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# **HISTORY: PEOPLE AND EVENTS (THE UK AND THE USA)**

# **ІСТОРІЯ: ЛЮДИ ТА ПОДІЇ (ВЕЛИКА БРИТАНІЯ ТА США)**

Навчальний посібник

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**Г 62** **Історія: люди та події (Велика Британія та США).** Навчальний посібник з лінгвокраїнознавства англomовних країн для студентів вищих навчальних закладів (англійською мовою). — Суми: Видавництво СумДПУ ім. А. С. Макаренка, 2015. — 216 с.

Навчальний посібник представляє собою лекційно-практичний курс, який складається з лекцій присвячених не лише основним історичним і культурним подіям Великої Британії та США з стародавніх часів до наших днів, але й лінгвокраїнознавчим аспектам. Значні акценти робляться на історичних аспектах розвитку та становлення сучасної англійської мови та причин визначення її як мови міжнародного спілкування. Велика увага також приділяється особливостям і тенденціям освітніх систем зазначених країн. Крім текстів лекцій посібник містить тести та питання для самоконтролю, які дозволяють студентам перевірити ступінь розуміння та засвоєння тексту лекцій і сприяють розвитку дискусійних і комунікативних навичок та значно розширюють їх світогляд.

Навчальний посібник призначений для студентів факультетів та інститутів іноземних мов, викладачів англійської мови. Він може бути використаний також особами, які самостійно вивчають англійську мову та хочуть поглибити свої знання з історії та культури англomовних країн.

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# ПЕРЕДМОВА

Навчальний посібник з лінгвокраїнознавства англomовних країн для студентів вищих навчальних закладів (англійською мовою) «Історія: люди та події» являє собою лекційно-практичний курс, що складається з 15 лекцій, присвячених основним історичним і культурним подіям Великої Британії та США з стародавніх часів до наших днів і знайомить студентів з основними концепціями, реаліями та термінами країнознавства та лінгвокраїнознавства, що сприяє формуванню історико-соціокультурної бази знань студентів факультетів та інститутів іноземних мов. Ретельно підібраний матеріал лекцій розширює світогляд та сприяє адекватному розумінню національно-специфічних реалій життя, історії та культури англomовних країн. Особливу увагу приділено мовним процесам і запозиченням в англійській мові від кельтського завоювання Британських островів до розвитку англійської мови як державної багатьох країн світу, як мови міжнародного спілкування.

Значна увага приділяється особливостям і тенденціям розвитку освітніх систем Великої Британії та США, що є особливо актуальним у плані реформування системи освіти України у відповідь на вимоги нашого часу.

Крім текстів лекцій посібник містить тести та питання для самоконтролю, які дозволяють студентам перевірити ступінь розуміння та засвоєння змісту лекційних занять, значно розширюють світогляд і сприяють розвитку дискусійних та комунікативних навичок.

Навчальний посібник призначений для студентів факультетів та інститутів іноземних мов, викладачів англійської мови. Він може бути використаний також особами, які самостійно вивчають англійську мову й хочуть поглибити свої знання з історії, культури.

# PART I

## THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

### *Lecture 1*

#### 1.1. The British Isles

The **British Isles** is a traditional geographic term used to identify the group of islands off the northwest coast of Europe consisting of **Great Britain**, **Ireland** and many smaller adjacent islands. These islands form the archipelago of more than 6.000 islands off the west coast of Europe. The most important are:

- Great Britain (an EU member, comprised of England, Scotland and Wales);
- The island of Ireland, which comprises Eire (an EU member) and Northern Ireland (part of the UK);
- The Isle of Man (a Crown Dependency of Britain but not a part of UK);
- The Isle of Wight (a county of England);
- The Northern Isles, including Orkney, Shetland and Fair Isle (part of Scotland);
- The Hebrides, including Inner Hebrides, Outer Hebrides and Small Isles (part of Scotland);
- Anglesey (or Ynys Mon, a county of Wales);
- The Isles of Scilly (with its own local government but part of the UK);
- Rockall. Its status is not agreed, as it is being claimed by the UK, the Republic of Ireland, Denmark and Iceland. By itself, the island does not have much importance, but the seas around it are considered very valuable. Therefore, it is also an important question whether Rockall is considered habitable. If so, its owner can claim 200 nautical miles of exclusive economic zone in a part of the ocean where fishing rights are extremely valuable; if not, the claim can go no further than Rockall's territorial waters.

The term "British Isles" is correctly used to describe the whole archipelago, but many Irish people, as well as some Scottish and Welsh nationalists find the term "British Isles" proprietorial and unacceptable as

being inconsistent with any modern meaning of the word “British”. Another problem is the occasional tendency for “England” to be wrongly used as a synonym when referring to Britain or the British Isles, especially by Americans. The Irish Parliament has actually passed a statute prohibiting the description of the Republic of Ireland as being part of the British Isles.

## 1.2. Great Britain and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

**Great Britain** is an island lying off the western coast of Europe, comprising the main territory of the United Kingdom. Great Britain is also used as a political term describing the combination of England, Scotland and Wales, the three nations that together make up all the main island’s territory.

With an area of 229.850 sq.km, the main island of Great Britain is the largest of the British Isles. The main island is the largest in Europe and ranks either eighth or ninth in size among the islands in the world (depending on whether Australia is classified as an island or a continent).

As well as the main island, **Great Britain** includes the *Isles of Scilly*, *Anglesey*, the *Isle of Wight*, the *Hebrides*, and the island group of *Orkney* and *Shetland* but does not include the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands.

“**Great Britain**” is also widely used as a synonym for the country properly known as the “**United Kingdom**”. This is **wrong** as the United Kingdom includes Northern Ireland in addition to the three countries of Great Britain.

The origin of the name “**Britain**” is unclear. Some historians say that when the Romans took over the southern part of Great Britain they named the island after the *Brigantes*, one of the largest Celtic tribes living there. The Romans gave it the name “*Britannia*”. The earlier Celtic inhabitants became known as Britons and the island as Britain. After the fall of the Roman Empire, the name “*Britannia*” largely fell out of use, only to be used in a historical sense, referring to the Roman possessions. During medieval times, the British Isles **were** referred to as “*Britannia major*” and “*Britannia minor*”. The term “*Bretayne the Grete*” was used by chroniclers as early as 1338, but it was not used officially until King James I proclaimed himself “King of Great Britain’ on 20 October 1604 to avoid the more cumbersome title “King of England and Scotland”.

Over the centuries, Great Britain has evolved politically from three



independent states (England, Scotland and Wales) through two kingdoms with a shared monarch (England and Scotland), a single all-island Kingdom of Great Britain, to the situation following 1801, in which Great Britain together with the whole island of Ireland constituted the larger United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (UK). The UK then became **the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland** in the 1920s, when Ireland regained independence.

The name “Great Britain” is used rather than just “Britain” as there are two Britains: the island of Britain in the British Isles and the land of Britain in France. In French this is known as “Grande Bretagne” and “Bretagne”, in English as “Great Britain” and “Brittany”. The word “great” in this context has its own old meaning of “big”. Likewise, the ending “-y” on the end of “Brittany” has the meaning “little”, as in “doggy”, meaning “small dog”, or “Jimmy”, meaning “little Jim”.

### 1.3. The Political System of the United Kingdom

The UK is a **constitutional (parliamentary) monarchy**, with *executive power* exercised by a government headed by the Prime Minister and his Cabinet. Executive power is vested in the monarch but in reality Her Majesty’s government is answerable and accountable only to the House of Commons, the lower and only directly elected house in Britain’s bicameral Parliament.

The UK’s current monarch and head of state is **Queen Elizabeth II** who acceded to the throne in **1952** and was crowned in **1953**. She has now reigned longer than any other monarch in modern Britain, with Queen Victoria, on the throne for **63 years**, coming second. **Prince Charles** is heir to the throne.

The monarch’s role is mainly though not exclusively ceremonial. She has access to all cabinet papers and is briefed weekly by the Prime Minister.

The United Kingdom monarch also reigns in 15 other sovereign countries that are known as **Commonwealth Realm**. Although Britain has no political or executive power over these independent nations, it retains influence, through longstanding close relations.

**The British (currently UK) Parliament** is **bicameral**, composed of the 659-member elected *House of Commons* and the appointed *House of Lords*.

### ***1.3.1. British Monarchy***

The Monarchy is called the dignified part of the Constitution as opposed to the efficient part – the executive (the Government). Under the British Constitution the Monarch remains the head of the state which effectively means that British people are not citizens but Her Majesty's subjects.

**The Royal Prerogatives** – an action of the Government that gets its legitimacy from the crown (there are certain actions that the Government performs, they are ultimately approved by the Queen.) It is a fiction because the Queen is advised on most of her actions by her Government.

1: appoints the Prime Minister at the end of the election (normally the leader of the party that has the majority in the House of Commons).

2: summons, prorogues (объявити перерву) and dissolves the Parliament.

3: enacts legislation (вводит законопроекты); gives her Royal Assent to bills when they've been passed by both Houses.

4: declares war / makes peace.

5: recognizes foreign states and governments.

6: concludes treaties.

7: annexes / cedes territories.

8: head of judiciary = all the courts of the land are the Queen's Courts – all the trials carried out in the Queen's name (Regina vs. Jones).

9: Commander-in-chief of the Armed Forces.

10: temporal governor of the Church of England.

11: makes formal appointments to the most important offices of the state in the Armed Forces and churches.

12: confers peerages, knighthoods and other honours.

13: formal approval to decisions of the Government is given at the meetings of the Privy Council.

14: the Queen of 15 former colonies, including Australia, Canada, New Zealand, represented by the governor; the Head of the Commonwealth (54 countries).

Constitutional role of the Queen (monarch) was first explicitly formulated by the 19-th century writer and journalist Walter Bagehot (the English Constitution 1867). Famous triple formula: the Queen has the right to be consulted, the right to encourage and the right to warn.

Every day the Queen (monarch) studies cabinet papers, foreign office documents, receives a report of the parliamentary proceedings, regularly sees

the Prime Minister in audience, is in constant touch with foreign ambassadors and the Commonwealth representatives.

Important symbolic role: the unity of the nation, historical traditions and continuity. Defender of the Faith – only Anglicans can succeed to the throne. Spiritual head of the state, the archbishop of Canterbury crowns the monarch.

The Queen has ecclesiastic household – the College of Chaplains, the Chaplains and organists of the Chapels Royal at the Tower of London, St. James Palace and Hampton Court. The Royal Peculiars – not subjects to the jurisdiction of archbishops, they are monarch's.

Some **special royal occasions** which take place regularly each year:

*The state opening of the Parliament* – October, November (unless there has been general election). The Queen rides in a state carriage from Buckingham palace to the Palace of Westminster (House of Lords), reads her speech from the throne, wears a crown.

*The Remembrance day – in November*, service in the White Hall for the dead of the II World War, lays a wreath at the Cenotaph.

**June** – the Queen goes to the Derby at Epsom, later in June at Windsor for the Royal Ascot.

*Second Saturday of June* is an official birthday of the monarch. The Trooping of the Colour, Horse Guards Parade, birth honours are given. In summer 3 garden parties are given in the grounds of Buckingham Palace – all people – each attended by ~ 8,000 people of different walks of life: tea, cakes, brass band.

**The royal household** – 350 courtiers, Private Secretary, ladies-in-waiting, the Mistress of the Robes, Ladies (Gentlemen) of the Bedchamber.

**The Finance.** More than  $\frac{3}{4}$  of the Queen's expenses is met by relevant government debts. £15,3mln – palaces (3 official residences – Buckingham Palace in London, Holyrood Palace in Edinburgh, Windsor Castle). The Civil List – money provided by the Government and often by the Parliament, on a 10-year basis for the running of the Queen's household. 2001-2011 – £7,9mln. Besides the Queen receives an income – the Duchy of Lancaster (the crown estate > 19,000 hectares) – annual income £7,3mln before tax.

The Duke of Edinburgh (husband), children (Princess Royal Ann, Prince Andrew, Edward) receive annuities, but the Queen refunds all except the husband, he is the only who receives strictly. The Queen pays for her children, they live at her expense. Prince Charles – the Heir to the Throne;

Duchy of Cornwall – income, in 2003 ~ £ 10 mln - ~ ¼ income tax.

**Private Royal residences:** Sandringham (East Anglia), Balmoral (Scotland), Clarence House (Queen Mother resided), St. James's Palace (Prince Charles, the minor royals), Kensington Palace. Grace and favour apartments, free of charge.

**The Royal Family:** The Queen's husband – Philip the Duke of Edinburgh (1921). Charles, the Prince of Wales (1948), Heir to the Throne – Heir Apparent. Princess Royal Ann, daughter. Prince Andrew (1960) – the Duke of York, Prince Edward (1964) – the Earl of Wessex. Grandsons, Prince Charles' sons - Prince William (1982) – Heir Presumptive, Prince Henry (1984).

**The perception of monarchy in society:** it has its symbolic role, unity, continuity, but young people are far from it, the general attitude – not interested, attracts tourists.

### ***1.3.2. The Government and Cabinet***

10, Downing Street is the residence of the British Prime Minister and the Cabinet. The White Hall – Her Majesty's Government that governs in the name of the Queen. The Queen invites the leader of the party that has the majority to form a government. The Ministers are almost always the members of the House of Commons, also a few – the House of Lords. It is based on a tradition, because in the Commons the Government is expected to explain its policies. In the 19<sup>th</sup> century some Governments included members of different parties.

**The main ministers and departments:** ~100 Ministers, the central core is the Cabinet - ~20 senior Ministers are invited by the Prime Minister and they are called the **Secretaries of State**. A **Minister** is a junior member of the Cabinet. Lord Chancellor, Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs (Foreign Secretary); Chancellor of the Exchequer (Minister of Finance); Home Secretary (Home Department); Secretary for Defense, for Culture, Media and Sport, Education and Employment, Social Security, for Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland.

#### **The main principles:**

1) collective responsibility (as if they were one person) even if individuals do not agree. If a Minister has done something wrong and his colleagues have to disown him/her, he will have to resign.

2) Prime Minister is the first among equals. He is supposed to encourage balance and freedom for individual ministers. In practice this principle ensures leadership and allows each minister some responsibility and freedom in their field.

Cabinet meetings are held in private, 1 - 2 times a week, while the Parliament is sitting, or less often during parliamentary recess. The proceedings are confidential; secretaries take a special oath not to disclose. Because of the great amount of business, Secretaries have junior Ministers working under them – Ministers of State (Undersecretaries).

### ***1.3.3. The House of Commons and the Electoral System***

The House of Commons is made up of 659 elected members of parliament (abbreviated to MPs), each of whom represents an area (or constituency) of the United Kingdom. They are elected either at a general election, or at a by-election following the death or retirement of a Member of Parliament. The election campaign usually lasts about three weeks. Everyone over the age 18 can vote in an election, which is decided on a simple majority – the candidate with the most votes wins. Under this system, a Member of Parliament who wins by a small number of votes may have more votes against him (that is, for the other candidate) than for him. This is a very simple system, but many people think that it is unfair because the wishes of those who voted for the unsuccessful candidates are not represented at all. Parliamentary elections must be held every five years at the latest, but the Prime Minister can decide on the exact date within those five years.

### ***1.3.4. The House of Lords***

Historically, the House of Lords featured members of nobility who were granted seats by nature of birthright, although this system was abolished. Furthermore, the **House of Lords Act 1999** severely curtailed the powers of the hereditary peers.

The House of Lords has more than 1000 members, although only about 250 take an active part in the work of the House. There are 26 Anglican bishops (the “**Lords Spiritual**”), 950 hereditary peers, 11 judges and 185 life peers (the “**Lords Temporal**”), and unlike Members of Parliament they do

not receive salary. Lords Spiritual serve as long as they continue to occupy their ecclesiastical positions, but Lords Temporal serve for life.

They debate a bill after it has been passed by the House of Commons. Changes may be recommended, and agreement between the two Houses is reached by negotiations. The Lords' main power consists of being able to delay non-financial bills for a period of a year, but they can also introduce certain types of bill. The House of Lords is the only non-elected second chamber among all the democracies in the world, and some people in Britain would like to abolish it.

### ***1.3.5. The Party System***

The British democratic system depends on political parties, and there has been a party system of some kind since the 17<sup>th</sup> century. The political parties choose candidates in elections (there are sometimes independent candidates, but they are rarely elected). The party which wins the majority of seats forms the Government and its leader usually becomes Prime Minister. The largest minority party becomes the Opposition. In doing so it accepts the right of the majority party to run the country, while the majority party accepts the right of the minority party to criticize it. Without this agreement between the political parties, the British parliamentary system would break down.

The Prime Minister chooses about 20 MPs from his or her party to become Cabinet Ministers. Each minister is responsible for a particular area of government, and for a Civil Service department. For example, the Minister of Defence is responsible for defence policy and the armed forces, the Chancellor of the Exchequer for financial policy, and the Home Secretary for, among other things, law and order and immigration. Their Civil Service departments are called Ministry of Defence, the Treasury and the Home Office respectively. They are staffed by civil servants who are politically neutral and who therefore do not change if the Government changes. The leader of the opposition also chooses Members of Parliament to take responsibility for opposing the Government in these areas. They are known as the "Shadow cabinet".

### ***1.3.6. The Parliamentary Parties***

The Conservative and the Liberal parties are the oldest, and until the last years of the 19<sup>th</sup> century were the only parties elected to the House of Commons. Once working-class men were given the vote, however, Socialist Members of Parliament were elected, but it was not until 1945 that Britain had its first Labour Government. At this election, the number of Liberal Members of Parliament was greatly reduced and since then the Governments have been formed by either the Labour or the Conservative party. Usually they have had clear majorities – that is, one party has had more Members of Parliament than all the others combined.

The Conservative Party can broadly be described as the party of the middle and upper classes although it does receive some working-class support. Most of its voters live in rural, small towns and the suburbs of large cities. Much of its financial support comes from large industrial companies. The Labour Party, on the other hand, has always had strong links with the trade unions and receives financial support from them. While many Labour voters are middle-class or intellectuals, the traditional Labour Party support is still strongest in industrial areas.

In 1981, some MPs left the Labour Party to form a new “left-of-centre” party – the Social Democratic Party (SDP) – which they hoped would win enough support to break the two-party system of the previous forty years. They fought the 1983 election in an alliance with the Liberals, but only a small number of their MPs were elected. In 1988, the majority of SDP and Liberal MPs and party members decided to form a parliament single party, to be called the Social, Democratic and Liberal Party or The Social and Liberal Democrats. However, some SDP MPs and party members disagreed with the idea, and so the SDP still exists as a separate party. They (and other small minority parties in the House of Commons) would like to change the electoral system; they want MPs to be elected by proportional representation. Under this system, the number of MPs from each party would correspond to the total number of votes each party receives in the election.

## A Guide to British Political Parties

<b>Conservative Party</b>	<b>Labour Party</b>	<b>Liberal Democrats</b>
<p><b>History:</b> developed from the group of MPs known as Tories in the early nineteenth century and is still often known informally by that name (especially in newspapers, because it takes up less space!)</p> <p><b>Traditional outlook:</b> right of centre; stands for hierarchical authority and minimal government interference in the economy; likes to reduce income tax; gives high priority to national defence and internal law and order.</p> <p><b>Since 1979:</b> aggressive reform of education, welfare, housing and many public services designed to increase consumer-choice and/or introduce “market economics” into their operation.</p> <p><b>Organization:</b> leader has relatively great degree of freedom to direct policy.</p> <p><b>Voters:</b> the richer section of society, plus a large minority of the working classes.</p> <p><b>Money:</b> mostly donations from business people.</p>	<p><b>History:</b> formed at the beginning of the twentieth century from an alliance of trade unionists and intellectuals. First government in 1923.</p> <p><b>Traditional outlook:</b> left of centre; stands for equality, for the weaker people in society and for more government involvement in the economy; more concerned to provide full social services than to keep tax low.</p> <p><b>Since 1979:</b> oppositional to Conservative reforms, although has accepted many of these by now; recently, emphasis on community ethics and looser links with trade unions.</p> <p><b>Organization:</b> in theory, policies have to be approved by annual conference; in practice, leader has more power than this implies.</p> <p><b>Voters:</b> working class, plus a small middle-class intelligentsia.</p> <p><b>Money:</b> more than half from trade unions</p>	<p><b>History:</b> formed in the late 1980s from a union of the Liberals (who developed from the Whigs of the early nineteenth century) and the Social-Democrats (a breakaway group of Labour politicians)</p> <p><b>Policies:</b> regarded as in the centre or slightly left of centre; has always been strongly in favour of the EU; places more emphasis on the environment than other parties; believes in giving greater powers to local government and in reform of the electoral system.</p> <p><b>Voters;</b> from all classes, but more from the middle class.</p> <p><b>Money:</b> private donations (much poorer than the big two)</p>



Nationalist parties	Parties in Northern Ireland	Other parties
Both Plaid Cymru (“party of Wales” in the Welsh language) and the SNP (Scottish National Party) fight for devolution of governmental powers. Plaid Cymru emphasizes Welsh cultural autonomy as much as political autonomy. The SNP, on the other hand, supports a separate Scottish Parliament with powers to raise its own taxes, and is willing to consider total independence from the UK. Both parties have usually had a few MPs in the second half of the twentieth century, but well under half of the total number of MPs from their respective countries.	The names of the parties often change, but they mostly represent either the Protestant or the Catholic communities. There is one large comparatively moderate party on each side (these two, between them, win most Northern Irish parliamentary seats) and one or more other parties of more extremist views on each side. There is one party which asks for support from both communities – the Alliance party. It had not, by 1994, won any seats.	There are numerous small parties, such as Green Party, which is supported by environmentalists. There is a small party which was formerly the Communist party, and a number of other left-wing parties, and also an extreme right-wing party which is formerly openly racist (by most definitions of that word). It was previously called the National Front but since the 1980s has been called the British National Party (BNP). None of these parties had won a single seat in parliament in the second half of the twentieth century. In 1993, however, the BNP briefly won a seat on a local council.

