India.

In 1873 the British became concerned with the political affairs of Egypt and its neighbour, the Sudan (which had been under Egyptian control since 1821). In the early 1880s Britain sent troops to Egypt and the Sudan to suppress uprisings in Egypt and rebellions in the Sudan against Egyptian control, and in late 1890s the troops defeated the Sudanese and established Anglo-Egyptian control of the Sudan.

Large parts of Africa also belonged to the empire. Africa's vast natural resources, which included gold and diamonds, caused colonizing of the continent. After some wars with the Dutch settlers and the native population, the British took control over the southern part of Africa, which became part of the British Empire.

The reasons for this mass colonization were to get more lands, to have more power, to become richer. One more reason was that the population of Britain from the 1830s was rapidly growing, and soon the territory of the British Isles would not hold all the population. So the solution was found in the development of colonies for British settlers in different parts of the world.

In Canada, Australia and New Zealand settlers from the British Isles formed the majority of the population. Large-scale emigration to these countries created extensive changes in the national population profile. Soon the white colonies were allowed to govern themselves. Officially they no longer depended on Britain, but they still accepted the British monarch as their head of state.

By the end of the century, the British Empire comprised nearly one-quarter of the world's land surface and more than one-quarter of its total population. Imperialists could boast that the sun never set upon the British Empire.

A change in attitude in Britain towards colonization during the 19th century gave new encouragement to the empire builders. Previously, colonization had been seen as a matter of settlement, of commerce, or of military strategy. The aim was simply to possess territory, but not necessarily to govern it. By the end of the century, colonization was seen as a matter of destiny. There was an enormous increase in wealth during the century, so that Britain became the world's foremost economic power. This, together with long years of political stability, gave the British a sense of supreme confidence, even arrogance, about their culture and civilization. The British came to see themselves as having a duty to spread their culture and civilization around the world ('the white man's burden').

Queen Victoria and the Monarchy

By the late 1830s the monarchy was beginning to look a disreputable and even unnecessary institution. Kings were not expected to rule but to reign. From this low point the monarchy was rescued by Queen Victoria, one of the most notable figures in British royal history. Victoria ascended the throne at the age of 18 following the death of her uncle, William IV. Her achievement was to restore respect and usefulness to the Crown. She possessed both common sense and high principles. She had the qualities that the middle class most admired – devotion to family and friends. The Queen's conscientious approach to her duties did much to raise the reputation of the monarchy.

Victoria married a German, Prince Albert who died at the age of 42 in 1861. She could not get over her sorrow at his death and for a long time refused to be seen in public. This was a dangerous thing to do. Newspapers began to criticize her, and some even questioned the value of the monarchy. Many radicals actually believed the end of the monarchy was bound to happen as a result of democracy. Most had no wish to hurry this process, and were happy to let the monarchy die naturally. However, the queen's advisers persuaded her to take a more public interest in the business of the kingdom. She did so, and she soon became extraordinarily popular. By the time Victoria died the monarchy was better loved among the British than it had ever been before.

One important step back to popularity was the publication of the Queen's book *Our life in the Highlands* in 1868. The book was her own diary with drawings, their life with Prince Albert at Balmoral, her castle in the Scottish Highlands. It delighted the public, in particular the growing middle class. They had never before known anything of the private life of the monarch, and they enjoyed being able to share it. She referred to the Prince Consort simply as "Albert", to the Prince of Wales as "Bertie", and to the Princess Royal as "Vicky". The Queen also wrote about her servants as if they were members of her family.

The Victorian Era

The Victorian era began in 1837 and ended with Queen Victoria's death in 1901. During that time the British Empire reached its height. Industry and trade expanded rapidly, and railways and canals crossed the country. Science and technology made great advances.

Britain became powerful because it had enough coal, iron and steel for its own enormous industry, and could even export them in large quantities to Europe. With these materials it could produce new heavy industrial goods like iron ships and steam engines. Britain made and owned more than half the world's total shipping. This great industrial empire was supported by a strong banking system developed during the 18th century.

In 1851 Queen Victoria opened the Great Exhibition of the Industries of All Nations inside the Crystal Palace, in London. The exhibition aimed to show the world the greatness of Britain's industry.

The greatest example of Britain's industrial power in the mid-19th century was its railway system. Indeed, it was mainly because of this new form of transport that six million people were able to visit the Great Exhibition, 109,000 of them on one day. Many of them had never visited London before.

In 1851 the government made the railway companies provide passenger trains which stopped at all stations for a fare of one penny per mile.

Poor people's lives also benefited by the railway. Many moved with the middle class to the suburbs, into smaller houses. The men travelled by train to work in town. Many of the women became servants in the houses of the middle class. By 1850 16 % of the population had been "in service" in private homes, more than were in farming or in the cloth industry.

In fact industrialists built the railways to transport goods, not people, in order to bring down the cost of transport. By 1870 the railway system of Britain was almost complete. The canals were soon empty as everything went by rail. The speed of the railway even made possible the delivery of fresh fish and raspberries from Scotland to London in one night.

The country was becoming industrialized and overseas trade was increasing. The 19th-century Britain was the "workshop of the world". British factories were producing more than any other country in the world.

The Victorian age was the peak of the so-called "English summer". It was not only due to the industrial development and colonial expansion of the country. British self-confidence was built not only upon power but also upon the rapid scientific advances being made at the time. In 1857 Charles Darwin published *The Origin of Species.* His theory of evolution, based upon scientific observation, was welcomed by many as proof of mankind's ability to find a scientific explanation for everything. But for churchgoing people, who were mostly to be found among the middle class, the idea that all animals, including human beings, had developed

from more simple creatures shook this self-confidence and led to a crisis in the Church. Most of the churchgoing population believed every word of the Bible. They found it difficult to accept Darwin's theory that the world had developed over millions of years, and had not been created in six days.

In the 19th century the middle class grew quickly and included those who worked in the professions, such as the Church, the law, medicine, the civil service, the diplomatic service, merchant banking, the army and the navy. By the 1850s, more and more people were getting an education. Those of the middle class who could afford it sent their sons to fee-paying "public" schools which aimed not only to give boys a good education, but to train them in leadership by taking them away from home and making their living conditions hard. Those public schools provided many of the officers for the armed forces, the colonial administration and the civil service.

There were great changes in social structure. Most people now lived in towns and cities. They no longer depended on country landowners for their living but rather on the owners of industries. The factory owners held the real power in the country. As they established their power, so they established a set of values which emphasized hard work, thrift, family life, an awareness of one's duty and absolute honesty in public life. This is the set of values which we now call Victorian.

In the second half of the century two new parties appeared: the Liberal Party, which was formed in 1859 after the split in the Tory party, and the Independent Labour Party, which was formed in 1893 by and for the working class, and was set up and renamed the Labour Party in 1900. The British political system of today was mostly built in the 1860s and 1870s, when a much stricter "two-party" system developed in Britain. The two parties, Tory (or Conservative as it became officially known) and Liberal became the most prominent at that time.

The government introduced a few democratic reforms. One of them concerned the right to vote. In 1867 all male householders in towns became 'eligible to vote and stand for Parliament'. That added over a million voters to the electorate. In 1884 the right was extended to all male householders and in 1918 to all men over 21.

Between 1875 and 1914 the condition of the poor in most of Britain greatly improved as prices fell by 40 % and real wages doubled. Life at home was made more comfortable. Most homes now had gas both for heating and lighting. As a result of falling prices and increased wages, poor families could eat better food, including meat, fresh milk and vegetables.

In 1870 and 1891 two Education Acts were passed: all children had to go to school up to the age of thirteen, where they were taught reading, writing and arithmetic. In Scotland there had been a state education system since the time of

the Reformation. There were four Scottish universities, three dating from the Middle Ages. In Wales schools began to grow rapidly in the middle of the century, partly for nationalist reasons. By the middle of the century Wales had a university and a smaller university college. England now started to build "redbrick" universities in the new industrial cities. The term "redbrick" distinguished the new universities, often brick-built, from the older, mainly stone-built universities of Oxford and Cambridge. These new universities were unlike Oxford and Cambridge, and taught more science and technology to feed Britain's industries.

By the 1880s, for the first time, working people could think about enjoying some free time. Apart from museums, parks, swimming pools and libraries recently opened in towns, the real popular social centre remained the alehouse or pub. Thousands of them were built in new suburbs. Using the railway people began to travel for pleasure. The seaside was a place where families could take holidays together.

By the end of the 19th century, two sports, cricket and football, had become of great interest to the British public. Cricket, which had started as a "gentleman's" sport, became an extremely popular village game. Although it first developed in the 18th century, it was not until a century later that its rules were organized. From 1873 a county championship took place each year. Cricket was a game which encouraged both individual and team excellence and taught respect for fair play. As one Englishman said at the time, "We have a much greater love of cricket than of politics". Cricket was successfully exported to the empire: to the West Indies, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Australia and New Zealand. But while it was popular in Wales, it never had the same popularity in Scotland.

Britain's other main game, football, was also organised with proper rules in the 19th century. As an organised game it was at first a middle-class or gentlemen's sport, but it quickly became popular among all classes. Football soon drew huge crowds who came to watch the full-time professional footballers play the game. By the end of the 19th century almost every town between Portsmouth on the south coast of England and Aberdeen in north-east Scotland had its own football, or "soccer" team.

Despite reforms, the nature of the new industrial society forced many people to live and work in very unpleasant conditions .Writers and intellectuals of the period either protested against the horrors of this new style of life (as Dickens did) or simply ignored it. Many, especially the Romantic poets, praised the beauties of the countryside and the simplicity of the country life. It was a new development. In previous centuries the countryside just existed, and it wasn't something to be discussed or admired. But since that time most British people have developed a sentimental attachment to the idea of the countryside.

A New Trend in Literature

The Victorian age gave rise to a new trend in literature – critical realism. The best-known poets of the period were Alfred Tennyson, Robert Browning and Robert Louis Stevenson. But the dominant form of literature during this period was the novel.

Charles Dickens, the greatest master of the century, exhibited an astonishing ability to create living characters. Another master of characterization, William Makepeace Thackeray satirized romantic sentimentality and the snobbishness of upper-class life.

The 19th century saw a surprisingly big number of women-writers who did not only write for pleasure, but left a substantial trace in English literature. One of them was Jane Austen, who wrote about right judgement, right behaviour and the formation of character. Elizabeth Gaskell described the lives of industrial and agricultural workers in the wake of the Chartist movement with realism and sympathy. George Eliot is the pen-name of Mary Ann Evans. Her best-known novel is *The Mill on the Floss*. The famous Brontë sisters, brought up in poor surroundings, wrote the books which rank among the most popular novels of the century. Charlotte Brontë described the life of a poor and plain-looking girl who had a strong character and won her happiness. Emily Brontë is the author of one of the greatest English novels, *Wuthering Heights*.

The Irish-born intellectual Oscar Wilde was a poet, a writer and a dramatist. He led an eccentric life that fuelled his witty satires and epigrams on Victorian society. As a member of the aesthetic movement in literature, Wilde advocated the idea of art for art's sake. His plays sparkle with clever paradoxes and witty dialogues.

Britain's Decline as a World Power

At the beginning of the 20th century Britain was no longer the world's richest country. Britain was losing its leading role in the world. Victoria's death in 1901 coincided with the beginning of the decline in the power of the Empire. The white settler colonies had always enjoyed considerable self-government and in the first decade Canada, Australia, South Africa and New Zealand were all allowed to draw up their own constitutions to become dominions. This select group of nations within the empire was often referred to as the British Commonwealth. The non-white colonies were not so fortunate: India was subjected to an often harsh military rule, and vast areas of Africa remained firmly under the British domination.

Whatever the reason, the first twenty years of the century were a period of extremism in Britain. The Suffragettes women demanding the right to vote, were prepared both to damage property and to die for their beliefs; the problem of Ulster in the north of Ireland led to a situation in which some sections of the army appeared ready to disobey the government; and the government's

introduction of new types and levels of taxation was opposed so absolutely by the House of Lords that even Parliament, the foundation of the political system, seemed to have an uncertain future in its traditional form.

It was from the beginning of this century that the majority of the population finally began to make its voice heard. In Parliament, the Labour party gradually replaced the Liberals as the main opposition to the Conservatives. In addition, trade unions managed to organize themselves. In 1926, they were powerful enough to hold a General Strike, and from 1935 until the 1980s the Trade Union Congress was probably the single most powerful political force outside the institutions of government and Parliament.

On the Eve of World War I

At the beginning of the 20th century there was still a general belief that the nation could achieve steady economic and social improvement. In 1909 Labour Exchanges were opened, where those without work could look for jobs. Two years later all working people were made to pay for "national insurance". It was another new idea that those unable to earn money through sickness or unemployment would be helped by the state. So the New Liberals with the outstanding political figure of the period, David Lloyd George, began establishing what became the "welfare state". Government, said the Liberals, "has a duty to protect the weak against the strong".

But at the beginning of the century it became clear that Britain was no longer as powerful as it had been. Britain was not the only European country with an empire. France, Germany, Belgium, Austria and Hungary were all imperialist powers, and other countries such as Italy also had dreams of empire. British industry no longer enjoyed the total domination of world markets that it had in the 19th century; Germany was rapidly becoming the dominant economic power in Europe. There seem to be a number of reasons. Other countries, Germany particularly, had greater natural wealth, including coal and iron, and wheat-producing lands. Most British people invested their money abroad rather than in building up home industry. Public schools, the private system of education for the richer middle class, did not encourage business or scientific studies. Britain had nothing to compare with the scientific and technical education of Germany.

Suddenly Britain realised that it no longer ruled the seas quite so assuredly, and that others had more powerful armies and more powerful industries. The rivalry between the great European powers led to the outbreak of World War I in 1914. The danger of war with Germany had been clear since the beginning of the century, and that fact brought France and Britain together. Britain was particularly frightened of Germany's modern navy, which seemed a good deal stronger than its own. The government started a programme of

building battleships to make sure of its strength at sea. The reason was simple. Britain could not possibly survive for long without food and other essential goods reaching it by sea. From 1908 onwards Britain spent large sums of money to make sure that it possessed a stronger fleet than Germany.

Britain in World War I

In August 1914 Germany's attack on France took its army through Belgium. Britain immediately declared war because it had promised to guarantee Belgium's neutrality by the treaty of 1838. But Britain also went to war because it feared that Germany's ambitions would completely change the map of Europe.

Germany nearly defeated Britain and France, in the first few weeks of war. It had better trained soldiers, better equipment and a clear plan of attack. Four years of bitter fighting followed, both armies living and fighting in the trenches, which they had dug to protect their men. Somehow the government had to persuade the people that in spite of such disastrous results the war was still worth fighting. The nation was told that it was defending the weak (Belgium) against the strong (Germany) and that it was fighting for democracy and freedom.

When Russia, after the Bolshevik revolution of 1917, made peace with Germany, the German generals hoped for victory against Britain and France. But German submarine attacks on neutral shipping drew America into the war against Germany. The arrival of American troops in France ended Germany's hopes, and it surrendered in November 1918. It was the bloodiest war in history.

Between the Two World Wars

An important political development during the war was the rapid growth of the Labour Party. In Parliament, the Labour party gradually replaced the Liberals (the descendants of the Whigs) as the main opposition to the Conservatives (the descendants of the Tories). The Labour Party, however, was not "socialist". Its leaders were members of the middle class. Instead of a social revolution, they wanted to develop a kind of socialism that would fit the situation in Britain.

The war changed the position of women in the British society. Britain would have been unable to continue the war without the women who took men's places in the factories. By 1918 29 % of the total workforce of Britain was female. In 1918, some women over the age of 30 gained the right to vote.

The cost of the war led to an enormous increase in taxation, from 6 % of income in 1914 to 25 % in 1918. The feeling of discontent and disappointment with the existing living conditions after the war led to a General strike of 1926. Trade unions managed to organize themselves and become a powerful political force. The General strike ended after nine days, partly because members of the

middle class worked to keep services like transport, gas and electricity going. But it also ended because of uncertainty among the trade union leaders. Most feared the dangers both to their workers and the country of "going too far". Like all over Europe and America Britain also experienced a serious economic crisis (the Great Depression). Fortunately, Britain avoided a serious political crisis in the 1920s.

In the 1930s the British economy started to recover, especially in the Midlands and the south. That could be seen in the enormous number of small houses which were being built along main roads far into the countryside. Unplanned suburbs grew especially quickly around London, where the underground railway system, the tube, spread out into the country.

In 1935 it was already clear that Germany was preparing to regain its position in Europe, and if necessary, by force. The British government was faced with the problem of rebuilding the army and the navy, which meant huge investments in heavy industry. By 1937, the industry was producing weapons, aircraft and equipment for war.

At the same time Germany and its European and Asian allies (the Axis powers) – Italy and Japan – were taking advantage of Britain and France's indecision and started occupying territories of other states. In order to avoid a war, Britain cooperated with Germany in the take-over of the German-speaking parts of Czechoslovakia by Germany. On his return from Munich, the British Prime Minister said that for the country it meant a temporary peace. Six months later Germany occupied the rest of Czechoslovakia. Britain, realizing that the war was inevitable, gave a guarantee of support to Poland in case of a German invasion. In September 1939 Germany invaded Poland, and Britain declared war.

Britain in World War II

Few people in Britain realized how strong the German army was. The first period of the war, the end of 1939 was relatively quiet for Britain as it was not involved in any military action. But in 1940 the Germans started bombing British cities. London and Coventry were particularly badly damaged. The Battle of the Atlantic began the same year. The German strategy was to cut off Britain's supplies of food and munitions by submarine action. Rationing for essential items of food, clothing and fuel was introduced. In 1941 Britain received first shipments of food and arms from the USA as part of the Lend-Lease Plan.

The war began as a traditional European struggle where Britain fought to save the "balance of power" but it quickly became worldwide. Both sides wanted to control the oil fields in the Middle East and the Suez Canal, which was Britain's route to India.

In 1941, Japan, which was Germany's ally, attacked Britain's colonial possessions in Malaya, Burma and India. As a result, the soldiers of the Empire

had to fight against the Axis of Germany, Italy and Japan practically all over the world. In the same year the two most powerful world nations, the USSR and the USA, had to join the war. The Allied Forces joined their efforts in fighting against the common enemy.

In February 1945, the leaders of the Allied Forces, Churchill, Roosevelt and Stalin, met for a conference in Yalta, where the final defeat of Germany was planned. Germany was to be demilitarized and divided into 4 zones of occupation. The Allied leaders also agreed that it was necessary to establish the United Nations Organization which was set up in 1945 to maintain world peace and foster international cooperation.

The war in Europe ended in 1945 when the allied troops defeated Germany. Germany signed the Act of Capitulation on May 8, 1945, that is why May 8 is celebrated in Europe and the USA as Victory Day. But World War II ended only in September. When Japan refused to surrender, the USA dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, which resulted in the immediate death of over 110,000 civilians. Many thousands more died later from the after-effects. The war cost Britain 303,000 soldier and 60,000 civilians.

During the Second World War Winston Churchill told the nation, “We are not fighting to restore the past. We must plan and create a noble future”.

Post-War Britain

After the war the victorious Allies created the United Nations with a Security Council, hoping that success of wartime alliance could be carried into peacetime. But this idea collapsed. Europe became divided into two parts.

Britain still considered itself to be a world power supported by its leadership in nuclear power. However the weakening of its international position became obvious. Gradually between 1945 and 1965 the British Empire abroad was almost completely dismantled, generally peacefully.

In terms of its domestic policy both the Conservative and the Labour party moved to the left after the War. In 1944, for the first time, the government promised free secondary education for all, and promised to provide more further and higher education. In 1946 the government brought in a new National Health Service, which gave everyone the right to free medical treatment. Two years later, in 1948, the National Assistance Act provided financial help for the old, the unemployed and those unable to work through sickness. Mothers and children also received help.

For the next quarter century both the Conservative and Labour parties were agreed on the need to keep up the “welfare state”, in particular, to avoid unemployment. Britain became in fact a social democracy, in which both main parties agreed on most of the basic values, and disagreed mainly about

the method. The Labour government of Clement Attlee went as far as to nationalize basic industries.

Like much of post-war Europe, Britain became economically dependent on the United States. Thanks to the US Marshall Programme it was able to recover quickly from the war. Living standards rose. There was enough work for everyone. Working people now had a better standard of living than ever before. People had free time to enjoy themselves. At weekends many watched football matches in large new stadiums. In the evenings they could go to the cinema. They began to go away for holidays to low-cost "holiday camps". In 1950, car production was twice that in 1939, and by 1960 cars were owned not only by richer people but by many on a lower income. It seemed as if the sun shone on Britain.

In the middle of the 20th century Britain still considered itself to be a world power, and this confidence was strengthened by three important technical developments in the 1950s which increased its military strength. Those developments were in research into space, in the design of nuclear weapons, and in the design of intercontinental ballistic missiles.

At the same time Britain started losing its colonies. In 1947 the British left India, which then divided into a Hindu state and a smaller Muslim state called Pakistan. Britain also left Palestine, where it was unable to keep its promises to both the Arab inhabitants and the new Jewish settlers. Ceylon became independent the following year.

The 1960s is often referred to as "*the Youthful Britain*". Young people had more money in their pockets than ever before and began to influence fashion, particularly in clothing and music. Nothing expressed the youthful pop culture of the period better than the Beatles, whose music quickly became internationally known. Another label for the time is "*the Swinging Sixties*", named so because of the fall or relaxation of some social taboos especially relating to sexism and racism that occurred during this time. That was the time of optimism and hedonism, and a cultural revolution.

Starting from the 1960s Britain suddenly began to slip rapidly behind its European neighbours economically. Those were the years of rising prices and growing unemployment. That's why Britain was increasingly interested in joining the new European Community (EC), hoping that it would be able to share the new European wealth and play a greater part in European politics. When Britain tried to join the European Community in 1963 and again in 1967, the French President General de Gaulle refused to allow it. Britain only became a member in 1973, after de Gaulle's retirement.

Social Problems Caused by Immigration

All through the British history there were times when large numbers of immigrants came to settle in the country. But those people, being Europeans,

were not noticeably different from the British themselves. In the 1950s, however, the first black immigrants started to arrive from the West Indies, looking for work. By 1960 there were 250,000 "coloured" immigrants in Britain and the first signs of trouble with young whites began.

Later, Asian immigrants started to arrive from India and Pakistan and from East Africa. Most immigrants lived together in poor areas of large cities. By 1985 there were about five million immigrants and their children out of a total population of about fifty-six million. Britain started experiencing social problems connected with immigrants.

As unemployment grew, the new immigrants were sometimes wrongly blamed. In fact, it was often the immigrants who were willing to do dirty or unpopular work in factories, hospitals and other workplaces. The relationship between black immigrants and the white population of Britain was not easy. Black people found it harder to obtain employment, and were often only able to live in the worst housing. The government passed laws to prevent unequal treatment of black people, and control the number of immigrants coming to Britain. Among them are the Immigration Act of 1971 and the British Nationality Act of 1981.

Thatcherism

In 1979–1981 the country was hit by an economic crisis. In 1984 coal miners launched a general strike in protest against pit closures. They were supported by workers in other industries, especially by dock workers and those in the shipbuilding industry.

Britain's first woman Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher elected in 1979, promised a new beginning for Britain. She wanted free trade at home and abroad, individual enterprise and less government economic interference and started the policy of privatization of previously nationalized industries and companies. She wanted more "law and order" but was less willing to undertake social reforms. Her style and views appealed to many British people who had lost confidence in the welfare state and in the direction the nation had taken.

However, over half the nation disagreed with her policies. The most serious accusation against the Thatcher government by the middle of the 1980s was that it had created a society of "two nations", one wealthy, and the other poor. The number of very poor, who received only a very small amount of government help, increased from twelve million in 1979 to over sixteen million by 1983. The division was also geographical, between prosperous suburban areas, and neglected inner city areas of decay. More importantly, people saw a divide between the north and south of the country.

By the beginning of 1982 the Conservative government had become deeply unpopular in the country but by her firm leadership during the Falklands War Thatcher captured the imagination of the nation, and was confidently able

to call an election in 1983. Thatcher began to return nationalised industries to the private sector. By 1987 telecommunications, gas, British Airways, British Aerospace and British Shipbuilders had all been put into private ownership.

In 1987 Thatcher's Conservative Party was still more popular than any other single party. There were other reasons for that. In 1983 only nineteen (3 %) of the 650 members of Parliament were women, in 1987 this figure more than doubled to forty-one women MPs (6.5 %), a figure which suggested that the political parties realised that without more women representatives they might lose votes. Blacks and Asians, too, gained four seats, the largest number they had ever had in Parliament.

However, people were divided concerning the nation's future possibilities. Those who had voted for Thatcher were optimistic. They believed that material wealth was vital for national renewal, and that economic success was about to happen. Others were unhappy with the direction the nation was taking. They were worried by the weakening of the welfare state, particularly in the educational and health services.

The term in office of "the Iron Lady" as Margaret Thatcher was often referred to, was the time of economic and political turmoil. The years of 'Thatcherism' finally brought the country out of the deadlock economically, no matter how unpopular her measures might have seemed at moments.

It was also during Thatcher's rule that Britain established closer relations with the USSR. Margaret Thatcher was the prime minister who actually put an end to the Cold War in Europe.

Political History of the UK (1990 – present)

In November 1990, Margaret Thatcher was challenged for the leadership of the Conservative Party and was persuaded to withdraw, ending her 11-year term as the head of government. Her Chancellor of the Exchequer John Major became Prime Minister.

John Major called a general election for April 1992 and won with a small parliamentary majority. The economic recovery was strong and continued during 1993–1994 with unemployment falling. However, the Labour Party gained their popularity with the election of Tony Blair as the leader in 1994, despite the economy still being strong and unemployment back for the first time since early 1991. Few were surprised when Major lost the 1997 general election to Tony Blair.

Blair promised economic and social reform and brought the Labour Party closer to the centre of the political spectrum. His policies included the minimum wage and the introduction of university tuition fees. His premiership saw large investment into social aspects, particular in health and education areas.

Blair came into power with a policy of devolution. A pre-legislative referendum was held in Scotland in 1997 with two questions: whether to create a

devolved Parliament for Scotland and whether it should have limited tax-varying powers. Following a clear ‘yes’ vote on both questions, a referendum on the proposal for creating a devolved Welsh Assembly was held two weeks later. Both measures were put into effect and the Scottish Parliament and Welsh Assembly began operating in 1999. The long-running Northern Ireland peace process was brought to a conclusion in 1998 with the Belfast Agreement which established a devolved Northern Ireland Assembly.

In foreign policy, following the September 11, 2001 attacks in the United States, Blair greatly supported the US President George W. Bush’s new War on Terror which began with the forced withdrawal of the Taliban regime in Afghanistan. Blair’s case for the subsequent war in Iraq was based on their alleged possession of weapons of mass destruction and consequent violation of the UN resolutions. 46,000 British troops, one-third of the total strength of the British Army (land forces), were deployed to assist with the invasion of Iraq.

The Labour government was re-elected in the general election of June 2001. Blair became the first Labour leader to lead the party to three successive election victories when they won the 2005 general election, though this time he had a drastically reduced majority.

In 2007 Tony Blair tendered his resignation as Prime Minister of the United Kingdom to the Queen. His successor Gordon Brown assumed the office the same afternoon. Brown’s style of government differed from that of Tony Blair, who had been seen as presidential. Brown rescinded some of the policies which had either been introduced or planned by Blair’s administration. Brown was closer to American thinking and more distant from Europe than Blair. Initially, during the first four months in office, Brown enjoyed a solid lead in the polls but then his popularity fell significantly and his position became increasingly under threat.

The 2010 general election resulted in a hung parliament – Britain’s first for 36 years – with the Conservative Party controlling 306 seats, the Labour Party 258 seats and the Liberal Democrats 57 seats. The Liberal Democrats negotiated with the Labours and the Conservatives to form a coalition government. Brown announced his resignation as Prime Minister and as the leader of the Labour Party. This paved the way for the Conservatives to return to power after 13 years.

As the Conservative Party won the 2010 general election but did not win enough seats to win an outright majority David Cameron, who had led the party since 2005 became Prime Minister on May 11, 2010 after the Conservatives formed a coalition government with the Liberal Democrats. Cameron promised to reduce Britain’s budget deficit by cutting back on public service spending and by transferring more power to local authorities.

In line with the Fixed Term Parliaments Act, the 2015 general election was called for May 7, 2015. The Conservatives promised to keep taxes low and reduce the deficit as well as an In/Out referendum on the UK's relationship with the European Union. The rival Labour party called for a higher minimum wage, and higher taxes on the rich. Pre-election polls had predicted a close race and a hung parliament, but the surprising result was that a majority Conservative government was elected.

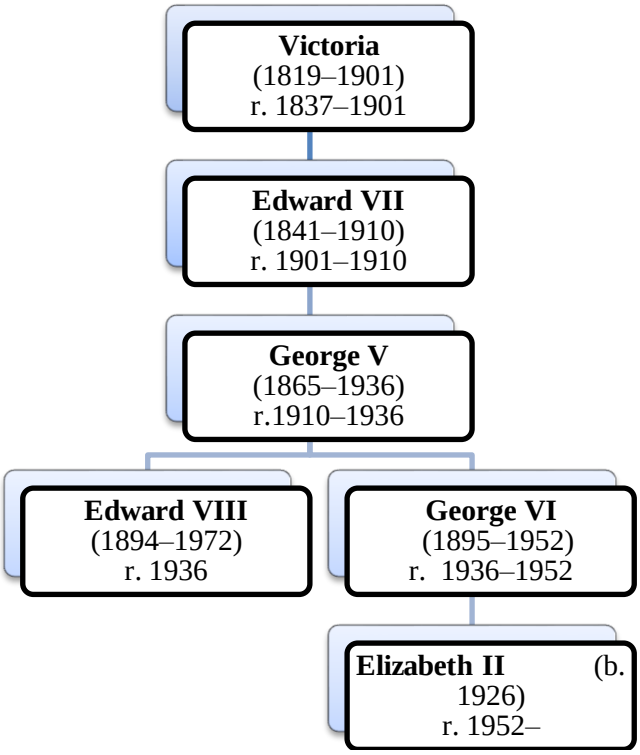
On June 23, 2016, UK voters elected to withdraw from the European Union by a thin margin with 48 % in favour of remaining, 52 % in favour of leaving the European Union. London, Scotland, and Northern Ireland were three regions most in favour of the Remain vote, while Wales and England's northern region were strongly pro-Leave. Although David Cameron called for the referendum, he had campaigned for the Remain vote. He faced significant opposition from other parties on the right who came to view British membership in the EU as a detriment to the country's security and economic vitality. Brexit had a few immediate consequences. Hours after the results of the referendum, David Cameron announced that he would resign as Prime Minister, claiming that "fresh leadership" was needed. Following Cameron's announcement of his resignation Theresa May became the new Leader of the Conservative Party and became the Prime Minister on 13 July, 2016.

The premiership of Boris Johnson began on 24 July 2019 when Johnson accepted Queen Elizabeth II's invitation, at her prerogative, to form a government. It followed the resignation of Theresa May, who stood down as the leader of the Conservative Party following UK Parliament's repeated rejection of her Brexit withdrawal agreement. On January 31, 2020 The UK left the European Union.

British Monarchy in the 20th Century

Britain has more living symbols of its past than many other countries. It still has a royal family. During the 20th century the monarchy became more popular than ever before. George V, the grandson of Victoria, attended the first football Cup Final match at Wembley Stadium, and royal attendance became an annual event. On Christmas Day, 1932, he used the new BBC radio service to speak to all peoples of the Commonwealth and the empire. His broadcast was enormously popular, and began a tradition. In 1935 George V celebrated his Silver Jubilee, and drove through crowded streets of cheering people in the poorest parts of London. "I'd no idea they felt like that about me", he said, "I'm beginning to think they must really like me for myself". To his own great surprise, George V became a "people's king".

The House of Windsor



However, in 1936 the monarchy experienced a serious crisis when George V's son, Edward VIII, gave up the throne in order to marry a divorced woman. Divorce was still strongly disapproved of at that time, and the event showed how public opinion now limited the way the royal family could act in private life. At the time it caused much discussion, and has remained a matter for heated argument.

During the Second World War George VI, Edward's brother, became greatly loved for his visits to the bombed areas of Britain. He and his wife were admired for refusing to leave Buckingham Palace even after it also had been bombed. Since 1952, when Elizabeth II became Queen, the monarchy has steadily increased in popularity.

Elizabeth II is the Queen of the United Kingdom and the other Commonwealth realms since 1952. This period has been one of the enormous changes for the monarchy, but Elizabeth has remained a dutiful and well-informed queen. Elizabeth has occasionally faced press criticism of the royal family, in particular after the breakdown of her children's marriages, the death in 1997 of her former daughter-in-law Diana, Princess of Wales. However, in the United Kingdom support for the monarchy has been and remains consistently high, as does her personal popularity.

The Queen does not intend to abdicate, though Prince Charles is expected to take on more of her duties as Elizabeth, who celebrated her 93rd birthday in 2019, carries out fewer public engagements. On April 20, 2018, the government

leaders of the Commonwealth of Nations announced that she would be succeeded by Prince Charles as head of the Commonwealth. The Queen stated it was her "sincere wish" that the Prince of Wales would follow her in the role.

Test Your Knowledge

1. What is the Act of Union of 1801 connected with?
2. Who was the king of the UK during the Napoleonic wars?
3. When was a regular police force for London established?
4. What countries became the parts of British Empire in the 19th century?
5. Why did Britain send troops to Egypt and the Sudan in the 1880s?
6. What were Britain's reasons for mass colonization?
7. What period in British history is called the Victorian Age?
8. What was the aim of the Great Exhibition in London?
9. Why was Britain in the 19th century called the "workshop of the world"?
10. What political parties became the most prominent in the 19th century?
11. What education reforms were introduced by Victorian government?
12. What authors were dominant in the Victorian Age?
13. When did the British colonies get independence?
14. What is King George V famous for?
15. Who changed the royal family name and when did it happen?
16. How did the First World War start? How was Great Britain involved in it?
17. How did the First World War change the position of women in the British society?
18. Who inspired the nation to the victory in the Second World War?
19. What governmental measures helped Britain recover after the war?
20. When did the UK become a member of the European Community?
21. What was the policy of Margaret Thatcher's government?
22. What is Tony Blair's premiership known?
23. What policy is pursued by Boris Johnson?
24. When did Queen Elizabeth inherit the crown?

Lecture 7

THE UK STATE AND POLITICAL SYSTEM

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is one of the few developed countries of the world where a constitutional monarchy has survived with its customs, traditions and ceremonies. It is common knowledge that Great Britain, having the oldest Parliament in the world, has one of the most stable and effective political regimes of our time. Under the British Constitution the Government functions through the following bodies: the Legislature which makes laws; the Executive which puts laws into effect and plans policy; and the Judiciary which decides on cases that arise out of laws.

The Palace of Westminster has been a centre of power for over 900 years. Parliament is known as "Westminster", since it is housed in the Palace of Westminster, once a home of the monarchy. Like the monarchy, Parliament is an ancient institution, dating from the middle of the 13th century. It developed naturally out of the daily political needs of the English King and his government.

The Origins and Development of the British Parliament

The modern UK Parliament can trace its origins all the way back to two features of the Anglo-Saxon government from the 8th to 11th centuries. They are the Witan and the moot.

The Witan was the occasion when the king would call together his leading advisors and nobles to discuss matters affecting the country. The Witan's main duty was to advise the king, but its assent was not necessary for the king to take action. Nor did it help frame the laws, as the modern Parliament does, but primarily consented to the laws the king had already decided to enact. However, Anglo-Saxon kings realized that they could not govern their territories without local support from these powerful men, and so began the delicate balancing act between the king's power and the power of those he governed.

After the Norman Conquest kings of England began to govern through a smaller but permanent inner council of advisers and officials, but occasionally the king would call on additional nobles (earls and barons) and churchmen (bishops and abbots) to gain their approval of his decisions, especially regarding taxation. This larger group of noble advisors especially summoned was known as the Great Council which evolved into the Parliament of England.

Under the Anglo-Saxons there were regular meetings, or moots, for each county (or shire) where cases were heard and local matters discussed. The shire moot was attended by the local lords and bishops, the sheriff, and most importantly, four representatives of each village. After the Conquest, that meeting became known as the County Court and it introduced the idea of representative government at the local level.

These two gatherings remained separate for many centuries, but eventually the noble councilors of the Great Council and the local spokesmen of the County Court would combine to make a Parliament of two Houses, the aristocratic Lords and the locally representative Commons.

The first known official use of the term Parliament was in 1236. It described the consultative meetings of the English monarch with a large group of his nobles (the earls and barons), and prelates (the bishops and abbots). The word "*parliament*" means an event arranged to talk and discuss things, from the French word "*parler*".

For the first few centuries of its existence Parliament was only an occasion and not an institution. It was called at the whim of the monarch, consisted of whoever he wanted to speak with, met wherever he happened to be, could last as long as he wanted, and had no independent officials of its own. During the 13th century the barons were frequently in revolt against the kings whom they thought were governing the realm badly, that is, against the barons' own wishes. In 1215 King John was forced to agree to Magna Carta, the "great charter" of legal rights which insisted that he listen to and follow the advice of the barons. Then, at the meeting of Parliament at Oxford in 1258 the barons stated their dissatisfaction with Henry III, and tried to force him to accept a set of conditions called *the Provisions of Oxford.* Those radical proposals called for regular meetings of Parliament three times a year, which should also include 12 non-noble representatives chosen from the counties. Henry III refused to agree to the provisions and war broke out between him and the leader of the barons, Simon de Montfort. Henry was defeated and taken prisoner by Montfort's army. In 1264, Montfort summoned the first parliament in English history without any prior royal authorisation. His Parliament is seen as the earliest forerunner of the modern Parliament because it included not only the men who made up the Great Council, but also two knights from each shire and two burgesses from each borough.

Montfort's scheme was formally adopted by Edward I in the so-called "Model Parliament" of 1295. The attendance at parliament of knights and burgesses historically became known as the summoning of "the Commons". In 1341, the Commons met separately from the nobility and clergy for the first time, creating what was an Upper Chamber and a Lower Chamber.

The authority of parliament grew under Edward III who was involved in the Hundred Years' War and needed finances. The Commons came to act with increasing boldness during this period. It was established that no law could be made, nor any tax levied, without the consent of both Houses and the Sovereign. During the Good Parliament (1376), the Presiding Officer of the lower chamber, Sir Peter de la Mare, complained of heavy taxes, demanded an accounting of the royal expenditures, and criticised the king's management of the military. De la

Mare was thus the forerunner of the office of Speaker of the House of Commons – a member elected by the Commons to chair its business and represent its views. The Commons even proceeded to impeach some of the king's ministers.

During the reign of the next monarch, Richard II, the Commons once again began to impeach errant ministers of the Crown. They insisted that they could not only control taxation, but also public expenditure. Despite such gains in authority, however, the Commons still remained much less powerful than the House of Lords and the Crown.

In the 15th century the Commons acquired an equal role in making laws. From its beginning one of Parliament's roles had been as a forum for the hearing of private petitions – requests for help or favour from the people – submitted to the King and Lords. Increasingly, the Commons became the principal petitioners to this Upper House, submitting common petitions which addressed general problems which could be solved by the King through new laws, known as statutes. Then petitioners began to submit their grievances first to the Commons and, based on these petitions, the Commons wrote draft statutes, known as Bills, to be presented to the Upper House. In 1414 the Commons successfully insisted to Henry V that the King and Lords should not change the wording of any of the Bills submitted by the Commons without its agreement and that no Bill should become an Act (that is, become statute), without their assent. By the mid-15th century the Commons had been in control of granting supply of money to the King and had gone from petitioners to full partners in the formation of statute, the highest law of the land.

By the time Henry VII came to the throne in 1485 the monarch had not been not a member of either the Upper Chamber or the Lower Chamber. Consequently, the monarch would have to make his or her feelings known to Parliament through his or her supporters in both houses. Proceedings were regulated by the presiding officer in either chamber. From the 1540s the presiding officer in the House of Commons became formally known as the "Speaker". This was not an enviable job. When the House of Commons was unhappy it was the Speaker who had to deliver this news to the monarch. That began the tradition whereby the Speaker of the House of Commons is dragged to the Speaker's Chair by other members once elected.

Henry VIII's Reformation Parliament, which sat from 1529 to 1536, fundamentally changed the nature of Parliament and of English government. The King summoned it in order to settle what was called his 'great matter', his divorce from Catherine of Aragon, which the Papacy in Rome was blocking. In only a few short years, Parliament – under the direction and impetus of the King – made laws affecting all aspects of national life, especially in religious practice and doctrine, which had previously been under the authority of the Church alone. It passed laws which transferred religious authority from the Pope

to the English Crown, gave the Crown control over the wealth and buildings of the old Church, settled official religious doctrine, altered the succession by declaring several of the King's children illegitimate, and inaugurated a wider programme of social, religious and economic reform. Parliament still existed only by the monarch's will, but Henry VIII and his immediate successors knew that they could best effect their will through the assent of Parliament in statute.

Parliament did not always submit to the wishes of the Tudor monarchs. But parliamentary criticism of the monarchy reached new levels in the 17th century. In 1628, alarmed by the arbitrary exercise of royal power, the House of Commons submitted to Charles I *the Petition of Right*, demanding the restoration of their liberties. Charles accepted the petition, but later dissolved parliament and ruled without it for eleven years. In 1640 he was forced to recall Parliament historically known as the Short Parliament to authorise new taxes. The parliament which sat with several breaks and in various forms between 1640 and 1660 is known as the Long Parliament. It was characterised by the growing number of critics of the king who sat in it. Tensions between the king and his parliament reached a boiling point in January 1642 when Charles entered the House of Commons and tried, unsuccessfully, to arrest some of its members for their alleged treason. From then on relations between the king and his parliament deteriorated further, leading to the Civil War, the execution of the king and the start of an 11-year republic. The House of Lords was abolished and the House of Commons governed England until April 1653, when Oliver Cromwell dissolved it after disagreements over religious policy and how to carry out elections to Parliament.

The events that took place in 1649–1660 were hugely important in determining the future of Parliament. In terms of the evolution of Parliament as an institution, by far the most important development during the Republic was the sitting of Parliament without the monarch and the House of Lords. Members of the House of Commons became known as "MPs" (Members of Parliament). In 1657 Cromwell had the Parliament of Scotland unified with the English Parliament.

After the death of Oliver Cromwell the Convention Parliament which was dominated by royalists was summoned. This parliament voted to re-instate the monarchy and the House of Lords. Charles II returned to England as king in May 1660. The Anglo-Scottish parliamentary union that Cromwell had established was dissolved in 1661 when the Scottish Parliament resumed its separate meeting place in Edinburgh. In 1681 Charles II dissolved parliament and ruled without it for the last four years of his reign.

During the reign of William III and Mary II Parliament was able to have the 1689 Bill of Rights enacted. Later the 1701 Act of Settlement was approved. Those were the statutes that lawfully upheld the prominence of

Parliament for the first time in English history. These events marked the beginning of the English constitutional monarchy and its role as one of the three elements of Parliament.

Following the Treaty of Union in 1706, Acts of Union were passed in both the Parliament of England and the Parliament of Scotland, which created a new Kingdom of Great Britain. The Acts dissolved both parliaments, replacing them with a new parliament, referred to as the "Parliament of Great Britain".

After the Hanoverian King George I ascended the British throne in 1714 real power continued to shift away from the monarchy. George entrusted power to a group of his ministers, the foremost of them was Sir Robert Walpole, and by the end of his reign in 1727 the position of the ministers, who had to rely on Parliament for support, was cemented. George I's successor, his son George II, continued to follow his father's domestic policies and made little effort to re-establish monarchical control over the government which was now in firm control by Parliament. George II's successor, George III, sought to restore the royal supremacy and an absolute monarchy, but by the end of his reign the position of the king's ministers, who discovered that they needed the support of Parliament to enact any major changes, had become central to the role of British governance, and would remain so ever after.

In 1801, the Parliament of the United Kingdom was created when the Kingdom of Great Britain was united with the Kingdom of Ireland to become the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland under the 1800 Acts of Union.

Until the 19th century the House of Lords was superior to the House of Commons both in theory and in practice. The supremacy of the British House of Commons was reaffirmed in the early 20th century. Since the Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949, the powers of the House of Lords have been very much less than those of the House of Commons. All bills except money bills are debated and voted upon in the House of Lords; however, by voting against a bill, the House of Lords can only delay it for a maximum of two parliamentary sessions over a year. After that time, the House of Commons can force the Bill through without the Lords' consent, under the Parliament Acts.

The Irish Free State became independent in 1922, and in 1927 parliament was renamed the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

The British Constitution

Britain is a constitutional monarchy. That means that the country is governed by a king or queen who accepts the advice of a parliament. It is also a parliamentary democracy. That is, it is a country whose government is controlled by a parliament which has been elected by the people.

There are features of the British system of government which make it different from that in other countries and which are not ‘modern’ at all. The most notable of them is the question of the constitution. Britain is almost alone among modern states in that it does not have ‘a constitution’ at all. Of course, there are rules, regulations, principles and procedures for the running of the country, but there is no single written document which can be appealed to as the highest law of the land and the final arbiter in any matter of dispute. Nobody can refer to ‘article 6’ or ‘the first amendment’ or anything like that, because nothing like that exists.

Instead, the principles and procedures by which the country is governed and from which people’s rights are derived come from a number of different sources. They have been built up, bit by bit, over the centuries. Some of them are written down in laws agreed by Parliament, some of them have been spoken and then written down (judgements made in court) and some of them have never been written down at all. For example, there is no written law in Britain that says anything about who can be the Prime Minister or what the powers of the Prime Minister are, even though he or she is probably the most powerful person in the country.

The British constitution was formed partly by statutes such as the Magna Carta of 1215 and the Act of Settlement of 1701, partly by laws and customs of Parliament and partly by conventions. It can be altered by Act of Parliament, or by general agreement to create, vary or abolish a convention. Amendments to Britain’s unwritten constitution are made by a simple majority support in both Houses of Parliament to be followed by the Royal Assent.

There are two basic principles of the British Constitution: the Rule of Law and the Supremacy of Parliament. According to the latter Parliament can pass, repeal and alter any of Britain’s laws. This is one of the major powers that a government has.

The Bill of Rights (1689) was a major legal step towards constitutional monarchy. It limited the powers of monarchy to a great extent, especially on governmental and other matters. Since 1689 the power of parliament has grown steadily, while the power of the monarch has weakened. Today the monarch reigns, though she does not rule. Being a constitutional monarch the Queen acts on the advice of her prime minister and does not make any major political decisions.

Under the British Constitution the Government functions through the following bodies:

- the Legislature which makes laws;
- the Executive which puts laws into effect and plans policy;
- the Judiciary which decides on cases that arise out of the laws.

The British Monarch

In Britain the Queen is not only the head of state, but is the "symbol of their nation's unity". The Queen personifies the state; she is head of the executive, an integral part of legislature, head of the judiciary, the commander-in-chief of all armed forces, the supreme governor of the established Church of England, the Anglican Church, and the personal head of the Commonwealth.

The United Kingdom is governed by Her Majesty's Government in the name of the Queen. Although the Queen is deprived of actual power, she has retained many important, though formal, functions. They include summoning, proroguing and dissolving Parliament; giving royal assent to Bills passed by both Houses of Parliament; appointing every important office holder, including government ministers, judges, officers in the armed forces, governors, diplomats and bishops and some other senior clergy of the Church of England; conferring peerages, knighthoods and other honours. She appoints the Prime Minister to form a government. As head of State the Queen has, in international affairs, the power to declare war and make peace, to recognize foreign states and governments, to conclude treaties, etc. She gives audiences to her ministers and other officials at home and overseas, receives accounts of Cabinet decisions, reads dispatches and signs innumerable state papers; she is informed and consulted on every aspect of national life.

The royal family serves as a custodian of British standards and values. Today the monarchy is also one of the great tourist attractions: Buckingham Palace, the Tower of London and Windsor Castle are on the list of priorities for most of tourists visiting Britain. Despite all the tragedies and scandals involving members of the Royal Family, the general public still supports the idea of preserving its traditions. The general feeling about monarchy is probably best described by a well-known British politician Christopher Owen who said, "We need the monarchy, as surely as ship needs an anchor. It is the Crown which provides unity and stability to Britain and the Commonwealth."

The Houses of Parliament

The Parliament of Great Britain is the legislative body of the nation. There are three elements of the British Parliament – the Queen and the two Houses of Parliament (the House of Lords and House of Commons). These elements are outwardly separate, constituted on different principles, and they meet together only on occasions of symbolic significance, such as coronation, or the State Opening of Parliament when the Commons are summoned by the Queen to the House of Lords. In modern practice the centre of parliamentary power is in the House of Commons.

The main functions of Parliament are to:

- make all the UK law;

- provide, by voting for taxation, the means of carrying on the work of government;
- protect the public and safeguard the rights of individuals;
- scrutinise government policy and administration, including proposals for expenditure;
- examine European proposals before they become law;
- debate the major issues of the day.

The Parliament Act of 1911 fixed the life of Parliament (the House of Commons) at five years, although it may be dissolved and a general election held before the end of the term. The life of Parliament is divided into sessions. Each session usually lasts for a year and begins most often in October or November. The average number of sitting days for the House of Commons in a normal session is about 175, divided into the following periods: from November till Christmas (about 40 sitting days), from January to Easter (about 50 sitting days), and from about the beginning of June until about late July or early August (40 to 50 sitting days). The House of Lords sits for about 140 days. The periods when Parliament is not sitting are popularly known as recesses.

The arrangement of seating in both Houses of Parliament reflects the party system. Both debating chambers are rectangular in shape and have at one end the seat of the Speaker, in front of the Table of the House (the House of Commons) and at the other end a technical barrier. The benches for members run the length of the chamber on both sides. Intersected by a gang-way, the benches face each other across a broad area known as the ‘floor of the House’. The benches to the right of the Speaker are used by the Government and its supporters; those to the left belong to the Opposition, and members of any other parties. In the House of Lords there are also the bishops’ benches and a number of cross-benches for peers who do not belong to any party.

Leaders of the Government and the Opposition sit on the front benches of their respective sides to the Speaker’s seat. The backbenchers, the ordinary members of Parliament, occupy the seats behind the front benchers.

The Speaker of the House of Commons presides over the House of Commons. In debate all speeches are addressed to him, and he calls upon members to speak. If he rises to give a ruling upon a doubtful point, or for any other reason, he must be heard in silence, and while he is on his her feet no other MP may remain standing. The Speaker has two main functions: representing the House in its relations with the Crown, the House of Lords and other authorities; presiding over the House and enforcing the observance of all rules which govern its conduct. Voting in the House of Commons is carried out under the direction of the Speaker, whose duty is to pronounce the final result. In the event of a tied vote the Speaker must give his decisive vote.

A vote is taken by means of a division, that is to say the separation into two lobbies of the members who wish to vote for or against a question. Members voting ‘Aye’ go out of the chamber into the lobby on the right of the Speaker, while those voting ‘No’ pass into the lobby on his left.

The House of Commons consists of 650 MPs but it can seat some 350 MPs. So when he or she wins a “seat” in the House of Commons during the General Election this doesn’t necessarily mean a new MP will actually have a seat there. On ordinary occasions MPs who also have much committee, party and constituency business to attend to, are not expected to be in constant attendance in the debating chamber. When any special business is about to be taken – for instance, if a vote on some legislative or other matter is pending – steps are taken to secure their presence. At other times, there may be more or fewer members present, depending on the speakers and the subject for debate.

The House of Lords is the second chamber of the UK Houses of Parliament which members are not elected. Its composition is different from that of the House of Commons. There were traditionally a large number of Conservative peers in the Lords but this is no longer the case since the majority of hereditary peers were excluded from membership of the House following the 1999 House of Lords Act. About two thirds of the Lords align themselves with a political party. A distinctive feature of the House of Lords is the presence of crossbench peers who are not affiliated to any party group. Some Lords are former Members of the House of Commons who have been elevated to the Lords in recognition of distinguished service in politics or because one of the political parties wishes to have them in the House. The overall numbers and membership of the House of Lords changes more frequently than they do in the House of Commons.

In general, the functions of the House of Lords are similar to those of the House of Commons in legislating, debating and questioning the executive. There are two important exceptions: members of the Lords do not represent constituencies, and are not involved in matters of taxation and finance. The role of the Lords is generally recognised to be complementary to that of the Commons and it acts as a revising chamber for many of the more important and controversial bills. All bills go through both Houses before becoming Acts, and may start in either House. Normally, the consent of the Lords is required before Acts of Parliament can be passed, and the Lords can amend all legislation, with the exception of bills to raise taxation, long seen as the responsibility of the Commons. Amendments have to be agreed to by both Houses.

The Speaker of the House of Lords is the Lord Chancellor. The Lord Chancellor’s powers are very limited compared with those of the Speaker of the House of Commons. The Lord Chancellor carries no authority to control debate. Members of the House of Lords do not address themselves to the Lord

Chancellor during debates, but to their fellow members in the House. If, during a debate, two peers rise to their feet at the same time, the House itself determines who shall speak: the Lord Chancellor has no power to decide which peer shall take the floor. The Lord Chancellor sits on a special seat called the Woolsack. The Woolsack is a seat stuffed with wool on which the Lord Chancellor sits. It was introduced by King Edward III (1327–1377) and originally stuffed with English wool as a reminder of England's traditional source of wealth – the wool trade – and as a sign of prosperity. Today the woolsack is stuffed with wool from several countries of the Commonwealth to symbolize unity.

The Election System

Every four or five years (it cannot be more than five and is rarely less than four) there is a General Election to decide who should become Members of Parliament. Voting is carried out on the basis of territorial areas with roughly similar populations called constituencies. There are about 650 constituencies in the United Kingdom with 60,000–70,000 electors in each of them.

When the Prime Minister announces that there will be a General Election, a three-week election campaign includes open meetings, television programmes, candidates and their supporters visiting households and discussing issues, leaflets, politicians 'meeting the people' and listening to their complaints. In each constituency the candidates will publish their manifesto describing the different polices of their party towards such matters as tax, health and education, how to treat criminals, attitudes to world affairs. They speak about their particular interests and ask to be elected as servants of the people. On Election Day, each person in the country who wants to vote goes to the polling station, collects a voting paper which has a list of candidates and marks an 'X' beside the one candidate they wish to be elected. There is no 'Against All Candidates' option. In each constituency, the candidate with most votes wins in a simple 'first-past-the-post' (abbreviated FPTP or FPP) system. The term is taken from horse racing, where the winner of the race is the first to pass a particular point on the track after which all other runners automatically and completely lose (that is, "winner-take-all"). He or she does not have to have 51 % of the vote – simply more votes than anyone else. The person who wins the highest number of votes wins that election, for example: candidate A (Labour) has 22,000 votes, candidate B (Tory) – 17,000 votes and candidate C (Lib Dems) – 13,000 votes. The winner is candidate A.

FPTP is a cheap and simple way to hold an election. Counting of the ballot papers is usually fast. FPTP has created within Great Britain a political system that is essentially stable as politics is dominated by just two parties.

Critics say that FPTP questions the whole issue of democratic elections. In the example above, 22,000 voted for the candidate that won that election but 30,000 voted against the winner.

Let us examine what happens at this imaginary election when the Conservative Party wins because the results of the election produce a Parliament consisting of 300 Conservative MPs, 200 Labour MPs, 110 Liberal Democrat members and 40 MPs from Northern Ireland and the small nationalist parties. The Conservative Party has the largest number of members in Parliament, so it has to form the Government. The person who is already the leader of the Conservative Party automatically becomes Prime Minister. There is no separate election for him.

If a general election creates a situation when no party has an overall majority then a formal coalition is formed to get laws passed as it was at the 2010 general election. As a result of negotiations the Conservatives formed such a coalition with the Liberal-Democratic Party.

On 5 May 2011 the Conservative-Liberal Democrat coalition government held a referendum on introducing the *Alternative Vote* for the Commons, which was defeated.

Passing Laws

Laws are rules that everyone in the country must obey. In a democracy, like the UK, nobody is above the law. For a law to be enacted a bill must be presented and go through all the necessary stages in both Houses of Parliament and the Queen must signify her approval.

The Commons is normally the most important procedural step in this process. A bill will receive a formal first reading when it is introduced into the Commons by the government or a private member. After a period ranging from one day to several months, the bill is given its second reading after a debate on its general principles. The bill is then usually passed to a standing committee for detailed discussion and amendment. This committee stage is followed by the report stage, during which further amendments to the bill may be suggested. The third reading of the bill considers it in its final form, usually on a purely formal basis. However, debate is still possible at this stage if demanded by at least six MPs.

After the third reading, a Commons bill will be sent to the House of Lords. It will then go through broadly the same stages again. The Lords can delay a non-financial bill for two sessions, or roughly one year. It can also propose amendments, and if amended the bill goes back to the Commons for further consideration. This amending function is an important power, and has been frequently used in recent years. But the Lords' role today is to act as a forum for revision, rather than as a rival to the elected Commons.

When the bill has eventually passed through the Lords, it is sent to the monarch for the Royal Assent, which has not been refused since the eighteenth century. After the royal signature has been added, the bill becomes an Act of Parliament.

Parliamentary Procedure

Parliamentary procedure in both Houses of Parliament is mainly based on custom, convention and precedent.

Each parliamentary session begins with the State Opening of Parliament. It takes place when Parliament reassembles after a general election, normally in November. It is the main ceremonial event of the parliamentary year, attracting large crowds, both in person and watching on television.

The Queen's Speech is delivered by the Queen from the Throne in the House of Lords. The speech is given in the presence of members of both Houses, the Commons being summoned to hear the speech by an official known as Black Rod.

Although the speech is made by the Queen, the content of the speech is entirely designed by the Government and approved by the Cabinet. It is an outline of the Government's policies and proposed legislative programme for the current parliamentary session.

After the State Opening, the Government's programme is debated. The motion is that the House sends an address to the Queen thanking her for the speech, but the debate, which lasts several days, is in fact a chance for MPs to speak on any matter of government policy.

For most of the year the Commons adopts a routine of meeting each weekday afternoon, and 'sitting' until about 10.30 p. m. although it sometimes sits beyond midnight. On Fridays the Commons sits from 9.30 a. m. through to 3.00 p. m., rising early in order to allow MPs to return to their constituencies for the weekend, where they must make themselves available and accessible for local matters, complaints and attendance at formal functions. The proceedings of Parliament are public, and space is available for a small number of people, especially the press, to listen. Proceedings of both Houses are also now televised, the Lords since 1984 and the Commons since 1989. The manner in which business is conducted is the result of custom and precedent, from which have emerged 'standing order' which govern the details of practice in each House.

Each day begins, after brief opening formalities, with Question Time, lasting approximately an hour, MPs are able to ask ministers or other MPs questions on any point they may choose. Questions must be handed in 48 hours ahead, to allow ministers and their departmental staff time to prepare an answer. Naturally, both the Opposition and the party of government seek to use this period in order to reveal the weakness of their opponents. Once a minister's formal answer has been given, supplementary questions may be asked which the minister

is expected to answer. On two afternoons each week the Prime Minister will answer questions on general policy matters. These occasions are usually the liveliest. After Question Time, the main debate of the day takes place. Most of the time available in any parliamentary session is devoted to scrutiny of government spending, and debating new bills the government wishes to introduce.

Parliamentary Ceremonies

The State Opening is a royal ceremony of great antiquity which marks the start of a parliamentary year. It is customary for the Sovereign to be present at the ceremony, which serves as a symbolic reminder of the unity of the three constituent parts of Parliament: the Sovereign, the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

The broad outlines of the ceremony have remained largely unchanged for centuries: a procession by the Sovereign to the Palace of Westminster is followed by the assembling of the Members of both Houses, and the reading of the Speech, which sets out the Government's agenda and key legislative plans.

The modern state opening ceremony dates to 1852, when the new Palace of Westminster was opened. The route within Parliament that Queen Elizabeth II follows today was used by Queen Victoria for the first time in 1852. And the Irish State Coach which the present Queen rides in today was bought by Queen Victoria and used for the first time in 1852.

In a solemn procession she proceeds to the House of Lords where the lords have gathered. After the Queen has taken her seat on the Throne, she despatches Black Rod to the Commons Chamber to summon MPs to hear the Queen's Speech. The door of the Commons is slammed in Black Rod's face. Black Rod then bangs three times on the door with the rod. The tradition has been continued as a way to symbolise the Commons' independence from the Sovereign and the Lords. After knocking, Black Rod is admitted to the Commons chamber and requests Members' attendance. MPs pair up, led by the Prime Minister and the Leader of the Opposition, and follow Black Rod to the bar of the House of Lords to hear the Queen's Speech.

Both the Commons' and the Lords' Speaker formally open their respective Houses each day with a ceremonial procession from their official residences within the Palace to their respective Chambers at the start of business. These processions can be observed by the public.

The origins of the Speaker's procession are unclear. Two theories predominate. It has been suggested that early Speakers were routinely accompanied by a bodyguard as they went about, in recognition of the dangers of the job. The presence of the Serjeant-at-Arms with the mace in the procession supports this. However, alternatively, and in light of the fact that the Commons'

proceedings begin with prayers led by the Chaplain, it is thought the original procession may have been associated with some more elaborate form of worship.

Either way, the procession today consists of a Commons' Doorkeeper, the Sergeant-at-Arms with the mace, the Speaker, the Trainbearer, Chaplain and Secretary. The procession moves circuitously from Speaker's House through the Library Corridor, the Lower Waiting Hall, Central and Members' Lobbies to the Chamber. This route was adopted during the Second World War when the Commons used the House of Lords chamber after their own had been destroyed. This route has been retained in preference to the shorter pre-war route so that visitors in Central Lobby can witness the ceremony. The procession walks at a slow, formal pace.

Police along the route call out 'Speaker', to signify that any people present should stand aside for the Speaker's procession. In Central Lobby, where there may be members of the public, the police inspector on duty shouts "Hats off, Strangers". Nowadays, few may be wearing hats but the police remove their helmets, and this aspect of the ceremony is a relic of the elaborate hat wearing and doffing etiquette of former centuries.

As in the Commons, before each day's sitting the Lord Speaker walks in procession from the official residence in the Palace to the Lords' chamber. The procession consists of a Doorkeeper, the Deputy Sergeant-at-Arms or Principal Doorkeeper bearing the Mace, and the Lord Speaker. The procession crosses the Prince's Chamber (a small anteroom between the Royal Gallery and the Lords Chamber) where Black Rod joins the end of the procession. They then process through the 'Not Content' (i. e. the 'no') Lobby, and enter the Chamber on the 'temporal side', that is, the left side as viewed from the throne, which is contrasted to the 'spiritual side' on the right, traditionally occupied by Government Members and the Bishops. The Lord Speaker continues up the temporal side to the woolsack. Next, prayers are read by one of the Bishops, who take a week each in turn. During prayers, the Lord Speaker and other Members present kneel or stand for prayers. The Lord Speaker then takes her seat on the woolsack and the day's business commences.

The present form of the Lord Speaker's Procession evolved from that of the Lord Chancellor, and results from recommendations made by the Procedure Committee in May 2006, following the changes made in the Speakership of the House of Lords by the Constitutional Reform Act of 2005.

Another ceremony known as dragging the Speaker of the House of Commons is connected with the election of a new Speaker. The successful candidate is physically dragged to the Chair by other MPs. This custom has its roots in the Speaker's function to communicate the Commons' opinions to the monarch. Historically, if the monarch didn't agree with the message being communicated then the early death of the Speaker could follow.

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

The British Government

The party which wins most parliamentary seats at a general election, or which has the support of a majority of MPs in the House of Commons, usually forms the new government. The largest minority party becomes the official opposition. The opposition has its own leader and 'shadow government'. It plays an important constitutional role in the parliamentary system, which is based on adversarial and confrontational politics.

Her Majesty's Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is led by the Prime Minister appointed by the Queen. The Prime Minister then selects the other ministers which make up the Government and act as political heads of the various government departments.

The Prime Minister's functions involve:

- leading the majority party;
- running the Government;
- appointing and dismissing ministers;
- representing the nation in political matters.

About 30 most senior government ministers make up the Cabinet and approximately 100 ministers in total comprise the government. The key posts in the Cabinet are a Home Secretary, a Foreign Secretary and a Chancellor of the Exchequer (Finance Minister). There are also Ministers for Health, Education, Employment, Transport, etc. All ministers within the government are Members of Parliament. The composition of governments can vary both in the number of ministers and in the titles of some offices. New ministerial offices may be created, others may be abolished, and functions may be transferred from one minister to another.

The Prime Minister presides over the Cabinet which is the most important decision maker in the Government. It initiates policy on domestic problems, and also has to decide what actions to take in foreign affairs. It plans the economic and financial policy for the country: what should be done about taxes, prices, wages, benefits and so on. Once the Cabinet has decided on a policy, all members must agree to support it. Government proposals are then out to the Members of Parliament for debate. The Prime Minister and the most important ministers from the Cabinet meet weekly and effectively rule the country. The monarch is obliged to follow the advice of the government and has not refused to do so since the 17th century.

The Prime Minister informs the Queen at regular meetings of the general business of the Government. The Prime Minister's other responsibilities include recommending a number of appointments to the Queen.

The official residence of the Prime Minister is at 10, Downing Street. The present-day Prime Minister is Boris Johnson, the leader of the Conservative Party.

The Political Party System

Britain is normally described as having a 'two-party system'. This is because, since 1945, one of the two big parties has controlled the government, and members of these two parties have occupied more than 90 % of all the seats in the House of Commons.

One reason for the existence of this situation is the electoral system. The other is the nature of the origin of British political parties. Britain is unlike most other countries in that its parties were first formed inside Parliament, and were only later extended to the public at large. During the eighteenth century Members of Parliament tended to divide themselves into two camps, those who usually supported the government of the time and those who usually did not. During the nineteenth century it gradually became the habit that the party which did not control the government presented itself as an alternative government. This idea of an alternative government has received legal recognition. The leader of the second biggest party in the House of Commons (or, more exactly, of the biggest party which is not in government) receives the title "Leader of Her Majesty's Opposition" and even gets a salary to prove the importance of this role and forms a "Shadow cabinet".

The electoral system depends to a large extent upon the party political system. Organized political parties present their policies in the form of manifestos to the electorate for consideration during the intensive few weeks of canvassing and campaigning before the General Election Day.

The current party system is represented by a number of parties.

The Conservative Party, officially the Conservative and Unionist Party, known informally as the Tories, is a centre-right political party in the United Kingdom. The governing party since 2010, it is the largest in the House of Commons. The Conservative Prime Ministers, particularly Winston Churchill and Margaret Thatcher, led governments for 57 years of the 20th century. In July 2019, Boris Johnson became the Leader of the Conservative Party and Prime Minister.