## 1.4. The Symbols of the UK

The flag of the UK is sometimes wrongly called **the Union Jack**, but Union Flag is actually the correct name, as it only becomes a “Jack” when flown from ship’s jack mast.

**The Union Flag** is made up of three crosses. The upright red cross is the cross of **St. George**, the patron saint of **England**. The white diagonal cross is the cross of **St. Andrew**, the patron of **Scotland**. The red diagonal cross is the cross of **St. Patrick**, the patron of **Ireland**.

### Identifying Symbols of Four Nations

	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland
<b>Flag</b>	St George’s Cross	Dragon of Cadwallader	St Andrew’s Cross	St Patrick’s Cross
<b>Plant</b>	Rose	Leek / Daffodil	Thistle	Shamrock
<b>Colour</b>	White	Red	Blue	Green
<b>Patron Saint</b>	St George	St David	St Andrew	St Patrick
<b>Saint’s day</b>	23 April	1 March	30 November	17 March

**Note:** There is some disagreement among Welsh people as to which is the real national plant, but the leek is the most well-known.

There are many coats of arms used in the United Kingdom – in theory the Royal Coat of Arms should be used for the UK, but Scotland uses its own version and many English regions as well as Wales and Northern Ireland present their own version.

**The Royal Coat of Arms.** In the centre of the emblem is situated a heraldic shield, divided into 4 parts. Left upper part and right lower part symbolize England (3 gold leopards on a red ground). Right upper part – Scottish emblem (a red lion on a gold ground). Left lower part – Irish emblem (yellow harp on a blue ground). Around the shield – garter. The shield is held by two Royal Beasts the Lion with the crown in the left and the Unicorn in the right. Under them a blue ribbon with words “Dieu et mon droit” (“God and my right”) – Richard I. In the background – rose (England), thistle (Scotland), trefoil (shamrock) (Ireland), leek (Wales).

**The Royal Beasts** are the following: the Lion of England, the Unicorn of Scotland, the Red Dragon of Wales, the Grey Hound of Richmond, the White Horse of Hanover, the Griffin of Edward III, the Falcon of the Plantagenets.

**“God Save the Queen”** (adopted after the War with Napoleon) is the national anthem of the UK as a whole, but England does not have an official anthem of its own. **“Jerusalem”** and **“Land of Hope and Glory”** are all widely regarded – unofficially – as **English national hymns** (although the last more properly refers to Great Britain, not just England).

English and British symbols often overlap at sporting events. “God Save the Queen” is played for the English football team, although “Land of Hope and Glory” has been used as the English anthem at the Commonwealth Games (where the four nations in the UK face each other independently).

The English flag, **the St. George’s Cross** is a thin red cross on a white field. A red cross acted as a symbol for many crusaders in the 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> centuries AD. It became associated with Saint George, and England claimed him as their patron saint, along with other countries such as Georgia, Russia and the Republic of Genoa, using his cross as a banner.

This flag remained in national use until 1707, when the Union Flag (which English and Scottish ships had used at sea since 1606) was adopted for all purposes to unite the whole of Great Britain under a common flag.

The most important national symbol is **the Lions of Anjou**. The three lions were first used by Richard I (Richard the Lionheart) in the late 12<sup>th</sup> century. Many historians feel that the Three Lions are the true symbol of England. (This

symbol appears on the crest of the English national football team now.)

Two more important symbols of Britain are worth mentioning: **Britannia** and **John Bull**.

In Renaissance time, **Britannia** came to be viewed as the personification of Britain, in imaginary that was developed during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I. Both Royal and popular pageants have depicted her to symbolize Britain since then. The most likely origin of this symbol is **Queen Boudicca** (Boudicea).

**Britannia** has appeared on many British coins and banknotes, but is currently only on the back of the 50 pence coin.

**John Bull** is a literary and cartoon character created to personify Britain by Dr. John Arbuthnot in 1712 and popularized first by British painters and then overseas.

**John Bull** is usually portrayed as a stout man in a tailcoat with breeches and a Union Jack waistcoat. He also wears a low topper on his head and is often accompanied by a bulldog.

## 1.5. Human Geography and Demographic

England is **the most populous** and **the most ethnically diverse nation** in the UK with 51,440,000 inhabitants (2008), of which about a quarter live in the greater London area. 90,7 % were born in the UK. Roughly a tenth are from non-white ethnic groups.

The population of England is mostly made up of, and descended from, immigrants who have arrived over millennia. The principal waves of migration were in:

800 BC	Celts
55 BC - 400 AD	the Roman period
350 - 550	Angles, Saxons, Jutes
800 - 900	Vikings, Danes
1066	Normans
1650 - 1750	European refugees and Huguenots
1880 - 1940	Jews
1950 - 1985	Caribbeans, Africans, South Asians
1985 -	Citizens of European Community member states, East Europeans, Kurds, refugees.

The general prosperity of England has also made it a destination for economic migrants particularly from Ireland and Scotland.

## 1.6. Religion Today

The Church of England – or the Anglican Church is still the established church in England, and the British king or queen is still head of the Church. There are, however, many other churches to which people belong: for example Roman Catholic (6 million) and the basically protestant Methodists (1150000), Congregationalists (327000), Baptists (338000) and other smaller groups. The Methodists and Baptists are particularly strong in Wales.

In Scotland the Presbyterian Church (called the *Kirk*) is the established church and it is completely separate from the Church of England. The Presbyterian Church is based on a strict form of Protestantism which was taught by the French reformer, Calvin, and brought to Scotland by John Knox.

Although there is complete religious freedom in Britain today, there is still tension between Catholics and Protestants in Northern Ireland, where religion is still caught up with politics.

Britain's immigrants have also brought with them their own religions which they continue to practise. There are Muslims, Hindus and Sikhs from the Indian subcontinent, Rastafarians from the West Indies, and the largest group of Jews living in Europe.

In spite of the great variety of forms of worship, only a minority of people regularly go to church in Britain today. Most people see Sunday more as a day for relaxing with the family or for doing jobs around the house and the garden.

### I. ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.

1. What alternative names for England do you know? What do they mean?
2. What are the national symbols of the UK?
3. What is the origin of the "three lions of Anjou" and where is the symbol used?
4. What symbols does the English flag contain? How is it different from the Union Flag?
5. Is the Queen of the UK also the Queen of any other countries? If so, name them.
6. What do the letters MP stand for?
7. Who are called "front-benchers" and "back-benchers"?
8. What do the letters PM stand for?

9. Who chooses the Cabinet of Ministers in the UK?
10. Which political parties in the UK can you name?
11. Who is the head of the state in Britain?
12. Who is the head of the government in the UK?
13. Which political party is in power in Great Britain now?
14. What is the nickname of the Conservative Party?
15. What is the nickname of the Liberal Party?
16. Who presides over the House of Commons?
17. Who presides over the House of Lords?
18. What is the symbol of the Speaker's authority?
19. What is the population of England and what were the principal waves of migration to the island of Great Britain?

## **II. BRITISH STUDIES TEST**

1. The Union Flag is made up of the designs of
  1. St. George's Cross, St. Patrick's Cross, St. David's Cross
  2. St. George's Cross, St. Patrick's Cross, St. David's Cross, St. Andrew's Cross
  3. St. George's Cross, St. Patrick's Cross, St. Andrew's Cross
2. Match the symbols with the countries
 

1. England	a) Leek
2. Scotland	b) Rose
3. Northern Ireland	c) Thistle
4. Wales	d) Shamrock
3. Match the capitals with the countries
 

1. England	a) Edinburgh
2. Scotland	b) Belfast
3. Wales	c) Dublin
4. Northern Ireland	d) London
5. The Republic of Ireland	e) Cardiff
4. The British Isles are washed by
  1. the Atlantic Ocean, the Arctic Ocean, the Irish Sea and the North Sea.
  2. the Atlantic Ocean, the English Channel, the Irish Sea and the North Sea.

3. the Atlantic Ocean, the Arctic Ocean, the English Channel, the Irish Sea and the North Sea.
5. The St. George's Channel separates
  1. England from Ireland
  2. Great Britain from France
  3. Great Britain from Ireland
6. The Cumbrian Mountains are situated in
  1. Wales
  2. the Highlands
  3. the Lake district
7. What is the highest peak in Great Britain?
  1. Ben Nevis
  2. Snowdon
  3. Scafell Pike
8. Who is the symbol of the typical Englishman?
  1. John Bull
  2. John Bell
  3. St. Patrick
9. What is the London underground called?
  1. the tube
  2. the metro
  3. the subway
10. Who is the Head of State in Britain?
  1. the Mayor
  2. the Queen
  3. the Prime Minister
11. What colour are the taxis in London?
  1. blue
  2. red
  3. black

12. If you go to London, you'll see...
  1. the White House
  2. St. Paul's Cathedral
  3. Greenwich
13. What is the home of the Queen?
  1. Buckingham Palace
  2. the White House
  3. Westminster Abbey
14. What city did the Beatles come from?
  1. London
  2. Manchester
  3. Liverpool
15. They say the Loch Ness Monster lives in a lake in...
  1. Scotland
  2. Wales
  3. Ireland

## ***Lecture 2***

### ***2. History***

#### **2.1. Britain's Prehistory**

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.

The Ice Age was not just one long equally cold period. There were warmer times when the ice cap retreated, and colder periods when the ice cap reached as far south as the river Thames. Our first evidence of human life is a few stone tools, dating from about 250 000 B.C.

Probably around 50 000 B.C. a new type of human being seems to have arrived, who was the ancestors of the modern British. These people looked similar to the modern British, but were probably smaller and life span of only about 30 years.

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

About 3000 BC Neolithic (New Stone Age) people crossed the narrow sea from Europe. They probably came from either the Iberian (Spanish) peninsular or even the North African coast. They were called the **Iberians**. They were small, dark, and long-headed people, and may be the forefathers of dark-haired inhabitants of Wales and Cornwall today. They settled in the western parts of Britain and Ireland, from Cornwall at the southwest end of Britain all the way to the far north.

After 2400 BC new groups of people arrived in southeast Britain from Europe. They were round-headed and strongly built, taller than Neolithic Britons. It is not known whether they invaded by armed forces, 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 these people get their name: the “**Beaker**” people.

The beaker people brought with them from Europe a new cereal, barley, which could grow almost anywhere. They also brought skills to make bronze tools and these began to replace stone ones.

### ***2.1.1. Stonehenge***

In some parts of Britain one can see a number of huge stones standing in a circle. These are the monuments left by the earliest inhabitants of the country. The best-known stone-circle is named Stonehenge situated to the north of Salisbury in the South of England. It is made of many upright stones, standing in groups of twos, 8.5 metres high. They are joined on the top by other flat stones, each weighing about 7 tons.

Stonehenge was built in separate stages over a period of more than a thousand years. The precise purposes of Stonehenge remain a mystery, but during the second phase of building, after about 2400 B.C., huge bluestones



were brought to the site from south Wales. This could only be achieved because the political authority of the area surrounding Stonehenge was recognized over a large area, indeed probably over the whole of the British Isles. The movement of these bluestones was an extremely important event, the story of which was passed on from generation to generation. Three thousand years later, these unwritten memories were recorded in Geoffrey of Monmouth's **History of Britain**, written in 1136.

Stonehenge was almost certain 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. In Ireland the centre of prehistoric civilization grew around the River Boyne and at Tara in Ulster. The importance of these places in folk memory far outlasted the builders of the monument.

But Stonehenge is still a mystery for scientists. What was it used for? – As a burial place, or a sacred place where early men worshipped the Sun, or as an astronomic clock or...?

## 2.2. The Celts

During the period from the 6<sup>th</sup> to 3<sup>rd</sup> century BC a people called **the Celts** spread across Europe from the east to the west. They crossed the English Channel and more than one Celtic tribe invaded Britain. Their invasion began in 800 BC. The first Celtic comers were **the Gaels**. They spread over the south and east of Britain. Two centuries later the tribes known as **the Brythons** started to arrive. They pushed the Gaels to Wales, Scotland and Ireland and occupied the south and the east. Two different families of Celtic tongue were later developed: **Goidel** and **Brythonic**. The *Erse* and *Gaelic* dialects belonged to the first family. *Welsh*, *Breton*, *Cornish* – to the second one. The *Gaelic* form of language was imposed on the inhabitants in **Ireland** and **Scotland**, the *Brythonic* was imposed on the inhabitants in **England** and **Wales**. The Britons held most of the country and the whole island was named Britain after them.

Celtic tribes called **the Picts** penetrated into the mountains on the North; some Picts as well as tribes of **the Scots** crossed over to **Ireland** and settled there. Later the Scots returned to the larger island and settled in the

north. They came in such large numbers that in time the name of **Scotland** was given to that country.

The Iberians were unable to fight back the attacks of the Celts who were armed with metal spears and swords. Most of the Iberians were killed in the conflicts, some of them went westwards into the mountains of Wales, and others probably mixed with the Celts.

We know more about the Celts than about the earlier inhabitants of the island. The Celts did not write down the events themselves, the other people who knew them described them in their books.

The Greeks were the first to mention the British Isles, which they called the Tin Islands because there was tin to make bronze.

Later **Julius Caesar** in his book “Commentaries on the Gallic War” described the island and the Celts against whom he fought. He writes that in the 1<sup>st</sup> century BC they lived in tribes, and were ruled by chiefs. They had no towns and lived in villages. They kept large herds of cattle and sheep, and also cultivated crops, especially corn. At first the Celts used bronze tools, later they could make iron, and iron tools helped them to cultivate heavier soil in the valleys.

According to the Romans, the Celtic men wore shirts and breeches (knee-length trousers), and striped or checked cloaks fastened by a pin. It’s possible that the Scottish tartan and dress developed from this “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.”

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, **Boudicea**. She became queen of her tribe when her husband 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 and killed. Roman writers commented on the courage and strength of women in battle, and leave an impression of a measure of equality between the sexes among the richer Celts.

The Celts worshipped Nature. They had many pagan gods. Their religion was **Druidism**, and their priests, **the Druids**, were famous for their

magic arts. The Celts believed that druids were able to foretell the future. The druids could also give orders to begin a battle or to stop it. They also were teachers and doctors.

The last Celtic arrivals from Europe were the Belgic tribes (the Belgae). They brought with them some positive improvements to agriculture, made pottery, struck coins; the latter indicates the existence of cash market and certain level of numeracy among certain segments of population.

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, which have been continuously used in some areas since that time, are still spoken. The British today are often described as Anglo-Saxons. It would be better to call them Anglo-Celts.

### ***2.2.1. Celtic Elements in the English Language***

The English language assimilated a lot of Celtic words: **loch, glen, druid, bard, cradle**, etc.

The names of such rivers as: **Avon, Exe, Usk, Ux** come from Celtic words meaning “river” and “water”.

The name of the English capital originates from the Celtic **Llyn + dun**, in which **Llyn** is another word for “river” and **dun** stands for fortified hill.

### ***2.2.2. The Celtic Sagas***

Like all the ancient peoples the Celts made up many legends about their gods and heroes. The legends were passed down from generation to generation. They were written down in the Middle Ages but they described far older times when the tribal way of life predominated among the Celts. The chroniclers and writers translated the Celtic legends into Modern English and called them “Celtic Sagas”.

The heroes of the Sagas and their adventures were imaginary. However, they give an idea of the Celts’ way of life, their occupations, tools, weapons, customs and religion. The Roman books tell us mainly about the Celts of the south-eastern Britain. The Romans knew very little about the Celts who lived in Wales, and the Northern Celts who lived in Scotland and

in Ireland. That is why Celtic mythology is a valuable source of information about the early inhabitants of the British Isles.

The greatest hero of the Celtic heroic sagas was Cuchulainn. The legend tells us that he lived in Ireland which was divided among several tribes. The tribes that lived in Ulster were ruled by the legendary King Conchobar. Many warriors gathered round the King of Ulster and there was not one among them who was not a hero. Their exploits were those of giants.

But Cuchulainn was the greatest champion of them all. He was demigod. When he was at zenith of his strength, no one could look him in the face without blinking, while the heat of his body melted the snow round him even thirty feet away. Cuchulainn was invincible in battle like Achilles, a Greek hero, and his life was a series of wonderful exploits like the life of Heracles, another Greek hero.

## 2.3. Roman Britain

In the 1<sup>st</sup> century BC when the British Isles were still living under the primitive communal system, the **Roman Empire** became the strongest slave-owning state in the Mediterranean.

The Romans invaded Britain because the Celts of Britain were working with the Celts of Gaul against them. The British Celts were giving them food, and allowing them to hide in Britain. There was another reason. The Celts used cattle to pull their ploughs and this meant that richer, heavier land could be farmed. Under the Celts Britain had become an important food producer because of its mild climate. It now exported corn and animals, as well as hunting dogs and slaves, to the European mainland. The Romans could make use of British food for their own army fighting the Gauls.

In 55BC a Roman army of 10.000 men crossed the English Channel and invaded Britain. But that time the Romans had to leave Britain.

In the next year, 54 BC, Caesar again came to Britain with larger forces (25.000 men). The Celts fought bravely for their independence but they were not strong enough, in spite of their courage, to drive the Romans off. The Romans had better arms and armour and were better trained.

Although **Julius Caesar** came to Britain twice in the course of 2 years, he could not really conquer it.

In 43 AD a Roman army, under the **emperor Claudius**, invaded Britain

and conquered the South East of the Island. The other parts of the country were taken from time to time during the next 40 years. **The Roman Province of Britannia** covered most of present-day England and Wales. The Romans could not control the entire island. In the northern part of Britain, known today as Scotland (the Romans called this part of the island “Calidonia”), lived the Picts and the Scots, who strongly resisted Roman rule and attacked Roman settlements in the south. To keep them out, Roman soldiers built great walls and towers. A high wall was built in the north of England to protect the province from the Picts and Scots. It is called “**Hadrian’s Wall**”, because it was built by command of Emperor Hadrian.

As a result of the conquest signs of Roman civilization spread over Britain. The civilized Romans were city-dwellers, and they began to build towns as in Rome itself. **York, London, Lincoln** became the chief Roman towns.

The Romans were great road-makers and now a network of roads connected all parts of the country. Along the roads new towns and villages sprang up. Six of these 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 southeast Britain produced so much corn to export.

Outside the towns, the biggest change during the Roman occupation was the growth of large farms, called “villas”. They belonged to richer Britons, who were, like the towns people, more Romans than Celtic in their manners. Each villa had many workers. The villas were usually close to town 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. These, and most people, still lived in the same kind of round huts and villages which the Celts had been living in four hundred years earlier, when the Romans arrived.

But together with high civilization the Romans brought exploitation and slavery to the British Isles. The free Celts were not turned into slaves but they had to pay high taxes and were made to work for the conquerors.

Among the Celts themselves inequality began to grow. The noble Celts adopted the Roman mode of life. They lived in rich houses and they dressed as Romans. They were proud to wear **toga** and speak Latin.

Early in the 5<sup>th</sup> century (407) AD the Romans had to leave Britain to defend their own country against **the Germans** and **the Huns**.

Today there are many signs in Britain to remind the people of the

Romans. The wells, which the Romans dug, give water today; the chief Roman roads are still among the highways of Modern England. **Watling Street** still runs from London to Chester. Long stretches of Hadrian's Wall, the ruins of public baths and parts of the Roman bridges have remained to this day. The fragments of the old London Wall built by the Romans can still be seen.

But, in general, Roman influence on Britain was weaker than in other provinces, because the Province of Britain was separated from the mainland of Europe by the English Channel and the North Sea. The Roman way of life influenced only the southeastern part of the country. The old way of life of the British Celts did not change very much.

### ***2.3.1. Roman Elements in the English Language***

Many words of Modern English have come from Latin. For example, the word **street** came from the Latin **strata** that means "road"; **wall** came from **vallum**.

The names of many modern English towns are of Latin origin too. The Roman towns were strongly fortified and they were called **castra** that means "**camps**". This word can be recognized in various forms in such names as *Chester, Winchester, Manchester, Doncaster, Lancaster*, etc. The city of *Bath* was an important Roman watering place although it has lost its Roman name.