The Liberal Party was one of the two major parties in the United Kingdom with the opposing Conservative Party in the 19th and early 20th centuries. The party arose in the 1850s. At the beginning of the 20th century the Liberal Party passed the welfare reforms that created a basic British welfare

state. The party went into decline after 1918 and by the 1950s won no more than six seats at general elections.

In the early 1920 the Labour Party overtook the Liberal Party to become the main opposition to the Conservative Party. The Labour Party is a centre-left political party in the United Kingdom that has been described as an alliance of social democrats, democratic socialists and trade unionists. The party's platform emphasises greater state intervention, social justice and strengthening workers' rights. The Labour Party was founded in 1900, having grown out of the trade union movement and socialist parties of the 19th century. Labour is currently the Official Opposition in the Parliament of the United Kingdom, having won the second-largest number of seats in the 2017 general election.

The Liberal Democrats or the Lib Dems were founded in 1988 by an amalgamation of the Liberal Party and the Social Democratic Party. The Liberal Democrats are quite often referred to as a 'centre' party – a party which in ideological terms plays upon the differences between the two major parties, tending to be closer to the Labour party. The Liberal Democrats combine an ideological tradition of liberalism with social democracy. The Liberal Democrats support institutional reform in the United Kingdom, including the decentralisation of state power, reform of Parliament, and electoral reform. The Liberal Democrats were the only one of Britain's three major parties to oppose the invasion of Iraq.

The nationalist parties of the UK have been a significant political force since the 1970s, and today they are more significant than ever. Plaid Cymru, the Welsh nationalist party, has had continuous representation in Parliament since 1974. The Democratic Unionist Party (DUP), Sinn Féin, the Ulster Unionist Party (UUP), and the Social Democratic and Labour Party (SDLP) are considered the four major political parties in Northern Ireland. In Scotland, the Scottish National Party (SNP) advocates the separation of Scotland from the United Kingdom in order to safeguard the country's cultural and economic life.

Test Your Knowledge

1. Does Britain have a formal written constitution?
2. What are the three main sources of the British Constitution?
3. What are the two main principles of the British Constitution?
4. What are the main bodies of the British state system?
5. What is the structure and functions of the British Parliament?
6. What is the difference between the two Houses?
7. Were there any reforms of the House of Lords in the 20th century?
8. What is a working day in Parliament like?
9. What is Question time?

10. What does each parliamentary session begin with?

11. What are the functions of the Speaker and the Lord Speaker (Lord Chancellor)?

12. What is the procedure of passing laws like? What are its stages?

13. Why is it said that the Queen reigns but doesn't rule? What are the official duties and functions of the monarch?

14. How is government formed?

15. What is the Cabinet? How is it formed?

16. How often are General Elections held?

17. What are the main political parties in Britain?

18. When was the Labour party actually born? How did the origins of the Labour party affect its programme and policy?

19. Whose interests did the Conservative party voice in the past and who supports it today?

20. Why are the Liberal Democrats referred to as a "centre" party?

21. What are the main nationalist parties in Britain today? Whose interests do they voice?

22. What parliament ceremonies are observed at present?

23. What is the present Prime Minister's home and foreign policy?

Lecture 8

THE BRITISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The educational system in the UK is very similar to the educational systems in other European countries and yet very different. As in other European countries it offers free of charge compulsory full-time education up to the age of 16. The major difference between the education systems in the United Kingdom and many other countries is decentralisation. Although the overall approach to education is in the wide sense similar throughout the United Kingdom, the service is administered separately: the Government of the United Kingdom is responsible for education in England whilst the Scottish Government, the Welsh Government and the Northern Ireland Executive are responsible for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland respectively.

Certain attempts to unify the system have been made but it is still not united. New laws have been introduced to implement the Government's education reforms, the most significant of which are the Education Reform Act 1988, which led to introduction of a compulsory National Curriculum for pupils aged 5–16 in state schools, the Further and Higher Education Act of 1992 and Education Acts of 1993 and 1994.

The National Curriculum determines the content of what will be taught, and sets attainment targets for learning. It also determines how performance will be assessed and reported. The National Curriculum ensures that schools in all parts of the country are following the same courses; specifies what children must study and what they are expected to know at different ages; prepares children for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences in adult life.

There are really three, not one, national curricula. There is one for England and Wales, another for Scotland and another for Northern Ireland. The organization of subjects and the details of the learning objectives vary slightly from one to the other. There is even a difference between England and Wales. Only in the latter the Welsh language is part of the curriculum.

In each country there are five stages of education: preschool, primary, secondary, further and higher education.

Compulsory Education

Full time education is compulsory for all children between the ages of 5 (4 in Northern Ireland) and 18, either at school or otherwise. Children between the ages of 3 and 5 are entitled to 600 hours a year of optional, state-funded, pre-school education which can be provided in "playgroups", nurseries, community childcare centres or nursery classes in schools.

The age at which a student may choose to stop education is commonly known as the "leaving age" for compulsory education. This age was raised to 18 by

the Education and Skills Act of 2008. The change took effect in 2013 for 16-year-olds and 2015 for 17-year-olds. Since that time the school leaving age (which remains 16) and the education leaving age (which is now 18) have been separated.

All children must receive an effective education from the first "prescribed day", which falls on or after their 5th birthday until their 18th birthday, and must remain in school until the last Friday in June of the school year in which they turn 16. At this age pupils can make their choice: they may either leave school and go to a Further Education College or continue their education in the sixth form. Those who stay at school after GCSE, study for 2 more years for "A (Advanced) Level" Exams in three or four subjects which are necessary to get a place at one of British universities.

Schools usually divide their year into three 'terms', three months each, named after seasons: autumn term, winter term and spring term. The autumn term starts on the first Tuesday morning in September. In July schools break up for eight weeks.

Stages of Education

The state-funded education system is divided into stages based upon age: Early Years Foundation Stage (ages 3 to 5), primary education (ages 5 to 11) subdivided into Key Stage 1 (KS1) Infants (ages 5 to 7) and Key Stage 2 (KS2) Juniors (ages 7 to 11); secondary education (ages 11 to 16) subdivided into Key Stage 4 (KS4, ages 14 to 16); Key Stage 5 is post-16 education (ages 16 to 18) and tertiary education (for ages 18+).

In England children between the ages 3 and 4 can attend nurseries (Foundation Stage 1), but it is non-compulsory education. Foundation Stage 2 takes place in the reception class of an infant or primary school between the ages 4 and 5, which is compulsory. It is also known as Key Stage 0 to fit in alongside key stages 1 to 4. In Northern Ireland it is also used to refer to the first two years of compulsory education for pupils aged 4 to 6.

The introduction of a Foundation Stage is a significant landmark in education. The early years are given a distinct identity, and a more detailed, focused curriculum, where the emphasis is on learning through planned play activities, both indoors and outdoors, when children can explore, develop and represent learning experiences that help them make sense of the world, practice and build up ideas, cooperate as they talk, take risks and make mistakes, think creatively, communicate with others as they investigate or solve problems.

The curriculum is organised into the following six areas of learning: personal, social and emotional development; communication, language and literacy; mathematical development; knowledge and understanding of the world; physical development and creative development which help practitioners to plan the learning environment and the activities with children.

The stages of the state education in England, Wales and Northern Ireland are as follows:

Key Stage	Ages	Duration	School years	Final exam
0	3–5	2 years (1 compulsory)	Nursery and reception	
1	5–7	2 years		Phonics and Reading Check (taken in Year 1 but may be retaken, if failed, in Year 2)
2	7–11	4 years	3–6	SATs, 11+exam (generally only for grammar school entry)
3	11–14	3 years	7–9	
4	14–16	2 years	10–11	GCSEs
5	16–18	2 years	12–13	GCE A-levels

Key Stage 1 fits broadly with the first stage of primary education often known as infant schools. All pupils must follow a programme of education in the six areas of learning: Language and Literacy, Mathematics and Numeracy, the Arts, the World around Us, Personal Development and Mutual Understanding and Physical Education. At the end of this stage, pupils Year 2 (aged 7 or almost 7) are normally assessed in national tests (and teacher assessments) in English, maths and science. The tests, carried out by the teacher during May, cover English reading; English grammar, punctuation and spelling; and maths.

Key Stage 2 fits the second stage of primary education, known as junior schools. Pupils join in Year 3, and stay at the school for four years, leaving at the end of Year 6 when most pupils are aged 11. All pupils in this Key Stage must follow a programme of education in these 12 areas: English, Mathematics, Science, Design and Technology, History, Geography, Art and Design, Music, Physical education (PE) including swimming, Computing, Modern Foreign Languages and Religious Education. Optionally at this Key Stage, schools often teach Personal, Social and Health education and/or citizenship.

At the end of this stage pupils are tested as part of the national programme of National Curriculum Tests known as standard attainment tests (SATs). These tests cover English and Mathematics which are externally marked, with results for each school being published in Department for Education performance tables.

Secondary education is split between Key Stage 3 and Key Stage 4.

Key Stage 3 is defined in the Education Act of 2002 as “the period beginning at the same time as the school year in which the majority of pupils in his class attain the age of twelve and ending at the same time as the school year in which the majority of pupils in his class attain the age of fourteen”. This Key

Stage normally covers pupils during their first three years of secondary education. All pupils in this Key Stage must follow a programme of education in at least 15 areas: English, Mathematics, Science, Computing, Design and Technology, History, Geography, Modern Foreign Language, Art and Design, Music, Physical Education, Citizenship, Sex Education, Career Education, Welsh (in Wales only). In Northern Ireland all pupils in this Key Stage must follow a programme of education in the nine areas of learning in the curriculum, some of which include specific subject strands: Language and Literacy (English, Irish in Irish-speaking schools, Media Education), Mathematics and Numeracy (Mathematics, Financial Capability), Modern Languages, the Arts (Art and Design, Music, Drama), Environment and Society (History, Geography), Science and Technology (Science, Technology and Design), Learning for Life and Work (Employability, Local and Global Citizenship, Personal Development, Home Economics), Physical Education, Religious Education. At the end of this stage, pupils' progress is estimated on the basis of on-going teacher assessment, with results for each school being published in performance tables.

Key Stage 4 is defined in the Education Act of 2002 as "the period beginning at the same time as the school year in which the majority of pupils in his class attain the age of fifteen and ending at the same time as the school year in which the majority of pupils in his class cease to be of compulsory school age". Since that Act, the ending of compulsory education in England has been extended beyond the age of sixteen, but compulsory education beyond the age of 16 is not classed as part of Key Stage 4. All pupils in this Key Stage must follow a programme of education in the following areas: English, Mathematics, Science, Information and Communication Technology (England only), Physical Education, Citizenship, Careers Education, Religious Education, Work-related learning, Welsh (Wales only). In addition, there is a statutory duty on schools to provide an optional programme of education for pupils in this Key Stage in each of the following areas: the Arts, Design and Technology, the Humanities and Healthcare, Modern Foreign Languages. In Northern Ireland this Key Stage follows a programme of education in the nine areas of learning: Language and Literacy, Mathematics and Numeracy, Modern Languages, the Arts, Environment and Society, Science and Technology, Learning for Life and Work (Employability, Local and Global Citizenship, Personal Development), Physical Education, Religious Education. At the end of this stage, pupils aged 16 normally enter for a range of external examinations known as GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) examinations, which mark the end of compulsory education in school. Students are free to choose the number (from five to ten) and the kinds of subjects taken.

The Sixth-Form Education

Key Stage 5 or Post-16 Education or Further Education is for students planning to go to college or university. There is a wide network of further education institutions in the UK. They give students the chance to increase their theoretical background and professional training. Further education includes sixth-form colleges and classes where students work for "A" (Advanced) level exams. It also includes colleges of further education which provide a theoretical background and professional qualification training in nursing, accountancy, management, art, music, etc.

Most students over 16 typically study in the sixth form of a school, in separate sixth form college or in a Further Education College. The term survives from an earlier system when the first five years of English secondary schooling were known as *forms*. Pupils started their first year of secondary school in the *first form* or first year, and this was the academic year in which pupils would normally become 12 years of age. Pupils would move up a form each year before entering the fifth form in the academic year in which they would have their sixteenth birthday. Those who stayed on at school to study for A-levels moved up into the sixth form.

The system was changed for the 1990–1991 academic year and school years are now numbered consecutively from primary school onwards. Year 1 is the first year of primary school after Reception. The first year of secondary school (the old first form) is now known as Year 7. The Sixth form starts now from Year 12. However, the term "sixth form" has still been retained as a vestige of the old system and is used as a collective term for Years 12 and 13.

Sixth form education is not compulsory in England and Wales. Students who take GCE A-levels choose their subjects of interest and the number of examinations. Normally, students take 3-4 A-Levels in their first year of the sixth form and most cut back to 3 in their second year, because university offers are normally based on 3 A-Levels. A-Levels have no specific subject requirements, so students have the opportunity to combine any subjects they wish to take. However, students normally pick their courses based on the degree they wish to pursue at university: most degrees require specific A Levels for entry.

Secondary vocational education is also known as further education. It is separate from secondary education and doesn't belong to the category of higher education. While getting vocational oriented education students prepare themselves for the Vocational Certificate of Education (VCE), which is similar to the A-levels requires 1 and 2 years of full-time study.

Students who are interested in other vocational qualifications may pursue a Foundation degree which is a qualification that trains people to be highly skilled technicians. The National Apprenticeship Service also offers vocational education where people at ages of 16 and older enter apprenticeship in order to

learn a skilled trade. Over 60 different certifications can be obtained through an apprenticeship, which typically lasts from 1 to 3 years. Trades apprentices receive paid wages during training and spend one day at school and the rest in the workplace to hone their skills.

State-Funded Schools

The terminology to do with the school system in Britain can be confusing. Schools funded by the government, either directly or via local education authorities, are called ‘state schools’ and education provided in this way is known as ‘state education’. This distinguishes it from ‘private education’, which comprises ‘independent schools’.

Some 93 % of children between the ages of 3 and 18 are in education in state-funded schools without charge (other than for activities such as swimming, theatre visits and field trips for which a voluntary payment can be requested.

Since 1998, there have been six main types of maintained (state-funded) school in England:

Academy schools established by the 1997–2010 Labour Government in areas of high social and economic deprivation. These schools are administratively free from direct local authority control and monitored by the Department for Education.

Community schools (formerly called county schools), in which the local authority employs the schools’ staff, owns the schools’ lands and buildings, and has primary responsibility for admissions.

Free schools are newly established schools in England set up by parents, teachers, charities or businesses which are funded by taxpayers. They are academically non-selective and free to attend, and are not controlled by a local authority. They are ultimately accountable to the Secretary of State for Education. Free schools are an extension of the existing Academy Programme. The first 24 free schools were opened in autumn 2011.

Foundation schools in which the governing body employs the staff and has primary responsibility for admissions. School land and buildings are owned by the governing body or by a charitable foundation. The Foundation appoints a minority of governors. Many of these schools were formerly grant-maintained schools.

Voluntary aided schools are linked to a variety of organisations. They can be faith schools (about two thirds are Church of England-affiliated; one third is sponsored by Roman Catholic Church), or non-denominational schools. The charitable foundation appoints a majority of the school governors and the governing body employs the staff and has primary responsibility for admissions.

Voluntary controlled schools are almost always faith schools with lands and buildings often owned by a charitable foundation. However, the local authority employs the schools' staff and has primary responsibility for admissions.

University technical colleges (UTCs), established in 2010, are a type of secondary school in England that are led by a sponsor university and have close ties to local business and industry. They are funded by the taxpayer, and are non-selective, free to attend and not controlled by a local authority. The university and industry partners support the curriculum development of the UTC, provide professional development opportunities for teachers, and guide suitably qualified students to industrial apprenticeships, foundation degrees or full degrees. The sponsor university appoints the majority of the UTC's governors and key members of the staff. Pupils transfer to a UTC at the age of 14. The distinctive element of UTCs is that they offer technically-oriented courses of study, combining National Curriculum requirements with technical and vocational elements. UTCs must specialise in subjects that require technical and modern equipment, but they also all teach business skills and the use of information and communication technology. UTCs are also supposed to offer clear routes into higher education or further learning in work.

English state-funded primary schools are almost all local schools with a small catchment area. More than half are owned by the Local Authority, though many are (nominally) voluntary controlled and some are voluntary aided. Some schools just include infants (aged 4 to 7) and some just juniors (aged 7 to 11). Some are linked, with automatic progression from the infant school to the junior school, and some are not. A few areas still have first schools for ages around 4 to 8 and middle schools for ages 8 or 9 to 12 or 13.

English secondary schools are mostly comprehensive (i. e. no entry exam), although the intake of comprehensive schools can vary widely, especially in urban areas with several local schools. Nearly 90 % of state-funded secondary schools are specialist schools, receiving extra funding to develop one or more subjects in which the school specialises, which can select up to 10 % of their pupils. In a few areas children can enter a grammar school if they pass the 11+exam; there are also a number of isolated fully selective grammar schools and a few dozen partially selective schools. A significant minority of state-funded schools are faith schools, which are attached to religious groups, most often the Church of England or the Roman Catholic Church.

All state-funded schools are regularly inspected by the Office for Standards in Education, often known simply as Ofsted. Ofsted publishes reports on the quality of education at a particular school on a regular basis. Schools judged by Ofsted to be providing an inadequate standard of education may be subject to special measures, which could include replacing the governing body and senior staff.

Independent Schools

The UK also has a tradition of independent schools which are privately run, fee-charging and are attended by approximately 7 % of children. Some independent schools for 13–18-year-olds are known for historical reasons as "public schools" and for 8–13-year-olds as "prep schools".

Independent schools range from small kindergartens to large day and boarding schools and from new experimental schools to ancient foundations. Independent schools receive no state funding.

Public schools were founded to give free education to clever boys whose parents could not afford to educate them privately. They were under "public" management and control and were called "public schools" to distinguish them from small private schools run by individuals. Today, these schools are the most expensive of the independent schools in Britain. They are mostly boarding schools, where pupils live as well as study, though some of them also take some day-pupils. Normally, entrance is by examination and state schools do not prepare children for this. So, parents who wish to send their children to a public school often send them first to a preparatory school. Preparatory schools are small private primary schools which prepare children for school examinations.

Only a small proportion of children attend these schools and their influence permeates all the institutions that exercise power in the country. It is argued that parents must have the freedom to choose the education they want for their children, and pay for it if necessary. But in Britain today parents who buy a place in a private school are buying a ticket to success. Some schools offer scholarships for those with particular skills or aptitudes, or bursaries to allow students from less financially well-off families to attend.

All in all there are about 500 independent schools in the United Kingdom. Most of these schools are boarding ones, where children live as well as study. Education in such schools is very expensive. Most boarding public schools aim at developing in the pupils a sense of duty, obedience as well as ability to exercise authority. A school is divided into "houses" with selected older boys as prefects. These schools offer high quality facilities. The education is traditional. They have produced over the centuries many of Britain's distinguished people.

Public schools have had a strong association with the ruling classes. Historically, the sons of officers and senior administrators of the British Empire were educated in England while their fathers were on overseas postings. It is interesting to mention that in 2010, over half of Cabinet Ministers had been educated at public schools, although most prime ministers since 1964 were educated at state schools.

Independent schools do not have to follow the National Curriculum, and their teachers are not required or regulated by law to have official teaching qualifications.

Famous Public Schools

Among the most famous British public schools are Eton, Harrow, Rugby and Winchester.

Eton College was founded in 1440 by King Henry VI as a charity school to provide free education to 70 poor boys, who would then go on to King's College, Cambridge. Henry took Winchester College as his model, borrowing its statutes and removing its headmaster and some of the scholars to start his new school. Eton today is a larger school than it has been for much of its history with over 1,300 pupils.

Eton's history and influence have made Eton one of the most prestigious schools in the world. Following the public school tradition, Eton is a full boarding school, which means pupils live at the school seven days a week. It is one of only four remaining single-sex boys' boarding schools in the United Kingdom. Eton has educated 20 British prime ministers, a number of world leaders, Nobel laureates and generations of the aristocracy and has been referred to as "the chief nurse of England's statesmen". In 2019 Boris Johnson became the 20th British prime minister to have attended the school.

Eton charges up to £42,501 per year and was noted as being the sixth most expensive boarding school in the UK. However the school admits some boys with modest parental income. In 2014 some 263 pupils received significant financial help from the school of around 60 % of school fee assistance, whilst another 63 pupils received their education free of charge.

The curriculum, almost purely classical until the middle of the 19th century, consists predominantly of modern subjects, although students continue to study the classics. Correspondingly, the college facilities have been modernized and include science laboratories, language laboratories, and closed-circuit television systems.

The school year is divided into three academic terms known as halves: the Michaelmas Half (from early September to mid-December), the Lent Half (from mid-January to late March) and the Summer Half (from late April to late June or early July). They are called halves because the school year was once split into two halves, between which the boys went home.

The School is known for its traditions, including a uniform of black tailcoat and black waistcoat, a starched stiffed collar and black pinstriped trousers. Boys live in 25 boys' houses, each headed by a housemaster, selected from the more senior members of the teaching staff.

The primary responsibility for a boy's studies lies with his housemaster, but he is assisted by an additional director of studies, known as a tutor. Every evening, about an hour and a quarter, known as Quiet Hour, is set aside, during which boys are expected to study or prepare work for their teachers if not otherwise engaged.

At Eton, there are dozens of organisations known as ‘societies’, in many of which pupils come together to discuss a particular topic or to listen to a lecture, presided over by a senior pupil, and often including a guest speaker. Societies tend to come and go, depending on the special enthusiasms of the masters and boys in the school at the time, but some have been in existence for many years. At any one time there are about fifty societies and clubs in existence, catering for a wide range of interests and largely run by boys.

Sport is a feature of Eton; there is an extensive network of playing fields. The sport curriculum is dominated by football, cricket, tennis, rowing.

Harrow School was founded in 1572 by John Lyon, a prosperous yeoman, under a charter granted by Elizabeth I. In 1591 Lyon drew up the statutes of the institution, providing for the free education of 40 boys of the Harrow parish, and left two-thirds of his fortune to the school when he died. The original course of instruction was exclusively classical, but studies are now offered in agriculture, architecture, art, classics, economics, geography, history, mathematics, modern languages, music, science, and technology.

The school has an enrolment of 829 boys all of whom board full-time, in twelve boarding houses of about seventy boys in each. Each house has its own facilities, customs and traditions, and each competes in sporting events against the others. Harrow has been instrumental in the development of a number of sports. The sport squash was invented in Harrow and spread to other schools and eventually became an international sport.

Its alumni include eight former British or Indian ministers, foreign politicians, former and current members of both houses of the UK Parliament, five kings, three Nobel Prize winners, many figures in the arts and sciences. Sir Winston Churchill graduated from the Harrow School.

Rugby School is a day and mostly boarding co-educational independent school in England. It was founded in 1567 as a free grammar school for boys of the area under the terms of the will of a wealthy London grocer. The most famous headmaster was the British educator Thomas Arnold who was in charge of the school from 1828 to 1842. He introduced a program of physical, moral, and religious discipline, designed to train the character as well as the mind of the student. Under his leadership Rugby became one of the greatest of English private schools. The School has been at the forefront of science education in Great Britain throughout the 20th century. The school also offers courses in art history, design, politics, and Russian history. Girls were first admitted in 1976 and in 1993 the school initiated programmes that would move it toward full co-education. The school is familiarly known also as the place of origin of Rugby football.

Today total enrolment of day pupils, from forms 4 to 12 numbers around 800. During the first year pupils study various subjects. In the second year they

do nine subjects which are for their GCSEs. The school then provides standard A-levels in 29 subjects. Students at this stage have the choice of taking three or four subjects and are also offered the opportunity to take an extended project.

A number of notable people studied at Rugby School, among them Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain, author and mathematician Lewis Carroll, etc.

Winchester College was founded in 1382 in conjunction with New College, Oxford, for which it was designed to act as a feeder. The first 70 poor scholars entered the school in 1394.

Winchester has its own entrance examination. Those wishing to enter make their arrangements with the relevant housemaster some two years before sitting the exam. Successful candidates may obtain, according to their performance, a scholarship.

The school offers a wide range of subjects. In 2008 it abandoned A-level on the grounds that this will strengthen the quality of the school's intellectual life and adopted the Cambridge Pre-U which is principally aimed at students aged 16-19, and has recognition for university entrance. In addition to normal lessons, all boys throughout the school are required to attend a class which focuses on parts of history, literature, and politics that do not lead to external examinations; its purpose is to ensure a broad education that does not focus solely on examinations.

Every pupil lives in a boarding house. It is here that he studies, eats and sleeps. Each house has an official name, usually based on the family name of the first housemaster.

As for sport traditions Winchester College has its own game, Winchester College football which is considered a cross between football and rugby.

British Universities

Higher education in Britain is traditionally associated with universities, though education of University standard is also given in other institutions such as colleges and institutes of higher education, which have the power to award their own degrees and provide both research-oriented and higher professional education. British higher education is highly valued around the globe for its quality and rigorous academic standards.

Britain is home to some of the world’s most prominent institutions of higher learning. British universities greatly differ from one another in date of foundation, size, history, tradition, general organization, methods of instruction and ways of student life. They are divided into several types.

The Old ones were founded before the 19thcentury, such as Oxford and Cambridge. Teaching in the city of Oxford is documented from 1096, making the University of Oxford the oldest university in the English-speaking world. The University of Cambridge was founded in 1209. These universities of Oxford and Cambridge, both founded in the medieval period, are federations of semi-

independent colleges. Before 1970 all Oxbridge colleges were single-sex (mostly for men). Now, the majority admit both sexes.

Central to academic life at Oxford and Cambridge is the tutorial, which is an hour-long meeting between one to three students and their tutor. A great advantage of the tutorial system is the individual attention that students receive. Although there may be one tutorial a week, students are required to spend many hours independently preparing for it and must come to the tutorial fully ready. Undergraduates are usually expected to present an essay, solutions to a set of problems, or some other project. The tutor's role is to assess this work and, through discussion, help undergraduates to think critically and creatively about their chosen subject. This personal tuition enables students to explore course material in much greater depth than lectures allow and to clarify anything students are not clear about.

The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge (or Oxbridge, as they are jointly called) have produced a large number of the world's most prominent scientists, writers and politicians, including Charles Darwin, Isaac Newton, Oscar Wilde, Margaret Thatcher, Indira Gandhi, Bill Clinton and many others.

Three *Scottish universities* – St. Andrews, Glasgow and Aberdeen – were founded in the 15th century and a fourth, the University of Edinburgh was established by royal charter in 1583. Now there are fifteen universities in Scotland and three other institutions of higher education that have the authority to award academic degrees. All Scottish universities are funded by the Scottish Government. Approximately 231,000 students study at universities or institutes of higher education in Scotland, All Scottish universities have the power to award degrees at all levels: undergraduate, taught postgraduate, and doctoral. Students do not pay for their first undergraduate degree, but all students are required to pay tuition fees for postgraduate education (e. g. MS, PhD).

The Redbrick universities were founded in the 19th or 20th century. Durham University was founded in 1832 and the University of London started in 1836 with just two colleges established. Many more have joined since, scattered widely around the city, so that each college (most are non-residential) is almost a separate university. During the 19th century various institutes of higher education, usually with a technical bias, sprang up in the new industrial towns and cities such as Birmingham, Manchester and Leeds. Their buildings were of local material, often brick, in contrast to the stone of older universities (hence the name, 'redbrick'). At first they catered only for local people and prepared students for London University degrees, but later they were given the right to award their own degrees, and so became universities themselves. In the mid-twentieth century they started to accept students from all over the country. These universities were created to fill local needs; the emphasis was placed on the study of science and technology. Currently they offer a full range of courses.

The Whitebrick universities (later named "plate-glass") were founded in the 1960s as a direct response to the demands of an expanding population and the needs of an increasingly technological economy. Most of them took the names of the counties where they were located: East Anglia, Essex, Kent, Lancaster, Warwick, York, etc.

Significant expansion followed in 1992 when, by means of the Further and Higher Education Act, the UK government granted university status to former polytechnics and to a number of other institutions, principally colleges of higher and further education. Collectively these universities are referred to as *'post-92'.* These *new* institutions nearly doubled the number of universities in the UK.

All in all higher education in the UK is now provided by 166 institutions having their own degree awarding powers. The majority of these also have 'university' title, which is only granted to those institutions which meet certain criteria. There are over 700 colleges and other institutions in the UK which do not have degree awarding powers but which provide complete courses leading to recognized UK degrees.

Getting University Degrees

Higher education in the UK is highly selective; i. e. entrance to British universities is via a strict selection process and an interview. Applications for first degree courses are usually made through the Universities and Colleges Admission Service (UCAS). After the interview a potential student is offered a place on the basis of GCE A-level exam results. If the student does not get the grades specified in the offer, a place cannot be taken up. Some universities, such as Oxford and Cambridge, have an entrance exam before the interview stage. This kind of selection procedure means that not everyone in Britain with A-level qualifications will be offered the chance of a university education. Good A-level results in at least two subjects are necessary to get a place at university.

Grants and loans are intended to create opportunities for equality in education. A grants system was set up to support students through university. Grants are paid by the local education authority (LEA) on the basis of parental income. Students are able to borrow money in the form of a low-interest loan, which then has to be paid back after their course is finished.

The academic year in Britain's universities, Polytechnics, Colleges of Education is divided into three terms, from eight to ten weeks each, which usually run from the beginning of October to the middle of December, from the middle of January to the end of March, and from the middle of April to the end of June or the beginning of July. The terms are crowded with activity and the vacations between the terms – a month at Christmas, a month at Easter, and three or four months in summer – are mainly periods of intellectual digestion and private study.

The main teaching and assessment methods in British universities are: lectures, laboratory practicals, seminars, tutorials, e-learning, projects and examinations. Teaching methods are decided by the individual teacher, department, faculty or institution, or a combination of these. Most courses involve both formal lectures and less formal seminars, in which students are encouraged to participate and lead discussions. Certain courses require practical sessions such as work in a laboratory for science subjects and oral classes for foreign languages. Examinations are not necessarily taken annually. University education may be not only full-time but also part-time.

Higher educational institutions in the UK are autonomous, they design and develop their own programmes of study, each is primarily responsible for maintaining the quality of the education it provides, and the standards of the qualifications it offers. However, the funding bodies have a statutory obligation to ensure that the higher education they fund is of good quality.

Research is an important feature of university work. British research is of world-class quality and the UK universities and research institutes have produced 44 Nobel Prize winners in the last 50 years; there have been 69 UK-born Nobel laureates in the categories of chemistry, physics and medicine since 1901, more than from any country except the United States.

Students studying for the first degree are called undergraduates. First degree courses, commonly known as Bachelor's degrees, typically take three years to complete in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, and four years at a Scottish university. Courses which include a period of practical work outside the institution normally take four years. Certain specialist courses and some vocational or professional degree courses may take longer. For example, medicine and dentistry can take up to six years (not including further specialist training) and architecture up to seven years. Those engaged in the study of such subjects as history, languages, economics or law take Bachelor of Arts (BA). Students studying pure or applied sciences such as medicine, dentistry, technology or agriculture get Bachelor of Science (BS). When they have been awarded the degree, they are known as graduates.

Students who obtain their Bachelor's degree can apply to take a further degree course, usually involving a mixture of exam courses and research. There are two different types of post-graduate courses – the Master's Degree (MA or MS), which takes one year for a taught degree and two years for a research-based degree, and the higher degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), which takes two or three years of more-or-less full-time study. The degree of Doctor of Philosophy is awarded for the creation and interpretation of new knowledge, or application of existing knowledge in a new way, at the forefront of an academic discipline (e. g. in arts, social sciences, business, humanities or science subjects), usually through original research.

There are also a number of vocational ‘sub-degree’ qualifications offered in the UK, including the Higher National Diploma (HND), the Higher National Certificate (HNC) and the Diploma in Higher Education (Dip HE), which generally take one or two years to complete.

Funding for post-graduate courses is very limited, and even students with first class degrees may be unable to get a grant. Consequently many post-graduates have heavy bank loans or are working to pay their way to a higher degree. The degrees are awarded at public degree ceremonies. Oxford and Cambridge cling to their traditions, such as the use of Latin at degree ceremonies.

One development in education in which Britain can claim to lead the world is the Open University. It was founded by the Labour government under Prime Minister Harold Wilson in 1969 in Milton Keynes, Buckinghamshire and is so called because it is open to all – this university does not require any formal academic qualifications to study for a degree, and many people who do not have an opportunity to be ‘ordinary’ students enrol. The Open University is a world leader in modern distance learning. It enables people to study at times and in places to suit them. Information and communication technology plays a big part in the Open University study. Students are provided with interactive teaching and multimedia materials. Tutors offer support to students by e-mail and computer conferencing. There are, however, short summer courses of about a week that the students have to attend and special part-time study centres where they can meet their tutors when they have problems.

British higher education is increasingly understood to be a major facet of the UK’s international profile and a major source of export earnings. Higher education is now highly internationalised: 24 % of university staff and 17 % of students are international. The UK remains the second most popular destination for students from foreign countries.

Test Your Knowledge

1. Why is the introduction of the National Curriculum of great importance?
2. When did elementary education become compulsory and free of charge?
3. What two groups of schools are all schools in the UK divided into?
4. What is the public school system valued for?
5. When were public schools founded and why were they called “public”?
6. What public schools are the most famous?
7. When was Eton founded?
8. What traditions are observed in Eton?
9. What famous people were taught at Rugby School?
10. What are the chief elements of the National Curriculum?
11. What is co-educational education?

12. What are the key stages of school education?

13. How is children's progress at different key stages of school education assessed?

14. What are children taught in infant and junior schools?

15. What kinds of schools are there in Great Britain according to the funding?

16. What certificate do children get on finishing school at the age of 16?

17. How many exams do children take at the end of the sixth form?

18. How are school-leavers admitted to universities in the UK?

19. What are the oldest universities in England? Does anything distinguish them?

20. What is a tutorial system?

21. How does the Open University work?

22. What are undergraduates awarded on the completion of higher education?

23. What degrees are awarded at the post-graduate level?

Lecture 9

CULTURE AND ARTS IN BRITAIN

Art has remained part of British culture and comprises works in different artistic movements. Compared with fifty years ago, far more people today visit art galleries, go to the theatre and attend concerts. Nevertheless, the fact remains that most British people prefer their sport, their television and videos, and their other free-time activities to anything 'cultural'. The appreciation of art in Britain is evidenced by its many art galleries.

Visual Arts

Painting and sculpture are not as widely popular as music in Britain. There is a general feeling that you have to be a specialist to appreciate them, especially if they are contemporary. Small private art galleries, where people might look at paintings with a view to buying them, are rare. Nevertheless, London is one of the main centres of the international collector's world. The two major auction houses of Sotheby's and Christie's are world-famous.

The earliest visual arts in Britain were most likely ornamentations on ordinary objects. Scandinavian wood carvings date from the 8th century, after Scandinavians came to Britain in considerable numbers. Decorative arts were particularly notable in early Christian Ireland, especially from the 6th to the 9th century. Irish missionaries, who were preaching Catholicism in Europe during this time period, brought Celtic metalworking techniques and stone carvings to Britain. Huge stone crosses, exquisitely decorated, still stand in northern Britain and Ireland. Painting was confined to illuminated manuscripts – bright and exactingly detailed miniature paintings in prayer books that were produced by monks. This art continued through the Middle Ages because books were still illustrated by hand, even after printing was invented in the mid-15th century. During the Middle Ages, the Catholic Church was the chief patron of artists and sculptors, who were hired to decorate the massive cathedrals as well as local churches.

In early modern times portrait painting became important, particularly for monarchs interested in marriage opportunities abroad, and paintings of prospective spouses were often sent before making marital arrangements. Noted artists who produced paintings in early modern England were foreigners, such as German artist Hans Holbein the Younger in the 16th century and Flemish painter Sir Anthony van Dyck in the 17th century. English artists came to excel at miniature painting in the same century.

By the 18th century a distinctive British style began to emerge that tended to be brighter and livelier than the darker European canvases. British artists also stayed within the confines of neoclassical rationalism; that is, their art exhibited

the values of order, logic, and proportion. The etchings and paintings of William Hogarth show satirical scenes from ordinary life and were enormously popular.

In the late 18th and early 19th centuries romantic painters appeared who emphasized the beauties and forces of nature. This is seen in the landscapes of John Constable and J. M. W. Turner, whose paintings directly influenced French impressionism. Noted poet William Blake was also a painter, and he illustrated his poems and stories with imaginative drawings.

Scores of artists in the Victorian era painted specifically for middle-class tastes. Sir Edwin Henry Landseer was noted for paintings that often feature animals, such as dogs or wildlife. Frederick Leighton painted mythological and historical subjects and illustrated popular magazines. William Powell Frith painted large, busy canvases in the popular style known as genre painting, which realistically depicted scenes from everyday life. Sophie Anderson painted sweet children.

In reaction to Victorian art styles and middle-class materialism, with its concern for worldly objects, several painters came together in 1848 and founded a movement called the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. They sought to return to an earlier, simpler time, and their works exhibited the brightness, colour, and purity credited with founding the Arts and Crafts movement, which became influential in furniture, decorative items, and textile designs.

Toward the end of the Victorian era, art nouveau (literally, “new art”) developed out of the Arts and Crafts movement. Art nouveau is a decorative style with strong elements of fantasy. It borrowed motifs from sources as varied as Japanese prints, Gothic architecture, and the symbolic paintings of William Blake. This style, which became popular in Europe, influenced many art forms as well as architecture and interior design. The art nouveau illustrations of Aubrey Beardsley, in particular, are still popular. Artists and architects from the Glasgow School were noted for their work in both the Arts and Crafts and art nouveau styles.

During the early-20th century impressionism became “fully assimilated” into British art, alongside with vorticism and modernism. Britain produced many artists in the 20th century. They include sculptors Jacob Epstein and Dame Elisabeth Frink, who both produced monumental figures, as well as abstract sculptors Barbara Hepworth and Henry Moore. Painters include Paul Nash, a war artist who painted scenes of landscapes and battles during both world wars; Sir Stanley Spencer, whose works often used biblical themes; and Graham Sutherland, who developed a unique style of landscape painting. After World War II such artists as Francis Bacon, whose paintings are steeped in the horrific, and David Hockney, who also designed opera sets, became noted for their unique achievements.

Theatre

The theatre has always been very strong in Britain. In the 20th century Britain has remained one of the world's greatest centres for drama. Britain's many theatres attract crowds from all over the world. This is due in large measure to the high calibre of British actors, including Sir Laurence Olivier, Sir Michael Redgrave, Sir John Gielgud, Sir Alec Guinness, Sir Rex Harrison, Richard Burton, Glenda Jackson, Vanessa Redgrave, Kenneth Branagh, and Emma Thompson. The quality of the plays is another important factor. In the early 20th century, noted playwrights included John Galsworthy and Noel Coward. Post-World War II Britain saw a renaissance of drama with the avant-garde works of Irish-born Samuel Beckett, plays and screenplays of Harold Pinter and John Osborne.

Contemporary playwrights like Tom Stoppard, Peter Brook, Sir Peter Hall and Trevor Nunn enjoy considerable success both in Britain and overseas, while many British performers such as Lord Olivier, Vanessa Redgrave, Glenda Jackson or Sir John Gielgud are household names all over the world.

Britain has more than 300 professional theatres. The centre of theatrical life is, of course, London, where successful plays can sometimes run without a break for many years. About 100 theatres are in London, half of those in the West End district. Famous theatres in London include the Royal National Theatre, the Old Vic Theatre, and the Royal Court Theatre. The National Theatre stages a wide range of modern and classical plays in the South Bank arts complex. The Royal Shakespeare Company produces plays by Shakespeare and his contemporaries as well as modern drama in the City's Barbican Centre, while also performing in Stratford-upon-Avon. The English Stage Company produces the works of the most talented new playwrights at the Royal Court Theatre.

Outside London most cities and many large towns have at least one theatre. Some, like the Palace Theatre in Manchester, date from the 19th century; others like the Crucible Theatre in Sheffield have been built to the latest design. Some universities, like the one in Exeter, have theatres housing professional companies playing to the general public. Even small towns often have 'repertory' theatres, where different plays are performed for short periods by the same group of professional actors. Most regional repertory companies mount about eight to ten productions a year. Regional repertory theatres also frequently function as social centres by accommodating poetry recitals, concerts or exhibitions.

There are several thousand amateur drama societies throughout Britain. They sometimes receive financial support from local government, regional art associations and other bodies. Their work is encouraged by the British Theatre Association and the Central Council for Amateur Theatre. A number of companies, such as the Union Theatre for the Young and the Folk Children's Theatre in London, produce plays for children under 11 years old; the young Vic

Company in London and the Contact Theatre Company in Manchester produce plays for teenage audiences. Besides there are numerous Theatre-in-Education companies which perform in schools for all age ranges and abilities.

Theatre companies receive subsidies from the Arts Council established in 1946. It gives financial help and advice to organisations ranging from the major drama companies to the smallest touring theatres and experimental groups. It encourages interest in contemporary arts and helps professional creative writers through a variety of subsidy schemes.

Dramatic training for actors and stage managers is provided mainly in drama schools. Among the most important are the Royal Academy of Dramatic Art, the Central School of Speech and Drama, the London Academy of Music and Dramatic Art and the Bristol Old Vic School.

Britain also has famous dance companies that rank among the world's leading troupes. They include the Royal Ballet and the English National Ballet, located in London; the Birmingham Royal Ballet, a division of the Royal Ballet; and the Northern Ballet Theatre, a touring company based in Leeds. London hosts two contemporary dance festivals every year.

Music

Britain has made its contribution to the development of music and London is regarded as one of the great music capitals of the world. Appreciation of music is extremely widespread, and the kinds of music regularly performed are diverse, ranging from early music to modern. Britain boasts thousands of amateur opera societies, choirs, and musical groups, including orchestras; dance, brass, and steel bands; and rock and jazz groups.

Important composers in the early 20th century include Sir Edward Elgar, who wrote choral and orchestral music, and Frederick Delius, who composed the opera *A Village Romeo and Juliet*. Late in the century, Ralph Vaughn Williams established himself as Britain's foremost composer, and Sir William Walton composed many important classical works, including the opera *Troilus and Cressida*. In opera, Benjamin Britten and Sir Michael Tippett created several important works. Britten adapted Henry James's story *The Turn of the Screw* and Shakespeare's play *A Midsummer Night's Dream* into operas. His masterpiece *The War Requiem* became one of the major anti-war music pieces. Tippett combined classical music with popular music – his *Fourth Symphony* contained elements of jazz. Andrew Lloyd Webber has composed musicals for the theater since the 1970s, producing such smash hits as *Jesus Christ Superstar* and *Phantom of the Opera*.

Britain has many professional orchestras; the most famous of them are the London Philharmonic and the London Symphony. The BBC maintains

six orchestras and sponsors the popular annual Promenade Concerts at the Royal Albert Hall.

The British are less famous for their performances of opera and ballet. The major and best known opera companies are the Royal Opera and the English National Opera in London, and the Glyndebourne Opera in southeastern England. But their national opera companies regularly tour to different cities, and if they have government grants they have to provide education. So they go into schools to teach children about opera, they run workshops and master classes, they involve the community. In fact, involving the community is one of the chief concerns of the government and charitable organisations which provide funds for the arts. In towns and villages, amateur choirs sing in municipal halls, concert halls and churches. They sing all kinds of music; English baroque choral music, German folk songs, Italian masses, and unusual works from Eastern Asia or Latin America. Other concerts of folk music, local music, church music and the compositions of local groups can be heard in halls and pubs and cafes and outdoors at all times of the year. Committed performers gather together for annual festivals of music.

Britain's worldwide impact in music in the second half of the 20th century, especially in the realm of popular music, was enormous. The Beatles appeared in the 1960s and were followed by other successful rock groups and singers, including such names as the Rolling Stones, The Who, Elton John, and Sting. Famous rock-and-roll icons such as the Beatles have had their music played by the Royal Philharmonic with members of the royal family in attendance. Pop and rock music remain the most popular kinds of music in Britain, although jazz also has a large following. Since the 1960s, popular music in Britain has been an enormous and profitable industry.

Festivals of Music and Drama

Britain hosts more than 600 professional arts festivals each year. One of the largest arts festivals in Britain is in Scotland. *The Edinburgh International Festival* is a mixture of six arts festivals that takes place at the end of August and early September. The programmes always include some of the finest chamber music ensemble and soloists in the world. There are plenty of matinees; evening concerts, opera, drama and ballet performances usually take place at conventional times. But the floodlit Military Tattoo at Edinburgh Castle obviously doesn't start till after dusk.

No country in the world has a greater love of music and poetry than the people of Wales. Today, *Eisteddfod* is held at scores of places throughout Wales, particularly from May to early November. The habit of holding similar events dates back to early history and there are records of competitions for Welsh poets and musicians in the 12th century. The Eisteddfod sprang from the

Gorsedd, or National Assembly of Bards. It was held occasionally up to 1819, but since then has become an annual event for the encouragement of Welsh literature and music and the preservation of the Welsh language and ancient national customs.

The Royal National Eisteddfod of Wales is held annually early in August, in North and South Wales alternately. The programme includes male and mixed choirs, brass-band concerts, many children's events, drama, arts and crafts and, of course, the ceremony of the Crowning of the Bard.

The Bath Festival attracts some of the finest musicians in the world as well as thousands of visitors from Britain and abroad. Under the artistic direction of Sir Michael Tippett, composer, conductor and one of the greatest minds in British music today, the festival presents a programme of orchestral and choral concerts, song and instrumental recitals and chamber music, so well suited to the beautiful 18th-century halls of Bath. The range of music included is wide and young performers are given opportunities to work with some of the leading names in their fields. But the festival is not all music. The programme usually includes lectures and exhibitions, sometimes ballet, opera, drama, or films, as well as tours of Bath and the surrounding area and houses not normally open to the public, often a costume ball, maybe poetry – the variety is endless.

The fame achieved by the Edinburgh Festival has encouraged many other towns in Britain to organise similar festivals. The latest festival town to join the list is Chichester, which has earned a great deal of prestige by building a large theatre holding over one thousand five hundred people. The theatre festival is held every year with the participation of many stars from the London stage.

The first season scored a considerable success. The repertoire consisted of an old English comedy, a sixteenth-century tragedy and a production of Chekhov's *Uncle Vanya* in which every part was taken by a top star.

But the chief interest of the Chichester Festival is the new theatre itself, which has an apron stage, which was common in Shakespeare's day, projects out into the auditorium. This calls for the use of an entirely different technique on the part both of the players, who have their audience on three sides of them instead of just in front, and the producer.

Cinema

The cinema in Britain is often regarded as not quite part of 'the arts' at all – it is simply entertainment. Partly for this reason, Britain is unique among the large European countries in giving almost no financial help to its film industry. Therefore, although cinema-going is a regular habit for a much larger number of people than is theatre-going, British film directors often have to go to Hollywood because the resources they need are not available in Britain.

Nevertheless the British film industry has a long history and is noted for many critically acclaimed productions and actors. It developed during the 1930s after the government established a quota requiring that a certain percentage of films shown in British cinemas be made in Britain. Hungarian-born director and producer Alexander Korda came to Britain during this time and was instrumental in the production and international distribution of many British films. The industry received another boost from the influx of German writers, producers, and directors escaping the Nazi government in the 1930s. During World War II, many people working in the British film industry immigrated to the United States. One of these was London-born director Alfred Hitchcock, who moved to the United States in 1939 and continued to produce popular films.

British film output after World War II tended to be literary, drawing upon classics from Charles Dickens and William Shakespeare. A number of witty comedies that appealed to the more educated and culturally conservative segment of society appeared in the late 1940s and early 1950s. They included such films as *Genevieve* and *The Belles of St. Trinian's*. By the mid-1950s the Free Cinema Movement had begun, shooting low-budget films that illuminated the problems of contemporary life. Simultaneously, so-called new cinema films began to present antiestablishment and anti-middle class views with social realism using working-class themes and characters. Notable examples of new cinema films include *Look Back in Anger*, based on the John Osborne play; Karel Reisz's *Saturday Night and Sunday Morning*; and *The Loneliness of the Long Distance Runner*. Director David Lean, who produced many popular films in the 1940s, became noted for big, lavish epics during the 1950s, particularly *The Bridge on the River Kwai* and *Lawrence of Arabia*, both won Academy Awards.

For a brief time London became the film production capital of the world when a number of important films were made there. They included *Tom Jones* with an award-winning screenplay by John Osborne, *2001: A Space Odyssey* and *A Clockwork Orange* directed by Stanley Kubrick. Richard Attenborough gained fame not only for his acting but also for directing such biographical films as *Ghandi*, which won multiple Academy Awards; *Chaplin* about the English actor and director Charlie Chaplin, and *Shadowlands* about the British author Carol Lewis.

Architecture

Some of the oldest examples of British architecture include a few small, squarish Anglo-Saxon buildings. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, Norman architecture became prevalent on the British Isles. The Normans built monumental castles and churches with enormous arches and huge columns. Their style was called Romanesque on the Continent. The greatest structures

built by the Normans are the White Tower, which is part of the Tower of London, and the castle, cathedral, and monastery complex at Durham. From the 12th to the 15th century gracefully soaring spires and arches marked the development of the great Gothic cathedrals; two of these, Westminster Abbey in London and Lincoln Cathedral, still dominate the skylines of their cities. Between 1485 and 1625, the English started to incorporate some classic Roman and ornate elements of the Italian Renaissance into Tudor, Elizabethan, and Jacobean styles. During the Tudor era, brick became a popular building material for English country houses.

The architecture of the late Italian Renaissance was introduced in England by Inigo Jones in the 17th century. Jones was the first of the great British architects to be influenced by the ideas of Italian architects. Jones in turn influenced Sir Christopher Wren, Britain's greatest architect, who studied the baroque style popular in Europe in the mid-17th century. After the devastating Great Fire of London in 1666, Wren helped in the rebuilding of the city. As the premier architect of the time, he designed 52 new churches in London. Many of his churches still stand. The grandest of them, St. Paul's Cathedral in London, is an example of Wren's distinctively graceful and monumental British style.

In the 18th century few English buildings followed the ornate patterns of the baroque and rococo architectures used in Europe. Rather, a more restrained, neoclassical style was introduced in Britain by Scottish architect Robert Adam. This style was based on the ancient ruins of Greece and Rome and incorporated such elements as colonnades and stone domes. English furniture and ceramics also became renowned in the 18th century. Thomas Chippendale and Thomas Sheraton were noted for their elegant furniture styles, and the ceramic designs produced by Josiah Wedgwood are still made.

Victorian architecture borrowed from a variety of styles, including classical, Gothic, and Renaissance, and was characterized by ornate decoration. The most famous Victorian neo-Gothic building is Parliament, built between 1840 and 1870. The only truly original building of the Victorian era was the Crystal Palace, which housed the Great Exhibition of 1851. It was made of metal and glass, materials architects would come to use in constructing office buildings in the 20th century.

In the 19th century Scottish architect Charles Rennie Mackintosh rejected elaborate Victorian architecture styles for a more modern, functional design. His work influenced 20th-century architects and interior designers.

The 20th century started out with great promise. The confident days before World War I bore witness to beautiful buildings of all sorts, residential, official, and ecclesiastical. Edwin Lutyens, one of the most inventive and talented architects in British history, built impressive houses, such as Tigbourne Court in Surrey and Castle Drogo in Devonshire, that embody the virtues of the Arts and

Crafts movement. Most of the monumental buildings in which the British government now works, which are referred to collectively as "Whitehall" designed by John Brydon were built in the 20s of the 20th century. Another gem is Battersea Power Station. Its designer was Giles Gilbert Scott.

Giant concrete tower blocks became a new reality in post-war architecture in England. This style was not lacking for critics. One was Prince Charles, who wrote about Birmingham Central Library that it looked more like the kind of building in which books were incinerated than one in which they were protected. Prince Charles was implacable in his opposition to skyscrapers. To him, they seemed inhuman in scale, dwarfing the individuals who had to live and work around them.

Museums and Galleries

Britain is world famous for its outstanding libraries and museums. Most of them are located in London.

It is no surprise that the British Museum is one of the greatest museums in the world, tops the visitors' charts. It is principally a museum of antiquities. This distinguishes the British Museum from the likes of the Louvre (France), the Metropolitan Museum of Art (New York, USA) and the Hermitage Museum (St. Petersburg, Russia) which are universal museums of art and culture. Founded in 1753, it is also one of the world's oldest museums, with its contents catalogue covering over 2 million years of the world history and culture. It opened its doors to the public in 1759. The Museum owes its origin to Sir Hans Sloane who was a collector.

The Museum comprises the National Library, one of the largest in the world, with several million books. By the UK law, a copy of every book, pamphlet, periodical, including maps and music, published in Britain must be kept at the British Museum. It is known that many outstanding people from all over the world spent a great deal of time in the Museum's famous Circular Reading Room.

The Museum is a great scientific institution, generally known as the Natural History Museum with its unique prehistoric collections, is the most important place of archaeological study in the world. Having got the largest collections of unrivalled treasures, it is also one of the world's most comprehensive records of man's achievements from the prehistoric to modern times.

The British Museum has a wonderful art gallery. It has unique collections of sculpture, ceramics, drawings and paintings of the Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, Chinese, Japanese, Indians and many other peoples. It also has unique collections of the Italian drawings, English and French prints.

The National Gallery houses a vast collection of British and European paintings dating from the 13th century to modern times. Next door to the

National Gallery is the National Portrait Gallery with about 10,000 portraits of famous figures from British history, some dating from the 14th century. The art gallery devoted to modern and experimental art, the huge 'Tate Modern' in London has proved to be astonishingly and unexpectedly popular since it was first opened in 2000. Visitors come to look, to reconsider, and to extend their pleasure in new art. The Victoria and Albert Museum features one of the world's largest collections of fine and applied arts, from jewelry, clocks, and pottery to fabrics, furniture, and musical instruments.

London has several specialized museums. The National Museum of Science and Industry contains five floors of exhibits on medicine, photography, engineering, transportation, and communications. Plant, animal, and mineral specimens from all over the world are part of the collection at the Natural History Museum, London. The Imperial War Museum features exhibits on the wars of the 20th century, and the modern Museum of London illustrates the history of the capital from its earliest times. Particularly popular with tourists is Madame Tussaud's Waxworks, a unique collection of lifelike wax figures of famous people, both living and dead.

Several museums and galleries of note are located outside London. The Ashmolean Museum of Art and Archaeology at Oxford University contains a diverse collection of rare art and relics, as does the Fitzwilliam Museum at Cambridge University. One of the world's finest collections of Pre-Raphaelite art is at the Birmingham Museum and Art Gallery. The National Gallery of Scotland in Edinburgh houses a collection of fine European paintings dating from the Renaissance, including many Scottish paintings. The Glasgow Art Gallery and Museum has an excellent collection that ranges from ancient weapons and objects to 17th-century Dutch paintings and works by French masters. The National Museum of Wales in Cardiff focuses on Welsh life, history, and culture. In Belfast, Northern Ireland, the Ulster Museum has a diverse collection that mixes the arts, history, and sciences. The Ulster Folk and Transport Museum in Holywood concentrates on the traditional life of Northern Ireland's people. The National Railway Museum in York includes a large collection of locomotives, many from the 19th century.

In recent years some museums have taken on the lively aspects of theme parks. Examples are the Jorvik Viking Centre in York, which recreates a Viking village, and the exhibits at Warwick Castle, which include wax figures, collections of weapons and torture devices, and jousting reenactments.

The British and visitors to the country enjoy a number of sculptures and 'installations' set up around the countryside. These large sculptures are created by the finest contemporary artists and they provoke debate, controversy and, often, passionate delight. The one which immediately became a national icon is Anthony Gormley's *Angel of the North*. Because of its size and its position near

the main northward motorway, it has been seen, with excitement and admiration, by millions of people. Not everyone likes it, but this huge ‘angel’ has become a national talking point and a source of pride.

Test Your Knowledge

1. Who brought Celtic metalworking techniques and stone carvings to Britain?
2. Why did portrait painting become important in Britain in the 16th century?
3. What English artists of the 18th century became famous for their polished and elegant portraits?
4. What artists were famous in the Victorian era?
5. What artists did the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood include?
6. What artists of the 20th century can Britain be proud of?
7. Why do Britain’s theatres attract crowds from all over the world?
8. How many theatres are there in the UK?
9. What are the most famous theatres in London?
10. Who are important composers in the early 20th century?
11. What opera companies are best known in Great Britain?
12. What was Britain’s worldwide impact on music in the second half of the 20th century?
13. What is the main aim of Eisteddfod?
14. What does the programme of the Bath Festival include?
15. Why do British film directors often have to go to Hollywood?
16. What did British film output after World War II tend to?
17. Who introduced the architecture of the late Italian Renaissance in England?
18. What style was introduced in Britain by Scottish architect Robert Adam?
19. Who is considered to be one of the most inventive and talented architects of the 20th century in Britain?
20. What did Prince Charles say about post-war architecture in England?
21. What British museums are world famous?

Lecture 10

THE BRITISH WAYS OF LIFE

Knowing and understanding one country's customs and traditions allows us to have a deeper understanding as to why people live such lives, say such things or do such actions. The culture of the United Kingdom is rooted in the country's long history, its interaction with the cultures of Europe, the traditions of England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland, and the impact of the British Empire.

British culture, customs and traditions vary from the weird to the wonderful, from the traditional to the popular, and from the simple to the grand. The formation of the ideas, celebrations and notions that comprise today's quintessential British lifestyle started centuries ago, giving importance and meaning to the people's existence. These customs and traditions stood the test of time, although not without some changes to accommodate the modernizing world. Despite the inevitable transformation in British values and norms, the roots can still be easily traced back to the earlier English civilization.

Language

If language is transmitted as part of culture, it is no less true that culture as a whole is transmitted very largely through language. Language and culture developed together and influenced each other as they evolved.

English has had 1,400 years of development from its West Germanic roots to its current form. This language has drawn influence from Latin and French as well as Norse. It is not only the dominant language in Britain but is also the third most-spoken language in the world.

The English language is currently the official language of the UK with roughly 95 % of the population speaking as monolingual. However there are a number of regional languages also spoken. An estimated 700,000 people speak Welsh in the UK, an official language in Wales and approximately 1.5 million people in the UK speak Scottish.

According to the 2011 Census, there are over 4 million people living in the UK who do not speak English as their first or primary language. And, in fact, nearly 140,000 residents of the UK do not speak English at all.

There are also many immigrant languages spoken on the British Isles, mainly within inner city areas. In England and Wales, the most widely spoken language after English is Polish. Of the over 56.1 million residents of England and Wales, approximately 546,000 speak Polish.

After English, Welsh, and Polish, the next most widely spoken languages are Indian and Pakistani ones like Urdu, Bengali, Gujarati, and Punjabi, which taken together account for about a million people. There are also about 141,000 Chinese speakers and other pockets of smaller languages.

There have always been words traded between languages: for example, words like *croissant* from French, or *pajamas* from Hindi. But the high number of Polish speakers might mean that Polish has a particular influence on the language.

Religion

Freedom of religious belief and worship is taken for granted in modern Britain. The UK is a multicultural country and home to followers of almost every religion imaginable.

Every religion in the world is represented in the UK. While the UK is basically secular, it is also very Christian. Since St. Augustine brought Christianity to England, it has been the official religion of the land. Church-state conflicts in the Middle Ages prepared the ground for the separation from Rome under Henry VIII. There are two established churches: in England – the Anglican Church (formed by King Henry VIII in 1534), in Scotland – the Presbyterian Church of Scotland (established by the Treaty of Union in 1707). The Monarch is the "Supreme Governor" of the Church of England, which is divided into two provinces: Canterbury and York. The Archbishop of Canterbury is the spiritual leader of the Anglican Church. In England the highest number of Christians is found in north-east England. There are some more prominent Protestant traditions, such as Methodism and Baptism (which came from Holland in the 16th century). About 6 million people are Catholics in the UK. Non-Christian religions are represented by Islam (Muslims have now emerged as the second largest religion after Christianity), Hinduism, Sikhism, Buddhism and Judaism. Across the UK, growing numbers of people no longer believe in the need for church membership.

According to the 2011 Census, Christianity is the majority religion. Among Christians, Anglicans are the most common denomination. It has been estimated that less than 5 % of those who might describe themselves as Anglicans regularly attend services. Many others are christened, married and buried in Anglican ceremonies but otherwise hardly ever go to church. Regular attendance for many Anglicans is traditionally as much a social as a religious activity.

Another Christian tradition includes Roman Catholicism. After the establishment of Protestantism in Britain, Catholicism was for a time an illegal religion and then a barely tolerated religion. Not until 1850 was a British Catholic hierarchy reestablished. A large proportion of Catholics in modern Britain are those whose family roots are in Italy, Ireland or elsewhere in Europe. Around 5.2 million Catholics live in England and Wales, or around 9.6 % of the population there and nearly 700,000 in Scotland, or around 14 %.

The Puritan tradition in Britain is connected with the Presbyterian Church. In Scotland it became the nation's established church known simply as 'the kirk' (the Scots word for 'church'). There are also many Presbyterians in England and

Northern Ireland. After Presbyterians, the largest traditional nonconformist group in Britain is the Methodist Society.

Britain is, however, becoming less and less of a Christian country with the numbers of people who consistently attend church service on Sunday diminishing with time. Hinduism, Sikhism, and Islam have large followership in the UK. The UK hosts the largest population of Indians outside India and also has the fifth-largest community of Jews in the world. British Jews number about 300,000 today. The vast majority of Muslims in the United Kingdom live in England (5.02 % of the population). London has the greatest population of Muslims in the country.

The British and Traditions

Societies change over time while their reputations lag behind. Many things which are often regarded as typically British derive from books, songs or plays which were written a long time ago and which are no longer representative of modern life. One example of this is the popular belief that Britain is a 'land of tradition'. This is what most tourist brochures claim which is based on what can be seen in public life and on centuries of political continuity. And at this level it is undoubtedly true.

The British attach great importance to tradition. Many of them still feel strongly about the monarchy because it adds a great deal of colour to their life. They like court ceremonies, jubilees and parades. A great place to breathe in the British culture and tradition is London.

The annual ceremony of *the State Opening of Parliament* carefully follows customs which are centuries old. It is an event which formally marks the beginning of a session of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. It includes a speech from the throne known as the Queen's Speech (or the King's Speech). It takes place in the House of Lords chamber, traditionally in November, in front of both Houses of Parliament. The monarch, wearing the Imperial State Crown, reads a speech that has been prepared by his or her government outlining its plans for that parliamentary year.

The military ceremony of *Trooping the Colour* has been a tradition since the 17th century when various regiments showed off their flags, so that all the troops would recognize their banners during the battle. In 1748 King George II combined the annual summer military march with his birthday celebration even though he was born in October. Ever since, the reigning monarch has had the option of having an official birthday publicly with a parade on the second Saturday in June. The Queen travels down the Mall from Buckingham Palace in a royal procession with a sovereign's escort of Household Cavalry. After receiving a royal salute, she inspects her troops in the ceremonial uniform of red tunics and bearskin hats. For years she did this on horseback, but since 1987 she

has attended in a carriage. A key part of the Trooping the Colour tradition is the appearance of the royal family on the balcony of Buckingham Palace for the fly-past of the Royal Air Force.

The Changing of the Guard ceremony at Buckingham Palace is both a colourful military tradition and an important reminder of the close relationship between the Armed Forces and their Queen. Household Troops have guarded the Sovereign and the Royal Palaces since 1660. When Queen Victoria moved into Buckingham Palace in 1837, the Queen's Guard remained at St James's Palace, with a detachment guarding Buckingham Palace, as it still does today. Today, the main ceremony is conducted at Buckingham Palace. The strength of the Guard is governed by The Queen's presence. If the Royal Standard is flying above the Palace, The Queen is in residence and the number of sentries is increased. The Changing of the Guard ceremony marks the moment when the soldiers currently on duty, the Old Guard, exchange places with the New Guard.

A great tourist attraction is also the ritual *Ceremony of the Keys* which is held every night at the Tower of London. The chief warder closes all the gates and after exchanging the passwords with a sentry hands him the keys of the Tower. The sentry, in turn, passes the keys to the Resident Governor for safe-keeping. The warders, known as 'beefeaters', wear scarlet Tudor costumes, which emphasizes the unique atmosphere of the place.

Although the British may not be willing to admit it, they love tradition. One of the British Christmas traditions is the *Queen's Speech on Christmas Day* around 3 pm. when Queen Elizabeth II sends her festive wishes and message to the public from the comfort of her own British palace or castle. Christmas broadcast started in 1932, when King George V delivered the first King's speech written for him by poet and writer Rudyard Kipling. Over 20 million people listened to it and there was widespread approval not only of Kipling's words, but also of the king's delivery of them. George V made an annual Christmas broadcast for the rest of his reign, the last coming less than a month before his death in 1936. But there would be no Christmas speech from his son Edward VIII that year. When he did make a broadcast in December, it was to announce his abdication. It would take the wartime Christmas messages of George VI to turn the royal Christmas broadcast into the tradition it is today.

Sending and receiving greeting cards is an established tradition in the UK, being an important part of British culture. The first Christmas cards appeared in Britain in 1843, their creator being an English artist John Calcott Horsley. Sir Henry Cole asked the artist to design a card that he could send to each of his friends instead of writing all his letters. Christmas cards account for almost half of the volume of greeting card sales in the UK, with over 600 million cards sold annually. The robin is a common sight in gardens throughout the UK and it began featuring on many Christmas cards in the mid-

19th century. Sending Valentine's Day cards became hugely popular in Britain in the late 18th century, a practice which has since spread to other nations. Other popular occasions for sending greeting cards in the UK are birthdays, Mother's Day, Easter and Father's Day.

The British calendar is full of many events which add merriment to British life. Customs vary throughout the British Isles. *Hogmanay* is the Scottish word for the last day of the year and is synonymous with the celebration of the New Year in the Scottish manner which involves the practice of first-footing starting immediately after midnight. The first person to cross the threshold of a friend or neighbour and to give a symbolic gift such as salt (less common today), coal, shortbread, whisky, and black bun (a rich fruit cake) brings different kinds of luck to the householder for the rest of the year. Food and drink are then offered to the guests. Traditionally, tall, dark-haired men are preferred as the first-foot.

National Character

The British, like the people of every country, tend to be attributed with certain characteristics which are supposedly typical.

Englishmen tend to be rather conservative, they love familiar things. They are hostile or at least bored, when they hear any suggestion that some modification of their habits or the introduction of something new and unknown into their lives might be to their advantage. This conservatism, on a national scale, may be illustrated by reference to the public attitude to the monarchy.

The British value continuity over modernity for its own sake. They do not consider it especially smart to live in a new house and, in fact, there is prestige in living in an obviously old one. They have a general sentimental attachment to older, supposedly safer, times. Their Christmas cards usually depict scenes from past centuries; they like their pubs to look old; they were reluctant to change their system of currency.