As the Romans introduced many new things into the life of the Celts such words appeared in the English language: *cup, port, wine, steel*. In addition new kinds of fruits and vegetables were also given Latin names: *cherry, pear, plump, peas, beet, pepper, plant*, etc.

### **I. ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.**

1. What monuments of pre-Roman England can you name?
2. What were the most ancient tribes on English territory?
3. Who were the Druids?
4. Who was the greatest hero of the Celtic Sagas?
5. When did the Romans first invade Britain?
6. What name did the Romans give to the island of Great Britain?
7. Why was the Hadrian's Wall built?
8. What is the name of one of the chief roads that the Romans built?

9. What imprint did the Roman Empire leave on England and what physical evidence of its occupation can still be found?
10. What were the reasons for the weak influence of the Romans over Britain?

## **II. BRITISH STUDIES TEST**

1. The first people that came to Great Britain were
  1. The Picts
  2. The Romans
  3. The Iberians
2. Where did the Scots settle?
  1. In the North
  2. In the South
  3. In Wales
3. The greatest hero of the Celtic Sagas was
  1. King Conchobar
  2. Cuchulainn
  3. Heracles
4. The Romans called the island of Great Britain
  1. England
  2. Albion
  3. Province
5. When did the Roman Army cross the Channel for the first time?
  1. 54 B.C.
  2. 55 B.C.
  3. 43 A.D.
6. Why was the Hadrian's Wall built?
  1. To protect from the Romans
  2. To protect from the Picts and the Scots
  3. To protect from the Jutes
8. One of the chief roads that the Romans built was
  1. London Street

2. Chester Street
3. Watling Street

9. The name of which city doesn't have the Roman origin?

1. Manchester
2. Doncaster
3. Canterbury
4. Lincoln

10. Which part of Britain did the Romans call "Caledonia"?

1. Wales
2. England
3. Scotland
4. Cornwall

## *Lecture 3*

### **3. 1. The Anglo-Saxon Invasion**

After the Roman legions left the British Isles, the Celts remained independent but not for long. In the middle of the 5<sup>th</sup> century, first **the Jutes** and then the other Germanic tribes, **the Saxons** and **the Angles**, began to migrate to Britain.

In **449** the Jutes landed in **Kent**, and this was the beginning of the conquest.

In the course of the conquest many of the Celts were killed, some were taken prisoners and made slaves or had to pay tribute to the conquerors. Some of the Celts crossed the sea to the North-West of France and settled in what was later on called Brittany after the Celtic tribe of **Britons**.

Several kingdoms were formed on the territory of Britain occupied by the Germanic tribes by the end of the 6<sup>th</sup> century and the beginning of the 7<sup>th</sup> century. (This territory later on became England proper.)

**The Jutes** in the Southeast set up **Kent**.

**The Saxons** formed a number of kingdoms – **Sussex** (the land of the South Saxons), **Wessex** (the land of the West Saxons), and **Essex** (the land of the East Saxons).



**The Angles** conquered the greater part of the country, and they founded **Northumbria** (in the North), **Mercia** (in the middle), and **East Anglia** (in the east of England).

These kingdoms were hostile to each other and they fought constantly for supreme power in the country. By the middle of the 7<sup>th</sup> century the three largest kingdoms: Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex were the most powerful. A century later king of Mercia **Offa** (757 -796) claimed kingship of England, but he did not control all of England.

The new conquerors brought changes different from those that had followed the conquest of the country by the Romans. The new settlers disliked towns preferring to live in small villages. In the course of the conquest they destroyed the Roman towns and villas. All the beautiful buildings and baths and roads were neglected and they soon fell in ruins. The art of road making was lost for many hundreds of years to come.

Most of the Anglo-Saxons settled far away from the Roman towns. They would find a suitable place in the valley, where the soil was good and there was a good supply of water. Great stretches of forest separated one village from another. A thick hedge surrounded each village with a land belonging to it. A great number of village-names in England today and names of many English towns are of Anglo-Saxon origin. For example, the word "**ton**" was the Saxon for "*hedge*". Thus there are **Northampton, Southampton, Brighton, Preston** and others. "**Burgh**" or "**bury**" was the Saxon for "*to hide*", so now they have **Salisbury, Canterbury, Edinburgh, Middleburgh**. The Anglo-Saxon "**ham**" stands for "*home*", and it can be found in **Nottingham, Birmingham, and Cheltenham**. The word "**field**" means "*open area*", and it can be found in **Sheffield, Chesterfield, Mansfield, etc.**

Anglo-Saxon technology changed the English agriculture. The Celts kept small, square fields which were well suited to the light plough they used, drawn either by an animal or two people. The 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 particular useful for cultivating heavier soil. But it required six or eight oxen to pull it, and it was difficult to turn. This plough led to change in land ownership and organization. Every village had 2 or 3 large fields. These were divided into thin strips. Each family had a number of strips in each of these fields. All on co-operative basis shared a team of oxen. One of these fields would be used

for planting spring crops, another for autumn crops. The third area would be left to rest for a year, and with other areas after harvest, would be used as common land for animal 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 18<sup>th</sup> century.

The Jutes, the Saxons and the Angles were closely akin in speech and customs, and they gradually merged into one people. The name "Jute" soon died out and the conquerors are generally referred to as the **Anglo-Saxons**.

As the result of the conquest the Anglo-Saxons made up the majority of the population in Britain, and their customs, religion and language became predominant. They called the Celts "**welsh**" which means *foreigners*, as they could not understand the Celtic language. But gradually the Celts who were in the minority merged with the conquerors, adopted their customs, and learned to speak their language. Only the Celts who remained independent in the West, Scotland and Ireland spoke their native tongue.

At first the Anglo-Saxons spoke different dialects but gradually the dialect of the Angles of Mercia became predominant. In the course of time all the people of Britain were referred to as the English after the Angles and the new name of England was given to the whole country. The Anglo-Saxon language, or English, has been the principal language of the country since then although it has undergone great change.

The Anglo-Saxons created such institution as the king's Council, called the **Witan**. It consisted of senior warriors and churchmen, to whom king turned for advice. By the 10<sup>th</sup> century the Witan was a formal body, issuing laws and charters. The Witan established the system, which remained an important part of the king's method of government. Even today the queen or the king has a **Privy Council**, a group of advisors on the affairs of state.

The Anglo-Saxons divided the land into new administrative areas, based on *shires*, or counties. These shires, established by the end of the 10<sup>th</sup> century, remained almost exactly the same for a thousand years. "Shire" is the Saxon word for, "county" the Norman one, but both are still used. (In 1974 the counties were reorganized, but the new system is very like the old one.) Over each shire was appointed a *shire reeve*, the king's local administrator. In time his name became shortened to "sheriff".

In each district was a "manor" or large house. This was a simple building where local villagers came to pay taxes, where justice was

administrate, and there men met together to join the Anglo-Saxon army *the fyrd*. The lord of the manor had to organize all this, and make sure 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 11<sup>th</sup> 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 kings, lords, soldiers and workers on land. One other important class developed during the Anglo-Saxon period, the men of learning. These came from the Christian church.

### 3.2. Conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity

We cannot know how and when Christianity first reached Britain, but it was certainly well before Christianity was accepted by the Roman Emperor Constantine in the early 4<sup>th</sup> century AD. 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 the Roman Pope, Gregory the Great, sent a monk Augustine and a group of about 40 monks to Britain to convert the Anglo-Saxons. The monks landed in Kent, and went to Canterbury, the capital of the kingdom. They did so because the king's wife came from Europe and was already Christian. Augustine became the first archbishop of Canterbury in 601. He was very successful and several ruling families in England accepted Christianity. But Augustine and his group of monks made little of progress with the ordinary people. This was partly because Augustine was interested in establishing Christian authority, and it meant bringing rulers to the new faith.

It was the *Celtic Church* that brought Christianity to 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 the kings, which they made the 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 the ordinary people; the other was interested in authority and organization. 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 Roman extended its authority over all Christians, even in Celtic parts of the island.

The conversion of Anglo-Saxons to Christianity began at the end of the 6<sup>th</sup> century (597) and was completed, in the main, at the second half of the 7<sup>th</sup> century.

Anglo-Saxon kings helped the Church to grow, but the Church also increased the power of kings. Bishops gave kings their support. 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 the throne. And so when King Offa arranged for his son to be crowned as successor, he made sure that this was done at a Christian ceremony led by a bishop. It was a 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. The learned men lived and wrote in monasteries. The most famous writer was the monk named Bede who lived from 673 to 735. The venerable Bede was brought up and educated in the monasteries of Northumbria where he lived all his life. He wrote **Ecclesiastical History of the English People**, which was studied carefully by educated people in Europe, as it was the only book on Anglo-Saxon history. A copy of Bede's book can be seen at the British Museum in London.

It should be mentioned that the spread of Christianity was of great importance for the growth of culture. The Roman monks brought many

books to England. Most of them were religious and they all were written in Latin and Greek. The church service was also conducted in Latin.

The Latin language was heard in England again. Latin was of international importance at that time, as all learned men in all countries used it.

The Anglo-Saxons did not understand Latin. The Anglo-Saxon nobles were ignorant; many of them could not even sign their names. No one except the monks knew Latin and the monasteries became centres of knowledge and of learning. The first libraries and schools for the clergy were set up in the monasteries. The monks copied out many handwritten books and even translated them into Anglo-Saxon.

Thus the spread of Christianity promoted a revival of learning. Such English words of **Greek** origin as **arithmetic, mathematics, theatre, geography**, or words of **Latin origin**, such as **school, paper, and candle** reflect the influence of the Roman civilization, a new wave of which was brought about in the 7<sup>th</sup> century by Christianity. However, the cultural influence of the church affected only a small number of people and mainly the clergy. The rank-and-file Anglo-Saxons remained completely illiterate.

The Christian religion had a tremendous influence over men's minds and actions. It controlled the most important events of their life – baptism, marriage and burial. There was a church in every village and villagers were compelled to attend the religious services held by the priests. The churchmen became very rich landlords themselves and did their utmost to preach up the king, to justify the exploitation of the peasants and the power of great landlords over them.

Villages and towns grew around the monasteries and increased local trade. Many bishops and monks in England were from Frankish lands (France and Germany) and elsewhere. They were invited by English rulers who wished to benefit from closer Church and economic contact with Europe. Most of these bishops and monks seem to have come from churches and 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 this encouraged English trade with the continent. Increased literacy itself helped trade. Anglo-Saxon England became well-known in Europe for its exports of woollen goods, cheese, hunting dogs, pottery and metal goods. It imported wine, fish, pepper, jewellery and wheel-made pottery.

### 3.3. Unification of the Kingdom of England

The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms waged a constant struggle against one another for predominance over the country. The number of kingdoms was always changing; so were their boundaries.

At last at the beginning of the 9<sup>th</sup> century Wessex became the strongest state. In 829 **Egbert**, King of Wessex, was acknowledged by Kent, Mercia and Northumbria. This was really the beginning of the united kingdom of England, for Wessex never again lost its supremacy and King Egbert became the first king of England. Under his rule all the small Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were united to form one kingdom that was called England from that time on.

#### I. ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1. Who were the invaders after the Romans? Where did they live before their migration to Britain?
2. What were the main occupations of the Anglo-Saxons?
3. Who are the Welsh? In what parts of Great Britain do the Celtic-speaking people live today?
4. Why did the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity take place in the 7<sup>th</sup> century AD but not earlier?
5. Why did the Anglo-Saxon kings and nobles accept Christianity first?
6. How did the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity influence the cultural development of Britain?
7. Why was the unification of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms into one kingdom in the 9<sup>th</sup> century necessary?

#### II. BRITISH STUDIES TEST

1. In 449 the Jutes landed in
  1. Kent
  2. England
  3. Ireland
2. Match the kingdoms with the people who founded them:

1. Sussex	a) the Jutes
2. East Anglia	b) the Saxons
3. Kent	c) the Angles
4. Northumbria	

5. Wessex
6. Mercia
7. Essex

3. The name of which city isn't of the Anglo-Saxon origin?

1. Brighton
2. Birmingham
3. Sheffield
4. Lincoln

5. Who wrote "Ecclesiastical History of the English people"?

1. Bede
2. Augustine
3. Pope Gregory

6. Who united several neighbouring kingdoms in 829?

1. King Offa
2. King Canute
3. King Egbert

## ***Lecture 4***

### **4.1. Danish Raids on England (Vikings)**

The political unification of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms was speeded up by the urgent task of defending the country against the dangerous raids of the new enemies, the Danes. From the end of the 8<sup>th</sup> century and during the 9<sup>th</sup> and the 10<sup>th</sup> centuries Western Europe was troubled by a new wave of barbarian attacks. These barbarians came from the North – from Norway, Sweden and Denmark. They came to Britain from Norway and Denmark. But more often the British Isles were raided from Denmark, and the invaders came to be known in English history as the Danes.

The Danes (the Vikings, the Northmen, the Normans) were of the same Germanic race as Anglo-Saxons themselves and they came from the same part of the continent. But unlike the Anglo-Saxons, the Danes still lived in tribes. They were still pagans. The Danes were bold and skillful seamen.

In **793** the Danes carried out their first raids on Britain. Their earliest raids were for plunder only. The raiders came in 3 or 4 ships, each with as many as a 100 men on board. They came in spring and summer, and when their ships were loaded with plunder they returned home for winter. Every year they went to different places – rarely to the same place twice. Thus all the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms faced the same dangerous enemy.

In later years large Danish fleets (more than 300 ships) brought large armies to conquer and settle in the new lands. They did not go home for winter but they made large well-guarded camps. From these camps the Danes would make many raids upon the villages in the area. Thus began the 4<sup>th</sup> conquest of Britain.

The Danish raids were successful because the kingdoms of England had neither a regular army nor a fleet in the North Sea to meet them. There were no coastguards to watch the coast of the island and this made it possible for the raiders to appear unexpectedly. Besides, there were very few roads and it took several weeks to send a message. Help was a long time in coming.

Northumbria and East Anglia suffered most from the Danish raids. The Danes seized the ancient city of York and then all of Yorkshire. At last all England north of the Thames, that is Northumbria, Mercia and East Anglia, was in their hands.

Only Wessex left to face the enemy. Before the Danes conquered the North, they made an attack on Wessex, but in **835** King Egbert defeated the Danes. In the reign of Egbert's son the Danes sailed up the Thames and captured London. Thus the Danes came into conflict with the strongest of all the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, Wessex.

## **4.2. Strengthening of the Kingdom in the Reign of Alfred the Great (871 – 899)**

In **871** the Danes invaded Wessex again. But it was not easy to devastate Wessex because Egbert's grandson, **King Alfred**, who became known in English history as Alfred the Great had united the small Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, and Wessex became the centre of resistance against the invaders. Alfred managed to raise the army and to stop the Danes. He made the new rules for the army, in which every man had to serve and to come provided with the proper weapons. As Alfred granted much land to his warriors, the



number of fighting men who were bound to do military service in return for their estates grew considerably.

During Alfred's reign the first British navy was built and a war fleet of ships larger and faster than those of the Danes protected the island. Besides, many places that could be easily attacked by the enemy were fortified.

As a result of all the measures, the Anglo-Saxons won several victories over the Danes. In the **treaty** that followed in **886**, the Danes promised to leave Wessex and a part of Mercia. They settled in the northeastern part of England, a region that was from that time called **the Danelaw**, because it was ruled according to the law of the Danes. The great Roman road, Watling Street, was the boundary, which separated the Danelaw from Wessex. Thus the Danes were prevented from conquering the whole island and the country was divided into two parts: the Danelaw (Northumbria, East Anglia and a part of Mercia), where the Danes spoke their language and kept to their way of life, and the English south-western part of the country, that is, Wessex, which was under Alfred's rule.

### **4.3. Alfred the Great and his Rule (born 849) (871 – 899)**

In time of peace Alfred the Great took measures to improve the laws in the interest of the great landowners and to raise the standard of culture among them. King Alfred knew not only how to write and read – an uncommon thing for princes in those days – but he was well versed in Greek and Latin. He read a good deal and he realized how backward the Anglo-Saxons were compared with the people of France and Italy, and even more so as compared with the Romans five hundred years earlier. The Anglo-Saxons, whose ancestors had destroyed the Roman civilization in Britain four centuries before, could build nothing better than rough timber dwellings, and wore nothing finer than coarse homespuns.

King Alfred sent for artisans, builders and scholars from the continent. The monasteries and churches which had been burnt by the Danes were rebuilt and schools were set up in the monasteries for the clergy.

Alfred demanded that all the priests should learn Latin, as the Bible and service-books were all in Latin, and it was the duty of the clergy to

understand them. He also ordered all future state officials to learn the Latin language as well.

A school was started in Alfred's palace where the sons of the nobles learned to read and write. Alfred himself sometimes taught there. As nearly all the books of that time were written in Latin, and few people could read them, translations of some Latin books into Anglo-Saxon were made. King Alfred himself translated *Ecclesiastical History of the English People* which the venerable Bede had written in Latin.

Alfred ordered that the learned men should begin to write a history of England. In several monasteries monks collected together all that was known of the early history of the country and began to keep a record of the outstanding events of each year. Thus was written a history of England called the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* which was continued for 250 years after the death of Alfred. It is mainly from the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* the books of today get their information of the events of English medieval history.

King Alfred also ordered that the old customs and laws followed by the Anglo-Saxons before him in Wessex and Mercia should be collected. New laws were added to the collection, and a *Code of English Law* was drawn up. Everybody had to follow the laws of the kingdom. In the reign of Alfred the power of the royal officials strengthened greatly. The whole country was divided into shires and hundreds as before, and through his officials King Alfred held all parts of the country under his strict control.

In the reign of Alfred the Great the kingdom of England became stronger and it helped big landowners to defend their property against the invaders and to keep the exploited in obedience because Alfred's policy was pursued for the benefit of the big landowners.

#### **4.4. Further Consolidation of the A-S Monarchy in the 10th Century**

In the 2<sup>nd</sup> half of the 10<sup>th</sup> century the Saxon monarchy was further consolidated. The Anglo-Saxons won several victories over the Danes, took away the Danelaw and ruled over the whole England.

The Danes were not driven out of the country but they were made the subjects of Wessex. They submitted to the power of the Anglo-Saxon kings and never tried to make the Danelaw into a separate kingdom. These

descendants of the Danish conquerors gave up piracy and in the course of time became peaceful peasants and traders. They were now not very much different from the Anglo-Saxons among whom they lived because they were also of Germanic origin. They soon became Christians, adopted the language of the Anglo-Saxons and assimilated gradually with them.

The Danes influenced the development of the country greatly. They were great sailors and traders and they favoured the growth of towns and the development of trade in England. They were skillful shipbuilders.

Many Scandinavian words came into English at that time and are still used today. Such adjectives as **happy, low, loose, ill, ugly, weak**, such verbs as **to take, to die, to call**, nouns like **sister, husband, sky, fellow, law, window, leg, wing, harbour** are examples of Scandinavian borrowings. The Danes gave their own names to many of the towns they built. In the region where they used to live many town-names end in "**by**" or "**toft**", for these were the words meaning Danish settlements. For example, **Derby, Grimsby, Whitby, Lowestoft** and others.

The whole country formed a united kingdom. The king ruled the country with the help of the *Witengemot*, a council of the most powerful landlords. The power of the church increased greatly during this period, and the archbishops and bishops began to play an important role in the government.

## 4.5. New Attacks of the Danes

At the end of the 10<sup>th</sup> century the Danish invasions were resumed. The Anglo-Saxon kings were unable to organize effective resistance and they tried to buy off the Danes. The Anglo-Saxon kings gave them money to leave Britain in peace. The result was that the Danes came again and again in greater numbers and demanded more money. In order to make this payment to the Danes in **991** the government imposed a heavy tax called **Danegeld**. Every time the Danes came back they received more and the government, in its turn, increased the tax of Danegeld collected from the population.

At the beginning of the 11<sup>th</sup> century England was conquered by the Danes once more. The Danish king **Canute** (1017 -1035) became king of Denmark, Norway and England. He made England the centre of his power. But he was often away from England in his kingdom of Denmark and so he divided the country into 4 parts called **earldoms**. They were Wessex, Mercia, Northumbria

and East Anglia. **An earl** was appointed by the king to rule over each earldom. The earls ruled over large territories and gradually they became very powerful.

To secure his position in the conquered country Canute continued to collect the Danegeld tax, and used the money to support a bodyguard of professional fighting men and a large fleet. Besides, Canute tried to win the support of the big Anglo-Saxon feudal lords. He promised to rule according to the old Anglo-Saxon laws. As before the Anglo-Saxon lords had the right to administer justice in the neighbourhood. Canute sent back most of his Danish followers to their own country. He usually chose Anglo-Saxon nobles for the high posts of earls and other royal officials. Canute himself became a Christian and he sent monks from Canterbury to convert people in Scandinavia. He was a protector of the monasteries. The clergy grew more powerful in his reign. Supported by Anglo-Saxon feudal lords Canute ruled in England till he died, and his son died shortly after, in 1040. The Witan chose Edward, one of Saxon Ethelred's sons, to be king and the line of Danish kings came to an end.

## **4.6. The Norman Invasion**

In the 9<sup>th</sup> century while the Danes were plundering England another branch of Northmen who were related to the Danes were doing the same along the Northern coast of France. So the Normans, the variation of the word "Northmen", settled down on land conquered from the French king - a territory that is still called **Normandy**.

By the 11<sup>th</sup> century the dukes of Normandy became very powerful. Though they acknowledged the king of France as their overlord, they were actually as strong as the king himself. Like other French dukes and counts they made themselves practically independent. They coined their own money, made their own laws, held their own courts, built their own castles. They could wage wars against other dukes and even against the king himself.

These descendants of the Northmen who had settled in northern France in the 9<sup>th</sup> century became the new conquerors of England.

In **1066 William, the Duke of Normandy** began to gather an army to invade Britain. The pretext for the invasion was William's claim to the English throne. He was related to the king (**Edward the Confessor**) who died in 1066. As Edward had no children William cherished the hope that he would succeed to the English throne. But the Witenagemont chose another

relative of Edward, **the Anglo-Saxon Earl Harold Godwinson** to be the king. William claimed that England belonged to him because Edward had promised it to him. Besides Harold, who had visited William in 1064 and 1065, had promised that he, Harold, would not try to take the throne for himself. Harold did not deny this claim, but he said that he had been forced to make the promise, and that because it was made unwillingly he was not tied by it. So William began preparations for a war.

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 and his army landed in the south of England. 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 *fyrð*, 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 organized, and were mounted on horses. If he had waited, Harold might have won. So the battle between the Normans and Anglo-Saxons took place on **the 14<sup>th</sup> of October 1066** at a little village in the neighbourhood of the town now called **Hastings**. Harold was defeated and killed.

The victory at Hastings was only the beginning of the **Norman Conquest**. Thus the Norman Duke became the king of England. – **William I** or as he is known **William the Conqueror**. He was crowned on the 25<sup>th</sup> of December 1066 in Westminster Abbey in London. He ruled the country for 21 years (1066 – 1087). During the first 5 years of his reign the Normans had to put down many rebellions in different parts of the country.

A new period began. In **1071** the subjugation of the country was completed, all the uprisings were put down and the rebels were punished severely.

#### ***4.6.1. The Bayeux tapestry***

In the Norman town of Bayeux, in the museum, one can see a strip of canvas about 70 metres long and half a metre wide embroidered with very well-defined pictures which tell the story of the Norman Conquest. That is the famous Bayeux tapestry. It is said that William's wife and the ladies of her court made it to hang round the walls of the cathedral.

The Bayeux tapestry shows the preparations made for the invasion of England – men felling trees or having and shaping the rough timber into ship, scenes depicting the subjugation of the country and other details pertaining to the battle of Hastings, the armour and weapons used, are all very well represented. The tapestry is of great interest to specialists in history and art. It gives us very valuable information about the life of the people at that time.

#### **4.7. The Strengthening of the Royal Power**

The Norman Conquest brought about very important changes in the life of Anglo-Saxons.

William now was not only the duke of Normandy but the king of England as well and he received great incomes from both Normandy and rich domain in England. As king of England William was determined that his nobles should not be able to make themselves independent of him as he made himself independent of his overlord, the king of France.

The Conqueror declared that all the lands of England belonged to him by right of conquest. The estates of all the Anglo-Saxon lords who had supported Harold or acknowledged him as king were confiscated. One-seventh of the country was made the royal domain. The king granted lands to the Normans and Frenchmen who had taken part in the conquest and to the Anglo-Saxon landlords who supported him.

The Conqueror claimed that the forest lands which made up one-third of the country belonged to him too. Large forests were turned into reserves for the royal hunting. Special Forest Laws about hunting were issued. Anyone who dared to hunt in the royal forest without the king's permission was threatened with severe punishment. Thus the king of England became the richest feudal lord of all.

William the Conqueror made not only the great landowners, to whom he granted land, but also their vassals swear allegiance to him directly. In **1086** at a great gathering of knights in Salisbury, William made all of them take a special oath to be true to him against all his enemies. Thus a knight who held a land from a great baron became the king's vassal. It's interesting to note that in France a vassal had to obey his immediate overlord only from whom he received the land and not the king. And it often happened that the smaller vassals joined their lord against the French King. In England the rule "My vassal's vassal is not my

vassal” was broken now and it became the duty of all the landlords to support the king against all his enemies, both foreign and domestic.

For greater security, when William rewarded his supporters, he did not give them big blocks of land but gave them a number of small estates scattered about the country. He granted land in this way to make it difficult for the great nobles to collect their forces.

Another change which William I introduced to reduce the power of the great lords was the abolition of the great earldoms – Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex, that had been established in the reign of Canute. Now the country was divided into **shires**, or **counties**, as the Normans called them. William I appointed a royal official in each shire to be his **sheriff**, who became of great importance. Through the sheriff William exercised control over his vassals.

To make himself stronger than any of his nobles, William ordered to build many castles in different parts of the country. No other person was allowed to build a castle without the king’s permission.

William I replaced the Witenagemot by the Great Council, made up of bishops and landlords. They met together to talk over the governmental problems and to give their advice to the king. One of the functions of the Great Council was to act as the king’s Supreme Court. The right to belong to the Great Council depended on the holding of land granted by the king.

The king’s laws were in force everywhere. Only the king had the right to have money coined. Nobles were not allowed to make war on one another; all men had to keep “the king’s peace”.

In **1086** William I sent his men all over England to find out what property every inhabitant of all England possessed in land, or in cattle and how much money this was worth. The Anglo-Saxons were afraid of the registration and hated it. The villagers used to say that nothing could be concealed from the king’s officials just as you would not conceal anything from God on doomsday. The villagers were threatened to be punished on doomsday in case they did not tell the whole truth. That is why probably the book in which all these accounts were written was called by people of England the **Doomsday Book**.

Now William I knew the exact value of his vassals’ estates. As a result of the registration the Conqueror had the exact data for taxation and he increased the old taxes considerably. Moreover, a heavy property tax was

imposed on the population of England. Thus the feudal registration of 1086 consolidated the position of the conquerors.

## 4.8. Old English

The dialects of **Englisc** spoken by the first Anglo-Saxons became what we now call Old English – the language spoken in England from the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons at the end of the 5th century until the Norman Conquest in 1066.

There were four main dialects of Old English: West Saxon, Kentish, Mercian, and Northumbrian. These dialects had small differences in grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation.

Old English was almost completely Germanic. The dialects had very few Celtic words: only about twenty. This is probably because the Anglo-Saxons came to Britain in large numbers and with great force. However they borrowed some Celtic words for parts of the countryside which were new to them: for example, the words *crag* and *tor* meaning *a high rock*. The names of some English cities, *London* and *Leeds* for example, are Celtic, and the word *dubris*, which meant *water*, became *Dover*. Different Celtic words for *river* or *water* also survive in the river names *Avon*, *Esk*, *Ouse*, and *Thames* is also Celtic, meaning *dark river*.

In 597, St Augustine and a group of monks arrived in Kent. They came from Rome to teach the Anglo-Saxons about Christianity and were welcomed by King Aethelbert and Queen Bertha in Canterbury. The monks built churches and taught literature and science as well as Christianity.

As a result of the spread of Christianity, the Anglo-Saxons borrowed a number of Latin words from the Roman Christians: about 450 appear in Old English literature. Some were connected to the church and education: for example, **munuc** (*monk*), and **scòl** (*school*). Others were words for things in the house: **fenester-** (*window*) and **cest** (*chest*). Some verbs from Latin were **spendan** (*to spend*), **sealtian** (*to dance*), and **tyrnan** (*to turn*).

At first monks wrote only in Latin, but then they began to write in Old English. This was unusual – people in other northern European countries did not begin writing in their own languages until much later. Learning spread and flowered among the Anglo-Saxons, and by the 8<sup>th</sup> century England was a centre of learning in Western Europe.

The great piece of literature in Old English is a long poem called *Beowulf*,



which was probably created in the middle of the 8<sup>th</sup> century, although it was not actually written down until 250 years later. It is about 3000 lines long, and tells the story of a brave man from Scandinavia called Beowulf. He fights and kills a terrible creature Grendel, then kills Grendel's mother, who is just as terrible. It is a poem about life and death, bravery and defeat, war and peace.

Although about 85% of the Old English vocabulary has been replaced in Modern English with words from Latin and Greek, the hundred most common words in Modern English all come from the language used at this time. These Old English words are for very basic things and ideas: **mann** (*person*), **wíf** (*wife*), **cild** (*child*), **hús** (*house*), **mete** (*food*), **drincan** (*drink*), **etan** (*eat*), **slápan** (*sleep*), **æfter** (*after*), and, *we, on, is*, and many more.

Like other Indo-European languages, Old English created new words by combining old words. For example: **heáhbeorg** (*high hill*), meant *mountain*; **bóccræft-** (*book-skill*), meant *literature*; **sunnandæg** (*sun's day*), meant *Sunday*. Poets combined words very frequently to make many beautiful descriptions. For example: *for body* was *bone-house*, and one for the *sea* was the *water's back*.

Some of the words the Saxons used to name places are: **burh** (*a large village*), **feld** (*field*), **ham** (*village*), **ing** (*people*), **mere** (*pool*), **stoc** (*summer field*), **ton** (*house, farm*), **wic** (*house, farm, a group of buildings*).

The words in a sentence in Old English appeared in a different order from those in Modern English. In Modern English, *the girl helped the boy*, and *the boy helped the girl* have different meanings which are communicated by the word order. In Old English these meanings were communicated by the endings of each word, which changed according to the function it performed in the sentence.

Nouns also changed their endings for the plural: for example, **guma** (*man*) became **guman**, **stan** (*stone*) became **stánes**, and **giefu** (*gift*) became **giefe**. Nouns had three genders, and adjectives and articles changed according to the gender of the noun. However, many of the possible changes did not happen in practice. For example, of the eight possible variants of **sunne** (*sun*), five endings were the same.

There were more personal pronouns than in Modern English. For example, there was **híne-** (*him*), **him-** (*to him*), **hí-** (*her*) and **hire-** (*to her*). **Him-** also meant *to it* and *to them*. There were also the pronouns **wit-** meaning *we two* and **git** meaning *you two*.

Verb endings changed, too. The past tense of most verbs was made by adding **-ed** to the basic part of the present tense, as in Modern English. Other verbs made the past tense by changing a vowel, *sing* – *sang*, for example. In Old English there were many more of these irregular verbs than there are today.

The next greater influence on the language came with a new group of invaders: the Vikings, or 'Danes' as the Anglo-Saxons called them. In the Danelaw, the Vikings and the English managed to communicate because their languages were from the same Germanic family. One effect of this was Old English became simpler. Old English and Old North (the language of the Vikings) had many different endings for words, which were hard for people to learn, so they were dropped. Plural endings became simpler as the *-s* ending was more widely used, and many verbs which changed their vowel to make the past tense now began to take the *-ed* ending instead.

Another result was that many words from Old North (ON) entered and enriched Old English (OE). Some of them replaced the Old English words. For example, **syster** (ON) replaced **sweostor**(OE) for *sister*. In some cases, both the Old North and the Old English words for the same idea were used. For example, **wish** (OE) and **want** (ON), and **sick** (OE) and **ill** (ON). Only 3 out of 100 words in Old English were borrowed from a non-Germanic language. Today 70 out of 100 words in English have been borrowed. Sometimes an Old North word survived in a dialect. For example, some Scots say **kirk** (ON) and the English say **church**. About 900 Old North words became part of Old English, and they include many modern words beginning with **sk**; *skin, skirt, sky*, for example. Others are: *bag, cake, die, egg, give, husband, leg, neck, same, take, window*. They are ordinary words, which show that the speakers of the two languages shared their day-to-day lives. Old North **are** replaced Old English **sindon** and the Old North verb ending **-s** for the third person singular in the present tense began to be used, as well as the Old English verb ending **-th**, especially in northern dialects. The Old North **they, their** and **them** slowly replaced the Old English **hí, her(e)** and **hem** in the following centuries.

The presence of the Vikings can also be seen in the modern place names of England. More than 1500 places in northern England have Scandinavian names. Over six hundred end in **-by**, which means *farm* or *town*; for example, *Whitby*. Others end in **-thorp(e)** (*small village*), **toft** (*piece of land*); for example, *Scunthorpe* and *Blacktoft*.

## 4.9. Norman Influence on the Language

Norman French immediately became the language of the governing classes and remained so for the next two hundred years. French and Latin were used in government, the church, the law and literature. Very little was written in English, although English monks did continue writing *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* until 1154.

The use of French continued in England during the 12<sup>th</sup> century, partly because many of the Norman kings and landowners also had land in Normandy and other parts of France and they spent some of their time there. The speakers of French were not limited only to those of Norman or French blood. English people who wanted to be important in society learnt French.

However, slowly English became more widely used by the Normans. Marriages between the Normans and the English were common, and the children of these marriages often spoke English, instead of French, as their first language. In 1177, one English writer reported that the two nations were so mixed that among 'free men' it was impossible to tell who was English and who was Norman.

In the 13<sup>th</sup> century the position of the two languages in England changed. In 1204 King John lost Normandy, and during the next fifty years all the great land-owning families in England had to give up their lands in France. Ties with France grew looser, and feelings of competition between England and France developed.

The upper classes continued to speak French as a second language, and it was still used in government, the law, and public business generally. However, French started to lose its social importance in England, partly because the Norman French spoken in England was not considered 'good' by speakers of Parisian French in France. Slowly the upper class began to feel prouder of their English than of their French.

Most ordinary people could not speak French at all and continued speaking only English. At the end of the 13<sup>th</sup> century, one poet wrote:

**Léwede men cune Ffrench non**

**Among an hondryd vnnepis on.**

*(Common men know no French*

*Among a hundred scarcely one.)*

A great event in the 14<sup>th</sup> century was the epidemic of plague known as the Black Death. Between 1348 and 1350, about 30% of the people in England died. This had several results. One was that many churchmen, monks, and school teachers were replaced by less educated men, who spoke only English. In 1362, English was used for the first time at the opening of Parliament. Also, after the Black Death the position of the ordinary people changed. Because there were fewer of them, they felt more independent. Some of them were able to rent more land, and others demanded higher wages for their work. As they became more important, the social importance of their language, English, grew.

When Henry IV became king in 1399, England had its first English-speaking king since 1066. English was used more and more in government, as fewer and fewer people could understand French. In the 15<sup>th</sup> century English completely replaced French in the home, in education and in government. It also replaced Latin as the language of written communication, so that after 1450 most letters were in English. English had survived – but it had changed enormously.

It is worth pointing out that at the time when the two languages were spoken side-by-side the Anglo-Saxons learned many French words and expressions that gradually came into the English language. They borrowed many French words, the equivalents of which did not exist in their language.

**The French borrowings in English are the following:**

1. Words dealing with feudal relations: **noble, manor, baron, service, estate, feudal, vassal, peer, prince, count, duke, government, state, power, crown, etc.**
2. Words relating to the law: **crime, court, council, charter, accuse, etc.**
3. Military terms: **arms, troops, victory, battle, soldier, navy, guard, etc.**
4. Educational terms: **science, library, pen, pencil, etc.**
5. Distant relatives: **niece, nephew, uncle, aunt, cousin.**
6. Words describing customs of Norman aristocracy: **sauce, dinner, saucer, etc.**
7. Words for the animals used as meat: **mutton, beef, pork, veal.**

**I. ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.**

1. What were the conditions of the treaty concluded in 886?
2. How did the Danish king Canute secure his power in England?
3. What were the reasons and pretext for the Norman invasion?
4. What is the Bayeux tapestry? Why is it considered a valuable historical document?

5. What was the Domesday Book? What useful information does it give to us about England in the 2<sup>nd</sup> half of the 11<sup>th</sup> century?
6. Who brought **Englisc** to Britain?
7. Some words from Old English are still used in Modern English. What kind of words are they?
8. What happened to the grammar of the Old English as a result of the Vikings invasion of England?

## II. IDENTIFY THE EVENTS IN ENGLISH HISTORY RELATED TO THE FOLLOWING NAMES

Egbert of Wessex, Alfred the Great, Canute, Edward the Confessor, Harold Godwinson, William of Normandy, Lady Godiva.

## III. BRITISH STUDIES TEST

1. "Vikings" is a word that means
  1. Sailors
  2. Pirates
  3. Warriors
2. The land where the Danes ruled was called
  1. Danegeld
  2. Danelaw
  3. Borough
3. The Normans were the grandchildren of
  1. The Angles
  2. The Vikings
  3. The Celts
4. The battle at Hastings took place in
  1. 1065
  2. 1066
  3. 1165

5. Who is described? “These people were skillful warriors and sailors earning their living by robbing others. At first they plundered and sailed away, later started to settle”.

1. the Normans
2. the Romans
3. the Vikings

## ***Lecture 5***

### **5.1. Kingship: a Family Business**

To understand the idea of kingship and lordship in the early Middle Ages it is important to realize that at that time there was little or no idea of nationalism. William controlled two large areas: Normandy and England. Both were personal possessions, and it did not matter to the rulers 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 recognize the king of France as his lord, whereas in England he was king with no lords above.

When William the Conqueror died in **1087**, he left the Duchy of Normandy to his elder son, Robert. He gave England to his second son **William**, known as **Rufus** (Latin for red) (**1187 - 1100**). When Robert went to fight Muslims in the Holy Land, he left William II in charge of Normandy. After all, the management of Normandy and England was a family business.

In **1100** William II died in hunting accident. He had not married, and so he had no son to take the crown. At that time 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 rode to Winchester and took charge of the king's treasury. Then he 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 organize 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 his nobles would willingly follow him to Normandy so that they could win back their Normandy lands.

In 1106 Henry invaded Normandy and captured Robert. Normandy and England were united under one rule. Henry I's most important aim was to pass on both Normandy and England to his successors. 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 drowned at sea.

During the next 15 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. Henry 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. This left the succession in question.

At the time both the possible heirs to Henry were in their own estates. Matilda was with her husband in Anjou and Henry's nephew, Stephen of Blois, was in Boulogne, only a days' journey by sea from England. As Henry had done before him, Stephen raced to England to claim the throne. Also as before, the nobles of England had to choose between Stephen, who was in England, and Matilda, who was still in France. Most chose Stephen. So Matilda and Stephen, who was described at that time as "of outstanding skill in arms, but in other things almost an idiot, except that he was more inclined towards evil", started 20 years' Civil war for the throne (**1135 - 1154**). Only a few nobles supported Matilda.

As a result of the Civil war Matilda's son **Henry II (1154 -1189)** became king of England and he was ruler of far more land than any other previous king. As lord of Anjou he added his father's lands to his 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. However, Henry quarreled 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 was followed by his son **Richard (1189 -1199)**, called **Lion Heart**, who was killed in France in **1199**. After Richard's death the French king took over parts of his French lands. Richard had no son and his brother John followed him (**1199 - 1216**).

## 5.2. The Great Charter

King John was very unpopular in his country mainly because he was greedy. The feudal lords in England had always run their own law courts and profited from the fines paid by those brought to court. But John took many cases out of their courts and tried them in the king's courts, taking the money himself. As for the merchants and towns, he taxed them at a higher level than before. In 1204 John was given the nickname "**Lackland**", because the French king invaded Normandy and the English nobles lost their lands there. John couldn't protect his vassals' possessions, but it was his duty. He had taken his vassals' money but he hadn't protected their land.

Then in 1209 John quarrelled with the Pope, when the king opposed the Pope's choice to appoint **Stephen Langton** the archbishop of Canterbury.

In **1215** John hoped to recapture Normandy, but his lords didn't trust him and they didn't support him.

Stephen Langton saw that neither his vassals nor the church supported the king and he headed the barons' rebellion. Angry barons marched through the country and set up at London, where merchants joined them, and they forced John to sign the charter (**15<sup>th</sup> of June, 1215**). It was known as **Magna Carta** or **the Great Charter**. The Great Charter was a document that lessened the king's power and increased that of the nobles. And it was an important symbol of freedom. But in fact "Magna Carta" gave no real freedom to the majority of people in England.

The nobles didn't allow John's successors to forget this charter and its promises. Every king recognized Magna Carta, until the Middle Ages ended in disorders and a new kind of monarchy came into being in the 16<sup>th</sup> century.

Magna Carta marks a clear stage in the collapse of English feudalism. The barons were no longer vassals but a class.

The other sign that the feudalism in England was declining at the end of the 12<sup>th</sup> century was that the barons refused to fight for the king and the king had to pay his soldiers to fight for him. At the same time lords preferred their vassals to pay them in money rather than in service.