Most English people remain strongly attached to the open coal fire (when heating houses), although it causes much work and adds to the pollution of the air, and sometimes pours smoke into the room which it is heating because they think that a living-room without a fireplace will be a room without the basic characteristic of cosiness.

The British are rather proud of being different. It is, for example, very difficult to imagine that they will ever agree to change from driving on the left-hand side of the road to driving on the right. Why should they change just to be like everyone else? Indeed, as far as they are concerned, not being like everyone else is a good reason not to change.

The British government has been trying for years and years to promote the metric system and to get British people to use the same scales that are used

nearly everywhere else in the world. But it has had only limited success. British manufactures are obliged to give the weight of their tins and packets in kilos and grams but everybody in Britain still shops in pounds and ounces. The weather forecasters of the television use the Celsius scale of temperature. But nearly everybody still thinks in Fahrenheit. British people continue to measure distances, amounts of liquid and themselves using scales of measurement that are not used anywhere else in Europe. Even the use of the 24-hour clock is comparatively restricted.

It is probably true that the British, especially the English, are more reserved than the people of many other countries. They find it comparatively difficult to indicate friendship by open display of affection. Indeed, they are not very open or spontaneous. They do not kiss or embrace when greeting so as not to allow familiarity. They are even accused of being hypocritical because they might think one thing and say another. It is not easy to make friends with them but once you have made a friend, it is a friend for life.

It is true that the British care for the needy. Tens of thousands of volunteers are actively involved in charity work. As well as giving direct help to those in need they raise money by organizing sales, marathons, standing in the street, etc. This voluntary activity has often been so effective that whole countrywide networks have been set up without any government help at all. It is no accident that many of the world's largest and most well-known charities (Amnesty International and the Save the Children Fund) began in Britain.

Historically, English daily life and customs were markedly different in urban and rural areas. Indeed, much of English literature and popular culture has explored the tension between town and country and between farm and factory. Today, even though the British are among the world's most cosmopolitan ties to the rural past remain strong. One of the most striking aspects of the national character is the love of the countryside. Although most of the British live in towns and cities but they have an idealized vision of the countryside. To them, the countryside means peace and quiet, beauty, good health and no crime. The countryside represents stability. Most of them would live in a country village. Ideally, this village would consist of thatched cottages built around an area of grass. Nearby, there would be a pond with ducks on it. Even if they cannot get into the countryside, many British people still spend a lot of their time with 'nature'. They love gardens, their own above all and this is probably one reason why so many people prefer to live in houses rather than flats.

The British tend to have a sentimental attitude to animals. Nearly half of the households in Britain keep at least one domestic pet. Animals are not only loved but protected by law. The status of pets is taken seriously. If anyone, for example, leaves a cat to starve in an empty house while the owner goes for his holiday, he can be sent to prison. But the love of animals goes beyond

sentimental attachment to domestic pets. Wildlife programmes are by far the most popular kind of television documentary. Millions of families have 'bird-tables' in their gardens. There is even a special hospital (St Tiggywinkles) which treats injured wild animals. Thousands of people are enthusiastic bird-watchers. This peculiarly British pastime often involves spending hours lying in wet and cold undergrowth, trying to get a glimpse of some rare species.

But some people doubt whether there is anything that can be called a British national character as the Scots, the Welsh and the Irish have retained their separate identities despite English domination.

The Scots have developed strong national characteristics which separate them from the other nations inhabiting the UK. Carefulness, indifference, dourness, pawkiness, implacability, splendid courage are characteristics to be found in part or in whole in every member of the people who honour Bruce and worship Burns. It cannot be denied that many of the Scottish people are not as friendly and pleasant in their manners as could be desired, and yet that is only a surface matter, which may perhaps be accounted for by the historical fact that in distant times, when the country was almost continually at war with England, a cautious reserve had to be adopted as a mode of personal protection.

The Scottish character exhibits a considerable share of both energy and perseverance. It may safely be said that a country with so many physical disadvantages could never have been made so prosperous if the people had not been gifted in a high degree with those qualities.

Caution, foresight and reflection have entered largely into the Scottish character. Under the influence of these qualities they are slow and sometimes cold in speech, and are therefore apt to appear as deficient in frankness and generosity. These, however, are only appearances. As the Scottish people admit they do not like to spend money, but they like spending money on their friends and visitors not on themselves.

There is no other part of the British Isles where national spirit is stronger, national pride is more intense and national traditions are more cherished than in Wales. The Welsh considered a person to be Welsh if he fits for a country whose national anthem is *Land of My Fathers*.

Different ethnic groups and tribes that settled in ancient Wales gradually merged, politically and culturally, to defend their territory first from the Romans, later from Anglo-Saxon and Norman invaders. The sense of national identity was formed and strengthened over centuries.

Visitors to Wales admit that the Welsh are generally quiet, reserved, and introverted. But a great majority of tourists who had a chance to attend the Eisteddfod, a cultural gathering celebrating music, poetry, and storytelling and other competitions of this kind say that the Welsh are poetic, musical, passionate and amazingly romantic. They preserved their highly developed artistic sense.

The tradition of handing down poetry and stories orally and the importance of music in daily life were essential to the culture's survival.

The Irish are different from the Scots, Welsh and English. They are reputed optimistic, "leg-pulling" and ironic. The Irish humour is unique. The Irish philosophy is full of optimism like in the following quote: "There are only two things to worry about, either you are healthy or you are sick. If you are healthy, then there is nothing to worry about. But if you are sick there are only two things to worry about, either you will get well or you will die. If you get well, then there is nothing to worry about. But if you die there are only two things to worry about, either you will go to heaven or to hell. If you go to heaven, then there is nothing to worry about. And if you to go hell, you'll be so darn busy shaking hands with your friends you won't have time to worry."

People are attracted to the Irish because of their hospitality, frankness, sharp wit and kind-heartedness. They are naturally warm and want to be helpful.

Many Irish people have a wonderful power of memory in telling stories. The tradition of storytelling is almost as ancient as Ireland itself. Storytelling was a favourite art and amusement among the Gaelic-speaking people of Ireland and even today you can many people gather in the pub especially in the countryside to listen to talented storytellers.

A National Passion

Sport probably plays a more important part in people's lives in Britain than it does in most other countries. For a very large number it is their main form of entertainment. Millions take part in this or that kind of sport at least once a week. Many millions more are regular spectators and follow one or more sports. There are hours of televised sport each week. Every newspaper, national or local, quality or popular, devotes several pages entirely to sport.

This great, sports-loving country is widely recognized as the birthplace of modern sport. It was here that the concepts of sportsmanship and fair play were first codified into clear rules and regulations. It was here that sport was included as an educational tool in the school curriculum.

Most of the major sports have separate administrative structures and national teams for each of the countries of the United Kingdom but there is a single 'Team GB' that represents the UK at the Olympic Games.

The United Kingdom has played an essential role in the inception, growth, and development of some of the world's most popular sports such as football, cricket, golf, rugby, and tennis.

The origin of football can be traced to English public school football games. However, it has been played since the 8th century. It was so popular in the Middle Ages that some kings banned it because the players became very angry and noisy and it stopped men from preparing for war! The rules were

first drafted in England in 1863. The first international football match was between England and Scotland in 1870. The UK has the oldest football clubs in the world. Teams at the top of the English Premier Football league are very rich and have some of the best players in the world. The 'Big Four' teams are Manchester United, Chelsea, Arsenal and Liverpool.

The modern game of golf originated in Scotland. The town of Fife is known internationally as the "home of golf" dating to 1574. The oldest golf tournament in the world, and the first major championship in golf, The Open Championship, first took place in Scotland in 1860.

In 1845, rugby union was created when the first rules were written by pupils at Rugby School, Warwickshire. The first rugby international took place in 1871.

The modern game of tennis originated in Birmingham in the 1860s, and after its creation tennis spread throughout the upper-class English-speaking population, before spreading around the world. The world's oldest tennis tournament, the Wimbledon championships, first occurred in 1877, and today the event takes place over two weeks in late June and early July.

The modern game of cricket was created in England in the 1830s. In 1882, the Australians beat the English for the first time. The English were so upset that the newspapers said that English cricket was dead and was cremated. Since then, the matches, between Australia and England have been called 'the Ashes'. Cricket matches can last for five days, four days or one day. W. G. Grace is regarded as one of the greatest cricket players, devising most of the techniques of modern batting.

Because horse breeding has long been part of the British legacy, it is only natural to have horse racing as an esteemed part of the society. In fact, it is the second largest spectator sport in Britain. Horse racing events include the Royal Ascot, Grand National and the Cheltenham Festival. The Grand National is one of the most awaited horse racing events every year. The history of racing horses dates back to the 12th century when the English knights carried Arab horses on their way back from the Crusades. These horses, cross bred with the English horses, gave birth to the Thoroughbred horse which is the breed being used in racing in the UK.

Britain's National Costumes

As a multinational state, the UK has no single national costume. However, different countries within the United Kingdom have national costumes or at least are associated with styles of dress.

Although England is a country rich in folklore and traditions, it has no definite national costume. The topic of a national costume has been in debate, since no officially recognized clothing is "national". However, the closest to a national costume can be the smock or smock-frock. English

Country Clothing is also very popular among rural folk, flat caps and brogue shoes also forming part of the country clothing.

The most well-known folk costumes are those of the Morris dancers. They can be seen in many country villages during the summer months performing folk dances that once held ritualistic and magical meanings associated with the awakening of the earth. The costume varies from team to team, but basically consists of white trousers, a white shirt, a pad of bells worn around the calf of the leg, and a hat made of felt or straw, decorated with ribbons and flowers. The bells and ribbons are said to banish harm and bring fertility.

Perhaps the most famous national costume in Britain is the Scottish kilt with its distinctive tartan pattern. The kilt is a length of woollen cloth, pleated except for sections at each end. The kilt is worn around the waist, with the pleats at the back and the ends crossed over at the front and secured with a pin.

Each Scottish Clan or family has its own distinctive tartan pattern, made up of different colours. The kilt forms part of the traditional Highland dress, worn by Scottish clansmen and Scottish regiments. In addition to the kilt, a plaid or tartan cloak is worn over one shoulder, and a goatskin pouch or sporran is worn at the front of the kilt. Sometimes tartan trousers or trews are worn instead of a kilt. Women do not have their own distinctive national dress in Scotland, although tartan fabrics are widely used in clothing, and the kilt is also worn.

The national costume of Wales is based on the peasant costume of the 18th and 19th centuries. Because Wales was isolated geographically from the rest of Britain, many of the individual traits of costume and materials were retained in Welsh dress long after they had died out elsewhere.

Unlike Scotland, the distinctive folk costume of Wales was worn by the women, consisting of a long gown (bet gown) or skirt, worn with a petticoat (the favoured colour was scarlet) and topped with a shawl folded diagonally to form a triangle and draped around the shoulders, with one corner hanging down and two others pinned in front. Aprons were universally worn, sometimes simple, sometimes decorated with colourful embroidery.

The most distinctive part of the costume was the tall black ‘Welsh hat’, thought to have originated in France at the end of the 18th century. The hats had a tall crown, cylindrical or conical in shape with a brim, and were usually trimmed with a band of silk or crepe.

Early Irish dress, based on Gaelic and Norse costumes, consisted of check trews for men, worn with a fringed cloak or mantle, or a short tunic for both men and women, worn with a fringed cloak. This style of dressing was prohibited in the 16th century under sumptuary laws, passed to suppress the distinctive Irish dress and so overcome Irish reluctance to become part of England. In particular, the wearing of the fringed cloak was forbidden; as was the wearing of trews or any saffron-coloured garment (saffron yellow was an important feature of Irish

costume). Although a strong tradition of wearing folk costume does not survive in Northern Ireland today, folk music and folk dancing are very important.

The British Cuisine

British cuisine has traditionally been based on beef, lamb, pork, chicken, and fish, all cooked with the minimum of decoration and generally served with potatoes and one other vegetable or, in the case of fish (most commonly cod or haddock) deep-fried in batter and served with deep-fried potato slices (chips). For middle-income households, the main family meal of the week was the "Sunday joint," when a substantial piece of beef, lamb, or pork was roasted in the oven during the morning and served around midday. In the 1950s and 1960s, however, these traditions started to change. Immigrants from India and Hong Kong arrived with their own distinctive cuisine, and Indian and Chinese restaurants became a familiar sight in every part of the country. By the 1980s, American-style fast-food restaurants dotted the landscape, and the rapid post-World War II growth of holiday travel to Europe, particularly to France, Spain, Greece, and Italy, exposed the British to new foods, flavours and ingredients, many of which found their way into a new generation of recipe books that filled the shelves of the typical kitchen.

International recognition of British cuisine was historically limited to the full breakfast and the Christmas dinner. The full English breakfast consists of bacon, grilled tomatoes, fried bread, baked beans, fried mushrooms, sausages and eggs. Black or white pudding and hash browns are often also included. It is usually served with tea or coffee.

On Christmas Day, goose was previously served at dinner; however since appearing on Christmas tables in England in the late 16th century, the turkey has become more popular, with Christmas pudding served for dessert. The turkey is sometimes accompanied with roast beef or ham, and is served with stuffing, gravy, roast potatoes, mashed potatoes and vegetables.

The British population is one of the largest tea consumers in the world. Since the 18th century tea has become a prominent feature of British culture and society. Tea is usually served with milk and often accompanied with sandwiches, crumpets, scones, cakes and biscuits.

Fish and chips is regarded as a national institution. Winston Churchill called the dish "the good companions", George Orwell referred to it as a "chief comfort" of the working class. It was created in 1860 in London by a Jewish immigrant who came up with the idea of combining fried fish with chips.

Curry is very popular in the United Kingdom, with a curry house in nearly every town. Britain's love for curry is truly remarkable. It has been highly popularized by Queen Victoria herself. Curry houses account for a fifth of the restaurant business in the UK. Curry has become an integral part of British

cuisine so much that since the late 1990s, chicken tikka masala has been referred to as “a true British national dish”.

Chinese restaurants and takeaways in addition to Indian ones are among the most popular ethnic food in the UK. Chinese takeaways are a common sight in towns throughout the UK.

The pub is an important aspect of British culture, and is often the focal point of local communities. They are attended in the daytime for lunch and in the evening to socialize. Pubs are usually chosen for their proximity to home or work, the availability of a particular beer or ale or a good selection, tasty food, a social atmosphere, the presence of friends and acquaintances, and the availability of pub games such as darts or snooker. Pubs often screen sports events.

Each country within the United Kingdom has its own specialities.

Scottish cuisine has distinctive attributes and recipes of its own, but shares much with British and European cuisine as a result of local and foreign influences, both ancient and modern. A traditional Scottish dish is *haggis* containing sheep’s heart, liver, and lungs, minced with onion, oatmeal, suet, spices, and salt, mixed with stock, and cooked in the animal’s stomach. Although its description is not immediately appealing, haggis has an excellent nutty texture and delicious savoury flavour. The *Scotch pie* or *mutton pie* is believed to originate in Scotland but can be found in other parts of the United Kingdom. It is a small, double-crust meat pie filled with minced mutton or other meat. Scotch pies are often served hot by take-away restaurants, bakeries and at outdoor events. The hard crust of the pie enables it to be eaten by hand with no wrapping. *Oat porridge* or *oatmeal* is one of the most common types of porridge in Scotland. The Scottish cook oatmeal by soaking it overnight in salted water and boiling on a low heat in the morning for a few minutes until the mixture thickens.

Irish cuisine takes its influence from the crops grown and animals farmed in its temperate climate. The introduction of the potato in the second half of the 16th century heavily influenced Ireland’s cuisine thereafter. Representative traditional Irish dishes include Irish stew (made with lamb, mutton, or beef), bacon and cabbage (with potatoes), boxty (potato pancake), coddle (sausage, bacon, and potato) and colcannon (mashed potato, kale or cabbage, and butter).

Traditionally, the most common ingredients of *the full Irish breakfast* are bacon rashers, pork sausages, fried or scrambled eggs, white pudding, black pudding, toast and fried tomatoes. Sauteed field mushrooms are also sometimes included as well as baked beans, hash browns and brown soda bread.

Modern Irish food still uses traditional ingredients but they are now being cooked by chefs with world influences and are presented in a more modern artistic style. In *Irish stew* which is a celebrated Irish dish basic ingredients include lamb or mutton as well as potatoes, onions and parsley, sometimes carrots which are boiled and simmered slowly for up to two hours on an open

oven. *Black pudding* is a type of blood made from pork blood, with pork fat or beef suet and a cereal, usually oatmeal oat or barley groats along with the use of certain herbs such as pennyroyal. *Shepherd's pie* (refers to lamb filling) or *cottage pie* (refers to beef filling) is a meat pie cooked in a gravy or sauce with onions and sometimes other vegetables, such as peas, celery or carrots, and topped with a layer of mashed potato before it is baked. The pie is sometimes also topped with grated cheese.

In ***Welsh cuisine*** there are many dishes that can be considered Welsh due to their ingredients and history. Such dishes as *cawl, Welsh rabbit, laverbread, Welsh cakes, bara brith* and the *Glamorgan sausage* have all been regarded as symbols of Welsh food. While some dishes have been imported from its British neighbours, uniquely Welsh cuisine grew principally from the lives of Welsh working people as a result of the need to produce food based on the limited ingredients they could produce or afford. Vegetables, except cabbages and leeks, were historically rare and the leek became a significant component of many dishes. At present sheep farming is practiced extensively in Wales, with lamb and mutton being the meats most traditionally associated with the country. Beef and dairy cattle are also raised widely.

Despite the name the dish *Welsh rabbit* contains no rabbit meat. It is a traditional Welsh dish made with a savoury sauce of melted cheese and various other ingredients and served hot, after being poured over slices of toasted bread. The main ingredients of a traditional Welsh vegetarian dish *Glamorgan sausage* are cheese, leeks and breadcrumbs. It is named after the historic county of Glamorgan in Wales. *Cawl* is recognised as a national dish of Wales. In modern Welsh language the word is used to refer to any soup or broth. Historically, ingredients tended to vary, but the most common recipes are with lamb or beef with leeks, potatoes, swedes, carrots and other seasonal vegetables.

Enjoying Free Time

British people spend their free time in different ways. The range of activities is very diverse. According to one of the British Attitudes Survey watching television is Britain's most common leisure activity, with 90 % of the population watching several times a week. 'Watching television' ranges from recovering-from-exhaustion-on-the-family-sofa to intense shared experiences where everyone is sitting in the near-darkness, pop-eyed with excitement. By contrast, only 42 % read a book several times a week.

Younger people turn to computers, partly for games but increasingly to enjoy social-networking sites. Perhaps the most popular activities are using mobile phones and exchanging news on sites such as Facebook and My Space. Meanwhile older people are fast catching up; pensioners are not interested in

computer games but are learning to use the internet in order to follow up their own interests, for example, discovering the history of their family.

Listening to popular music is as widespread in Britain as anywhere. One distinctive thing about British attitudes to music is that – along with the USA – they are its 'history': Beatles, Stones, Kinks, Who, Sex Pistols and on and on. The success of these groups can make the British very self-satisfied.

These leisure-time activities occur mostly inside the house. Outside, the British are indeed a nation of gardeners. Almost all houses have a small garden and the climate is ideal for growing plants from most parts of the world. They have a passion for lawns of grass which stay green throughout the year. For really enthusiastic gardeners who want more land, it is possible to rent an allotment from the local authority.

'Eating out' is characteristic of this affluent society. In practice it can mean sitting around a table with friends in a pizzeria or a simple cafe; it can mean eating at a very expensive, exclusive restaurant but obviously that is for the very few. Tens of thousands of pubs provide cheap but decent bar meals especially at lunchtime; cafes, restaurant and food-chain shops line their streets. Sometimes, in good weather, cafes and restaurants put out tables on the pavement or in a little garden, but too often the rain and wind disappoint them.

Families with small children have their own priorities. Most parents try to spend as much time as they can with their children in two typical ways. The first is to read to the child or children, usually at bedtime. The second is to go out for a walk, as a family, on Saturdays and Sundays. The 'walk' may be to the local playground equipped with swings, slides, climbing frames, often constructed alongside a public space for playing family football, cricket or simply running around. Sometimes the walk may be to a large municipal park, or to a local pond or lake 'to feed the ducks'. As children get older, families may make expeditions to fairs, local celebrations or – if they live close to the sea – to the seaside. In any town on any weekend some group or other will be performing or displaying crafts or organising a public party or arranging special activities for children. Town festivals and art shows are increasingly popular ways of bringing people together. Some families choose to visit museums. British national art and antiquity collections are free to everyone.

Hundreds of thousands of people join amateur choirs and orchestras, act in amateur theatrical performances or contribute paintings to amateur art exhibitions.

Test Your Knowledge

1. Which Celtic language in the United Kingdom has the largest number of native speakers?

2. What is the state religion in Britain?

3. Is Britain a Christian country? Why?
4. What are the “established churches” of England and Scotland?
5. What are the most important features and qualities of the British character?
6. How do the British display conservative attitudes?
7. What are the British widely known hobbies?
8. How do the Scots, Welsh, Irish differ from each other and the English?
9. What characteristics attract people to the Irish?
10. What are traditional British dishes?
11. What does traditional English breakfast consist of?
12. What other dishes are now popular in England?
13. What does traditional Christmas dinner consist of?
14. What do you think of Welsh national cuisine? Is it inventive?
15. Is there anything common between Irish and Belarusian cuisines?
16. Why is the pub regarded as a traditional ‘peculiarly English institution’?
17. What interesting British traditions can you name and describe?
18. What is the Trooping the Colour ceremony held for?
19. What is the most popular festival in Scotland?
20. Are the British great lovers of sports? Can you prove that?
21. What are the most popular sports in Britain?
22. What is purely British sport?
23. What are the ways in which the love of nature is most commonly displayed?
24. Do the English have a national costume?

SEMINARS

Seminar 1. The United Kingdom: General Outline

I. Read the material from the textbooks indicated below and be ready to give brief talks on the following issues.

1. Different names referring to the UK (Great Britain, the British Isles, Albion, Britannia).
2. Political division of the UK.
3. Population of the UK, its distribution and density.
4. National symbols identifying each of the countries.
5. Languages in Britain.
6. Religion.
7. Geography of the UK:
    - 7.1. The coastline (islands, seas, channels).
    - 7.2. Relief (mountains, highland and lowlands).
    - 7.3. Rivers and lakes.
    - 7.4. Climate and the main factors that influence it.
    - 7.5. Advantages and disadvantages of the geographical position.
8. Economy of the UK:
    - 8.1. Mineral wealth.
    - 8.2. Major industries.
    - 8.3. Main industrial regions and cities.
    - 8.4. New tendencies in the economy.

II. Study the map of Britain and label the following places:

a) countries of the UK;
b) capital cities;
c) the backbone of England;
d) the grassy hills across the north end of the Pennines;
e) the district of beautiful lakes;
f) the most westerly and southerly points of Great Britain;
g) the mountains that cover practically all the territory of Wales;
h) the three parts into which Scotland is geographically divided;
i) the highest summit of the Grampian Mountains;
j) the mountains in the north-east of Northern Ireland;
k) the famous basalt columns in Northern Ireland.

III. Choose a topic for your project work and prepare a presentation. Think over the questions for discussion at class.

1. Iconic places in England (Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland).
2. Iconic people of England (Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland).

Reading List

1. Lecture 1 of this textbook.

2. O'Driscoll, J. Britain / J. O'Driscoll. – Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1996. – P. 8–13, 31–41.

3. Барановский, Л. С. Добрый день, Британия! = How Do You Do, Britain? : учеб. пособие по страноведению для 8–11-х (9–12-х) кл. / Л. С Барановский, Д. Д. Козикис. – Минск : Выш. шк., 2006. – С. 7–41, 69–82, 130–163.

4. Барановский, Л. С. Великобритания : учеб. пособие / Л. С. Барановский, Д. Д. Козикис. – Минск : Выш. шк., 1990. – С. 9–43, 191–200, 233–278.

5. Дудкина, Н. В. Страноведение Великобритании и США : учеб.-метод. комплекс для студентов : в 2 ч. / сост. и общ. ред. Н. В. Дудкиной. – Новополоцк : ПГУ, 2005. – Ч. 1. – С. 5–32.

6. Козикис, Д. Д. Страноведение : Великобритания = British Studies : учеб. пособие / Д. Д. Козикис, Г. И. Медведев, Н. В. Демченко. – Минск : Лексис, 2007. – С. 7–37.

7. Криштоп, И. С. British and American Studies = Страноведение Великобритании и США : практ. пособие / И. С. Криштоп. – Барановичи : РИО БарГУ, 2014. – С. 10–15.

8. Кузьминова, В. М. Страноведение Великобритании и США / В. М. Кузьминова. – Витебск : Изд-во ВГУ им. П. М. Машерова, 2009. – С. 6–11, 22–30.

9. Нестерова, Н. М. Страноведение: Великобритания / Н. М. Нестерова. – Ростов н/Д : Феникс, 2006. – С. 8–51.

Seminar 2. Britain in Prehistoric Time and the Early Middle Ages

I. Read the material from the textbooks indicated below and be ready to give brief talks on the following issues.

1. The early days of Britain. Ancient Britons.
2. Waves of invasion:
    2.1. The Celts.
    2.2. The Roman conquest. Britain under the Romans. The Roman influence.
    2.3. The Anglo-Saxon invasion and its influence.
    2.4. The Danes in Britain.
    2.5. The Norman conquest and its influence.
3. England in the 12th–13th centuries:
    3.1. Magna Carta and the decline of feudalism.
    3.2. The union of England and Wales.
    3.3. Scottish popular resistance movement against England.
4. England in the 14th–15th centuries:
    4.1. The Peasants' Revolt of 1381.
    4.2. The Hundred Years' War.
    4.3. Wars of the Roses.

II. Choose a topic for your project work and prepare a presentation. Think over the questions for discussion at class.

1. The role of Druids in the life of the Celts.
2. King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table.
3. The House of Plantagenet.

Reading List

1. Lectures 2–4 of this textbook.
2. O'Driscoll, J. Britain / J. O'Driscoll. – Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1996. – P. 15–19.
3. McDowall, D. An Illustrated History of Britain / D. McDowall. – Harlow : Pearson Education, 1989. – P. 3–66.
4. Барановский, Л. С. Добрый день, Британия! = How Do You Do, Britain? : учеб. пособие по страноведению для 8–11-х (9–12-х) кл. / Л. С. Барановский, Д. Д. Козикис. – Минск : Выш. шк., 2006. – С. 42–68.

5. Барановский, Л. С. Великобритания = Panorama of Great Britain : учеб. пособие / Л. С. Барановский, Д. Д. Козикис. – Минск : Выш. шк., 1990. – С. 43–67.

6. Дудкина, Н. В. Страноведение Великобритании и США : учеб.-метод. комплекс для студентов : в 2 ч. / сост. и общ. ред. Н. В. Дудкиной. – Новополоцк : ПГУ, 2005. – Ч. 1. – С. 33–54.

7. Криштоп, И. С. British and American Studies = Страноведение Великобритании и США : практ. пособие / И. С. Криштоп. – Барановичи : РИО БарГУ, 2014. – С. 16–27.

8. Кузьминова, В. М. Страноведение Великобритании и США / В. М. Кузьминова. – Витебск : Изд-во ВГУ им. П. М. Машерова, 2009. – С. 11–13.

9. Маркушевская, Л. П. Великобритания : учеб. пособие по страноведению / Л. П. Маркушевская. – СПб. : СПбГУ ИТМО, 2008. – С. 4–33.

10. Нестерова, Н. М. Страноведение: Великобритания / Н. М. Нестерова. – Ростов н/Д : Феникс, 2006. – С. 55–75.

Seminar 3. Britain from the Late Middle Ages to Present

I. Read the material from the textbooks indicated below and be ready to give brief talks on the following issues.

1. The Tudor age:
    1.1. The reign of Henry VII.
    1.2. The English Reformation.
    1.3. Queen Elizabeth. The period of Renaissance.
2. Britain in the 17th century:
    2.1. The Civil War.
    2.2. The Commonwealth.
    2.3. The Restoration of monarchy.
    2.4. The Glorious Revolution and the Bill of Rights.
3. Britain in the 18th–19th centuries:
    3.1. The Industrial Revolution and the rise of the middle class.
    3.2. The Victorian era, social and economic improvements.
    3.3. The growth of the British Empire (colonial expansion).
4. Britain in the 20th century:
    4.1. The end of the Empire.
    4.2. The First World War.
    4.3. The Second World War.
    4.4. The ‘welfare state’.
    4.5. Thatcherism.
5. The United Kingdom today.

II. Choose a topic for your project work and prepare a presentation. Think over the questions for discussion at class.

1. Henry VIII as a personality and a monarch.
2. The English Renaissance as the period of great personalities.
3. Victorian technology, inventions and innovation.
4. Sir Winston Churchill.

Reading List

1. Lectures 4–6 of this textbook.
2. O’Driscoll, J. Britain / J. O’Driscoll. – Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1996. – P. 19–30.

3. McDowall, D. An Illustrated History of Britain / D. McDowall. – Harlow : Pearson Education, 1989. – P. 67–184.

4. Барановский, Л. С. Великобритания = Panorama of Great Britain : учеб. пособие / Л. С. Барановский, Д. Д. Козикис. – Минск : Выш. шк., 1990. – С. 68–190.

5. Криштоп, И. С. British and American Studies = Страноведение Великобритании и США : практ. пособие / И. С. Криштоп. – Барановичи : РИО БарГУ, 2014. – С. 28–43.

6. Кузьминова, В. М. Страноведение Великобритании и США / В. М. Кузьминова. – Витебск : Изд-во ВГУ им. П. М. Машерова, 2009. – С. 13–22.

7. Маркушевская, Л. П. Великобритания : учеб. пособие по страноведению / Л. П. Маркушевская. – СПб. : СПбГУ ИТМО, 2008. – С. 33–110.

8. Нестерова, Н. М. Страноведение: Великобритания / Н. М. Нестерова. – Ростов н/Д : Феникс, 2006. – С. 75–146.

Seminar 4. The UK State and Political Life

I. Read the material from the textbooks indicated below and be ready to give brief talks on the following issues.

1. Britain as a constitutional monarchy:
    1.1. Peculiarities of the British Constitution.
    1.2. Separation of powers under the British Constitution.
    1.3. The Head of the State. The Queen's duties.
2. The British Parliament.
    2.1. Beginnings of Parliament.
    2.2. The House of Commons.
    2.3. The House of Lords.
    2.4. Parliamentary electoral system.
    2.5. Parliamentary procedure.
    2.6. Passing laws.
3. The Executive power. The Government:
    3.1 The Prime Minister and his functions.
    3.2. The Cabinet.
    3.3. The present-day Prime Minister and his policy.
4. Traditions of the British Parliament.
5. Political Parties of Great Britain:
    5.1. The Conservative party.
    5.2. The Labour party.
    5.3. The Liberal Democratic Party.
    5.4. The Welsh, Scottish and Irish Nationalist Parties.

II. Choose a topic for your project work and prepare a presentation. Think over the questions for discussion at class.

1. British monarchy today.
2. The Commonwealth of Nations.
3. The Constitutional reform in Britain: devolution.
4. The House of Hanover.
5. The House of Windsor.

Reading List

1. Lecture 7 of this textbook.
2. O'Driscoll, J. Britain / J. O'Driscoll. – Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1996. – P. 67–105.

3. Барановский, Л. С. Добрый день, Британия! = How Do You Do, Britain? : учеб. пособие по страноведению для 8–11-х (9–12-х) кл. / Л. С. Барановский, Д. Д. Козикис. – Минск : Выш. шк., 2006. – С. 83–103.

4. Барановский, Л. С. Великобритания = Panorama of Great Britain : учеб. пособие / Л. С. Барановский, Д. Д. Козикис. – Минск : Выш. шк., 1990. – С. 201–232.

5. Беляева, Е. С. Страноведение Великобритании в процессе коммуникации = Cultural studies of Great Britain through communication / Е. С. Беляева. – Рязань, 2012. – С. 50–63.

6. Дудкина, Н. В. Страноведение Великобритании и США : учеб.-метод. комплекс для студентов : в 2 ч. / сост. и общ. ред. Н. В. Дудкиной. – Новополоцк : ПГУ, 2005. – Ч. 1. – С. 98–126.

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8. Криштоп, И. С. British and American Studies = Страноведение Великобритании и США : практ. пособие / И. С. Криштоп. – Барановичи : РИО БарГУ, 2014. – С. 44–50.

9. Кузьминова, В. М. Страноведение Великобритании и США / В. М. Кузьминова. – Витебск : Изд-во ВГУ им. П. М. Машерова, 2009. – С. 30–36.

10. Нестерова, Н. М. Страноведение: Великобритания / Н. М. Нестерова. – Ростов н/Д : Феникс, 2006. – С. 173–219.

Seminar 5. Education and Culture in the UK

I. Read the material from the textbooks indicated below and be ready to give brief talks on the following issues.

1. System of Education in the UK:
    1.1. Key stages in the British system of education.
    1.2. Types of schools in Great Britain.
    1.3. System of certification and examinations.
    1.4. Higher education. British Universities.
2. Culture and arts in the UK:
    1.1. Visual arts.
    1.2. Music.
    1.3. Architecture.
    1.4. Theatre.
    1.5. Cinema.
3. British ways of life:
    3.1. British traditions at a public level.
    3.2. British character.
    3.3. Popular sports in Britain.
    3.4. Britain's national costumes.
    3.5. British cuisine.
    3.6. Leisure time of the British.
    3.7. Public holidays in Great Britain.
    3.8. British Bank holidays.