## 5.3. The Beginning of the Parliament

In **1216** King John suddenly died. His son **Henry III (1216 -1272)** was a child, only 9 when he came to the throne. During the first 16 years as king he



was under the control of powerful nobles, and tied by Magna Carta.

Henry was finally able to rule for himself at the age of 25. It was understandable that he wanted to be completely independent of the people who controlled his life so long. He spent his time with foreign friends, and became involved in expensive wars supporting the Pope in Sicily and also in France.

As a result, barons refused to pay taxes, which were the part of the king's income. They gathered in Oxford, wrote their demands and forced the king to agree to satisfy them. The knights and citizens of towns gathered in their turn in Westminster and expressed their demands. Henry III refused to fulfill the demands and the civil war broke out in **1263**. Simon de Montfort headed the army of the rebellious barons, knights and citizens. He managed to take Henry III and his son Edward as prisoners and became a temporary ruler of the country in **1264**.

On **January 20, 1265** Simon de Montfort appointed himself the head of the government and formed his own parliament in London. There was an extremely important innovation in his parliament: representation was extended to include 2 knights from each shire and 2 burgesses from leading towns of the country.

But some of the nobles did not support the revolutionary new parliament, and remained loyal to Henry. With their help Henry was finally able to defeat and kill Simon de Montfort in the battle of Evesham in **1265**. Once again he had full royal authority, although he was careful to accept the balance which de Montfort had created between king and nobles. When he died in 1272 his son Edward I took the throne without question.

Very soon Edward understood that lords were less able to provide him with money than the common people, who could be taxed. Since the rules of feudalism did not include taxation, taxes could be raised only with the agreement of those wealthy enough to be taxed.

In **1275** Edward I (1272 – 1307) commanded each shire to send 2 representatives to his parliament. In such a way the **House of Commons** appeared. This parliament was called the **“Model Parliament of King Edward”**. Though “commoners” were not willing to be asked for and to give money, they did not dare to risk Edward's anger. The House of Commons became important to Britain's later political life and social development.

## 5.4. The Black Death and its Consequences

The 14<sup>th</sup> century was disastrous for Britain as well as most of Europe, because of the effect of wars and plagues. Probably one-third of Europe's population died of plague.

**In 1348 -1349** England suffered a devastating visitation of the plague, the Black Death as it was called. Out of the 4 million people that lived in England, little more than 2 million remained. The rural population, the poor population of towns, weakened by hardships was easy game for the Black Death.

Whole villages disappeared, and some towns in the country were almost completely deserted until the plague itself died out in 1349. The dramatic fall in population, however, was not entirely a bad thing. At the end of the 13<sup>th</sup> century the sharp rise in prices had led an increasing number of landlords to stop paying workers for their labour, and to go back to serf labour in order to avoid losses. In return villagers were given land to farm, but this land was often the poorest land in the manorial estate. After the Black Death there were so few people to work on the land that the remaining workers could ask for more money for their labour. We know they did this because the king and Parliament tried again and again to control wage increases. But the poor found that they could demand more money and did so. This finally led to the end of serfdom.

Because of the shortage and expense of labour, landlords returned to 12<sup>th</sup>-century practice of letting out their land to energetic freeman farmers who bit by bit added to their own land. In the 12<sup>th</sup> century, however, the practice of letting out farms had been a way of increasing the landlord's profits. Now it became a way of avoiding losses. Many "firma" agreements were for a whole life spans, and some for several life spans. By the mid 15<sup>th</sup> century few landlords had home farms at all. These small farmers who rented the manorial lands slowly became a new class, known as the "yeomen". They became an important part of the agricultural economy, and have always remained so.

Overall, agricultural land production shrank, but those who survived the disasters of the 14<sup>th</sup> century enjoyed a greater share of the agricultural economy. Even for peasants life became more comfortable. For the first time they had enough money to build more solid houses, in stone where it was available, in place of huts made of wood, mud and thatch.

There had been other economic changes during the 14<sup>th</sup> century. The

most important of these was the replacement of wool by finished cloth as England's main export. The change was the natural result of the very high prices at which English wool was sold in Flanders by the end of the 13<sup>th</sup> century. Merchants decided they could increase their profits further by buying wool in England at half the price for which it was sold in Flanders, and produce finished cloth for export. This process suddenly grew rapidly after the Flemish cloth industry itself collapsed during the years 1320 to 1360. Hundreds of skilled Flemings came to England in search of work. They were encouraged to do so by Edward III because there was a clear benefit to England in exporting a finished product rather than a raw material.

## **5.5. Hundred Years War with France (1337 – 1453)**

In the early 1300s England began a long struggle against France. England's troubles with France resulted from the French king's growing authority in France, and his determination to control all his nobles, even the greatest of them. France had suffered for centuries from rebellious vassals, and the two most troublesome were the duke of Burgundy and the English king, both of whom refused to recognize the French king's overlordship.

To make his position stronger, the king of France started to interfere with England's trade. Part of Aquitaine, an area called Gascony, traded its fine wines for England's corn and woolen cloth. This trade was worth a lot of money to the English crown. But in 1324 the French king seized a part of Gascony. Burgundy was England's other major trading partner, because it was through Burgundy's province of Flanders (now Belgium) that almost all English wool exports were made. Any French move to control these two areas was a direct threat to England's wealth. The French king tried to make the duke of Burgundy accept his authority. To prevent this, England threatened Burgundy with economic collapse by stopping wool exports to Flanders. This forced the duke of Burgundy to make alliance with England against France.

England went to war because it could not afford the destruction of its trade with Flanders. That is why Edward III declared war on France in **1337**.

The official reason was his claim of the French crown because his mother was a French princess. In 1339 the French and the English fought the first time in a long series of battles known as **Hundred Years War**.

At first the English were more successful on the battlefield. In **1360**

Edward reestablished control over areas previously held by the English. But the war didn't end because the French king accepted this situation unwillingly.

There were some periods without actual fighting. Several kings changed in England.

The war began again in **1415 when Henry V (1413 - 1422)** renewed Edward's claim to the French throne. Burgundy again supported England and the English army had one more chance to prove that it was far better in battle than the French army. At Agincourt the same year the English defeated the French army three times its own size.

Between 1417 - 1420 Henry V managed to capture most of Normandy and the nearby areas. By the treaty of Troyes in 1420 Henry was recognized as heir to the mad king, and he married Katherine of Valois, the king's daughter. But Henry V never became king of France because he died a few months before the French king in 1422. His baby son **Henry VI (1422 - 1461)** inherited the thrones of England and France. John Duke of Bedford continued to enlarge the territory under English control. But soon the French began to fight back. The French, who were inspired by a mysterious peasant girl called **Joan of Arc**, who claimed to hear heavenly voices, twice defeated the English army. (Joan of Arc was captured by the Burgundians, and given to the English. The English gave her to the church in Rouen which burnt her as a witch in 1431.

Since then the English began to lose this costly war. With the loss of Gascony in **1453** the Hundred Years War was over. England had lost everything except the **port of Calais**.

## **5.6. The Wars of Roses (1455 – 1485)**

Peace did not come to England after the Hundred Years War. In **1455** two noble families, **York** and **Lancaster** began a struggle for the throne that lasted 30 years. The York symbol was a **white rose** and the Lancaster symbol was a **red rose**. For this reason the struggle between the York and the Lancaster was called Wars of Roses.

Henry VI (1422 -1461), who became a king as a baby, grew up to be simple-minded and book-loving. He hated the warlike nobles, and was an unsuitable king for such a violent society. But he was a civilized and gentle man. Henry VI founded two places of learning that still exist Eton College not far from London, and King's College in Cambridge. He could happily have

spent his life in such places of learning, but Henry's simple-mindedness gave way to periods of mental illness. That's why nobles started to look for another candidate to rule the country. Their choice fell on Duke of York. The country was divided between "Yorkists" and "Lancastrians" (those who remained loyal to Henry VI).

So, in **1460** Duke of York claimed the throne for himself, but he was killed in one of the battles. His son Edward took up the struggle and won the throne in **1461**. He put the simple-minded king Henry VI into the Tower of London and crowned himself as **Edward IV (1461 -1483)**.

Nine years later the Lancastrians gathered a strong army, rescued Henry VI and chased Edward IV from the country.

But Edward IV was very popular with merchants, who helped him to raise a strong army, and he returned to England in **1471** and defeated Lancastrians. Henry VI was imprisoned in the Tower again, but this time Edward decided to make sure that the Lancastrians had nobody to support. The official story was that Henry VI had died in grief in the Tower, but very few people believed it. (And in fact, when the scientists examined his skull in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, it showed that he probably died from a blow on the head.)

At last Edward IV was safe on the throne. The war between the York and the Lancaster would have probably stopped if his brother, **Richard of Gloucester**, had not been so ambitious. When Edward IV died in 1483, he left 2 young sons, who were to be his heirs. Their uncle, Richard of Gloucester, put them into the Tower where they were murdered a few months later. Nobody knows for sure what happened to the boys, but the best-known story is *they were smothered with their own pillows*.

**Richard III (1483 - 1485)** was not popular: he was cruel and suspicious. Neither Yorkists nor Lancastrians liked him.

In **1485** another royal candidate claimed the throne. It was **Henry Tudor**, Duke of Richmond, a distant relative of Lancastrians. Many nobles, both Yorkists and Lancastrians, joined his army and met Richard III in the battle at Bosworth. The battle ended in Richard's defeat. The Wars of Roses had finally ended, but it nearly destroyed the English idea of monarchy forever.

Henry Tudor was crowned king **Henry VII (1485 - 1509)** on the battlefield.

## 5.7. Middle English

In the four hundred years that followed the Norman Conquest, the English language changed more than in any other time in its history. Thousands of words from French came into the language and many Old English ones left. At the same time Middle English changed grammatically, mainly by becoming simpler.

One way the grammar grew simpler was by losing some of the different endings for nouns, adjectives and pronouns. For example, by the 15<sup>th</sup> century the plural noun ending **-(e)s** was accepted everywhere in England, although some plurals with ending **-en** survived (*children, oxen, brethren*). Other noun endings that have survived are the **-’s** and **-s’**: for example, *the boy’s book* or *the boys’ books*. Adjectives and nouns also lost their grammatical gender, and *the* became the only form of the definite article.

The continuous tenses (*I am running*, for example) began to be used in Middle English, although they did not become common until later.

The main change to verbs was to the past tense. More of the Old English verbs that changed vowels for the past now began to end in **-ed**. For example, Old English past tense *to climb* was **clomb**, but the word *climbed* also began to appear in the 13<sup>th</sup> century. In the 14<sup>th</sup> century, most of the thousands of verbs that entered the language from French also formed the past tense with **-ed**. Sometimes, however, the change went the other way, so **knowed** became *knew*, and **teared** became *tore*. There are still about 250 ‘irregular’ past tense verbs in English, but this is only about half the number of those in Old English.

When the different noun endings disappeared, people had to put words in a particular order to express meaning. The most common order they used, which had also been used in Old English, was subject – predicate – object. They also used prepositions, like *in, by, with* and *from*, instead of noun endings. For example, the expression **dæges and nihtes** became *by day and by night* in Middle English.

All these grammatical changes were possible because from 1066 until the end of the 12<sup>th</sup> century very little was written in English. The official papers of the government and the Church were written in Latin or French. Without the limitations of a written language, people were able to change their spoken language very easily.

In the 14<sup>th</sup> century, as villages grew larger, English people began to use family names. Sometimes these included the father's name (*Johnson*). Others showed where a person lived (*Rivers, Hill*), or his town (*Burton, Milton*), his country (*French, Holland*), or his work (*Cook, Fisher*). A person's family name might change five or six times during his lifetime.

If English grammar was much simpler by the end of the 15<sup>th</sup> century, its vocabulary was much richer. Between 1100 and 1500, about 10000 French words were taken into English, three-quarters of which are still in use. French words came into every part of life: for example, *chair, city, crime, fashion, fruit, gentle, government, literature, medicine, music, palace, river, tablet, travel*. Sometimes the French (F) words replaced Old English (OE) words: for example, *people* (from French *peuple*) replaced the Old English **leód** (OE). But sometimes both the French and the Old English words survived, with small differences in meaning: for example, *ask* (OE) and *demand* (F), *wedding* (OE) and *marriage* (F), *king* (OE) and *sovereign* (F). Sometimes French words were used for life in the upper classes, and Old English words for life in the lower classes. For example, the words for the animals in the fields were Old English (*cows, sheep, pigs*) but the words for the meat on the table were French (*beef, mutton, pork*).

New English words were created from some of the new French words almost immediately. For example, the English *-ly* and *-ful* endings were added to French words to make *gently, beautiful* and *peaceful*.

At the same time several thousand words also entered English from Latin. They came from books about law, medicine, science, literature or Christianity. These books often used words which could not be translated into English. One translator wrote:

**"...there ys many words in Latyn that we have not proper English accordynge thereto."**

*"...there are many Latin words that we do not have English words for."*

So translators often took the Latin word and made it an English one. Some words that came from Latin at this time were: *admit, history, impossible, necessary, picture*.

The first translation of the Bible from Latin to English was made by John Wyclif and his followers between 1380 and 1384. Many Latin words came into English through this translation.

All these changes to the grammar and vocabulary did not happen at the same time everywhere. In fact, because English was not used as the language of government, the Old English dialects continued to develop differently from each other. The main dialects in Middle English were similar to those of Old English, but they used different vocabulary, word endings and pronunciations. Understanding people from different areas, even those which were quite close, was difficult. There is a famous description by William Caxton, who later brought the printing machine to England, of a conversation in Kent between a farmer's wife and some sailors from London (about eighty kilometers away). The sailors asked for some **eggys** but she did not know this word because in her dialect eggs were **eyren**. Thinking that they must be speaking a foreign language, she told them she '**coude speke no frensche**' (*she couldn't speak French*).

When people wrote, they used the words and pronunciations of their dialects. For example, the sound /x/ in the middle of words was spelt **-gh-** in the south and **-ch-** in the north, so *night* (pronounced /nixt/ at that time) could be spelt as **night** or **nicht**. Sometimes a spelling from one dialect has survived, together with the pronunciation from another. For example, *busy* is the spelling of one dialect, but the pronunciation /bɪzɪ/ is from another.

From the 13<sup>th</sup> century, English was used more and more in official papers, and also in literature. The greatest writer of this time was Geoffrey Chaucer (1343/4 – 1400). Chaucer, who lived in London, was both a poet and an important government official. He wrote in East Midlands dialect (spoken by people living in the Oxford, London, Cambridge triangle) and used many words from French. His best-known work, *The Canterbury Tales*, is about a group of ordinary people who journey to Canterbury together, telling each other stories on the way. Chaucer amusingly describes a colourful and varied group of characters. There is the Wife (woman) of Bath, the Cook, the Clerk (a student at Oxford), the Man of law, the Shipman, the Monk and many others. In their stories and conversations, Chaucer gives us plenty of details about their lives, including their language. For example, he makes fun of the French spoken in England.

**And French she spak ful faire and fetisly,  
After the scole of Stratford ate Bowe  
For French of Paris was to hir unknowe.**



*(and she spoke French extremely beautifully,  
With an accent from Stratford-on-Bow  
Because French of Paris was unknown to her).*

Later that century an invention was brought to England which had an enormous effect on the language. This was the printing machine, which William Caxton brought to London in 1476. Suddenly it was possible to produce thousands of copies of books. But what words and spellings should be used? Caxton wrote:

**And that comyn englysshe that is spoken on one shyre varyeth from a nother... Certaynly it is harde to playse every man by cause of ...change of langage.**

*(and the common English that is spoken in one region varies from another... Certainly it is hard to please every man because of ... the change in the language.)*

On the whole, Caxton and other printers used the East Midlands dialect, mainly because it was spoken in London and used by government officials. The printers did not make their decisions in a particular organized or orderly way, and variations in spelling continued into the 18<sup>th</sup> century. However, the variations they chose influenced the final spellings that developed. Some words are still spelt in the way they were pronounced in Caxton's time. For example, the *k* in *knee* and the *l* in *would* were pronounced at this time.

By the end of the 15<sup>th</sup> century English was starting to be read by thousands of people. In the next century it was read by many more, and used by the great star of English literature – William Shakespeare.

### **I. ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.**

1. What is Magna Carta? What is its historical significance?
2. What was Simon de Montfort's Parliament?
3. Why was England involved into the Hundred Years War with France?
4. What were the causes and the results of the Wars of Roses? Explain the name of this war.
5. Who was the printing press brought to England by?

## *Lecture 6*

### *6. The Tudor Dynasty*

The century of Tudor Rule (1485 – 1603) is often thought of as a most glorious period in English history. Henry VII built the foundations of a wealthy national state and a powerful monarchy. His son Henry VIII, kept a magnificent court, and made the Church of England truly English by breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church. Finally, his daughter Elizabeth brought glory to the new state by defeating the powerful navy of Spain, the greatest European Power of the time. During the Tudor age England experienced one of the greatest artistic periods in its history.

There is, however, a less glorious view of the Tudor century. Henry VIII wasted the wealth saved by his father. Elizabeth weakened the quality of government by selling official posts. She did this to avoid asking Parliament for money. And although her government tried to deal with the problem of poor and homeless people at the time when prices rose much faster than wages, its laws and actions were often cruel in effect.

#### **6.1. Henry VII (1485 –1509)**

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

Henry VII firmly believed that war and glory were bad for business, and that business was good for the state. He therefore avoided quarrels either with Scotland in the north or France in the south. Only a year after his victory at Bosworth in 1485, Henry VII made an important trade agreement with Netherlands which allowed English trade grow again.

In 1486 Henry VII married the daughter of Edward IV, uniting the House of Lancaster, the House of York and so bringing the Wars of Roses to the end.

Henry was fortunate. Many of old nobility had died or been defeated in the recent wars and their lands had gone to the king. This meant that Henry had more power and more money than earlier kings. In order to establish his authority beyond question, he forbade anyone, except himself, to keep armed men.

Henry's aim was to make the Crown financially independent, and the lands and the fines he took from the nobility helped him to do this. Henry also raised taxes for wars which he then did not fight. He never spent money unless he had to. One might expect Henry to have been unpopular, but he was careful to keep the friendship of the merchant and lesser gentry classes. Like him they wanted peace and prosperity. He created a new nobility from among them, and men unknown before now became Henry's statesmen. But they all knew that their rise to importance was completely dependent on the Crown.

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

So, Henry VII established the greater order in the country, introduced a more modern system of government and greatly improved the country's financial position. He really reigned and ruled in his country.

## **6.2. Henry VIII. Reformation**

The 15<sup>th</sup> century had begun the transitional period from feudalism to capitalism, and the 16<sup>th</sup> century continued it.

The second Tudor monarch, **Henry VIII (1509 -1547)** inherited a kingdom that was quite different from the one his father Henry VII got from Richard III.

Henry VIII was quite unlike his father. He was cruel, wasteful with money, and interested in pleasing himself. He wanted to become an important influence in European politics. But much had happened in Europe since England had given up its efforts to defeat France in the Hundred Years War. France was now more powerful than England, and Spain was even more powerful. Henry VIII wanted England to hold the balance of power between these two giants. He first unsuccessfully allied himself with Spain, and when he was not rewarded he changed sides. When friendship with France did not bring him anything, Henry started talking again to Charles V of Spain.

Henry's failure to gain an important position in European politics was a bitter disappointment. He spent so much on maintaining a magnificent court,

and on wars from which England had little to gain, that his father's carefully saved money was soon gone. Gold and silver from newly discovered America added to economic inflation. In this serious crisis, Henry needed money.

Henry VIII was always looking for new sources of money. His father had become powerful by taking over the noble's land, but the lands owned by the church and the monasteries had not been touched. The Church was a huge landowner, and the monasteries were no longer important to economic and social growth in the way they had been two hundred years earlier. In fact they were unpopular because many monks no longer led as good religious life but lived in wealth and comfort.

Henry disliked the power of the Church on England because, since it was an international organization, he could not completely control it. If Henry had been powerful enough in Europe to influence the Pope it might have been different. But there were two more powerful states, France and Spain, with Holy Roman Empire, lying between him and Rome. The power of the Catholic Church in England could therefore work against his own authority, and the taxes paid to the Church reduced his own. Henry wanted to "centralise" state authority, and there was some reason for standing up to the authority of the Church.

In 1510 Henry married Catherine of Aragon, the widow of his elder brother Arthur. But in 1526 she had not still had a son who survived infancy and was now unlikely to do so. Henry tried to persuade the Pope to allow him to divorce Catherine. But the Pope was controlled by Charles V, who was Holy Roman Emperor and king of Spain, and also Catherine's nephew. For both political and family reasons he wanted Henry to stay married to Catherine. Cardinal **Thomas Wolsey (1474 - 1530)** his chief minister failed to get the Pope's permission for the king to divorce Catherine of Aragon. Henry was extremely angry and Wolsey escaped execution by dying of natural causes on his way to the king's court, and after Wolsey no priest ever again became an important minister of the king. This fact gave a new turn in Henry's domestic and foreign policy. Henry VIII appointed **Thomas Cromwell (1485 - 1540)** his chief adviser and he helped to make the Royal Power absolute. [*Thomas Cromwell arranged the king's divorce from Catherine and later organized the Dissolution of the Monasteries. In 1540 Cromwell was made the Earl of Essex, but 4 months later the king accused him of treason and had his head cut off. Cromwell said at his execution that he died a Catholic.*]

The reformation started in **1534** by the **Act of Supremacy**. Henry declared himself "Supreme Head of the Church of England. Using the Pope's refusal to give him a divorce from Catherine of Aragon as a pretext, Henry broke away from the Roman Catholic Church and established the Church of England. So the Anglican Church became the state church and the Anglican faith became compulsory. The Anglican Church became an important mainstay of absolutism.

Henry's break with Rome was purely political. He had simply wanted to control the Church and to keep its wealth in his own kingdom. He did not approve of the new ideas of Reformation Protestantism introduced by Martin Luther in Germany and John Calvin in Geneva. He still believed in Catholic faith and he remained Loyal to Catholic religious teaching. Indeed, Henry had earlier written a book criticizing Luther's teaching and the pope had rewarded him with the title *Fidei Defensor*, Defender of the Faith. The pope must have regretted his action.

In **1536** the direct attack on the monasteries began. The dissolution of monasteries and the confiscation of their lands increased the king's wealth and influence. The new nobles and the bourgeoisie and all those to whom the crown either granted or sold the lands welcomed the secularization of monastery lands.

Meanwhile the monks and nuns were thrown out. Some were given small sums of money, but many were unable to find work and became wandering beggars. The dissolution of the monasteries was probably the greatest act of official destruction in the history of Britain.

In **1535** Henry united Wales with England on equal terms. It was the first **Act of Union** in the history of Britain. Among glorious results of Henry's policy was the creation of the **Royal Navy**.

Henry is known to have been avid gambler and dice player. He was very good at sport – especially royal tennis – during his youth. He was also an accomplished musician, author and poet; according to legend, he wrote the popular folk song "**Greensleeves**", still played today.

Henry died in 1547, leaving behind his sixth wife, Catherine Parr, and his three children: Mary, the eldest, was the daughter of Catherine of Aragon; Elizabeth was the daughter of his second wife, Anne Boleyn; and nine-year-old Edward.

### ***6.2.1. Henry the VIII and his Wives***

In **1509** Henry married **Catherine of Aragon**. After 15 years of marriage Henry and Catherine had one daughter, Mary, but no sons. Henry wanted a son so much. Catherine was old enough, and Henry fell in love with a young woman, **Ann Boleyn**. So he divorced Catherine and married Ann.

But Ann had a daughter, *Elizabeth (1533) (who became one of the England's most famous queens)*, not a son. Henry was very angry with her, and she was afraid of him because she didn't love him any more – she loved a younger man. Henry loved a younger woman, **Jane Seymour**, too. So, one day in 1536, Ann was executed in the Tower of London, and Henry married Jane Seymour.

Jane had a son at last, but she died after her son was born. Then Henry married another woman, **Ann of Cleves**. He married her because he saw a beautiful picture of her. But when Henry met Ann he saw that she was not beautiful at all. So, he divorced her too.

In **1541** Henry (who was 50) married a beautiful 17-year-old girl, **Catherine Howard**. Catherine didn't love a fat old man. Soon he saw her with a young man, and then Catherine was executed in the Tower.

Henry's sixth wife, **Catherine Parr**, was an older woman, and she lived longer than he. Henry died in 1547, when he was 56, and was old and fat and ill.

## **6.3. The Protestant – Catholic Struggle**

### ***6.3.1. Edward VI***

Edward VI, Henry VIII's son, was only nine years old when he became king, so the country was ruled by a council. All the members of this council were from the new nobility created by the Tudors. They were keen Protestant reformers because they had benefited from the sale of monastery lands. Indeed, all the new landowners knew that they could only be sure of keeping their lands if they made England truly Protestant.

Most English people still believed in the old Catholic religion. Less than half English were protestant by belief, but these people were allowed to take a lead in religious matters. In 1552 a new prayer book was introduced to make sure that all churches followed the new protestant religion. Most people were not very happy with the new religion. They had been glad to see the end of some of the Church's bad practices like the selling of "pardons" for

the forgiveness of sins. But they did not like the changes in belief, and in some places there was trouble.

### **6.3.2. *Mary I Tudor***

Mary Tudor (1553 –1558) was the daughter of Henry VIII and Catherine of Aragon. She became Queen of England after the death of King Edward VI (Son of Henry VIII and Jane Seymour).

A group of nobles tried to put **Lady Jane Grey**, a Protestant, on the throne. But Mary succeeded in entering London and took control of the kingdom. She was supported by ordinary people who were angered by the greed of the Protestant nobles.

However, Mary was unwise and unbending in her policy and her beliefs. She was the first queen of England since Matilda, 400 years earlier. At that time women were considered to be inferior to men. The marriage of the queen was therefore a difficult matter. If Mary married an Englishman she would be under control of a man of lesser importance. If she married a foreigner it might place England under foreign control.

Mary was determined to bring back Roman Catholicism to England, and she married the Catholic Philip II of Spain in 1554. It was an unfortunate choice. The ordinary people disliked the marriage, as Philip's Spanish friends in England were quick to notice. Parliament unwillingly agreed to Mary's marriage plan, and it only accepted Philip as king of England for Mary's lifetime. Many Protestants opposed this, and she ordered hundreds of them to be burnt, for which she became known as "Bloody Mary".

Mary's marriage to Philip was the first mistake of her unfortunate reign. Mary left the country in a bad plight: 1) union with Spain meant war with France, as a result of the war, Calais was lost, 2) finances frustrated, 3) Scotland not a friend, but an enemy, with France in control (Mary Stuart and her mother, Frenchwoman), 4) no naval power, etc.

Mary had no children, and after her death she was replaced by her half-sister Elizabeth I.

## **6.4. Elizabeth I and her Rule (1558 – 1603)**

After Mary I died, Elizabeth knew that her claim to the throne was recognized only by the protestant part of England, the catholic part

considered Mary Stuart the heiress. For Elizabeth Catholicism meant the hateful supremacy of Spain supported by Rome.

Mary Stuart, the Scottish queen, usually called "Queen of Scots", married the French heir to the throne, and she became Queen of France a year later after Elizabeth became Queen of England. But Mary's husband died a year later and she returned to Scotland, where she made a lot of mistakes. Mary married Lord Darnley, a Scottish Catholic. But when she got tired of him, she allowed herself to agree to his murder and married the murderer, Bothwell. Scottish society, in spite of its lawlessness, was shocked. Mary found herself at war with her Scottish opponents, and was soon captured. She was made to abdicate in favour of her son James. Mary was imprisoned, and in 1568 she fled to England. Elizabeth solved the problem imprisoning her rival sister in London for 19 years. There Mary was constantly the centre of plots against Elizabeth organized by the northern Catholic lords. For example, the aim of the revolt in 1569 was to take the throne from Elizabeth and to give it to Mary. Finally, in **1587** Mary was executed, and the struggle between the two queens came to an end.

The execution of Mary Stuart, the English support of the Protestant Netherlands, and Elizabeth's refusal to marry the King of Spain led to a serious conflict with Spain. In **1588** the Spanish Armada of 130 ships sailed to the English coast.

When news of this Armada reached England in summer 1588, Elisabeth called her soldiers together: "I am come ... to live or to die amongst you all, to lay down for my God, and for my kingdom, and for my people, my honour and my blood even in dust. I know I have the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a king and of a king of England too."

The English fleet was small, but ships were handier and more heavily gunned than the Spanish ones. The English defeated the Spanish Armada, and it meant much for England. The supremacy of the sea was transferred from Spain to England.

Elizabeth constantly paid attention to economic development and social improvements. New manufacturing centres appeared in England: cloth-making, glass-making, production of gunpowder, salt, etc. In **1601** the **East India Company** was founded, soon to become and long to remain the greatest English economic organization.

Elizabeth's reign is referred to as the **Elizabethan era** or the **Golden**



**Age** and was marked by many changes in English culture. **William Shakespeare, Christopher Marlowe, Ben Johnson** all wrote during this era. **Thomas More** wrote a study of the ideal nation, called *Utopia*, which became extremely popular throughout Europe.

In addition, **Francis Drake** became the first Englishman to circumnavigate the globe as well as leading the defense against the Spanish Armada during the major war with Spain. **Francis Bacon** laid out his philosophical and political views; and the English colonization of North America took place under **Sir Walter Raleigh** and **Sir Humphrey Gilbert**. **Virginia**, an English colony in North America and afterwards a member of the United States, was named after Elizabeth I, the Virgin Queen. **John Hawkins** carried his first slave cargo in 1562. By 1650 slaves had become an important trade, bringing wealth particularly to Bristol in southwest England. It was until the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century for this trade to be ended.

Elizabeth had a very strong character, which probably saved her from bad political and marital alliances. She never married (although she is known to have had relations with the Earl of Leicester (Robert Dudley) and, later in life, with the Earl of Essex) and she ruled 45 years.

## **6.5. Tudor Parliament**

The Tudor monarchs did not like governing through Parliament. Henry VII had used Parliament only for law making. He seldom called it together, and then only when he had a particular job for it. Henry VIII had used it first to raise money for his military adventures, and then for his struggle with Rome. Perhaps Henry himself did not realize that by inviting Parliament to make new laws for the Reformation, he was giving it a level of authority it never had before. Tudor monarchs were certainly not more democratic than earlier kings, but by using Parliament to strengthen their policy, they actually increased Parliament's authority.

Parliament strengthened its position again during Edward VI's reign by ordering the new prayer book to be used in all churches, forbidding the catholic mass. When Catholic Queen Mary came to the throne she succeeded in making parliament cancel all the new Reformation laws, and agree to her marriage to Philip of Spain. But she could not persuade Parliament to accept him as king of England after her death.

Only two things persuaded Tudor monarchs not to get rid of parliament altogether: they needed money and they needed the support of the merchants and landowners. In 1566 Queen Elizabeth told the French ambassador that the three parliaments she had already held were enough for any reign and she would never hold any more. Today Parliament must meet every year and remain “in session” for three-quarters of it. This was not all the case in the 16<sup>th</sup> century. In the early 16<sup>th</sup> century Parliament only met when the monarch ordered it. Sometimes it met twice in one year, but then it might not meet again for 6 years. In the first 44 years of Tudor rule Parliament met only 20 times

Elizabeth, like her grandfather, Henry VII, tried not to use Parliament after the Reformation Settlement of 1559, and in 45 years she only let parliament meet 13 times.

During the century power moved from the House of Lords to the House of Commons. The reason for this was simple. The members of Parliament (MPs) in the Commons represented richer and more influential classes than Lords.

The old system of representation in the Commons with two men from each county and two from each “borough”, or town, remained the rule. However, during the 16<sup>th</sup> century the size of the Commons nearly doubled, as a result of the inclusion of Welsh boroughs and counties and the inclusion of more English boroughs.

In order to control discussion in Parliament, the Crown appointed a “Speaker”. Even today the Speaker is responsible for good behaviour during debates in the House of Commons. His job in Tudor time was to make sure that Parliament discussed what the monarch wanted Parliament to discuss, and that it made the decision which he or she wanted.

Until the end of the Tudor period Parliament was supposed to do three things: a) agree to the taxes needed; b) make the laws which the Crown suggested; c) advise the Crown, but only when asked to do so. In order for parliament to be able to do these things, MPs were given important rights: freedom of speech, freedom from fear of arrest, and freedom to meet and speak to the monarch.

## **I. ANSWER THE QUESTIONS**

1. Name the Tudor monarchs. What was the success of the Tudor rule based on?
2. Why was the Tudor Monarchy absolute?

3. How did the Church of England emerge?
4. What was Thomas Wolsey?
5. What was Thomas Cromwell?
6. What do you know about Francis Drake?
7. What do you know about the dissolution of monasteries and its social consequences?
8. What character in English history is called "Bloody Mary"? Why?

## II. DEFINE THE FOLLOWING TERMS

Defender of the Faith, Act of Supremacy, Reformation, dissolution of monasteries, Act of Union, "Utopia", Spanish Armada, the Queen of Scots, Protestantism.

## III. MATCH THE FOLLOWING WORDS AND WORD COMBINATIONS TO THEIR CORRECT MEANING

- |                  |   |
|------------------|---|
| 1. Bobbies       | a) a group of English Protestants who sailed to North America in 1620 |
| 2. Tube          | b) the famous London dialect  |
| 3. Beefeaters    | c) the financial centre of London                                     |
| 4. Doomsday Book | d) a name for London policemen  |
| 5. Square mile   | e) the London Underground   |
| 6. The West End  | f) the Yeomen on the Guard at the Tower of London                     |
| 7. Cockney       | g) a survey of English population                                     |
| 8. The pilgrims  | h) the main theatre district  |

## *Lecture 7*

### 7.1. The Early Stuarts

#### 7.1.2. *James I*

When Elizabeth I died without any children in **1603**, her relative (the son of Mary Stuart) **James VI** of Scotland became **James I** of England (**1603 - 1625**). He came from Scotland where industry and foreign trade were practically undeveloped, and the merchant class not half as influential as in London. James made peace with Spain that did not promise the London

merchants any profit, for it did not stipulate their right of trading with colonies of Spain. No wonder the king made enemies of the powerful London merchants while he became friendly with the Spanish King.

Thus neglecting the interests of the historically progressive classes of the period, James Stuart had a Parliament opposition formed against him, growing during his reign and culminating to a head during the reign of his son Charles I (1625 – 1649).

Like Elizabeth, James I tried to rule without Parliament as much as possible. He was afraid it would interfere, and he preferred to rule with a small council.

James was clever and well-educated. As a child he had been kidnapped by groups of nobles, and had been forced to give in to the Kirk. Because of these experiences he had developed strong beliefs and opinions. The most important of these was his belief in the divine right of kings. He believed that the king was chosen by God and therefore only God could judge him.

He expressed his ideas openly and this led to trouble with Parliament. James had an unfortunate habit of saying something true or clever at the wrong moment. The French king described James as “the wisest fool in Christendom”.

Until his death in 1625 James I was always quarrelling with Parliament over money and over desire to play a part in his foreign policy.

It should be mentioned, that colonial expansion during the reign of James I was a successful aspect of his foreign policy. It started with the foundation of **Virginia** in **1607**, followed by the **Puritan** emigration of the **Pilgrim Fathers** in **1620**, who landed in Cape Cod Bay, near modern Boston. It was the beginning of the colonies of **Massachusetts**, **Maine** and **New Hampshire**. Barbados and Bermuda were also occupied.

## **7.2. The Bourgeois Revolution of 1640 – 1649**

### ***7.2.1. Background of the Revolution. Its First Period (1640 – 1642)***

After James I's death England was ruled by his son **Charles I (1625 – 1649)**, who continued consolidating his absolute power and building up a new apparatus. Parliament understood that the struggle against King's absolutism was to continue. In **1628** the Parliament opposition uniting bourgeoisie and the gentry scored a victory: the King was made to sign a

document limiting his power, the so-called **Petition of Right**. Charles I had to sign the petition because he needed money quite badly but he never meant to be governed by the Petition.

In **1629** Charles I dismissed the Parliament and did not summon it again during 11 years (**1629 –1640**). He also arrested and imprisoned some leaders of the Opposition. During the 11 years of Parliamentless rule Charles I and his counselors racked their brains trying to invent some sources of revenue. In **1636** some of the leaders of the opposition refused to pay the tax; the example was followed by wide masses of the people, but the movement was suppressed.

In **April 1640** Charles summoned the Parliament but 3 weeks later “**the Short Parliament**” was dissolved.

The revolutionary situation in the country was apparent. The Puritans were persecuted and many of them emigrated to America. The wide masses of the people resented. The increasing taxes fell upon people’s shoulders. The production had been cut and mass unemployment was the result. Wages were low and the people sent petitions demanding that the Parliament should be convened and measures taken to improve their living standards. So Charles had to convene a parliament that later came to be called “**the Long Parliament**” (**November, 1640**).

The election campaign during the elections to the Long Parliament was quite tense. To make sure that the king played no dissolution tricks on them, the Parliament ruled by a special Act (that it was not to be interfered during the first 50 days of its work).

The Puritans’ moral norms were made uppermost, the Presbyterian Church was declared obligatory all over England. When in May 1641 a Bill was passed fixing the Long Parliament as a State Institution not to be dissolved in general, with the sittings sacred, not to be cancelled or postponed without the consent of the members’ majority, the *constitutional monarchy* in England was officially established. (It was the first period of bourgeois revolution).

### **7.2.2. The Civil War (1642 – 1649)**

The whole England was divided into two hostile camps. So the second period of the bourgeois revolution (1642 – 1649) was a period of Civil War. The distribution of the forces was characteristic: 1) **the Royalists** or

**“Cavaliers”** as they were nicknamed for their aristocratic, bright fashionable clothes and long hair, were popular in the economically backward areas in the North, West and Southwest. The feudal nobility, most of the great landowners, Catholics and High Churchmen, the gentry, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge were their supporters.

2) **Puritans** or **“Roundheads”** were ideological and economic masters of the industrial South, the industrial centres of North and Midlands. So the Parliament opposition had the support of the wide masses.

At first the royalist forces were victorious because the Parliament army in general suffered from lack of experience. The first Parliament success was the battle at **Marston Moor (1644)** when **Oliver Cromwell** defeated the king’s army, and the king lost the North. Then Oliver Cromwell reorganized and democratized the parliament army. It was called the **New Model Army**, where ranks were awarded according to merit, and not to noble birth. Instead of country people or gentry, Cromwell invited into his army educated men, who wanted to fight for their beliefs.

In **1645** Cromwell defeated the Royalists at Naseby and the king fled to Oxford, then to the Scottish army at Newark. The Scots were, however, persuaded by the Parliament to hand in the king for money who was heard to say “I’ve been sold and bought”.

By this time the Parliament was divided into two parties: the **Presbyterians** and the **Independents**. The **Presbyterians** were in fact the right wing of the Puritans, who were ready to compromise with the King so that the revolution should not go further and deeper.

The **Independents** expressed the interests of the radical wing of the bourgeoisie and of the new commercially minded nobility headed by Oliver Cromwell. As a religious trend they formed an opposition to Anglicanism. They were against any church that was sponsored by the state. As a political party the Independents headed the revolution against Stuart monarchy.

After the King was defeated (1649), there came division in the Independent’s ranks. The bourgeois-aristocratic elements headed by Cromwell considered the revolution finished. The democratic elements fought against Cromwell and his adherents, and they created their own party **Levellers** (middle class).

By **1647** the Levellers became a nation wide group while before they were just considered just a left wing of the Independents. They were in

favour of abolishing the monarchy, the House of Lords and aristocratic privileges, and for making England a republic with one-chamber parliament elected on the basis of universal suffrage. They were headed by John Lilburn. In **1649** J. Lilburn and other leaders of the Levellers were arrested. In **May - September 1649** O. Cromwell suppressed the rebellion of the Levellers.

Cromwell suppressed another democratic movement. It was a small group that called themselves “**diggers**” (propertyless) or “**true levellers**”, who made a practice of occupying common lands and digging them to sow grain. Originally “diggers” were a part of levelers movement. They expressed ideology and interests of the town and village poor. The diggers proclaimed their credo and their ideal of a free commonwealth. Their mottoes were “Land is a common treasure for all her children”, “Work together and together eat your bread”.

Cromwell was not going to stand any dangerous radicalism and he suppressed the democratic movement so successfully that the bourgeoisie and gentry were delighted with a leader who could protect the country from the dangerous left groups.

The royalists were quick to take an advantage of the struggle between the Parliament parties, so they began another Civil War. But by the end of **1648** the royalist armies were defeated by Cromwell’s forces. Cromwell showed wonders of strategy. He directed troops to surround the House of Commons, and stationed one **Colonel Pride** at the door with a list of Presbyterian members and all unreliable members in general. The procedure was called “**Pride’s Purge**” and it left only a “**Rump**” of Independents, who formed a **High Court of Justice**, that found Charles I guilty of high treason, and sentenced him to death. In **January 1649** Charles I was executed. Perhaps the execution was Charles’s own greatest victory, because most people now realized that they did not want Parliamentary rule, and were sorry that Charles was not still king.

In the same year the House of Lords was abolished and England became a Republic ruled by the Parliament.

### ***7.2.3. The Third Period of the Revolution (1649 –1660)***

In the 3<sup>rd</sup> period of the revolution the independents’ republic triumphed over the feudal absolute monarchy, but at the same time it suppressed all movements aimed at a further deepening of the revolution.