II. Choose a topic for your project work and prepare a presentation. Think over the questions for discussion at class.

1. Films about British Kings and Queens.
2. The first British Universities.
3. The first theatre in Great Britain.
4. Famous British castles.
5. British town and country architecture.
6. Museums and Galleries of the UK.
7. Places associated with famous people in London.
8. The mass media in the UK.
9. English clubs and pubs.

Reading List

1. Lectures 9–10 of this textbook.

2. O'Driscoll, J. Britain / J. O'Driscoll. – Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1996. – P. 130–140, 151–161, 184–215.

3. Барановский, Л. С. Добрый день, Британия! = How Do You Do, Britain?: учеб. пособие по страноведению для 8–11-х (9–12-х) кл. / Л. С. Барановский, Д. Д. Козикис. – Минск : Выш. шк., 2006. – С. 104–129, 164–201, 238–244.

4. Барановский, Л. С. Великобритания = Panorama of Great Britain : учеб. пособие / Л. С. Барановский, Д. Д. Козикис. – Минск : Выш. шк., 1990. – С. 301–328.

5. Беляева, Е. С. Страноведение Великобритании в процессе коммуникации = Cultural studies of Great Britain through communication / Е. С. Беляева. – Рязань, 2012. – С. 64–90, 99–102.

6. Дудкина, Н. В. Страноведение Великобритании и США : учеб.-метод. комплекс для студентов : в 2 ч. / сост. и общ. ред. Н.В. Дудкиной. – Новополоцк : ПГУ, 2005. – Ч. 1. – С. 71–97, 145–153.

7. Козикис, Д. Д. Страноведение : Великобритания = British Studies : учеб. пособие / Д. Д. Козикис, Г. И. Медведев, Н. В. Демченко. – Минск : Лексис, 2007. – С. 95–115.

8. Криштоп, И. С. British and American Studies = Страноведение Великобритании и США : практ. пособие / И. С. Криштоп. – Барановичи : РИО БарГУ, 2014. – С. 51–65.

9. Кузьминова, В. М. Страноведение Великобритании и США / В. М. Кузьминова. – Витебск : Изд-во ВГУ им. П. М. Машерова, 2009. – С. 36–56.

10. Нестерова, Н. М. Страноведение: Великобритания / Н. М. Нестерова. – Ростов н/Д : Феникс, 2006. – С. 222–341.

11. Сатинова, В. Ф. Читаем и говорим о Британии и британцах / В. Ф. Сатинова. – Минск : Выш. шк., 2004. – 255 с.

TESTS

Test 1. General Overview of the UK

1. From the European continent the British Isles are separated by…
   a) the North Sea and the Atlantic Ocean
   b) the Irish Sea and the English Channel
   c) the English Channel and the North Sea
2. The chief islands of the group of the Channel Islands are the Isles of …
   a) Wight and Jersey
   b) Jersey and Scilly
   c) Guernsey and Jersey
3. Politically the British Isles are divided into…
   a) three countries *b) two countries* *c) four countries*
4. The people who live on the British Isles are called…
   a) the Britons *b) the English* *c) the British*
5. The Isle of Wight is situated in…
   a) the English Channel
   b) the middle of the Irish Sea
   c) the Sea of the Hebrides
6. The Isle of Man lies in…
   a) the English Channel
   b) the middle of the Irish Sea
   c) the Sea of the Hebrides
7. Anglesey is situated in…
   a) the English Channel
   b) the Irish Sea
   c) the North Sea
8. The Isles of Scilly lie in…
   a) the English Channel
   b) the Irish Sea
   c) the North Sea
9. The Cheviot Hills serve as a natural borderline between…
   a) England and Wales
   b) England and Scotland
10. The Pennines are the most important mountains in…
   a) Scotland *b) Wales* *c) England*
11. The mountains covering practically all the territory of Wales are called…
   a) the Cambrian Mountains
   b) the Pennines
   c) the Grampian Mountains

12. The highest peak of the British Isles is…
a) Ben Nevis *b) Cross Fell* *c) Snowdon*
13. Snowdon is the highest peak of…
a) the Grampian Mountains
b) the Cambrian Mountains
c) the Pennines
14. The Antrim Mountains are situated in …
a) Scotland *b) Wales* *c) Northern Ireland*
15. Land's End is … point of Great Britain.
a) the most eastern *b) the most western* *c) the most southern*
16. Lizard Point is … point of Great Britain.
a) the most eastern *b) the most northern* *c) the most southern*
17. The longest river of the British Isles is…
a) the Shannon *b) the Thames* *c) the Severn*
18. Glasgow stands on the river…
a) Mersey *b) Clyde* *c) Severn*
19. The Lake District is claimed to be the … inhabited place on the British Isles.
a) driest *b) coldest* *c) wettest*
20. The largest lake in Great Britain is…
a) Loch Lomond *b) Lough Neagh* *c) Loch Ness*
21. The British Isles are known for their greatly ... coastline.
a) indented *b) sharp* *c) smooth*
22. The capital of Wales is …
a) Aberystwyth *b) Caerphilly* *c) Cardiff*
23. There are many place-names in Wales beginning with *Llan* which means an area where a … stands.
a) fort *b) church* *c) castle*
24. The capital of Scotland is……
a) London *b) Belfast* *c) Edinburgh*
25. Geographically Scotland may be divided into … major physical regions.
a) two *b) three* *c) four*
26. The two chief minerals on which the Industrial Revolution was based are…
a) oil and natural gas
b) chalk and peat
c) coal and iron ore
27. British industry has become increasingly oriented towards …
a) heavy industry *b) light industry* *c) agriculture*
28. The principal oil-producing area lies in …
a) the Irish Sea
b) the English Channel
c) the North Sea

29. Milford Haven is the main port in…
a) England *b) Wales* *c) Scotland*
30. The first public railway was opened between
a) Stockton & Darlington
b) Folkestone & Calais
c) London and Cambridge
31. London is served by two major airports…
a) Heathrow & Shannon
b) Heathrow & Gatwick
32. England is divided into … economic regions.
a) 8 *b) 6* *c) 5*
33. The industrial region of Lancashire is situated on the … slopes of the Pennines.
a) western *b) eastern*
34. The economy of Yorkshire has always been closely connected with …
a) iron *b) wool* *c) coal*
35. The name of the British capital is derived from…
a) the Roman Londinium
b) the Celtic Llyn-dyn
c) the Latin 'lapis milliaris'
36. The idea of building a tunnel which would connect Britain and France was first suggested by…
a) Albert Mathieu *b) Napoleon* *c) Francois Mitterand*
37. The Eurotunnel began to operate…
a) at the end of the 19h century
b) at the beginning of the 20th century
c) at the end of the 20th century
38. The Union Jack is…
a) made up of three crosses on the blue ground
b) made up of three crosses on the white ground
c) made up of three stripes
39. The three crosses of the Union Jack…
a) reflect the three religions in the country
b) are the crosses of three countries
c) symbolize the union of Wales, England and Scotland
40. The leek is the national emblem of …
a) Scotland *b) England* *c) Wales*
41. The shamrock is the national emblem of …
a) Ireland *b) Scotland* *c) Wales*
42. The patron saint of England is…
a) St. Andrew *b) St. Patrick* *c) St. George*

43. The red rose became the emblem of England after …

a) the Bourgeois revolution

b) the Wars of the Roses

c) the Hundred Years' War

44. The symbol of … is not reflected in the Union Jack.

a) Ireland *b) Wales* *c) Scotland*

45. The Welsh flag is a red … on a white and green ground.

a) arm *b) dragon* *c) rose*

46. The origin of the name of the river Severn is connected with the name of a … goddess Sabrina.

a) Celtic *b) Roman* *c) Norman*

47. The climate of Great Britain is influenced by …

a) the North Sea *b) the Gulf Stream* *c) the Atlantic Ocean*

48. Britain is one of the most urbanized countries in Europe with some … of urban population.

a) 50 % *b) 60 %* *c) 80 %*

49. In the 1960s several discoveries of natural gas were made on the continental shelf in the bed of …

a) the Irish Sea *b) the North Sea* *c) the English Channel.*

50. Less than … per cent of the population are involved in agriculture.

a) 2 *b) 5* *c) 10*

Test 2. History of the UK

1. The first inhabitants of Great Britain are thought to have come from…
   a) the east of Europe
   b) the region of the Mediterranean Sea
   c) Central Europe
2. … were a special group among the Celts who were both priests and doctors.
   a) The Beaker people *b) The Druids* *c) The Knights of the Table*
3. The most famous prehistoric monument Stonehenge is situated in…
   a) England *b) Wales* *c) Northern Ireland*
4. The Beaker people were called so because of the ... found in their graves.
   a) weapons *b) pottery vessels* *c) horseshoes*
5. The Roman occupation of Britain started…
   a) in 43 A. D.
   b) at the beginning of the 5th century
   c) after 3000 B. C.
6. Most British towns with names ending with "chester" were in Roman times…
   a) fortified camps
   b) mineral springs
   c) Celtic settlements
7. Hadrian's Wall was built by the Romans …
   a) in the north of England near Scotland
   b) in the west of England near Wales
8. The Romans left the British Isles…
   a) in 43 AD *b) in 54 B* *c) in the 5th century*
9. Of the three Germanic tribes the first to come to Britain were …
   a) the Saxons *b) the Jutes* *c) the Angles*
10. The Saxons divided the land into administrative areas called …
   a) shires *b) moots* *c) councils*
11. The Saxon kingdoms fought one against the other, but at the beginning of the 9th century …
   a) Wessex became the leading kingdom which united all the country in the struggle against the Danes
   b) the Danes occupied all Britain under their rule
   c) peace was established as a result of the adoption of Christianity
12. As the Anglo-Saxons worshipped different gods…
   a) their names are reflected in the names of the months of the year
   b) their names are reflected in the names of the days of the week
   c) their statues are seen in different parts of the country

13. According to legends King Arthur ruled…
a) from the castle in Camelot
b) England in the 15th century
c) together with his beautiful queen in Glastonbury
14. When Arthur and his knights met together they sat at a … table.
a) square *b) long* *c) round*
15. The name of King Arthur's queen is …
a) Boadicea *b) Matilda* *c) Guinevere*
16. … was an old magician at the court of King Arthur.
a) Gawain *b) Excalibur* *c) Merlin*
17. An important event which contributed to the unification of the country was the adoption of Christianity in …
a) 829 *b) 664* *c) 597*
18. King ... organized the struggle against the Danes in the 9th century.
a) Alfred *b) Edward* *c) Arthur*
19. King Alfred is considered to be the founder of the English…
a) army *b) fleet* *c) system of education*
20. The Normans conquered England in …
a) 1044 *b) 1066* *c) 1100*
21. King …was killed at the battle of Hastings.
a) Edmund II *b) Harold* *c) Arthur*
22. Domesday Book was ordered in 1086 by …
a) Julius Caesar
b) William the Conqueror
d) Elisabeth II
23. In the 11th century … provided information on the ownership of each piece of land and its price.
a) Anglo-Saxon Chronicle
b) Domesday Book
c) William the Conqueror's Notes
24. The Tower of London was started by …
a) Julius Caesar
b) Henry VIII
c) William the Conqueror
25. The ceremony when the eldest son of the monarch becomes the official heir to the throne receiving the title Prince of Wales takes place in…
a) Hastings *b) London* *c) Caernarvon*
26. The final unification of England and Scotland took place in … when both sides agreed to form a single parliament in London.
a) 1707 *b) 1603* *c) 1999*

27. Robert Bruce is a national hero in Scotland because he…

a) defeated the English at Bannockburn in 1314

b) was the first king of the Scots

c) wrote poems about the Scots

28. The province of Northern Ireland which is part of the United Kingdom consists of … counties.

a) 26 *b) 6* *c) 16*

29. For years there has been a conflict between … in Northern Ireland.

a) the Catholics

b) the Protestants

c) the Catholics and Protestants

30. The Irish Free State and Northern Ireland were formed…

a) at the end of the 19th century

b) in 1921 when the partition of Ireland took place

c) in 1941

31. One of the greatest tragedies of Ireland in the 19th century was the Great Hunger of 1845–1849 when …

a) due to the poor grain harvest many people died

b) many peasants started sheep raising

c) because of the bad potato harvest many people died and more than one million emigrated to the USA

32. Magna Carta, the 'great charter' of legal rights, dates back to…

a) 1215 *b) 1285* *c) 1236*

33. English kings conquered large areas of France during…

a) the Norman Conquest

b) the Crusades

c) The Hundred Years' War

34. The loss of … meant that the 'first British Empire' came to an end.

a) the American colonies *b) India* *c) the Sudan*

35. In the 1700s, Britain fought a number of wars against…

a) Germany *b) France* *c) Spain*

36. The University of Oxford was established under

a) Henry I *b) Henry II* *c) Stephen*

37. The Wars of the Roses broke out in

a) 1415 *b) 1485* *c) 1455*

38. The founder of the House of Tudor was …

a) Henry VIII *b) Henry VII* *c) Richard III*

39. The king who proclaimed himself head of the *Church of England* and dissolved all the monasteries in the country was …

a) Henry VIII *b) Henry VII* *c) Henry VI*

40. The queen who intended to restore Roman Catholicism to England, executing over 300 religious dissenters in her 5-year reign was …

a) Mary Stuart
b) Elizabeth I
c) Mary (I) Bloody Mary

41. James VI of Scotland who succeeded Elizabeth as King James I of England creating the United Kingdom was the son of …

a) Mary Stuart *b) Matilda* *c) Mary I*

42. … totalitarian handling of the Parliament eventually culminated in the *English Civil War*.

a) Charles I's *b) James's* *c) Elizabeth I's*

43. The Whig and Tory parties were created during the reign of…

a) Charles I *b) Charles II* *c) Oliver Cromwell*

44. The *Act of Union* joined the Scottish and the English Parliaments creating the single Kingdom of Great Britain and centralizing political power in London was passed in …

a) 1807 *b) 1707* *c) 1907*

45. The king who couldn't speak a word of English, which led him to appoint Prime Minister was …

a) George I *b) George II* *c) George III*

46. The first Hanoverian king to be born in England was …

a) George I *b) George II* *c) George III*

47. Queen Victoria died in…

a) 1910 *b) 1901* *c) 1899*

48. The Labor Party was created in Britain…

a) after World War I
b) before World War I
c) before World War II

49. The Prime Minister of the UK during the Second World War was…

a) Tony Blair *b) Robert Walpole* *c) Winston Churchill*

50. The current queen of England, Elizabeth II, ascended to the throne in …

a)1952 *b) 1942* *c) 1960*

Test 3. The UK State and Political System

1. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is a…
   a) constitutional monarchy
   b) parliamentary republic
   c) constitutional federation
2. … is considered to be a part of the Constitution simply because it stated the principle that the king was subject to the law and not above the law.
   a) the Bill of Rights *b) Habeas Corpus* *c) Magna Carta*
3. In 1265 … called the Parliament which is seen as the earliest forerunner of the modern Parliament.
   a) De la Mare *b) Simon de Monfort* *c) King John*
4. … signed by William III and Mary II proclaimed the foundation of constitutional monarchy.
   a) Habeas Corpus Act
   b) Statute of Westminster
   c) the Bill of Rights
5. According to the … passed in 1701 the Monarch must be a Protestant.
   a) Act of Settlement *b) Act of Supremacy* *c) Act of Union*
6. In … the hereditary principle in the House of Lords was abolished.
   a) 1999 *b) 2001* *c) 2009*
7. The Parliament Act of 1999 deprived the Lords of their right to pass a…
   a) title *b) fortune* *c) seat*
8. Many principles of the British Constitution by which Britain is governed are…
   a) rules of custom *b) rules of law* *c) precedent*
9. The Queen may exercise her powers only on the advice of her ministers, who are responsible politically to the …
   a) Prime Minister *b) Crown* *c) Parliament*
10. The power of the British Parliament is concentrated in…
   a) the House of Lords
   b) the House of Commons
   c) the Cabinet
11. The supreme legislative authority in Great Britain resides in…
   a) Downing St., 10 *b) Westminster* *c) Buckingham Palace*
12. A multinational organization formed on the basis of the former British colonies is named …
   a) the Commonwealth *b) the Republic* *c) the Federation*
13. One of the fundamental principles of the British constitution is…
   a) unlimited power
   b) the sovereignty of Parliament
   c) power of the Queen

14. Each constituency elects one member to…
a) the House of Lords
b) the House of Commons
c) both Houses
15. British citizens may vote provided they are aged … or over.
a) 19 *b) 18* *c) 21*
16. The chief officer of the House of Commons is…
a) the Chancellor *b) Sergeant at Arms* *c) the Speaker*
17. Black Rod is a representative of …
a) the House of Commons
b) the House of Lords
c) the Cabinet
18. Bills may be introduced in…
a) the House of Lords
c) the House of Commons
c) either House
19. The Bill becomes law and is known as an Act of Parliament after…
a) the Third Reading in the House of Commons
b) the Third Reading in the House of Lords
c) the Royal Assent
20. … is a period when members of Parliament may question any minister and the Prime Minister on general national policy.
a) the Table of the House
b) the Floor of the House
c) Question Time
21. The parliamentary electoral system of Great Britain encourages the domination of … major political party (parties).
a) one *b) two* *c) three*
22. Members of Parliament are elected at a general election which is usually held every … years.
a) four *b) five* *c) six*
23. The doctrine of collective responsibility of the Cabinet means that...
a) each minister is expected to support the policy of the Government
b) ministers can disagree on some matters of the Government
c) ministers should discuss the policy of the Government
24. The first woman Prime Minister in the UK was…
a) Victoria *b) Margaret Thatcher* *c) Elizabeth*
25. Britain is almost alone among modern states in that it does not have a(an) … at all.
a) president *b) constitution* *c) army*

Test 4. Education in the UK

1. The education leaving age by the Education and Skills Act of 2008 was raised to…

a) 16 *b) 17* *c) 18*

2. The academic year in British schools is divided into…terms.

a) 3 *b) 2* *c) 4*

3. Secondary education is split between Key Stages...

a) 2 and 3 *b) 3 and 4* *c) 4 and 5*

4. University technical colleges established in 2010 are a type of … school led by a sponsor university and have close ties to local business and industry.

a) middle *b) higher* *c) secondary*

5. The National Curriculum places greater emphasis on the more ….

a) theoretical aspects of education

b) practical aspects of education

c) advanced skills teaching.

6. About … of children in Great Britain go to comprehensive schools.

a) 7 *b) 90* *c) 50*

7. All state-funded schools are regularly inspected by …

a) the Office for Standards in Education

b) the Government's Committee

c) the governors' body

8. Day-to-day management of the school is the responsibility of…

a) local educational authorities

b) the headteacher

c) teachers and parents

9. … school education is not compulsory in the UK.

a) Nursery *b) Primary* *c) Secondary*

10. Pre-school playgrounds are mostly organized by…

a) parents *b) nursery schools* *c) communities*

11. At the age of … children transfer from primary to secondary school in England, Wales and Northern Ireland.

a) 7 *b) 13* *c) 11*

12. Parents who wish to send their children to a public school often send them first to a …

a) primary school

b) middle school

c) preparatory school

13. … schools receive no state funding.

a) County *b) Public* *c) Voluntary*

14. The oldest public school in England is …
a) Eton *b) Harrow School* *c) Winchester College*
15. … is the main standard for entrance to higher education.
a) General Certificate of Secondary Education
b) General Certificate of Education (A level)
c) Higher National Certificate
16. Admission to British Universities is carried out by…
a) examinations and interviews
b) interviews
c) applications
17. The oldest university in Great Britain is … University.
a) Cambridge *b) Oxford* *c) London*
18. Teaching at Oxbridge is based on…
a) lectures and seminars
b) tutorial system
c) distance learning
19. … have the highest academic reputation in the UK.
a) Oxford and Cambridge
b) London and Bristol
c) red-brick Universities
20. The Red Brick universities were founded in the … century.
a) 18th *b) 19th* *c) 17th*
21. Students studying for the first degree are called…
a) undergraduates
b) graduates
c) postgraduates
22. The Open University was founded by the Labour government in the … century.
a) second half of the 20th
b) first half of the 20th
c) second half of the 19th
23. The academic year in Britain's universities is divided into … terms.
a) two *b) three* *c) four*
24. The first degree awarded by universities is …
a) a doctor's degree
b) a bachelor's degree
c) a master's degree
25. The course of studies for a bachelor's degree is … years.
a) two *b) three* *c) four*

Test 5. British Culture and Ways of Life

1. There is a great number of French words in English because French…
   a) became the official language in Britain after the Norman invasion
   b) was borrowed by the English when Christianity spread in England
   c) nobles had land possessions in England
2. The Gaelic language in Northern Ireland is…
   a) spoken in some families, especially in the west
   b) is not different from English
   c) spoken widely by the population in towns
3. The official religion of the UK is…
   a) Catholicism *b) Christianity* *c) Muslim*
4. The Church of Scotland is known as…
   a) Kirk *b) Anglican Church* *c) Presbyterian Church*
5. One of the British Christmas traditions is the Monarch's Speech on Christmas Day which started in 1932 with…
   a) Queen Elizabeth *b) King George V* *c) Queen Victoria*
6. Eisteddfod means an annual competition in … where people meet to dance, sing and read poems.
   a) Scotland *b) England* *c) Wales*
7. Hogmanay is celebrated on the last day of the year in…
   a) Scotland *b) Wales* *c) Ireland*
8. *Land of My Fathers* is the national anthem of the …
   a) Scots *b) Welsh* *c) Irish*
9. The monument to … stands in the centre of Trafalgar Square.
   a) Horatio Nelson *b) Wellington* *c) Winston Churchill*
10. … in London was once a prison.
   a) Westminster Abbey
   b) Westminster Palace
   c) The Tower of London
11. The largest library in Great Britain is housed in…
   a) St. Paul's Cathedral
   b) Westminster Abbey
   c) the British Museum
12. Christopher Wren's masterpiece is …
   a) Buckingham Palace
   b) St. Paul's Cathedral
   c) The Tower of London
13. Covent Garden is a….
   a) theatre *b) museum* *c) park*

14. The Crown jewels are kept in…
    a) Buckingham Palace
    b) Westminster Abbey
    c) The Tower of London
15. … houses the Big Ben bell.
    a) The Tower of London
    b) Westminster Palace
    c) Buckingham Palace
16. The ravens are a famous sight of …
    a) the Tower of London
    b) London Zoo
    c) Covent Garden
17. Madame Tussaud's is a museum of …
    a) ancient coins *b) western paintings* *c) wax figures*
18. The Changing of the Guard takes place in …
    a) Westminster Abbey
    b) The Tower of London
    c) Buckingham Palace
19. The most famous British poets are buried in…
    a) Canterbury Cathedral
    b) The Tower of London
    c) Westminster Abbey
20. …, the author of *The Canterbury Tales*, was the first great story-teller who wrote in English.
    a) Thomas Becket *b) Geoffrey Chaucer* *c) Thomas More*
21. … is the greatest representative of the English Renaissance.
    a) John Milton
    b) William Shakespeare
    c) Edmund Spenser
22. *Gulliver's Travels*, a ship doctor's account of his voyages into strange places is written by…
    a) Jonathan Swift *b) Daniel Defoe* *c) Conan Doyle*
23. The poem *Auld Lang Syne*, often sung at Hogmanay, is written by…
    a) R. Burns *b) J. Keats* *c) P. Shelly*
24. …, a romantic poet died in Greece while fighting against the Turks for Greek independence.
    a) Lord Byron *b) Robert Burns* *c) John Lennon*
25. The Irish-born novelist-dramatist …, recipient of the Nobel Prize for literature in 1969 lived for a long time in France and wrote his works in French and then translated them himself into English.
    a) W.B. Yeats *b) S. Beckett* *c) J. Swift*

26. The author of *Lord of the Flies* who won the Nobel Prize for literature in 1983 was …

a) A. Burgess *b) D. Lessing* *c) W. Golding*

27. The author of the world-famous musical *Jesus Christ Superstar* is…

a) A. L. Webber *b) B. Britten* *c) E. Elgar*

28. … adapted Shakespeare's *A Midsummer Night's Dream* into opera.

a) Sir Edward Elgar *b) Ralph Williams* *c) Benjamin Britten*

29. Director … moved to the United States in 1939 and continued to produce popular films.

a) Alfred Hitchcock *b) Charlie Chaplin* *c) Stanley Kubrick*

30. The Beatles started their career in…

a) Birmingham *b) Liverpool* *c) London*

31. The famous Globe Theatre where Shakespeare staged his plays is situated in…

a) London
b) Stratford-upon-Avon
c) Glasgow

32. … is rightfully considered as the founder of realism in the history of the English theatre.

a) Oliver Goldsmith *b) Sarah Siddons* *c) David Garrick*

33. In 1768 the Royal Academy was founded in England to promote and encourage the development of arts with … as its first President.

a) J. Reynolds *b) Th. Gainsborough* *c) W. Blake*

34. … is home to the largest collection of portraiture in the world, featuring famous British men and women painted by some of the greatest painters in the history of arts.

a) The National Portrait Gallery
b) The Tate Gallery
c) The British Museum

35. Trooping the Colour is one of the most magnificent military ceremonies in Britain which marks…

a) the official birthday of the Queen
b) Remembrance Day
c) the State Opening of Parliament

36. … in London is a vivid illustration of Inigo Jones' style.

a) The Whitehall palace
b) St. Paul's Cathedral
c) Big Ben

37. The first English opera *Dido and Aeneas* is composed by…

a) John Gay *b) H. Purcell* *c) Handel*

38. … is a celebrated cabinet-maker producing beautiful, elegant and remarkably comfortable furniture.

a) Robert Adam
b) Thomas Chippendale
c) James Gibbs

39. … was one of the most prominent representatives of English classical political economy.

a) Isaac Newton *b) Adam Smith* *c) David Hume*

40. *Marriage a la Mode* is a masterpiece by…

a) W. Hogarth *b) Th. Gainsborough* *c) W. Blake*

41. Newton's famous book published in 1687 is called…

a) Natural Philosophy
b) Mathematical Equations
c) Principia

42. The revolution in natural science is associated with the name of …, who created a materialistic theory of evolution.

a) H. Spencer *b) J. Maxwell* *c) Ch. Darwin*

43. On a national scale British … may be illustrated by their attitude to the monarchy.

a) confidence *b) conservatism* *c) eccentricity*

44. One of the most popular hobbies of the British is…

a) dancing *b) politics* *c) gardening*

45. The Scottish national costume for men is …

a) the tuxedo *b) the bearskin* *c) the kilt*

46. A special place in the life of the British is occupied by…

a) beer *b) coffee* *c) tea*

47. The game that is especially connected with England is…

a) cricket *b) basketball* *c) ice-hockey*

48. In terms of cuisine Scotland is associated with…

a) porridge *b) lava bread* *c) fish and chips*

49. … is regarded a national institution of England.

a) Hamburger *b) Fish and chips* *c) Curry*

50. St Patrick's Day, the national day of both Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland is marked on…

a) April 1 *b) March 17* *c) May 17*

Supplement 1

GLOSSARY: PERSONALITIES

Adam, Robert (1728–1792) was a Scottish neoclassical architect, interior and furniture designer. After spending nearly five years on the continent studying architecture, he established a practice in London, developed the "Adam Style", and became one of the most successful and fashionable architects in the country.

Addison, Joseph (1672–1719) was an English essayist, poet, playwright and politician. His name is usually remembered for the foundation of *The Spectator* magazine.

Albert, Prince Consort (1819–1861) was a husband of Queen Victoria, a patron of the arts, science, and industry. He planned the Great Exhibition of 1851. He died of typhoid. The Queen never fully recovered from his premature death.

Alfred the Great (born around 849) was an Anglo-Saxon king (871–899). He succeeded his brother Aethelred to the throne of Wessex in 871 and a new legal code came into force during his reign. He was a strong leader in many battles, managed to secure peace by establishing a boundary between the Danelaw to the east and England to the west. He founded the first English navy, encouraged the translation of scholarly works from Latin, began the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*.

Anderson, Sophie (1823–1903) was a French-born British artist who specialised in genre painting of children and women, typically in rural settings. Her work, *Elaine*, was the first public collection purchase of a woman artist. Anderson's works are in the collection of numerous museums and galleries.

Anne (1665–1714) was the Queen of England, Scotland and Ireland (1702–1707). Under the 1707 Act of Union, the kingdoms of England and Scotland united as a single sovereign state known as Great Britain. She continued to reign as the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland until her death in 1714. She took a lively interest in the affairs of the state, and was a patron of theatre, poetry and music.

Anne of Cleves (1515–1557) was the fourth wife of Henry VIII, whom she married in 1540. She was the daughter of the Duke of Cleves, and was recommended to Henry as a wife by Thomas Cromwell, who wanted an alliance with German Protestantism against the Holy Roman Empire.

Arnold, Thomas (1795–1842) was an English educator and historian. He was the headmaster of Rugby School from 1828 to 1841, where he introduced a number of reforms that were widely copied by other prestigious public schools.

Arthur (King Arthur) was a legendary British leader who, according to medieval histories and romances led the defence of Britain against Saxon invaders in the late 5th and early 6th centuries. He is said to have been buried in Glastonbury, Somerset, although his life is too shrouded in legend for any of the details to be certain.

Attenborough, Richard (1923–2014) was an English actor, filmmaker and politician. He was the President of the Royal Academy of Dramatic Art and the British Academy of Film and Television Arts. As a film director and producer, Attenborough won two Academy Awards for *Gandhi* in 1983. As an actor, he is best known for his roles in *Brighton Rock*, *The Great Escape*, *Doctor Dolittle*, *Miracle on 34th Street* and *Jurassic Park*.

Augustine, Aurelius (354–430 AD) was a 4th century philosopher who is famous for being an inimitable Catholic theologian.

Austen, Jane (1775–1817) was an English novelist known primarily for her novels, which interpret, critique and comment upon the British landed gentry at the end of the 18th century. Austen's plots often explore the dependence of women on marriage in the pursuit of favourable social standing and economic security. With the publications of *Sense and Sensibility* (1811), *Pride and Prejudice* (1813), *Mansfield Park* (1814) and *Emma* (1816), she achieved success as a published writer. Her novels have inspired many films.

Bacon, Francis (1561–1626) was an English philosopher, politician, and writer, a founder of modern scientific research. His work *The Advancement of Learning* (1605) discussed a scientific method. In *Novum Organum* (1620) he redefined the task of natural science, seeing it as a means of increasing human power over nature. *The New Atlantis* (1626) described a utopian state.

Bacon, Francis (1909–1992) was an Irish-born British figurative painter, best known for his depictions of popes, crucifixions and portraits of close friends. His abstracted figures are typically isolated in geometrical cages which give them vague 3D depth, set against flat, nondescript backgrounds.

Balliol, John de (1249–1315) was a Scottish king (1292–1296). As an heir to the Scottish throne on the death of Margaret, he had the support of the English king Edward I against 12 other claimants. He was unpopular with the Scots.

Barlow, Francis (1626–1704) was an English painter and illustrator of the 17th century, working across several genres: natural history, hunting and recreation, politics, and decoration and design. He was Britain's first wildlife painter, beginning a tradition that reached a high point a century later.

Beardsley, Aubrey (1872–1898) was an English illustrator and author. His drawings in black ink, influenced by the style of Japanese woodcuts, emphasized the grotesque, the decadent, and the erotic. He was a leading figure in the Aesthetic movement.

Beckett, Samuel (1906–1989) was an Irish novelist, playwright, short story writer, theatre director, poet, and literary translator. A resident of Paris for most of his adult life, he wrote in both French and English. He is considered one of the key figures in what is called the "Theatre of the Absurd". Beckett was awarded the 1969 Nobel Prize in Literature.

Bede (673–735) also known as the Venerable Bede is regarded as the greatest of all the Anglo-Saxon scholars, covering a huge range of subjects, including commentaries on the Bible, observations of nature, music and poetry. His most famous work, which is a key source for the understanding of early British history and the arrival of Christianity, is *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People* which was completed in 731 AD.

Blair, Tony (born in 1953) is a British politician who served as the Prime Minister of the UK (1997–2007) and the Leader of the Labour Party (1994–2007). Under Blair, the party used the phrase "New Labour" to distance itself from previous Labour politics and the traditional idea of socialism. In 1997 the Labour Party won its largest landslide general election victory in its history. Blair became the country's youngest leader since 1812. The Party won two more general elections under his leadership (in 2001 and 2005). He resigned in 2007.

Blake, William (1757–1827) was an English poet and painter. 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. Although Blake was considered mad by contemporaries for his idiosyncratic views, he is held in high regard by later critics for his expressiveness and creativity, and for the philosophical and mystical undercurrents within his work.

Boadicea or Boudicca (died in 61 AD) was the Queen of the Iceni tribe (native Britons). After the death of her husband in 60 AD she raised the whole of south-eastern England in revolt, and before the main Roman armies could return from campaigning in Wales she burned London, St Albans and Colchester. Boudicca poisoned herself.

Boleyn, Anne (1507–1536) was the second wife of Henry VIII. She gave birth to the future Queen Elizabeth I in 1533, but was unable to produce a male heir to the throne, and was executed on a false charge.

Boyle, Robert (1627–1691) was an Anglo-Irish natural philosopher, chemist, physicist, and inventor. He is regarded today as one of the founders of modern chemistry and experimental scientific method. He is best known for Boyle's law.

Branagh, Kenneth (born in 1960) is a Northern Irish actor, director, film producer and screenwriter. He has both directed and starred in several film adaptations of William Shakespeare's plays, including *Henry V* (1989), *Much Ado About Nothing* (1993), *Othello* (1995), *Hamlet* (1996), *Love's Labour's Lost* (2000) and *As You Like It* (2006).