The monarchy was abolished and England was proclaimed a republic under the name of the **Commonwealth** with O. Cromwell at its head with the official title – **Lord Protector**, with far greater powers than King Charles had had. Cromwell and his friends got rid of House of Lords and the Anglican Church. Cromwell set up a regime of military dictatorship and many of his supporters were disappointed. People were forbidden to celebrate Christmas and Easter, or to play games on Sundays. Cromwell with his army suppressed the opposing movements in Scotland, Ireland and dismissed the old Parliament. Actually, it meant the abolishing of the republic and the end of the bourgeois revolution in England.

### **7.3. The Restoration (1660 – 1688)**

When in **1658** O. Cromwell died, the Protectorate, as his republic administration was called, collapsed. By that time some of the traits that characterized monarchy had been restored in England. The offer of the crown that Cromwell had refused and of hereditary title that he had not refused were sure signs as well as tendency to restore the House of Lords. Richard Cromwell, his son, was not a good leader and the army commanders soon started to quarrel among themselves. One of these decided to act. In 1660 he marched to London, arranged free elections and the Parliament decided that power was to belong to the king, the lords and the commons. In **May 1660 Charles II (1660 – 1685)** was crowned.

Charles II did not keep his promises given before he got hold of the crown and the puritans were cruelly persecuted. Cromwell's body was exhumed and gibbeted. The lands that had been confiscated from the church as well as from the royalists during the 2<sup>nd</sup> period of the bourgeois revolution were restored. The House of Lords was restored, and Presbyterianism was destroyed. Politics was becoming professional, organized political parties were growing.

**The Great Plague (1665)** swept the country. Then **the Great Fire (1666)** destroyed London. Financial and economic difficulties led to a quarrel between Charles II and Parliament, and for the last 5 years of his reign Charles ruled without Parliament. There was a danger of another civil war.

The restoration showed that the nobles and the upper layers of the bourgeoisie could not do without monarchy in the face of the growing democratic movement.



## 7.4. Glorious (Bloodless) Revolution (1688)

After Charles II's death (1685) his brother **James II (1685 – 1688)** became King and soon he provoked opposition. He continued the policy of friendship with France. He also admitted Roman Catholics to office. The birth of a son, who was to be brought up as a Catholic, proved to be the last straw.

The party of the "Whigs" and the Church sent an invitation to William of Orange, who was Prince of Dutch, married to Mary, daughter of James II, to come to England with an army to restore national liberty and to protect Protestant religion. William landed in October 1688, was welcomed by the parliament, and James together with his wife and his baby son had to leave for France.

William entered London, but the crown was offered only to Mary. William said he would leave Britain unless he also became king. Parliament had no choice, but to offer the crown to both of them – king and queen. This was how William and Mary were offered the throne in February 1689. The easy and comparatively bloodless change was called "the Glorious Revolution".

## 7.5. Constitutional Monarchy

The fact that parliament made William king, not by inheritance but by their choice, was revolutionary. Parliament was now beyond question more powerful than the king, and would remain so.

The Glorious Revolution was actually a culmination of the compromise between the top layers of bourgeoisie and the landed aristocracy. England was no longer feudal monarchy, but it was bourgeois monarchy. **The Bill of Rights of 1689** stated the main ideas of the constitutional monarchy with the legislative power of the Parliament; still the executive power belonged to the king. But the king was now unable to raise taxes or keep an army without the agreement of Parliament or to act against any MP for what he said or did in Parliament. The Protestants were given religious liberty by the so-called "Toleration Act" while Catholics were not allowed to occupy government posts or to teach at Universities.

In 1701 Parliament finally passed the Act of Settlement, to make sure only a Protestant could inherit the crown. This Act was important, and has remained in force, although the Stuarts tried three times to regain the crown.

Even today, if a son or daughter of the monarch becomes a Catholic, he or she cannot inherit the throne.

William of Orange died in 1702 and his wife's sister and daughter of James II, **Anna (1702 -1714)** was crowned. Queen Anna was the last of the House of Stuarts. None of her 18 children lived beyond the age of 11, so when she died her cousin George from Hanover became **King George I (1714 - 1727)**. Queen Anna was the last British ruler to be able to prevent parliament from passing a law by using her power to veto.

It was William III who had found the convenience of having men of the same political party in his government. Thus the **cabinet government system** was started. The ministers enjoyed the power and bore the responsibility which formerly were the prerogative of kings, and it was not the king but the Parliament to whom the ministers were to account for their activities

But the Parliament was far from being a representative body, as it was a tool in the hands of the ruling oligarchy. Since **1717** only 250.000 could vote in England where the population was nearly 5 million. The voters were the people enjoying an income of no less than 600 pounds in real estate or 200 pounds as profit from trade or financial operation.

Thus England was a constitutional monarchy but the bourgeois-limited nature of the constitution was vivid. The **Whigs** (*a rude name for cattle drivers*) stayed in power from 1714 to 1760. The **Tories** (*an Irish name for thieves*) were unpopular because they were constantly trying to restore the Stuarts. **Sir Robert Walpole** (the leader of the Whigs) was the first English Prime-Minister and stayed in office from 1721 to 1742. He managed to be popular with the merchants and financiers by his constant encouragement of English trade and commerce. Under this leader the Whigs developed the art of corruption. They learned how to manipulate elections and to buy voters so perfectly that voting became a business and a "way of earning an honest penny". The government had a special fund to be spent on buying voters and bribing the members of Parliament. Sir Robert Walpole himself was convinced that every Member of Parliament could be bought – though the prices differed. Thus the ruling oligarchy was making the Parliament a tool in their hands.

## 7.6. Modern English Begins

The 16<sup>th</sup> century was full of changes in Europe. The Protestant churches developed, Europeans began to explore the Americas, Asia and Africa, and

creativity and learning in all areas flowered. In England, the English language grew enormously in order to express a huge number of new ideas.

From 1500, English began to replace the Celtic languages of Britain: Welsh in Wales, Gaelic in Scotland and Cornish in Cornwall.

At the beginning of the 16<sup>th</sup> century Latin was the language of learning in all Europe, and it was seen as richer than English and the other spoken European languages. However, with the growth of education, the invention of printing and the new interest in learning, this began to change. More and more people wanted to read books by Roman and Greek writers, and in England they wanted to read them in English. So these books were translated, and other books about learning were written in English. Using English meant that a writer could reach a larger audience, as one sixteenth-century printer explained to a writer who preferred Latin:

**Though, sir, your book be wise and full of learning,  
yet ... it will not be so saleable.**

However, the acceptance of English as a language of learning was not complete until the end of the 17<sup>th</sup> century. For example, in 1687, Sir Isaac Newton wrote his *Principia* in Latin, but fifteen years later he wrote *Opticks* in English.

During the 16<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> centuries, writers in English borrowed about 30000 words from about fifty languages, mainly to describe new things and ideas, and many of them are still used today. This huge growth of vocabulary was the main change in English at this time. The new words came mainly from Latin; for example, *desperate*, *expensive*, *explain*, *fact*. Other important sources for new words were French, Italian, Greek, Spanish and Portuguese. And as the European exploration of the world widened, so words came into English from America, Africa and Asia. For example, *chocolate* and *tomato* came from Mexico, *banana* from Africa, *coffee* from Turkey, and *caravan* from Persia.

New words were also added to English in other ways. People were adventurous with language: they used verbs as nouns (*laugh* and *scratch*), or nouns as verbs (*conversion*), or made adjectives from nouns (*shady* from *shade*). They put two words together (*chairman*) (compounding), or they added parts of words: *un* to *comfortable*, for example (affixation).

The age of Queen Elizabeth I (1558 - 1603) was one of the great flowering of literature. William Shakespeare (1564 - 1616) is considered the greatest writer of plays who had the largest vocabulary of any English writer

and was a great inventor of words and expressions. He created about 2000 words, and a huge number of expressions which are now part of everyday English. For example he invented: *it's early days* (*it is too soon to know what will happen*); *in my mind's eye* (*in my imagination*); *tongue-tied* (*unable to speak because you are shy*); *the long and the short of it* (*all that needs to be said about it*), *green-eyed jealousy*, *stand on ceremony*, *too much of a good thing*, *seen better days*, *living in a fool's paradise*.

W. Shakespeare's words are current in:

business: *employer, manager, investment, retirement*

law: *circumstantial evidence, foregone conclusion*

politics: *negotiate, petition*

advertising: *design, exposure, marketable*

journalism: *reword, misquote*

activists: *civil rights protesters*, and human rights: *violation*.

W. Shakespeare's success and fame during his lifetime meant that his plays had enormous effect on English.

In 1604 King James of England, Wales and Scotland ordered a translation of the Bible into English. The King James Bible, completed in 1611, was not the first translation of the Bible into English, but it became the most widely used and was read in churches everywhere in England, Scotland and Wales for the next three hundred years.

The King James Bible had an important influence on the English language. The translators did not invent new words, like W. Shakespeare. Instead they used old ones, even ones that were out of date, and they did not use a huge variety: only 8000 different words, compared with Shakespeare's 20000. They aimed to make the language sound poetic and musical when it was read aloud, and on the whole they succeeded. It was read at church and in the home, and taught at school. Its language became part of everyday English, with expressions like: *the apple of somebody's eye* (*a person who is loved very much by somebody*); *by the skin of your teeth* (*you only just manage to do something*); *the salt of the earth* (*a very honest person*); *the straight and narrow* (*an honest way of living*). Its poetry influenced many English writers in the centuries that followed.

As well as taking a huge number of new words, English developed in other ways too. People began to use auxiliary *do* with a main verb. For example, you could say *I know not* or *I do not know*. You could say *I know* or *I do know*. And you could say *know you?* or *do you know?* In the 17<sup>th</sup> century,

it became more common to use *do* with a main verb in questions and negative sentence, and to leave it out of positive sentences. Another verb change was the ending of the third person singular in the present tense. By the 1700 the **-th** ending was no longer used and all verbs took *-s*; for example **loveth** was now *loves*.

Pronouns also changed a little. In 1500 the word **ye** was used as well as *you*, but by 1700 it had disappeared. And a new pronoun appeared: *its* replaced **his** to talk about inanimate things. (*The chair's leg* was now *its leg* not *his leg*).

Changes in pronunciation were continually taking place. From the middle of the 15<sup>th</sup> century the long vowels /ɑ:/, /ɪ:/ and /u:/ began to change. For example, in Chaucer's time the word *life* (**lyf**) was pronounced /lɪ:f/ and this became /leɪf/ and then /laɪf/ by the 18<sup>th</sup> century. Similar changes occurred to *house*, which was /hu:s/ in Chaucer's time. After two changes, it finally arrived at its modern pronunciation /haus/.

The Elizabethans pronounced the letters *-er-* as /ɑ:/, for example, *serve* as /sa:v/. This pronunciation remains in names such as *Derby* /da:bi/ and *Berkshire* /ba:kʃə/.

Sounds in some other words disappeared: the /k/ or /w/ at the beginning of words were lost, for example *knee* and *write* were now pronounced as they are pronounced today. The pronunciation of /t/ in *castle* and the /l/ in *would* disappeared. But the spelling of all these words did not change and so they do not match their modern pronunciation.

The big growth in vocabulary and the flowering of literature happened when Britain was politically quite peaceful. However, in the middle of the 17<sup>th</sup> century, this peace was destroyed, and the changes that followed had some interesting effects on the language.

## 7.7. Bringing Order to English

The great growth in new words between 1530 and 1660 (the fastest in the history of the language) left people uncertain. What was happening to the language? If so many foreign and new-formed words kept on being added to it, would it remain English?

In 1635 the Académie of Française was created to control changes in the French language. Some people in England also wanted to create an official organization to control the English language. One of these people was the writer

Jonathan Swift, who wanted to 'fix' the language by making grammar rules, forbidding some words, making others correct, and deciding on spelling.

The idea of 'fixing' the language never succeeded, partly because other people realized that changes in the language unavoidable. But it did make people think about the need for everyone to use the same spelling and grammar. As a result, different spelling guides, dictionaries and grammar books began to appear.

Although printing introduced some regularity in spelling, in the 16<sup>th</sup> century spelling remained very varied, even for personal names. For example, there are six known examples of Shakespeare's name that he wrote himself, and in each one he spelt his name differently. People invented their own spellings, which usually showed their own pronunciation. Other variations were introduced to show that words came from Latin. For example, the *c* was added to *scissors* to follow the Latin spelling, *cisorium*. In the end, this freedom to change spelling led to confusion.

It is worth mentioning that one of the habits that Swift hated was that of shortening words. In the 17<sup>th</sup> century people often shortened words; for example, *extraordinary* was shortened to *extra* (abbreviation).

In the late 17<sup>th</sup> century, capital letters were used for all or most nouns, but in the next century this was seen as unnecessary.

In the 17<sup>th</sup> century, the appearance of the first English dictionaries slowly brought about more regularity in spelling. During the 18<sup>th</sup> century, ways of spelling that differed from the dictionaries were seen to be incorrect and a sign of bad education or stupidity.

The first English - English dictionary, which appeared in 1604, was a collection of about three thousand '**hard English wordes**'. Similar collections followed, and in the 18<sup>th</sup> century dictionary writers began to try to include more everyday words, not just difficult ones.

In 1755 Samuel Johnson produced *A Dictionary of the English Language*, and it was an immediate success. Johnson's choice of words was wide, and he showed how each word was used by giving examples from literature.

The dictionary was not perfect: sometimes Johnson's explanations were harder to understand than the words themselves, some expressed his personal opinions, and some words were not included because he did not like them. Also, he could not fit in all of his examples, so there were not as many examples for the words at the end of the dictionary as there were for

those at the beginning. However, it remained the most important English dictionary in Britain for more than a century.

Guidance with vocabulary and spelling came from dictionaries; guidance with grammar came from various 'grammars'. These grammar books first appeared in the 17<sup>th</sup> century, and in the 18<sup>th</sup> century a huge number of them were produced. Many of them told the reader how to write and speak 'correctly', which really meant how to use the language in the same way as in serious pieces of literature. They were widely used because people wanted to be seen as educated, and so be socially accepted.

The grammarians writing these books considered the grammar of much ordinary spoken language and of regional dialects (especially Scots) to be wrong and believed that the grammar of English should be the same as that of Latin. For example, they thought that a sentence should not end with a preposition because in Latin it did not. For example, it would be correct to say *I like the town in which I live*, but not *I like the town which I live in*.

Although some people continue to believe that there is only one 'correct' grammar of English, many others believe that all varieties of English are 'correct'. Some grammarians write grammar books very differently today, too; they write descriptions of how English is actually used, instead of telling us how we should speak or write.

## I. ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

1. Name the Stuart kings and queens.
2. What were the main causes of the conflict between King and Parliament in the mid-17<sup>th</sup> century?
3. In what war was the battle of Naseby fought?
4. Who are Cavaliers and Roundheads?
5. Why are the events of 1642 - 1649 sometimes referred to as the Puritan revolution? What were its results?
6. What period in English history is called the Protectorate?
7. Why are the events of 1689 called either the Glorious, the Bloodless or the Unexpected revolution? What were the consequences?
8. What does the term "Restoration" stand for?
9. What was Sir Robert Walpole?

## II. DEFINE THE FOLLOWING TERMS

Protestantism, Puritanism, the Pilgrim Fathers, Royalists, Roundheads, the New Model Army, Restoration, Bloodless Revolution, the Great Fire, the Great Plague, the Whigs, the Tories, the Act of Settlement, the Bill of Rights.

### *Lecture 8*

#### **8.1. Industrial Revolution**

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

By the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, some families had made huge private fortunes. Growing merchant banks helped people put this money to use.

Increased food production made it possible to feed large populations in the new towns. These populations were made up of the people who had lost their lands through enclosures and were looking for work. They now needed to buy things they had never needed before. As landless workers these people had to buy food, clothing and everything they needed. This created an opportunity to make and sell more goods than ever before. The same landless people who needed these things also became the workers who made them.

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

By the 1740s the main problem holding back industrial growth was fuel. There was less wood, and in any case wood could not produce the heat necessary to make iron and steel either in large quantities or of high quality. But at this time the use of coal for changing iron ore into good quality iron or steel was perfected, and this made Britain the leading iron producer in Europe.

Increased iron production made it possible to manufacture new machinery for other industries. No one saw it more clearly than *John Wilkinson*, who built the largest ironworks in the country. He built the world's first iron



bridge, over the River Severn, in 1779. He also saw the first iron boat made. He built an iron chapel for the new Methodist religious sect, and was himself buried in an iron coffin. Wilkinson was also quick to see the value of new inventions. When *James Watt* made a greatly improved steam engine in 1769, Wilkinson improved it further by making parts of the engine more accurately with his special skills in ironworking. Until then steam engines had only been used for pumping, usually in coal mines. But in 1781 Watt produced an engine with a turning motion, made of iron and steel. It was a vital development because people were now no longer dependent on natural power.

One invention led to another, and increased production in one area led to increased production in others. Other basic materials of the industrial revolution were cotton and woolen cloth, which were popular abroad. In the middle of the century other countries were buying British uniforms, equipment and weapons for their armies. To meet this increased demand, better methods of production had to be found, and new machinery was invented which replaced handwork. In 1764 a spinning machine was invented which could do the work of several hand spinners, and other improved machines were made shortly after. In 1785 a power machine for weaving revolutionized cloth making. It allowed Britain to make cloth more cheaply than elsewhere, and Lancashire cotton cloths were sold in every continent. But the machinery put many people out of work. It also changed what had been a “cottage industry” done at home into a factory industry, where workers had to keep work hours and rules set down by factory owners.

In the Midlands, factories using locally found clay began to develop very quickly, and produced fine quality plates, cups and other china goods. The most famous factory was one started by *Josiah Wedgwood*. His high quality bone china became very popular, as it still is.

The cost of such goods was made cheaper than ever by improved transport during the 18<sup>th</sup> century. New waterways were dug between towns, and transport by these canals was cheaper than transport by land. Roads, still used mainly by people rather than by goods, were also improved during the century. York, Manchester and Exeter were three days’ travel from London in 1720s, but by the 1780s they could be reached in little over twenty-four hours. Along these main roads, the coaches stopped for fresh horses in order to keep up their speed. It was rapid road travel and cheap transport by canal that made possible the economic success of the industrial revolution.

Soon Britain was not only exporting cloth to Europe. It was also importing raw cotton from its colonies and exporting finished cotton cloth to sell to those same colonies.

The social effects of the industrial revolution were enormous. Workers tried to join together to protect themselves against powerful employers. They wanted fair wages and reasonable conditions in which to work. But the government quickly banned these “combinations”, as the workers’ societies were known. Riots occurred, led by the unemployed who had been replaced by machines. In 1799 some of these rioters, known as Luddites, started to break up the machinery which had put them out of work. The government supported the factory owners, and made the breaking of machinery punishable by death. The government was afraid of a revolution like the one in France.

## **8.2. Revolution in France and the Napoleonic Wars**

France’s neighbours only slowly realized that its revolution in 1789 could be dangerous for them.

In France the revolution had been made by the “bourgeoisie”, or middle class, leading the peasants and urban working classes. In England the bourgeoisie and gentry had acted together for centuries in the House of Commons, and had become the most powerful class in Britain in the 17<sup>th</sup> century. They had no sympathy with French revolutionaries, and were frightened by the danger of “awaking” the working class.

The French revolution had created fear all over Europe. The British government was so afraid that revolution would spread to Britain that it imprisoned radical leaders. It was particularly frightened that the army would be influenced by revolutionary ideas. Until then, soldiers had always lived in inns and private homes. Now the government built army camps, where soldiers could live separated from ordinary people. The government also brought together yeomen and gentry who supported the ruling establishment and trained them as soldiers. The government claimed that these “yeomanry” forces were created in case of a French attack. This may have been true, but they were probably useless against an enemy army, and they were used to prevent revolution by the poor and discontented.

As an island, Britain was in less danger, and as a result was slower than 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 European countries were defeated by Napoleon, and most of Europe fell under Napoleon's control.

Britain decided to fight France at sea because it had a stronger navy, and because its own survival depended on control of its trade routes. 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 the Cape Trafalgar in 1805, where he destroyed the joint French-Spanish fleet. Nelson was himself killed at Trafalgar, but became one of Britain's greatest national heroes.

In the same year as Trafalgar, in 1805, a British army landed in Portugal to fight the French. The army was 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 from St Helena Island 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.

### 8.3. The British Empire

Although called "British", the Empire was dominated by England. The credit for the first usage of the word "British" is usually given to Doctor John Dee, Queen Elizabeth I's astrologer, alchemist, and mathematician.

The **British Empire**, in the early decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, ruled over a population of 400 – 500 million people – then roughly a quarter of the world's population – and covered nearly 30 million square kilometers, roughly 40% of the world's land area. Its territories were scattered across every continent and ocean, and it was described with some truth as "the empire on which the sun never sets". Its peak was reached in the **1890s** and **1900s**. The independence of the USA (1776) was the only major hiccup in its growth.

The empire facilitated the spread of the British technology, commerce, language and government around much of the globe. Imperial dominance contributed to Britain's extraordinary economic growth, and greatly strengthened its voice in world affairs.