Britten, Benjamin (1913–1976) was an English composer, conductor, and pianist. His best-known works include the opera *Peter Grimes* (1945) and the *War Requiem* (1962).

Brontë, Charlotte (1816–1855) was an English novelist and poet. Her first novel *The Professor* was rejected by publishers, the second novel *Jane Eyre* was published in 1847.

Brontë, Emily (1818–1848) was an English novelist and poet. Her only novel *Wuthering Heights* is now considered a classic of English literature. She also published one book of poetry with her sisters Charlotte and Anne.

Brook, Peter (born in 1925) is an English theatre and film director. He has won multiple Tony and Emmy Awards and a Laurence Olivier Award. With the Royal Shakespeare Company, Brook directed the first English language production of *Marat/Sade* in 1964.

Browning, Robert (1812–1889) was an English poet and playwright whose mastery of the dramatic monologue made him one of the foremost Victorian poets. His poems are known for their irony, characterization, dark humour, social commentary, historical settings and challenging vocabulary.

Bruce, Robert (1274–1329) was the King of Scots from 1306. In 1307 he displayed his tactical skill in the Battle of Loudun Hill against the English under Edward I and defeated the English again under Edward II at Bannockburn in 1314. In 1328 the Treaty of Northampton recognized Scotland's independence and Robert the Bruce as the King.

Brydon, John (1840–1901) was a Scottish architect who developed a practice in designing public buildings and hospitals in London. In 1898 he was offered to design public offices in Whitehall.

Bull, John (1562/1563–1628) was an English composer, musician and organ builder. He was a renowned keyboard performer and most of his compositions were written for this medium.

Burne-Jones, Edward (1833–1898) was an English artist and designer associated with the Pre-Raphaelite movement. He was involved in the tradition of stained glass art. He discovered his own artistic "voice" in the Aesthetic Movement.

Burns, Robert (1759–1796) was a Scottish poet. He is regarded as a pioneer of the Romantic movement. As well as making original compositions, Burns collected folk songs from across Scotland. His poem *Auld Lang Syne* is often sung at Hogmanay, and *Scots Wha Hae* served for a long time as an unofficial national anthem of the country.

Burton, Richard (1925–1984) was a Welsh actor. He established himself as a Shakespearean actor, gave a memorable performance of *Hamlet* in 1964. Burton remained closely associated in the public consciousness with his second wife, actress Elizabeth Taylor.

Bush, George Walker (born in 1946) is an American politician and businessman, the 43rd president of the United States (2001–2009). In response to the September 11 terrorist attacks, Bush launched a "War on Terror" that initially included the war in Afghanistan in (2001) and the Iraq War in 2003. Bush was among the most popular, as well as unpopular, US presidents in history.

Caesar, Julius (100 BC–44 BC) was a Roman dictator, politician, and military general who played a critical role in the events that led to the rise of the Roman Empire. He invaded Britain in 55 and 54 BC.

Callcott, John (1817–1903) was an English academic painter of historical scenes, illustrator, and designer of the first Christmas card which caused some controversy because it depicted a small child drinking wine.

Carroll, Lewis (1832–1898) is Charles Dodgson's pen name. He was an English writer of world-famous children's fiction, notably *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* and its sequel *Through the Looking-Glass*. He was also a mathematician and a photographer.

Cameron, **David** (born in 1966) is a British politician who served as the Prime Minister of the UK (2010–2016) and the Leader of the Conservative Party

(2005–2016). His administration introduced large-scale changes to welfare, immigration policy, education and healthcare, privatised the Royal Mail, and legalized same-sex marriage in England and Wales. Internationally, his government intervened militarily in the Libyan Civil War and later authorised the bombing of the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant. Domestically, his government oversaw the referendum on voting reform and the Scottish independence referendum, introduced a referendum on the UK's continuing membership of the EU. He resigned to make way for a new Prime Minister.

Canute (or Cnut) (995–1035) became the King of England in 1016 after his father Sweyn's death. Under his rule English trade improved. In 1017 he divided England into the four earldoms of East Anglia, Mercia, Northumbria and Wessex.

Catherine of Aragon (1485–1536) was the first wife of Henry VIII and mother of Mary I. She failed to produce a male heir and Henry divorced her without papal approval, thus creating the basis for the English Reformation.

Chamberlain, Neville (1869–1940) was a British Conservative statesman who served as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (1937–1940). When Adolf Hitler invaded Poland, the UK declared war on Germany on September 3, 1939, and Chamberlain led Britain through the first eight months of World War II.

Chaplin, Charlie (1889–1977) was an English comic actor, filmmaker, and composer in the era of silent film. He became a worldwide icon through his screen persona *The Tramp*, and is considered one of the most important figures in the history of the film industry. Chaplin wrote, directed, produced, edited, starred in, and composed the music for most of his films.

Charles I (1600–1649) was the son of James I of England (James VI of Scotland), the King of Great Britain and Ireland from 1625. He accepted the petition of right in 1628 but then dissolved Parliament and ruled without a parliament from 1629 to 1640, a period known as the Eleven Years' Tyranny. His advisers were Strafford and Laud, who persecuted the Puritans and provoked the Scots to revolt. The Short Parliament, summoned in 1640, refused him funds, and the Long Parliament later that year rebelled. Charles declared war on Parliament in 1642 but surrendered in 1646 and was beheaded in 1649.

Charles II (1630–1685) was the king of Scotland from 1649 until his deposition in 1651, and the king of England, Scotland and Ireland from the 1660 Restoration of the monarchy until his death. Charles's parliament enacted laws designed to shore up the position of the re-established Church of England. Charles attempted to introduce religious freedom for Catholics and Protestant

dissenters, but the English Parliament forced him to withdraw it. The crisis saw the birth of the Whig and Tory parties. Charles sided with the Tories, and, following the discovery of the plot to murder him and his brother James in 1683, some Whig leaders were executed or forced into exile. Charles dissolved the English Parliament in 1681, and ruled alone until his death in 1685.

Charles, Prince of Wales (born in 1948) is the heir to the British throne as the eldest son of Elizabeth II. After earning a Bachelor of Arts degree from the University of Cambridge, Charles served in the Royal Air Force and Royal Navy (1971–1976). In 1981 he married Lady Diana Spencer, and they had two sons: Prince William and Prince Harry. In 1996 the couple divorced. In 2005 Charles married Camilla Parker Bowles. As Prince of Wales, Charles undertakes official duties on behalf of the Queen and the Commonwealth realms. Charles is a patron, president and a member of over 400 charities and organisations. His views on the role of architecture in society and the conservation of historic buildings have received considerable attention from British architects and design critics.

Chaucer, Geoffrey (1340–1400) was the most influential English poet of the Middle Ages. *The Canterbury Tales*, a collection of stories told by a group of pilgrims on their way to Canterbury, reveals his knowledge of human nature and his stylistic variety. He was buried in the Poets' Corner of Westminster Abbey.

Chippendale, Thomas (1718–1779) was a cabinet-maker, designing furniture in the mid-Georgian, English Rococo, and Neoclassical styles. In 1754 he published a book of his designs *The Gentleman and Cabinet Maker's Director*, upon which success he became renowned.

Churchill, Winston (1874–1965) was a British politician, army officer, and writer. He was the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (1940–1945), when he led Britain to victory in the Second World War, and again from 1951 to 1955. For most of his career he was a member of the Conservative Party (1940–1955), but from 1904 to 1924 he was a member of the Liberal Party. Churchill remains one of the most significant figures in Britain and throughout the West, where he is seen as a victorious wartime leader who played an important role in defending Europe's liberal democracy from the spread of fascism. He is praised as a social reformer and accomplished writer, among his many awards was the Nobel Prize in Literature.

Clement, Attlee (1883–1967) was a British politician who served as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (1945–1951) and the Leader of the Labour Party (1935–1955). He is often rated as one of the greatest British prime ministers thanks to his creation of the modern welfare state and involvement in building the coalition against Stalin in the Cold War.

Clinton, Bill (born in 1946) is an American politician, the 42nd president of the United States (1993–2001). He is a member of the Democratic Party. In 1998, Clinton was impeached by the House of Representatives and is one of only three US presidents to have been impeached.

Cole, Henry (1808–1882) was a British civil servant and inventor who facilitated many innovations in commerce and education in 19th century. He is credited with devising the concept of sending greeting cards at Christmas time, introducing the world's first commercial Christmas card in 1843.

Coleridge, Hartley (1796–1849) was an English poet, biographer, essayist, and teacher. In his time at school Hartley was in constant contact with William Wordsworth. His literary reputation chiefly rests on his works of criticism.

Constable, John (1776–1837) was an English landscape painter in the Romantic tradition. His most famous paintings include *Wivenhoe Park*, *Dedham Vale* and *The Hay Wain*. He became a member of the establishment after he was elected to the Royal Academy at the age of 52. His work was embraced in France, where he sold more than in his native England.

Coward, Noel (1899–1973) was an English playwright, composer, director, actor and singer, known for his wit. He published more than 50 plays, many of which, such as *Hay Fever*, *Private Lives*, *Design for Living*, *Present Laughter* and *Blithe Spirit*, have remained in the regular theatre repertoire. Coward's plays and songs achieved new popularity in the 1960s and 1970s, and his work and style continue to influence popular culture.

Cromwell, Oliver (1599–1658) was an English general and politician, the leader of the Parliamentary side in the English Civil War. He declared Britain a republic (the Commonwealth) in 1649, following the execution of Charles I. As Lord Protector (ruler) from 1653, Cromwell established religious toleration and raised Britain's prestige in Europe on the basis of an alliance with France against Spain.

Darwin, Charles (1809–1882) was an English naturalist, geologist and biologist, best known for his contributions to the science of evolution. His proposition that all species of life have descended over time from common ancestors is now widely accepted, and considered a foundational concept in science. Darwin published his theory of evolution in his book *On the Origin of Species* in 1859.

Defoe, Daniel (1660–1731) was an English trader, writer, journalist, pamphleteer and spy. He is most famous for his novel *Robinson Crusoe*, which is second only to the Bible in its number of translations. Defoe wrote many political tracts and was often in trouble with the authorities. He was also a pioneer of business and economic journalism.

De Gaulle, **Charles** (1890–1970) was a French army officer and statesman who led the French Resistance against Nazi Germany in World War II. He founded the Fifth Republic with a strong presidency.

De la Mare, Peter (died in 1387) was an English politician and the Speaker of the House of Commons during the Good Parliament of 1376. He served in several more Parliaments during the 1380s.

Delius, Frederick (1862–1934) was an English composer. He was influenced by African-American music. In Britain, his music did not make regular appearances in concert programmes until 1907.

Diana, Princess of Wales (1961–1997) was the first wife of Charles, Prince of Wales. Her activity and glamour made her an international icon and earned her an enduring popularity. She was celebrated in the media for her unconventional approach to charity work. Media attention and public mourning were extensive after her death in a car crash in a Paris tunnel in 1997.

Dickens, Charles (1812–1870) was an English writer and social critic. He is regarded as the greatest novelist of the Victorian era. His literary success began with the publication of *The Pickwick Papers*. His novella *A Christmas Carol* continues to inspire adaptations in every artistic genre. *Oliver Twist* and *Great Expectations* are also frequently adapted and, like many of his novels, evoke images of early Victorian London. His novel *A Tale of Two Cities* (set in London and Paris) is his best-known work of historical fiction.

Dobson, William (1611–1646) was a portraitist and one of the first notable English painters. Around sixty of Dobson's works survive, mostly half-length portraits dating from 1642.

Drake, Francis (1540–1596) was an English explorer. He was sponsored by Elizabeth I for an expedition to the Pacific, sailing round the world (1577–1580) in the Golden Hind, robbing Spanish ships as he went. This was the second circumnavigation of the globe (the first was by the Portuguese explorer Ferdinand Magellan). Drake helped to defeat the Spanish Armada in 1588.

Dyck, Anthony van (1599–1641) was a Flemish Baroque artist who became the leading court painter in England. He is best known for his portraits of European aristocracy, most notably Charles I and his family and associates. He was an important innovator in watercolour. During his lifetime, Charles I granted him a knighthood, and he was buried in St Paul's Cathedral.

Ecgbert (771/775–839) was the King of Wessex from 802 until his death in 839. He is thought to be able to maintain the independence of Wessex against the kingdom of Mercia, which at that time dominated the other southern English kingdoms. The *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* described him as a 'wide-ruler' of Anglo-Saxon lands.

Edward "the Confessor" (1003–1066) was the King of England from 1042. A deeply religious man, he presided over the rebuilding of Westminster Abbey, leaving much of the running of the country to Earl Godwin and his son Harold. He was canonized in 1161.

Edward I (1239–1307) was the King of England from 1272. He led the royal forces against Simon de Montfort in the Barons' War of 1264–1267, established English rule over all of Wales in 1282–1284, and secured recognition of his overlordship from the Scottish king, although the Scots under Sir William Wallace and Robert (I) the Bruce fiercely resisted actual conquest. His reign saw the Model Parliament of 1295.

Edward II (1284–1327) was the King of England from 1307. He was born at Caernarvon Castle and created the first Prince of Wales in 1301. Edward was incompetent, with a weak personality. He struggled throughout his reign with discontented barons, who attempted to restrict his power. His invasion of Scotland in 1314 to suppress the revolt resulted in the defeat at Bannockburn.

Edward III (1312–1377) was the King of England from 1327. He assumed the government in 1330 from his mother, through whom in 1337 he laid claim to the French throne and thus began the Hundred Years' War. Edward created the Order of the Garter.

Edward IV (1442–1483) was the King of England from 1461 till 1470 and from 1471 till 1483. Edward was a fine warrior and intelligent strategist. He was succeeded by his son Edward V.

Edward VI (1537–1553) was the King of England from 1547, the only son of Henry VIII. The government was entrusted to his uncle, Edward Seymour and then to the Earl of Warwick, John Dudley. The boy-king was a brilliant scholar, deeply interested in theological speculation, and during his short reign

the Protestant Reformation in England advanced significantly under Archbishop Thomas Cranmer.

Edward VIII (1894–1972) was the King of the United Kingdom and the Dominions of the British Empire, and the Emperor of India from January 20, 1936 until his abdication on December 11, 1936. He caused a constitutional crisis by proposing to Wallis Simpson who had divorced her first husband and was seeking a divorce from her second one. Edward is one of the shortest-reigning monarchs in British history.

Elgar, Edward (1857–1934) was an English composer, many of whose works have entered the British and international classical concert repertoire, such as the *Enigma Variations* and the *Pomp and Circumstance Marches*. He also composed choral works, chamber music and songs.

Eliot, George (1819–1880) was an English novelist, poet, journalist, translator and one of the leading writers of the Victorian era. She wrote seven novels, *Adam Bede* (1859), *The Mill on the Floss* (1860), *Silas Marner* (1861), *Romola* (1862–1863), *Felix Holt, the Radical* (1866), *Middlemarch* (1871–1872) and *Daniel Deronda* (1876), most of which are set in provincial England and known for their realism and psychological insight.

Elizabeth I (1533–1603) was the Queen of England from 1558, the daughter of Henry VIII and his second wife Anne Boleyn, the last monarch of the Tudor dynasty. Through her Religious Settlement of 1559 she enforced the Protestant religion by law. Her conflict with Roman Catholic Spain led to the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588. The Elizabethan age was expansionist in commerce and geographical exploration, arts and literature flourished. The rulers of many European states made unsuccessful bids to marry Elizabeth, and she manipulated her suitors to strengthen England's position in Europe.

Elizabeth II (born in 1926) is the Queen of the United Kingdom and the other Commonwealth realms. She began to undertake public duties during the Second World War, serving in the Auxiliary Territorial Service. In 1947, she married Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, a former prince of Greece and Denmark. When her father George VI died, Elizabeth became the Queen of seven Commonwealth countries: the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Pakistan, and Ceylon (now known as Sri Lanka). Elizabeth's coronation in 1953 was the first to be televised. 2012 was also an important year for the royal family, as the nation celebrated the Queen's Diamond Jubilee, her 60th anniversary as Queen.

Epstein, Jacob (1880–1959) was an American-British sculptor who helped pioneer modern sculpture. He often produced controversial works which challenged ideas on what was appropriate subject matter for public artworks.

Ethelred (966–1016) was the King of England from 978. He tried to buy off the Danish raiders by paying Danegeld. In 1002 he ordered the massacre of the Danish settlers, provoking an invasion by Sweyn I of Denmark. War with him and his son, Canute, occupied the rest of Ethelred's reign. His nickname is a corruption of the Old English 'unreed', meaning poorly advised.

Fawkes, Guy (1570–1606) was an English conspirator in the Gunpowder Plot to blow up King James I and the members of both Houses of Parliament. He was arrested and on November 4, 1605, executed.

Fielding, Henry (1707–1754) was an English novelist and dramatist known for his rich humour and as the author of the comic novel *Tom Jones*. He holds a significant place in the history of law enforcement.

Flaxman, John (1755–1826) was a British sculptor and a leading figure in British and European Neoclassicism. He spent several years in Rome, where he produced his first book illustrations. He was a prolific maker of funerary monuments.

Frink, Elisabeth (1930–1993) was an English sculptor. She is noted for the three essential themes in her work as "the nature of Man; the 'horseness' of horses; and the divine in human form". 1971 saw Frink's first exhibit in the Royal Academy, London.

Frith, William (1819–1909) was an English painter specialising in panoramic narrative works of life in the Victorian era. He was elected to the Royal Academy in 1853, presenting *The Sleeping Model* as his Diploma work.

Gainsborough, Thomas (1727–1788) was an English portrait and landscape painter. He is credited as the originator of the 18th-century British landscape school and a founding member of the Royal Academy.

Galsworthy, John (1867–1933) was an English novelist and playwright. His works include *The Forsyte Saga* and its sequels, *A Modern Comedy* and *End of the Chapter*. He won the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1932.

Gandhi, Indira (1917–1984) was an Indian politician. Gandhi was known for her unprecedented centralisation of power. She was assassinated by her own bodyguards in 1984.

Garrick, David (1717–1779) was an English actor, playwright, theatre manager and producer who influenced nearly all aspects of theatrical practice throughout the 18th century. Garrick promoted realistic acting which delighted many audiences. He was a playwright who brought Shakespeare and many older plays to contemporary audiences.

Gaskell, Elizabeth (1810–1865) was an English novelist, biographer and short story writer. Her novels offer a detailed portrait of the lives of many strata of Victorian society. Her first novel *Mary Barton* was published in 1848. Among Gaskell's best known novels are *Cranford* (1851–1853), *North and South* (1854–1855), and *Wives and Daughters* (1865), each having been adapted for television by the BBC.

Gay, John (1685–1732) was an English poet and dramatist. He is best remembered for *The Beggar's Opera* (1728), in which Sir Robert Walpole was caricatured.

George I (1660–1727) was the King of Great Britain and Ireland from 1714. He attached himself to the Whigs, and spent most of his reign in Hannover, never having learned English.

George II (1683–1760) was the King of Great Britain and Ireland from 1727. He was accused of favouring Hannover at the expense of Britain's interest in the War of the Austrian Succession. Until his resignation in 1742, he managed to keep Britain at peace.

George III (1738–1820) was the King of Great Britain and Ireland from 1760. His rule was marked by the loss of the American colonies, and the emancipation of Catholics in England. He was believed to be insane. His condition deteriorated dramatically after 1811. He was succeeded by his son George IV.

George V (1865–1936) was the King of the United Kingdom and the British Dominions, and Emperor of India, from May 6, 1910 until his death in 1936. George V's reign saw the rise of socialism, communism, fascism, Irish republicanism, and the Indian independence movement, all of which radically changed the political landscape. The Parliament Act 1911 established the supremacy of the elected British House of Commons over the unelected House of Lords. In 1917, George became the first monarch of the House of Windsor, which he renamed from the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha as a result of anti-German public sentiment. In 1924 he appointed the first Labour ministry and in 1931 the Statute of Westminster recognised the dominions of the Empire as separate, independent states within the Commonwealth of Nations.

George VI (1895–1952) was the King of the United Kingdom and the Dominions of the British Commonwealth from December 11, 1936 until his death. The prestige of the throne was low when he became king, but his wife Elizabeth and his mother Queen Mary were outstanding in their support of him. George set an example of courage during the Second World War remaining at Buckingham Palace in spite of the bombing. George was in close touch with the Prime Minister, Winston Churchill throughout the war. The post-war years of his reign were ones of great social change and saw the start of the National Health Service. He was very popular and loved by the British people.

George, David Lloyd (1863–1945) was a British statesman who served as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (1916–1922). He was the final Liberal to hold the post.

Gielgud, John (1904–2000) was an English actor and theatre director. He set up his own company at the Queen's Theatre, London. Gielgud appeared in more than sixty films between *Becket* (1964), for which he received his first Academy Award nomination for playing Louis VII of France, and *Elizabeth* (1998).

Goldsmith, Oliver (1728–1774) was an Irish novelist, playwright and poet, who is best known for his novel *The Vicar of Wakefield* (1766), and his plays *The Good-Natur'd Man* (1768) and *She Stoops to Conquer* (1771, first performed in 1773). He is thought to have written the classic children's tale *The History of Little Goody Two-Shoes* (1765).

Gormley, Anthony (born in 1950) is a British sculptor. His works include the *Angel of the North*, a public sculpture in the North of England, erected in 1998, *Another Place* near Liverpool, etc. In 2008 *The Daily Telegraph* ranked him number 4 in their list of the "100 most powerful people in British culture".

Grace, William Gilbert (1848–1915) was an English amateur cricketer who was important in the development of the sport and is widely considered one of its greatest-ever players.

Greene, Robert (1558–1592) was a popular Elizabethan dramatist and pamphleteer known for his negative critiques of his colleagues.

Guinness, Alec (1914–2000) was an English actor, who made the transition from theatre to films after the Second World War. He appeared in nine films, portrayed Obi-Wan Kenobi in George Lucas's original *Star Wars* trilogy.

Hadrian (76–138) was a Roman emperor (117–138). He visited almost every province of the Empire. In 122 he initiated the construction of a wall "to separate Romans from barbarians" in Britain.

Hall, Peter (1930–2017) was an English theatre, opera and film director. Hall founded the Royal Shakespeare Company (1960–1968), was the director of the National Theatre (1973–1988) and the artistic director of Glyndebourne Festival Opera (1984–1990).

Halley, Edmond (1656–1742) was an English astronomer, mathematician and meteorologist. He used the laws of motion to compute the periodicity of Halley's Comet, which was named after him.

Hamilton, Gavin (1723–1798) was a Scots neoclassical history painter, who is more widely remembered for his hunts for antiquities in the neighbourhood of Rome.

Handel, Frederick (1685–1759) was a German, later British, Baroque composer who became well known for his operas, anthems and organ concertos. His anthem *Zadok the Priest* (1727), composed for the coronation of George II, has been performed at every subsequent British coronation.

Hargreaves, James (1720–1778) was an inventor responsible for the mechanisation of spinning. He is credited with inventing the spinning jenny in 1764 which reduced the amount of work needed to produce cloth, with a worker able to work eight or more spools at once.

Harold (1020–1066) was the last Anglo-Saxon king of England. Despite having no royal bloodline Harold Godwin was elected king by the Witan, following the death of Edward the Confessor. Harold was killed at the Battle of Hastings on October 14, 1066. His death meant the beginning of the Normans.

Harrison, Rex (1908–1990) was an English actor of stage and screen. His career on the stage began in 1924. Harrison appeared in numerous films, including *Anna and the King of Siam* (1946), *Cleopatra* (1963), and played the title role of the English doctor who talks to animals, *Doctor Dolittle* (1967).

Harvey, William (1578–1657) was an English physician who discovered the circulation of blood. In 1628 he published his book *On the Motion of the Heart and the Blood in Animals*. His discovery marked a new epoch in medical science, recognizing that the heart pumps blood in a continuous circulation.

Hengist and **Horsa** are legendary brothers said to have led the Angles, Saxons and Jutes in their invasion of Britain in the 5th century. For a time, they

served as mercenaries for the King of the Britons, but later they turned against him. Horsa was killed fighting the Britons, but Hengist successfully conquered Kent.

Henry I (1068–1135) was the youngest son of William the Conqueror, King of England from 1100 to his death. He founded a zoo in Oxfordshire to study animals. He promised to correct many of his brother's less popular policies and was called the 'Lion of Justice' as he gave England good laws. Considered by contemporaries to be a harsh but effective ruler, Henry skillfully manipulated the barons in England and Normandy for political effect.

Henry II (1133–1189) was the King of England from 1154. He brought order to England after the chaos of Stephen's reign, curbing the power of the barons and reforming the legal system. Henry's many French possessions caused him to live for more than half his reign outside England. This made it essential for him to establish a judicial and administrative system which would work during his absence. The English conquest of Ireland began during his reign.

Henry III (1207–1272) was the King of England from 1216, but the royal powers were exercised by regency until 1232, and by two French nobles, until the barons forced their expulsion in 1234, marking the start of Henry's personal rule. His financial commitments to the papacy and his foreign favourites antagonized the barons who issued the Provisions of Oxford in 1258, limiting the king's power. Henry's refusal to accept the provisions led to the Second Barons' War in 1264, led by his brother-in-law Simon de Montfort.

Henry V (1386–1422) was the King of England from 1413 until his death in 1422. He was the second English monarch of the House of Lancaster. Despite his relatively short reign, Henry's outstanding military successes in the Hundred Years' War against France made England one of the strongest military powers in Europe. Henry is celebrated as one of the greatest warrior kings of medieval England. He acquired an increasing role in England's government due to the king's declining health, but disagreements between father and son led to political conflict between the two. After his father's death in 1413, Henry assumed control of the country.

Henry VI (1421–1471) was the King of England (1422–1461 and 1470–1471). He succeeded to the English throne at the age of nine months upon his father's death. Henry inherited the long-running Hundred Years' War (1337–1453). He is the only English monarch who also have been crowned King of France. When Henry was declared fit to rule in 1437, he found his realm in a difficult position, faced with divisions among the nobility at home. His ineffective reign saw the gradual loss of the English lands in France. By 1453 only Calais remained of his father's conquests. He left a legacy of educational

institutions, having founded Eton College, King's College, Cambridge, and All Souls College, Oxford.

Henry VII (1457–1509) was the King of England from 1485. He, by his marriage to Elizabeth of York in 1486, united the houses of York and Lancaster, restored order after the Wars of the Roses. He avoided expensive wars, encouraged overseas trade and exploration and exploited crown lands to the full.

Henry VIII (1491–1547) was the King of England from 1509, when he succeeded his father Henry VII and married Catherine of Aragon, the widow of his brother. During the period of 1513–1529 he pursued an active foreign policy to make England stronger. After 1532 Henry broke with papal authority, proclaimed himself the head of the church in England, and dissolved the monasteries. As his reign progressed Henry grew more and more tyrannical and became the terror of his ministers and his family. His wives were Catherine of Aragon, Anne Boleyn, Jane Seymour, Anne of Cleves, Catherine Howard, and Catherine Parr.

Hepworth, Barbara (1903–1975) was an English artist and sculptor. Her work exemplifies Modernism and in particular modern sculpture. She was one of the few female artists of her generation to achieve international prominence.

Hitchcock, **Alfred** (1899–1980) was an English film director and producer. Known as "the Master of Suspense", he directed over 50 feature films. His films garnered a total of 46 Oscar nominations and six wins.

Hockney, David (1937–) is a British painter, printmaker, stage designer, and photographer. As an important contributor to the pop art movement of the 1960s, he is considered one of the most influential British artists of the 20th century. His most famous work is *Portrait of an Artist (Pool with Two Figures).*

Hogarth, William (1697–1764) was an English painter, social critic, and editorial cartoonist. His work ranges from realistic portraiture to comic strip-like series of pictures called "modern moral subjects". He is perhaps best known for his series *Marriage A-la-Mode*.

Holbein, Hans the Younger (1497–1543) was a German painter who worked in a Northern Renaissance style, and is considered one of the greatest portraitists of the 16th century. His portraits of the royal family and nobles are a record of the court in the years when Henry VIII was asserting his supremacy over the Church of England.

Hook, Robert (1635 –1703) was an English natural philosopher, architect and polymath. He was the curator of experiments of the Royal Society, and a member of its council. He was also an important architect of his time, though few of his buildings now survive.

Howard, Catherine (1520–1542) was a Queen consort of Henry VIII of England from 1540. In 1541 the archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas Cranmer, accused her of being unchaste before marriage to Henry and she was beheaded in 1542.

Hunt, William (1827–1910) was an English painter and one of the founders of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. His paintings were notable for their great attention to detail, vivid colour and elaborate symbolism. Of all the members of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, Hunt remained most true to their ideals throughout his career.

Jackson, Glenda (born in 1936) is an English actress and politician. A professional actress from the late 1950s onwards, Jackson spent four years as a member of the Royal Shakespeare Company from 1964. She has won two Academy Awards for Best Actress: for *Women in Love* (1970) and *A Touch of Class* (1973). Jackson has also had a career in politics, which began in 1992, when she was elected as a Labour Party MP.

James I (1566–1625) was the King of England from 1603 and Scotland (as James VI) from 1567. The son of Mary Queen of Scots he succeeded to the Scottish throne on the enforced abdication of his mother and assumed power in 1583. He established a strong centralized authority. Upon his accession to the English throne on the death of Elizabeth I, James acted mainly on the advice of Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury. His religious policy consisted of asserting the supreme authority of the crown and suppressing both Puritans and Catholics who objected. The preparation of the *Authorized Version of the Bible* in English, published in 1611, was ordered by James. A group of Catholic gentry planned to blow up James at the opening of Parliament in 1605, but the plot was discovered. The anti-Catholic reaction to the gunpowder plot gave James a temporary popularity, which soon dissipated. It was during his reign that the Puritan Pilgrims or ‘Pilgrim Fathers’ sailed to the New World to escape persecution in England. His foreign policy, aimed primarily at achieving closer relations with Spain, was also disliked. Although a physically weak man, he was extremely learned and wrote two books advocating the ‘divine right of kings’.

James II (1633–1701) was the King of England and Scotland from 1685. The second son of Charles I, he succeeded his brother, Charles II. He became a Catholic in 1669, which led first to attempts to exclude him from the succession,

then to the rebellions and finally to the Whig and Tory leaders' invitation to William of Orange to take the throne in 1688.

James IV (1473–1513) was the King of Scotland from 1488. He came to the throne after his followers murdered his father, James III. His reign was internally peaceful, but he allied himself with France against England, invaded in 1513, and was defeated and killed at the Battle of Flodden. James IV was a patron of poets and architects as well as a military leader. In 1503 he married Margaret Tudor (1489–1541), daughter of Henry VII, which eventually led to his descendants succeeding to the English crown.

John (1167–1216) was the King of England from 1199 and acting king from 1189 during his brother Richard the Lion-Heart's absence on the Third Crusade. Although branded by contemporaries as cruel and power-hungry, he is now recognized as a hardworking, reforming monarch, who travelled the country tirelessly. He improved the legal system, was the first king to keep records of government writs, and built a large navy that defeated the French fleet before it could invade. He tried vigorously to extend his kingdom, conducting campaigns in Wales, Ireland, and Normandy, and cowing Scotland into a peace treaty. However, he lost Normandy and nearly all other English possessions in France by 1205. The taxes needed to finance his campaigns brought conflict with his barons, and he was forced to sign the Magna Carta in 1215. Later repudiation of it led to the first Barons' War 1215–1217, during which he died.

John, Elton (born in 1947) is an English singer, songwriter, pianist, and composer. With lyricist Bernie Taupin, they have collaborated on more than 30 albums. His tribute single *Candle in the Wind 1997*, rewritten in dedication to Diana, Princess of Wales, sold over 33 million copies worldwide and is the best-selling single in the history of the UK and US singles charts.

Jones, Inigo (1573–1652) was the first significant English architect to introduce the classical architecture of Rome and the Italian Renaissance to Britain. He left his mark on London by his design of single buildings, such as the Queen's House which is the first building in England designed in a pure classical style, and the Banqueting House, Whitehall, as well as the layout for Covent Garden square which became a model for future developments in the West End. He made major contributions to stage design by his work as theatrical designer.

Johnson, Boris (born in 1964) is a British politician, writer, and former journalist serving as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom and the Leader of the Conservative Party since 2019. He began his career in journalism. He was elected a MP in 2001, then became the Mayor of London in 2008. In 2016, he became a prominent figure in the successful Vote Leave campaign for Brexit.

After Theresa May resigned in 2019, he was elected the Leader of the Conservative Party and appointed the Prime Minister. In December 2019, Johnson led the Conservative Party to their biggest victory since 1987. The UK is scheduled to leave the European Union on January 31, 2020.

Johnson, Samuel (1709–1784) was an English writer, poet, playwright, essayist, moralist, literary critic, biographer, editor, and lexicographer. His *Dictionary of the English Language* was published in 1755. It had a far-reaching effect on Modern English. Until the completion of the *Oxford English Dictionary* 150 years later, Johnson's was the pre-eminent British dictionary.

Kay, John (1704–1779) was the inventor of the flying shuttle, which was a key contribution to the Industrial Revolution.

Kipling, Rudyard (1865–1936) was an English journalist, short-story writer, poet, and novelist. Kipling's works of fiction include *The Jungle Book* (1894), *Kim* (1901), and many short stories, including *The Man Who Would Be King* (1888). His most famous poem is *If* (1910). He is seen as an innovator in the art of the short story. In 1907, he was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature.

Korda, Alexander (1893–1956) was a British film producer, director and screenwriter, who founded his own film production studios and film distribution company. Korda produced many outstanding classics of the British film industry, including *The Private Life of Henry VIII*, *Rembrandt*, *Things To Come*, *The Thief of Baghdad* and *The Third Man*. In 1942, Korda became the first filmmaker to receive a knighthood.

Kubrick, Stanley (1928–1999) was an American film director, screenwriter, and producer. He is frequently cited as one of the most influential filmmakers in cinematic history. His films, which are mostly adaptations of novels or short stories, cover a wide range of genres, and are noted for their realism, dark humor, unique cinematography, extensive set designs, and evocative use of music. Kubrick moved to the United Kingdom in 1961, where he spent most of the remainder of his life and career. His last film *Eyes Wide Shut* was completed shortly before his death in 1999 at the age of 70.

Kyd, Thomas (1558–1594) was an English playwright, the author of *The Spanish Tragedy*, and one of the most important figures in the development of Elizabethan drama.

Landseer, Edwin (1802–1873) was an English painter and sculptor, well known for his paintings of animals – particularly horses, dogs, and stags.

However, his best known works are the lion sculptures at the base of Nelson's Column in Trafalgar Square.

Lean, David (1908–1991) was an English film director, producer, screenwriter and editor. He was mostly famous for his large-scale epics such as *The Bridge on the River Kwai* (1957), *Lawrence of Arabia* (1962), *Doctor Zhivago* (1965) and *A Passage to India* (1984). He won twice the Academy Award for Best Director.

Leighton, Frederic (1830–1896) was a British painter and sculptor. His works depicted historical, biblical, and classical subject matter.

Lutyens, Edwin (1869–1944) was an English architect known for imaginatively adapting traditional architectural styles to the requirements of his era. He designed many English country houses, war memorials and public buildings.

Mackintosh, Charles (1868–1928) was a Scottish architect, designer, water colourist and artist. His artistic approach had much in common with European Symbolism. His work was influential on European design movements such as Art Nouveau.

Major, John (born in 1943) is a British politician who served as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom and the Leader of the Conservative Party (1990–1997). He presided over British participation in the Gulf War in March 1991. Criticism of Major's leadership reached such a pitch that he chose to resign as the party leader in June 1995. By this time, the Labour Party had moved toward the centre under the leadership of Tony Blair and won many by-elections, eventually depriving Major's government of a parliamentary majority in December 1996. Major went on to lose the 1997 general election five months later.

Marlowe, Christopher (1564–1593) was an English playwright, poet and translator of the Elizabethan era. He greatly influenced William Shakespeare, who was born in the same year as Marlowe and who rose to become the pre-eminent Elizabethan playwright after Marlowe's mysterious early death. Marlowe's plays are known for the use of blank verse and their overreaching protagonists.

Mary I (1516–1558) called 'Bloody Mary' was the Queen of England from 1553. She was the eldest daughter of Henry VIII and Catherine of Aragon. When Edward VI died, Mary secured the crown without difficulty in spite of the conspiracy to substitute Lady Jane Grey. In 1554 Mary married Philip II of Spain, and as a devout Roman Catholic obtained the restoration of papal supremacy and sanctioned the persecution of Protestants. She was succeeded by her half-sister Elizabeth I.

Mary II (1662–1694) was the Queen of England, Scotland and Ireland from 1688. She was a Protestant, though her father James II was a Catholic. In 1677, she was married to her cousin William of Orange. After the Glorious Revolution of 1688 she accepted the crown jointly with William. During William's absences from England she took charge of the government, and showed courage and resource when invasion seemed possible in 1690 and 1692.

Mary, Queen of Scots (1542–1587) also known as Mary Stuart was the daughter of James V. She was crowned in infancy and was the Queen of Scotland from 1542 till 1567. Mary's connection with the English royal line from Henry VII made her a threat to Elizabeth I's hold on the English throne, especially as she represented a champion of the Catholic cause. After her forced abdication she was imprisoned but escaped in 1568 to England. Elizabeth I held her prisoner, while the Roman Catholics, who regarded Mary as rightful queen of England, formed many conspiracies to place her on the throne, and for complicity in one of these she was executed.

Matilda (1102–1167) was the daughter of Henry I who claimed to the throne of England. In 1127 Henry forced the barons to accept Matilda, his only surviving legitimate child since the death of his son, as his successor. However, there had never been a woman ruler in either England or Normandy, and most of the barons, supported by the church, elected her cousin Stephen on Henry's death in 1135. Matilda invaded England in 1139 and captured Stephen in 1141. She entered London to be crowned, but was driven out when she demanded money from the Londoners. Civil war followed until Stephen acknowledged Matilda's son, the future Henry II, as his successor in 1153.

May, Theresa (born in 1956) is a British politician who served as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom and the Leader of the Conservative Party (2016–2019). She was elected as a MP in 1997. From 1999 to 2010, May held several roles in the shadow cabinets. After David Cameron resigned, May was elected the Leader of the Conservative Party and became the UK's second female prime minister. She began the process of withdrawing the UK from the European Union in March 2017, carried out the Brexit negotiations with the European Union which resulted in the Brexit withdrawal agreement. After versions of this agreement were rejected by Parliament three times, she resigned and was succeeded by Boris Johnson. She remains in the House of Commons as a backbencher.

Millais, John (1829–1896) was an English painter who was one of the founders of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. Millais became the most famous exponent of the style with his painting *Christ in the House of His Parents*.

Milton, John (1608–1674) was an English poet and intellectual, who served as a civil servant for the Commonwealth of England under Oliver Cromwell. He is best known for his epic poem *Paradise Lost* (1667), written in blank verse. His desire for freedom extended into his style: he introduced new words (coined from Latin) to the English language, and was the first modern writer to employ non-rhymed verse.

Montfort, Simon de (1208–1265) was called 'the Younger' English politician and soldier. From 1258 he led the baronial opposition to Henry III's misrule during the second Barons' War. In 1265, as the head of government, he summoned the first parliament in which the towns were represented; he was killed at the Battle of Evesham during the last of the Barons' Wars.

Moore, Henry (1898–1986) was an English artist. He is best known for his semi-abstract monumental bronze sculptures which are located around the world as public works of art. His forms are usually abstractions of the human figure, typically depicting mother-and-child or reclining figures.

More, Thomas (1478–1535) was an English politician and author. From 1509 he was favoured by Henry VIII, a member of the Privy Council from 1518 and Lord Chancellor from 1529 but resigned over Henry's break with the Pope. For refusing to accept the king as the head of the church, he was executed. The title of his political book *Utopia* (1516) has come to mean any supposedly perfect society.

Morris, William (1834–1896) was a British textile designer, poet, novelist, translator, and socialist activist associated with the British Arts and Crafts Movement. He was a major contributor to the revival of traditional British textile arts and methods of production. Morris is recognised as one of the most significant cultural figures of Victorian Britain.

Napoleon (1769–1821) was a French statesman and military leader who rose to prominence during the French Revolution. Napoleon dominated European and global affairs for more than a decade while leading France against a series of coalitions in the Napoleonic Wars.

Nash, Paul (1889–1946) was a British surrealist painter and war artist, as well as a photographer, writer and designer of applied art. He played a key role in the development of Modernism in English art. The artworks he produced during World War I are among the most iconic images of the conflict. After the war Nash continued to focus on landscape painting, originally in a formalized, decorative style but, throughout the 1930s, in an increasingly abstract and surreal manner.

Nelson, Horatio (1758–1805) was a British flag officer in the Royal Navy. He was noted for his inspirational leadership, grasp of strategy, and unconventional tactics, which together resulted in a number of decisive British naval victories, particularly during the Napoleonic Wars. He was wounded in combat, losing the sight in one eye in Corsica at the age of 36, and most of one arm in the unsuccessful attempt to conquer Santa Cruz de Tenerife when he was 40. He was fatally shot during his victory at the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805. Numerous monuments, including Nelson's Column in Trafalgar Square, London, and the Nelson Monument in Edinburgh, have been created in his memory.

Newton, Isaac (1642–1726/27) was an English mathematician, physicist and astronomer who is widely recognised as one of the most influential scientists of all time. His book *Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*, first published in 1687, laid the foundations of classical mechanics. Newton formulated the laws of motion and universal gravitation that formed the dominant scientific viewpoint until it was superseded by the theory of relativity. Newton built the first practical reflecting telescope.

Nunn, Trevor (born in 1940) is an English theatre director. He has been the artistic director for the Royal Shakespeare Company, the Royal National Theatre, and, currently, the Theatre Royal, Haymarket. He has directed dramas for the stage, like *Macbeth*, as well as opera and musicals, such as *Cats* (1981) and *Les Misérables* (1985).

Offa was the King of Mercia from 757 until his death in 796. In the 780s he extended Mercian supremacy over most of southern England, and regained complete control of the southeast. Many historians regard him as the most powerful Anglo-Saxon king before Alfred the Great. Historians once saw his reign as part of a process leading to a unified England, but this is no longer the majority view. In the words of a recent historian: "Offa was driven by a lust for power, not a vision of English unity."

Olivier, Laurence (1907–1989) was an English actor and director who dominated the British stage of the mid-20th century. He played more than fifty cinema roles, had considerable success in television roles. Among Olivier's films are *Wuthering Heights*, *Rebecca*, *Marathon Man* and *The Boys from Brazil*. His television appearances included an adaptation of *Long Day's Journey into Night*, *Love Among the Ruins*, *Cat on a Hot Tin Roof*, *Brideshead Revisited* and *King Lear*. For his on-screen work he received four Academy Awards.

Osborne, John (1929–1994) was an English playwright, screenwriter and actor, known for his intense critical stance towards established social and political

norms. The success of his 1956 play *Look Back in Anger* transformed English theatre. Osborne explored many themes and genres, writing for stage, film and TV.

Owen, Robert (1771–1858) was a British socialist, born in Wales. In 1800 he became the manager of a mill at New Lanark in Scotland, where, by improving working and housing conditions and providing schools, he created a model community. His ideas stimulated the cooperative movement (the pooling of resources for joint economic benefit).

Parr, Catherine (1512–1548) was the sixth wife of Henry VIII. She had already lost two husbands when in 1543 she married Henry. She survived him, and in 1547 married the Lord High Admiral Thomas Seymour of Sudeley.

Peel, Robert (1788–1850) was a British Conservative politician. He founded the modern police force and in 1829 introduced Roman Catholic emancipation. He was the prime minister twice (1834–1835 and 1841–1846).

Peele, George (1556–1596) was an English translator, poet, and dramatist, who is most noted for his supposed but not universally accepted collaboration with William Shakespeare on the play *Titus Andronicus*.

Pepusch, **John** (1667–1752) was a German-born composer, who spent most of his working life in England. Pepusch is best known for his arrangement of the music for *The Beggar's Opera.*

Pinter, Harold (1930–2008) was a British playwright, screenwriter, director and actor. A Nobel Prize winner, Pinter was one of the most influential modern British dramatists. His best-known plays include *The Homecoming* (1964) and *Betrayal* (1978). His screenplay adaptations of others' works include *The French Lieutenant's Woman* (1981), *The Trial* (1993) and *Sleuth* (2007).

Pitt, William (1759–1806) was a British Tory prime minister (1783–1801 and 1804–1806). He raised the importance of the House of Commons, clamped down on corruption, carried out fiscal reforms, and effected the union with Ireland. He attempted to keep Britain at peace but underestimated the importance of the French Revolution and became embroiled in wars with France from 1793.

Pope, Alexander (1688–1744) is regarded as one of the greatest English poets, and the foremost poet of the early 18th century. He is best known for his satirical and discursive poetry, including *The Rape of the Lock*, as well as for his translation of Homer.

Purcell, Henry (1659–1695) was an English composer. Although he incorporated Italian and French stylistic elements into his compositions, Purcell's legacy was a uniquely English form of Baroque music.

Quincey, Thomas (1785–1859) was an English writer who was considered one of the greatest prose stylists of the English Romantic era. He is best known for poetry, and his imaginative style, best exemplified in *Confessions of an English Opium Eater* that was widely read in 19th-century England and America.

Raleigh, Walter (1552–1618) was an English adventurer, writer, and courtier to Queen Elizabeth I. He organized expeditions to colonize North America (1584–1587), all unsuccessful, and made exploratory voyages to South America in 1595 and 1616. He is traditionally credited with introducing the potato to Europe and popularizing the use of tobacco.

Redgrave, Vanessa (born in 1937) is an English actress of stage, screen, and television, and a political activist. She has starred in more than 35 productions in London's West End and on Broadway.

Redgrave, Michael (1908–1985) was an English stage and film actor and director. He is best known for his performance in *Mourning Becomes Electra* (1947), *The Browning Version* (1951), *The Night My Number Came Up* (1955) and *Time Without Pity* (1957).

Reisz, Karel (1926–2002) was a Czech-born British filmmaker who was active in post-war Britain and one of the pioneers of the new realist strain in British cinema during the 1950s and 1960s.

Reynolds, Joshua (1723–1792) was an English painter specialising in portraits. He promoted the 'Grand Style' in painting which depended on idealization of the imperfect. He was a founder and the first president of the Royal Academy of Arts.

Richard (I) the Lionheart (1157–1199) was the King of England (1189–1199). He spent all but six months of his reign abroad. While returning from the Third Crusade (1191–1192) he was captured by the Duke of Austria and was held prisoner until a large ransom was raised. He then returned briefly to England, where his brother John had been ruling in his stead. His later years were spent in warfare in France, where he was killed in 1199.

Richard II (1367–1400) was the King of England from 1377 (effectively from 1389). He reigned in conflict with Parliament; they executed some of his

associates in 1388, and he executed a number of the opposing barons in 1397, whereupon he made himself absolute. Two years later, forced to abdicate in favour of Henry IV, he was jailed and probably assassinated. In 1381 Richard was faced with the Peasants' Revolt, a result of the imposition of a poll tax in 1380.

Richardson, Samuel (1689–1761) was an English writer and printer. He is best known for his three novels: *Pamela; or, Virtue Rewarded* (1740), *Clarissa: Or the History of a Young Lady* (1748) and *The History of Sir Charles Grandison* (1753). 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.

Romney, George (1734–1802) was a fashionable English portrait artist of his day, painting many leading society figures, including his artistic muse, Emma Hamilton, mistress of Lord Nelson**.**

Roosevelt, Franklin (1882–1945) was an American politician, the 32nd president of the United States (1933–1945). He was a member of the Democratic Party, won four presidential elections and directed the federal government during most of the Great Depression, implementing his New Deal in response to the worst economic crisis in the US history.

Rossetti, Gabriel (1828–1882) was an English poet, illustrator, painter and translator. He founded the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood in 1848 with William Holman Hunt and John Everett Millais. Rossetti was later to be the main inspiration for a second generation of artists and writers and the European Symbolists. He frequently wrote sonnets to accompany his pictures.

Rupert, Prince (1619–1682) was an English royalist general and admiral, born in Prague. Defeated by Cromwell at Marston Moor and Naseby in the Civil War, he founded the Hudson's Bay Company.

Scott, Gilbert (1880–1960) was an English architect known for his work on the Cambridge University Library, Battersea Power Station, Liverpool Cathedral, and designing the iconic red telephone box. He was noted for his blending of Gothic tradition with modernism.

Seymour, Jane (1509–1537) was the third wife of Henry VIII, whom she married in 1536. She died soon after the birth of her son Edward VI. She was a lady-in-waiting to Henry VIII's first two wives, Catherine of Aragon and Anne Boleyn. She married Henry a few days after Anne's execution.

Shakespeare, William (1564–1616) was an English poet, playwright, and actor. His works consist of some 39 plays, 154 sonnets and two long narrative

poems. His plays have been translated into every major living language. Shakespeare produced most of his known works between 1589 and 1613. His early plays were primarily comedies and histories and are regarded as some of the best work produced in these genres. Until about 1608, he wrote mainly tragedies, among them *Hamlet*, *Othello*, *King Lear*, and *Macbeth*, all considered to be among the finest works in the English language. In the last phase of his life, he wrote tragicomedies and collaborated with other playwrights.

Sheraton, Thomas (1751–1806) was a furniture designer. He gave his name to a style of furniture characterized by a feminine refinement of late Georgian styles.

Sheridan, Richard (1751–1816) was an Irish satirist, a playwright, poet and a long-term owner of the London Theatre Royal. He is known for his plays such as *The Rivals* and *The School for Scandal.* He was a Whig MP for 32 years in the British House of Commons. He is buried at Poets' Corner in Westminster Abbey.

Siddons, Sarah (1755–1831) was a Welsh-born English actress, most famous for her portrayal of the Shakespearean character, Lady Macbeth.

Sloane, Hans Sloane (1660–1753) was an Irish physician, naturalist and collector noted for bequeathing his collection of 71,000 items to the British nation, thus providing the foundation of the British Museum.

Smith, Adam (1723–1790) was a Scottish economist, philosopher and a pioneer of political economy, known as "The Father of Capitalism". His *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* (1776) is considered to be the first modern work of economics in which Adam Smith introduced his theory of absolute advantage. Smith laid the foundations of classical free market economic theory.

Smollett, Tobias (1721–1771) was a Scottish poet and author. He was best known for his novels, such as *The Adventures of Roderick Random* (1748), *The Adventures of Peregrine Pickle* (1751) and *The Expedition of Humphry Clinker* (1771), which influenced later novelists including Charles Dickens.

Spencer, Stanley (1891–1959) was an English painter. He is known for his paintings depicting Biblical scenes. Spencer was skilled at organising multi-figure compositions such as in his large paintings for the Sandham Memorial Chapel and the *Shipbuilding on the Clyde* series, the former being a First World War memorial while the latter was a commission for the War Artists' Advisory Committee during the Second World War.

Spenser, Edmund (1552/1553–1599) was an English poet best known for *The Faerie Queene*, an epic poem and fantastical allegory celebrating the Tudor dynasty and Elizabeth I.

Stalin, Joseph (1878–1953) was a Soviet politician who led the Soviet Union from the mid-1920s until 1953 as the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (1922–1952) and the Premier of the Soviet Union (1941–1953).

Steele, Richard (1672–1729) was an Irish writer, playwright, and politician. He is remembered as a co-founder of the magazine *The Spectator*.

Stephen (1097–1154) was the King of England from 1135. He was a very weak king and the whole country was almost destroyed by the constant raids by the Scots and the Welsh. His reign was a time of near-anarchy when, according to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, 'there was nothing but strife, evil, and robbery ... the land was ruined by such doings, and men said openly that Christ and the saints slept.'

Stevenson, Robert Louis (1850–1894) was a Scottish novelist and travel writer, most noted for *Treasure Island*, *Kidnapped*, *Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde*, and *A Child's Garden of Verses*. He is currently ranked as the 26th most translated author in the world.

Stoppard, Tom (born in 1937) is a Czech-born British playwright and screenwriter. He has written prolifically for TV, radio, film and stage, finding prominence with plays such as *Arcadia*, *The Coast of Utopia*, *Every Good Boy Deserves Favour*, *Professional Foul*, etc. His work covers the themes of human rights, censorship and political freedom. It was announced in June 2019 that he had written a new play, *Leopoldstadt*, set in the Jewish community of early 20th century Vienna, the premiere of which was planned for January 2020.

Sutherland, Graham (1903–1980) was an English artist who is notable for his work in glass, fabrics, prints and portraits. His work was much inspired by landscape and religion, and he designed the tapestry for the rebuilt Coventry Cathedral.

Swift, Jonathan (1667–1745) was an Anglo-Irish satirist, essayist, political pamphleteer, poet and cleric who became the Dean of St Patrick's Cathedral, Dublin. Swift is remembered for works such as *A Tale of a Tub* (1704), *An Argument Against Abolishing Christianity* (1712), *Gulliver's Travels* (1726), and *A Modest Proposal* (1729).

Tennyson, Alfred (1809–1892) was a British poet. He was the Poet Laureate of Great Britain and Ireland during much of Queen Victoria's reign and remains one of the most popular British poets. He is the 9th most frequently quoted writer in *The Oxford Dictionary of Quotations*.

Thackeray, William Makepeace (1811–1863) was a British novelist, author and illustrator born in India. He is known for his satirical works, particularly *Vanity Fair*, a panoramic portrait of British society, and *The Luck of Barry Lyndon*, which was adapted for film by Stanley Kubrick.

Thatcher, Margaret (1925–2013) was the longest-serving British prime minister of the 20th century (1979–1990) and the first woman to hold that office, the leader of the Conservative Party (1975–1990). She implemented policies known as Thatcherism. In 1982 she sent British troops to recapture the Falkland Islands from Argentina. She confronted trade-union power during the miners' strike of 1984–1985. Being a controversial figure in British political culture, Thatcher is nonetheless viewed favourably in historical rankings of British prime ministers.

Tippett, Michael (1905–1998) was an English composer who rose to prominence during and immediately after the Second World War. Among his best-known works are the oratorio *A Child of Our Time*, the orchestral *Fantasia Concertante on a Theme of Corelli*, and the opera *The Midsummer Marriage*. He was a strong advocate of music education.

Thompson, Emma (born in 1959) is a British actress, screenwriter, activist, author, and comedian. One of Britain's most acclaimed actresses; she often portrays enigmatic and matronly characters with a sense of wit, frequently in period dramas and literary adaptations. Thompson scripted and starred in *Sense and Sensibility*, which earned her numerous awards. Other notable film and television credits include the *Harry Potter* film series (2004–2011), *Wit* (2001), *Love Actually* (2003), *Angels in America* (2003), *Stranger than Fiction* (2006), *Beauty and the Beast* (2017), *Late Night* (2019), and the BBC series *Years and Years* (2019).

Turner, William (1775–1851) was an English Romantic painter. He is known for his expressive colourisations, imaginative landscapes and turbulent, often violent marine paintings. He left behind more than 550 oil paintings, 2,000 watercolours, and 30,000 works on paper.

Tyler, Wat (died in 1381) was the leader of the Peasants' Revolt of 1381. He led the peasant army to Blackheath, outside London, and went on to invade the city. King Richard II met the rebels at Mile End and promised to redress

their grievances, which included the imposition of a poll tax. At a further conference at Smithfield, London, Tyler was murdered.

Victoria (1819–1901) was the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland from 1837 until her death. Her reign of 63 years and seven months was a period of industrial, cultural, political, scientific, and military change within the United Kingdom, and was marked by a great expansion of the British Empire. She inherited the throne at the age of 18. The UK was an established constitutional monarchy in which the sovereign held relatively little direct political power. Privately, she attempted to influence government policy and ministerial appointments; publicly, she became a national icon who was identified with strict standards of personal morality. After Albert's death in 1861, Victoria plunged into deep mourning and avoided public appearances. As a result of her seclusion, republicanism in the United Kingdom temporarily gained strength, but in the latter half of her reign, her popularity recovered. Her Golden and Diamond Jubilees were times of public celebration. She was the last British monarch of the House of Hanover.

Wallace, William (1272–1305) was a Scottish nationalist who led a revolt against English rule in 1297, won a victory at Stirling and assumed the title 'governor of Scotland'. Edward I defeated him at Falkirk in 1298, and Wallace was captured and executed.

Walpole, Robert (1676–1745) was a British Whig politician, the first 'prime minister'. As First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer (1715–1717 and 1721–1742) he encouraged trade and tried to avoid foreign disputes. He held favour with George I and George II.

Walton, William (1902–1983) was an English composer, wrote music in several classical genres and styles, from film scores to opera. His best-known works include *Façade*, *Belshazzar's Feast*, and the British coronation anthems *Crown Imperial* and *Orb and Sceptre*.

Washington, George (1732–1799) was an American political leader, military general, statesman, and Founding Father, the 1st president of the United States (1789–1797).

Watt, James (1736–1819) was a Scottish inventor, mechanical engineer, and chemist who improved a steam engine. He developed the concept of horsepower, and the unit of power, the watt, was named after him.

Webber, Andrew (born in 1948) is an English composer and impresario of musical theatre. He has composed 13 musicals and a song cycle. Several of

his songs (*"The Music of the Night"* and *"All I Ask of You"* from *The Phantom of the Opera*, *"I Don't Know How to Love Him"* from *Jesus Christ Superstar*, *"Memory"* from *Cats*) have been widely recorded.

Wedgwood, Josiah (1730–1795) was an English potter who founded the Wedgwood company. He is credited with the industrialisation of the manufacture of pottery and as the inventor of modern marketing.

Wellington, Arthur (1769–1852) was one of the leading military and political figures of Britain. He won a notable victory against Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo in 1815. Many of his tactics and battle plans are still studied in military academies around the world.

Wilde, Oscar (1854–1900) was an Irish poet and playwright. The early 1890s saw him become one of the most popular playwrights in late-Victorian London. He is best remembered for his epigrams, plays and his novel *The Picture of Dorian Gray*.

William (I) the Conqueror (1028–1087) was the King of England from December 25, 1066. Claiming that his relative King Edward the Confessor had bequeathed him the English throne, William invaded England in 1066, defeated Harold Godwinson at the Battle of Hastings on October 14, 1066, and was crowned. His coronation took place in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day 1066. During the Norman Conquest of England, he secured control of the country by ruthlessly crushing any rebellion and the construction of 50 castles. He completed the establishment of the feudal system in England, compiling detailed records of land and property in the Domesday Book (1086), and kept the barons firmly under control. A key aspect of his policy was to gain the support of the medieval church through his archbishop of Canterbury, Lanfranc. He died in Rouen after a fall from his horse and is buried in Caen, France. After his death, the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle described him as a 'man of great wisdom and power, who surpassed in honour and strength all those who had gone before him'. It also, however, complained that William was 'a hard man ... sunk in greed', who oppressed the people with castles and taxes.

William II "Rufus" (1056–1100) was the King of England from 1087 until 1100, with powers over Normandy, and influence in Scotland. William was not a popular king, but an effective soldier. According to the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, he was "hated by almost all his people". William was killed in the New Forest by a stray arrow whilst out hunting. The Rufus Stone in The New Forest, Hampshire, marks the spot where he fell.

William (III) of Orange (1650–1702) was the King of Great Britain and Ireland from 1688. He was offered the English crown by the parliamentary opposition to James II. He invaded England in 1688 and in 1689 became a joint sovereign with his wife, Mary II, daughter of the deposed James II. He was succeeded by Mary's sister, Anne.

William IV (1765–1837) was the King of Great Britain and Ireland from 1830, when he succeeded his brother George IV. During the Reform Bill crisis he secured its passage by agreeing to create new peers to overcome the hostile majority in the House of Lords. He was succeeded by his niece Victoria.

Williams, Ralph (1872–1958) was an English composer. His works include operas, ballets, chamber music, secular and religious vocal pieces and orchestral compositions including nine symphonies, written over sixty years. He was strongly influenced by Tudor music and English folk-song.

Wilson, Harold (1916–1995) was a British Labour politician who served as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (1964–1970 and 1974–1976). Historians evaluate Wilson as having led his party through difficult political issues with considerable skill. Important issues of the time included the role of public ownership, membership of the European Economic Community and involvement in the Vietnam War.

Wordsworth, William (1770–1850) was an English poet who worked with Samuel Taylor Coleridge on *Lyrical Ballads* (1798), which introduced Romanticism to English poetry. The same year that *Lyrical Ballads* was published, Wordsworth began writing *The Prelude*, an epic autobiographical poem that he would revise throughout his life. It was published posthumously in 1850.

Wren, Christopher (1632–1723) was an English anatomist, astronomer and mathematician-physicist, as well as one of the most highly acclaimed English architects in history. He was accorded responsibility for rebuilding 52 churches in the City of London after the Great Fire in 1666, including what is regarded as his masterpiece, St Paul's Cathedral completed in 1710.

Supplement 2

QUESTIONS FOR THE CREDIT

1. An outline of Britain's geography (geographical position and its significance, area, surrounding waters, islands, coastline, climate and weather).
2. An outline of Britain's landscape (lowlands, highlands, mountains, peaks, rivers, lakes).
3. Britain's mineral wealth and economy (primary, manufacturing and service sectors).
4. Symbols of the United Kingdom and the names referring to the country.
5. Ancient Britain (early prehistoric evidence, prehistoric monuments, the Celts, the Romans).
6. Britain under the Anglo-Saxons and Danes (kingdoms, Anglo-Saxon culture and institutions, the Danelaw, Alfred the Great).
7. The Norman invasion and its influence (the feudal system, linguistic situation).
8. The Tudor Britain (King Henry VII, the founder of the Tudor dynasty; Henry VIII and the Reformation, Elizabeth I and the Golden age of English history).
9. The Stuart Britain (James I of England, the Gunpowder plot, the rise of Puritanism, the Civil War, the Republic, the restoration of monarchy).
10. Britain in the 18th century (the Agricultural and Industrial Revolutions, the House of Hanover, Britain's first Prime Minister, lost of American colonies).
11. Britain in the 19th century (the Napoleonic Wars, Victorian Britain, the expansion of the colonial empire, the new political parties).
12. The UK in the 20th–21st centuries (Britain's decline as a world power, Britain in World War I and II, the "welfare state", M. Thatcher's economic reforms, the policy of devolution, Brexit).
13. The United Kingdom as a constitutional monarchy (British constitution; the separation of powers, the role of the monarch).
14. The British Parliament (origin, composition, election, procedures, recent reforms, parliamentary traditions).
15. The British Government (the Prime Minister, his duties, the Cabinet).
16. Political Parties in the UK (history and current situation).
17. The educational system in the UK (stages of education, types of schools, examinations).
18. British higher education (types of universities, admission, academic year, qualifications).
19. British culture and arts (panting, theatre, cinema, music, architecture, festivals of music and drama).
20. British ways of life (national character, religion, traditions, holidays, sport, national costumes and cuisine, leisure time).

Supplement 3

LIST OF BRITISH REALITIES

Show on the map if necessary and explain the following realities.

a) Geography

the English Channel
the Gulf Stream
the Cumbrians
Snowdonia
the Isle of Wight
the Isle of Scilly
the Channel Islands
Lizard Point
Land's End
Loch Ness
Loch Lomond
Lough Neagh
the Lake District
the Orkneys
the Shetlands
the Pennines
Ben Nevis
the Cheviot Hills
the Grampians
the Isle of Man
Anglesey
the Hebrides
Cardiff
Edinburgh
Belfast
Ulster
Albion
the Severn
the British Isles
Northern Ireland

b) History

the Britons
the Celts
the Anglo-Saxons
the Romans
Jutes
Stonehenge
Hadrian's Wall
Boadicea
Wessex
Alfred the Great
Danelaw
Edward the Confessor
the Battle of Hastings
William the Conqueror
Domesday Book
the Great Charter
Simon de Montfort
the Wars of the Roses
Black Death
Henry VIII
the Anglican Church
Oliver Cromwell
Cavaliers
Roundheads
Lord Protector
Whigs and Tories
Charles I
Charles II
the Glorious Revolution
Queen Victoria
Winston Churchill
Margaret Thatcher
Elizabeth II
the British Commonwealth

c) State System

the Bill of Rights
the House of Commons
back-benchers
woolsack
tellers
Father of the House
Question time
the Speaker
the Cabinet
the Shadow Cabinet
the State Opening of Parliament
the Lord Chancellor
the Royal Assent
the Opposition
the House of Windsor
the Conservative Party
the Labour Party
Prime Minister
passing a bill
Black Rod
first-past-the-post system
a hung parliament
the Liberal-Democratic Party
constitutional monarchy
Westminster
General election

d) Education and Culture

National Curriculum
stages of education
comprehensives
the sixth-form college
public schools
university technical college
Eton
GCSE
Redbrick universities
Bodleian library
Oxbridge
prelims
viva voice
the Open University
Chancellor
Vice-Chancellor
Whitebrick universities
BA, BSc, PhD
Union Jack
Eisteddfod
Hogmanay
Guy Fawkes Night
Trooping the Colour
the British Museum
Promenade concerts
Christopher Wren
the English Renaissance
conservatism
kilt
English breakfast
Beafeater
Land of My Fathers
the National Gallery
the Tower

Supplement 4

KEYS TO TESTS

Test 1. General Overview of the UK

1c	11a	21a	31b	41a
2c	12a	22c	32c	42b
3b	13b	23b	33a	43c
4c	14c	24c	34b	44b
5a	15b	25b	35b	45b
6b	16c	26c	36a	46a
7b	17a	27b	37c	47b
8a	18b	28c	38a	48c
9b	19c	29b	39b	49b
10c	20a	30a	40c	50a

Test 2. History of the UK

1b	11a	21b	31c	41a
2b	12b	22b	32a	42a
3a	13a	23b	33c	43b
4b	14c	24c	34a	44b
5a	15c	25c	35b	45a
6a	16c	26a	36b	46c
7a	17b	27a	37c	47b
8c	18a	28b	38b	48a
9b	19b	29c	39a)	49c
10a	20b	30b	40c	50a

Test 3. The UK State and Political System

1a	6a	11b	16c	21b
2c	7a	12a	17b	22b
3b	8a	13b	18c	23a
4c	9c	14b	19c	24b
5a	10b	15b	20c	25a

Test 4. Education in the UK

1c	6b	11c	16a	21a
2a	7a	12c	17b	22a
3c	8b	13b	18b	23b
4c	9a	14c	19a	24b
5b	10a	15b	20b	25b

Test 5. British Culture and Ways of Life

1a	11c	21b	31a	41c
2a	12b	22a	32c	42c
3b	13c	23a	33a	43b
4a	14a	24a	34a	44c
5b	15b	25b	35a	45c
6c	16a	26c	36a	46c
7a	17c	27a	37b	47a
8b	18c	28c	38b	48a
9a	19c	29a	39b	49b
10c	20b	30b	40a	50b

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