From the perspective of the colonies, the record of the British Empire is

mixed. The colonies received from Britain the English language, and administrative and legal framework on the British model, and technological and economic development.

Britain's empire had first been built on trade and the need to defend this 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 most shameful events in British colonial history.

In Africa, Britain's first interest had been the slave trade on the west coast. It then took over the Cape of Good Hope at the southern point, because it needed a port there to service the sea route to India.

Britain's interest in Africa was increased by reports sent back by European travellers and explorers. The most famous of these was David Livingstone, who was a Scottish doctor, a Christian missionary and an explorer. In many ways, Livingstone was a "man of his age". No one could doubt his courage, or his honesty. His journeys from the east coast into "darkest" Africa excited the British. They greatly admired him. Livingstone discovered areas of Africa unknown to Europeans, and "opened" these areas to Christianity, to European ideas and to European trade.

Christianity too easily became a tool for building a commercial and political empire in Africa. The governments of Europe rushed in to take what they could, using the excuse of bringing "civilization" to the people. The rush for land became so great that European countries agreed by treaty in 1890 to divide Africa into "areas of interest". By the end of the century, several European countries had taken over large areas of Africa. Britain succeeded in taking most.

The real problems of British imperial ambition, however, were most obvious in Egypt. Britain, anxious about the safety of the route to India through the newly dug Suez Canal, bought a large number of shares in the Suez Canal Company.

When Egyptian nationalists brought down the ruler in 1882, Britain invaded "to protect international shipping". In fact, it acted to protect its imperial interest, its route to India. Britain told the world its occupation of

Egypt was only for a short time, but it did not leave until forced to do so in 1954.

There was another reason for the interest in creating colonies. From the 1830s there had been growing concern at the rapidly increasing population of Britain. A number of people called for the development of colonies for British settlers as an obvious solution to the problem. As a result, there was marked increase in settlement in Canada, Australia and New Zealand from the 1840s onwards.

The white colonies, unlike the others, were soon allowed to govern themselves, and no longer depended on Britain. They still, however, accepted the British monarch as their head of state.

By the end of the nineteenth century Britain controlled the oceans and much of the land areas of the world. Most British strongly believed in their right to an empire, and were willing to defend it against the least threat.

But even at this moment of greatest power, Britain had begun to spend more on its empire than it took from it. The empire had started to be a heavy load. It would become impossibly heavy in the twentieth century, when the colonies finally began to demand their freedom.

During **decolonialisation**, Britain wanted to pass parliamentary democracy and rule of law to its colonies, with varying degrees of success. Almost all former British colonies have since chosen to join **the Commonwealth of Nations**, the association that replaced the Empire in 1931 by the Statute of Westminster, based on the decision made at the 1926 Imperial Conference. All member states recognized the British king or queen as head of the Commonwealth, though he or she is not necessarily the head of each individual state.

## 8.4. The Victorian Age (1837 – 1901)

Princess **Alexandrina Victoria** was not only born to be queen of England: she was conceived to be Queen. When Princess Charlotte, the daughter of the Prince of Wales, the future *George IV* (1820 – 1830) died in childbirth in 1817, *William IV*, the Duke of Clarence (1830 – 1837), duly married a German princess but no child of his survived early infancy. Then **Edward**, Duke of Kent, married the widowed **Victoria**, Duchess of Amorbac. When she became pregnant, she left Germany to give birth on English soil to establish unquestionable testimony for the child's likely inheritance. On **May**

**24, 1819** at Kensington Palace the future queen was born. The new princess was christened a month later, with none of usual royal names. Since the Russian tsar Alexander I was godfather his name was available. But she had always been known as Victoria, and so was proclaimed.

Edward, Victoria's father, died in **January 1820** only six days before his own father, George III.

In 1837 Queen Victoria (1819 – 1901) came to rule when her uncle William IV died.

In **1839** Victoria met a German, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and fell in love. She proposed (he could not, as she was Queen) and they married in **February 1840**. When Victoria became so visibly pregnant that she could not appear ceremonially, Albert assumed her functions. He established himself as her primary advisor. (They had 9 children.)

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

Encouraged by Prince Albert, Victoria came into conflict with Prime Minister Palmerston. In 1854 the **Crimean War** broke out, and Great Britain was involved in it on the side of the Ottoman Turkish Empire against Russia in order to stop Russian expansion into Asiatic Turkey in the Black Sea area. Prince Albert had supported the policy of preventing the war while Palmerston was given the parliamentary support as the only Prime Minister capable of winning the war, and the Queen was compelled to accept him as Prime Minister in 1855. Palmerston became the symbol of British superiority in everything: in fights, in trade, in politics.

The Crimean War revealed the courage of ordinary soldiers and the incompetence of the command. Newspapers reported the shocking conditions in the army hospitals, the terrible organization of supplies: a load of army boots sent out from Britain turned out to be for the left foot. The war solved nothing but it brought a glory to the remarkable work of Florence Nightingale, "the lady with the lamp", who organized hospitals and treatment of the wounded.

When Albert at the age of 42 died (**1861**) Victoria wore black clothes for the next 40 years as a sign of her great sadness. After Albert's death Victoria 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 monarchy. Many radicals actually believed the end of monarchy was bound to happen as a result of democracy. However, the queen's advisors persuaded her to take more public interest in the business of kingdom. She did so, and she soon became extraordinary popular.

One more step back to popularity was the publication in 1868 of the queen's books *Our life in the Highlands*. The book was the queen's own diary, with drawings, of her 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 private life of the monarch, and they enjoyed being able to share it. The Queen also wrote about her servants as if they were members of her family.

The increasing democratic British respected the example of family life which the queen had given them, and shared its moral and religious values. But she also touched people's hearts. She succeeded in showing a newly industrialized nation that the monarchy was a connection with a glorious history. In spite of the efforts of earlier monarchs to stop the spread of democracy, the monarchy was now, quite suddenly, out of danger. It was never safer than it had lost most of its political power.

During Victoria's last years, the UK was involved in the 2 Boer Wars, which received the support of the Queen. These wars resulted in the victory of the British over the Dutch settlers in Southern Africa, the liquidation of 2 independent republics they had founded and the incorporation of the territories into the British Empire.

The 1880s and 1890s were the years of Victoria increasing visibility as symbol of Britain and of Empire. When Victoria died at Osborne House on the Isle of Wight, on the 22<sup>nd</sup> of January 1901, she was the matriarch of European royalty, had transformed the standing of the monarchy, and had made it the single most obvious link holding together the world's largest empire – by the 1890<sup>th</sup>, one person in four on earth was a subject of Queen Victoria. Her name is synonymous with the 19<sup>th</sup> century in style as in achievement.

It is worth mentioning that at the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century some sciences did not exist at any formal sense and that others were changing their nature.

The 19<sup>th</sup> century is remarkable for its proliferation of new sciences and sub-sciences, which range from the study of earthquakes to the study of

rudimentary life forms. Organic chemistry became separated from the main body of chemistry in the early decades of the century, but some was linked with physiology about mid-century and transformed into biochemistry from about 1880.

The year 1858 saw the beginning of a revolution in the biological sciences. Two naturalists, Alfred Russel and Charles Darwin, simultaneously but independently arrived at the explanation which covered all the facts then known. They showed that species could have originated by natural selection that is by the survival of the fittest in the struggle for life. It was more than a technical hypothesis. It did away with the accepted ideas of the creation of the world and of man.

The new science and technology, as well as other movements of the period, were inevitably reflected in its literature: Huxley's agnosticism in the novels and poetry of Thomas Hardy, socialism in Morris's *News from Nowhere* and the early plays of Bernard Shaw, imperialism in the poetry of Kipling, while Oscar Wilde mocked middle-class standards, and the young H. G. Wells wrote optimistically about *The First Man in the Moon*. The poetry of the age was dominated by Tennyson and Browning – *In Memoriam* was published in 1850; Carlyle was writing his *Frederick the Great*, and Macaulay, a member of Russel's Government, his *History of England*. Wordsworth, living on into advanced old age, and coming to value the historic and the established, moved far away from his early enthusiasm. Coleridge, not quite a philosopher after he ceased to be an inspired poet, but still original and profound, worked out principles for a religious conservatism.

But the supreme literary achievement of the Victorian age is in its prose fiction. It is in the novels of Charles Dickens and George Eliot, Thackeray and Trollope, Charlotte and Emily Brontë and Hardy, that the creative strengths of the period are most powerfully concentrated. The novelists were encouraged in their task of imaginative recreation by the example of Sir Walter Scott and by the Romantic poets, especially Wordsworth.

Some writers, like the Brontë sisters, carried on the unadulterated romantic impulse; but many others, for instance, their own biographer Mrs. Gaskell, mingled it with social criticism and protest. John Ruskin made the middle classes aware of the arts and their history, and in the same books revealed the ugliness of industrialization and its cruelties. The greatest Victorian novelist Charles Dickens, a self-taught genius, not only awoke



among his contemporaries of every station sympathy for the down-trodden, but hit hard, if not always shrewdly, at the workhouses and the debtors' prisons, at religious and philanthropic cant and at the comfortable acceptance of social injustice.

Social concern had been anticipated by Sir Robert Owen who reached to conceptions of socialism and co-operation, but it was socialism which took no account of class, which based itself upon abstract ideas of right and justice and which dissipated itself into all kinds of projects for currency reform, ideal commonwealths and the almost miraculous establishment of the millennium. By 1834 Owen was at the height of his fame and he was welcomed as an ally by the working class leaders of the Union movement.

The 19<sup>th</sup> century was the great age of the reviews. The Whig *Edinburgh Review* dated from 1802. The Tory *Quarterly* began in 1809.

It was also the great age of philosophy and linguistics. The historical and comparative model of research provided by Sir William Jones, who in 1786 had suggested that the similarities between Sanskrit, Latin and Greek pointed to a common source, was very productive during the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Comparative language studies, philology ran parallel with anthropology in certain respects. In a series of lectures given at the Royal Institution in 1861 F. Max Müller proclaimed a single ultimate origin for the world's languages. A more elaborate use of ethnology and philology is apparent in Matthew Arnold's lectures on '*The Study of Celtic Literature*'. Celtic literature served to bring together a number of fundamental Victorian concerns – origins, myths, the unity yet diversity of culture, the 'genius' or spirit of people. Arnold's analysis of 'the composite English genius' was structured by contemporary ideas of affinity, gradation, speciation, hybridism and, above all, the hope of 'a new type, more intelligent, more gracious, and more humane' that there was in Tennyson.

In general, authors and scholars of the remarkable 19<sup>th</sup> century were variously inspired, fascinated and appalled by the Britain's triumph in all spheres of life and its general recognition all over the world.

## **8.5. World War I and the “Post –War” Years**

At the start of the twentieth century Britain was still the greatest world power. By the middle of the century, although still one of the "Big Three", Britain was clearly weaker than either the United States or the Soviet Union.

By the end of the seventies Britain was no longer a world power at all, and was not even among the richest European powers. Its power had ended as quickly as Spain's had done in the seventeenth century.

One reason for this sudden decline was the cost and the effect of two world wars. Another reason was the cost of keeping up the empire, followed by the economic problems involved in losing it. But the most important reason was the basic weakness in Britain's industrial power, and particularly its failure to spend as much as other industrial nations in developing its industry.

**World War I**, also known as *the First World War*, *the Great War*, *the War of the Nations*, and the "*War to End All Wars*", was a world conflict occurring from **1914 to 1918**. No previous conflict had mobilized so many soldiers or involved so many in the field of battle. Chemical weapons were used for the first time; the first mass bombardment of civilians from the sky was executed. The danger of war with Germany had been clear from the beginning of the century, and it was this which had 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's army was small, but its size seemed less important than its quality. In any case, no one believed that war in Europe, if it happened, would last more than six months.

By 1914 an extremely dangerous situation had developed. Germany and Austria-Hungary had a military alliance. Russia and France, frightened of German ambitions, had made one also. Although Britain had no treaty with France, in practice it had no choice but to stand by France if it was attacked by Germany.

A dreadful chain of events took place. In July 1914 Austria-Hungary declared war on its neighbour Serbia following the murder of a senior Austrian Archduke in Sarajevo. Because Russia had promised to defend Serbia, it declared war on Austria-Hungary. Because of Germany's promise to stand by Austria-Hungary, Russia also found itself at war with Germany. France, Russia's ally, immediately made its troops ready, recognizing that the events in Serbia would lead inevitably to war with Germany. Britain still

hoped that it would not be dragged into war, but realized only a miracle could prevent it. No miracle occurred.

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 went to war also because it feared that Germany's ambitions, like Napoleon's over a century earlier, would completely change the map of Europe. In particular Britain could not allow a major enemy to control the Low Countries.

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

Apart from the Crimean War, this was Britain's first European war for a century, and the country was quite unprepared for the terrible destructive power of modern weapons. At first all those who joined the army were volunteers. But in 1916 the government forced men to join the army whether they wanted or not. Modern artillery and machine guns had completely changed the nature of war. The invention of the tank and its use on the battlefield to break through the enemy trenches in 1917 could have changed the course of the war.

In the Middle East the British fought against Turkish troops in Iraq and in Palestine, and at Gallipoli, on the Dardanelles. There, too, there were many casualties, but many of them were caused by sickness and heat. It was not until 1917 that the British were really able to drive back the Turks.

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.

The war at sea was more important than the war on land, because defeat at sea would have inevitably resulted in British surrender. From 1915 German submarines started to sink merchant ships bringing supplies to Britain. At the battle at Jutland, in 1916, Admiral Jellicoe successfully drove the German fleet back into harbour. If Germany's navy had destroyed the British fleet at Jutland, Germany would have gained control of the seas

around Britain, forcing Britain to surrender. In spite of this partial victory German submarines managed to sink 40 per cent of Britain's merchant fleet and at one point brought Britain to within six weeks of starvation.

When Russia, following the Bolshevik revolution of 1917, made peace with Germany, the German generals hoped for victory against the Allies. 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. But fighting associated with the war did not finally stop until **1923**.

In 1919 France and Britain met in Versailles to discuss peace. Germany was not invited to the conference, but was forced to accept its punishment, which was extremely severe. The most famous British economist of the time, John Maynard Keynes, argued that it was foolish to punish the Germans, for Europe's economic and political recovery could not take place without them. But his advice was not accepted.

In Britain the war led to significant extensions in the role and power of Government. By its end most of the major sectors of the British economy were under Government control, with new Ministries being created. The general democratizing effect of the war also led to major political and social changes. Women were employed as a reserve of labour in industry and agriculture to free men for the armed forces, as well as serving as nurses and support workers in the theatres of war. The war also raised the number of Trade Union members and the living standards of the unskilled and semi-skilled workers.

The mobilization of the Home Front and creation of the mass armies of the World War were the greatest achievements in the British history.

The full fruits of victory did not, however, go to Britain and France. Entering the War late, the USA secured the maximum profits with the minimum damage and emerged with a vastly strengthened economic machine. The years after 1918 saw a growing antagonism between the two countries.

The war had a shocking effect on Britain. About 750 000 members of the British armed forces died. German submarines sank about 7 million tons of British shipping. The war also created severe economic problems for Britain and shook its position as a world power.

In the 20s of the XX century Britain faced many economic problems.

In 1926 discontent led to a general strike by all workers. The reasons for

the strike were complicated, but the immediate cause was a coalminers' strike. An earlier miners' strike in 1921 had been defeated and the men had returned to work bitterly disappointed with the mine owners' terms. In 1925 mine owners cut miners' wages and another miners' strike seemed inevitable. Fearing that this would seriously damage the economy, the government made plans to make sure of continued coal supplies. Both sides, the government and the Trade Union Congress (representing the miners in this case), found themselves unwillingly driven into opposing positions, which made a general strike inevitable.

The general strike ended after nine days, partly because members of the middle classes 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". The miners struggled on alone and then gave up the strike. Many workers, especially the miners, believed that the police, whose job was to keep the law, were actually fighting against them. Whether or not this was true, many people remembered the general strike with great bitterness. These memories influenced their opinion of employers, government and the police for half a century.

In the 1930s the British economy started to recover, especially in the Midlands and the south. This could be seen in the enormous number of small houses which were being built along main roads far into the countryside.

This new kind of development depended on Britain's growing motor industry. In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, towns had been changed by the building of new homes near the railway. Now the country around the towns changed as many new houses were built along main roads suitable for motoring. Middle-class people moved out even further to quieter new suburbs, each of which was likely to have its own shops and a cinema. Unplanned suburbs grew especially quickly around London, where the underground railway system, the "tube", had spread out into the country. It seemed as if everyone's dream was to live in suburbia.

Economic recovery resulted partly from the danger of another war. By 1935 it was clear that Germany, under its new leader Adolf Hitler, was preparing to regain its position in Europe. Britain had done nothing to increase its fighting strength since 1918 because public opinion in Britain had been against war. The government suddenly had to rebuild its armed forces, and this meant investing a large amount of money in heavy industry. By 1937

British industry was producing weapons, aircraft and equipment for war, with the help of money from the United States.

## 8.6. World War II and the “Post-War” Years

German troops marched into Poland on **September 1, 1939** and the war that **Winston Churchill** had so publicly foreseen had begun. On **September 3**, Great Britain and France declared war on Germany. **Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain** at once named Winston Churchill **first Lord of the Admiralty**, the same post he had held in World War I.

Chamberlain's government fell in **1940** after various military setbacks. On **May 10**, **King George VI** asked W. Churchill to form a new government. At the age of **66**, W. Churchill became Prime Minister of the UK.

In **July 1940** the German Luftwaffe (air forces) began to bomb British shipping and ports, and in **September** they began nightly raids on London. The Royal Air Forces (RAF) fought bravely and finally defeated the Luftwaffe.

While the battle raged, W. Churchill turned up everywhere. He defied air-raid alarms and went into the streets as the bombs fell. He toured RAF headquarters, inspected coastal defenses, and visited victims of the air raids. Everywhere he went he held up 2 fingers in a “**V for victory**” salute. To the people of the Allied nations this simple gesture became an inspiring symbol of faith in victory. *(It's very important to note that the victory salute is with the palm outwards. If the symbol is made with the back of the hand showing, it is an obscene gesture in Br.)*

The **USA** entered the war after Japan attacked Pearl Harbour on **December 7, 1941**. In **August 1942**, W. Churchill met with Soviet leader Joseph Stalin, who demanded that, the British open a second fighting front in Western Europe to relieve the strain on the Soviet Union. W. Churchill refused saying that it would be disastrous to open a second front in 1942 because the Allies were unprepared.

Only on **June 6, 1944** the long-awaited Second Front was opened in Normandy. It was the start of the liberation of France.

In **February 1945** the “**Big Three**” met in **Yalta**, the USSR. The end of the war in Europe was in sight. The three leaders agreed on plans to occupy defeated Germany. Germany capitulated on **May 7, 1945**. The Soviet Union agreed to join the United Nations and to enter the war against Japan in return for territorial gains in Manchuria.

In **July 1945** the “Big Three” (Winston Churchill, Harry Truman and Joseph Stalin) met in **Potsdam**, Germany to discuss the administration of Germany. But W. Churchill’s presence at the meeting was cut short. He had lost his post as Prime Minister. An election had been held in Britain, and the **Conservative Party**, led by W. Churchill lost the election of **1945**.

*But W. Churchill became Prime Minister again **from 1951 to 1955**, when he retired at the age of 80. He was made a knight in **1953**, the same year in which he won the Nobel Prize for literature. Churchill was also a skillful painter. He was often referred to simply as “Winnie” and is remembered with great affection in both UK and the USA. In **1963** Congress made him an honorary US citizen. When Churchill died in **January 1965** he was given a state funeral.*

Britain’s experience of World War II was less hard than in the World War I. The UK lost 360.000 people. Great sections of London, most of Coventry and other cities had been ruined by bombs. The war had destroyed the economy, and the UK had piled up huge debts. The USA and the USSR came out of the war as the world’s most powerful nations.

**Clement Attlee** became Prime Minister in July 26, 1945, and the **Labour Party** stayed in power until 1951. During these 6 years the UK became a **welfare state**. The nation’s security system was expanded to provide welfare to the people “from the cradle to the grave”. The Labour Government began to nationalize industry by putting private business under public control. The nationalized industries included the Bank of England, the coalmines, the iron and steel industries, the railways, gas, roads, electricity and water.

After World War II the peoples of Africa and Asia increased their demand for independence. In **1947 India and Pakistan** became independent nations within the Commonwealth. In **1948 Ceylon** (now Sri Lanka) became an independent commonwealth country. In the same year **Burma** achieved independence. In 1949 the **Republic of Ireland** (Irish Free State) also left commonwealth, and **Newfoundland** became a province of Canada.

While the UK was breaking up its empire, other nations of Western Europe joined together in various organizations to unite economically and politically. The UK was reluctant to join them. Throughout history, the UK preferred to stay out of European affairs. By joining the new organization, the UK feared it might lose some of its independence, and would also be turning its back on the Commonwealth.

The UK joined **NATO** (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) in 1950.

In the 1950s the UK refused to join the **European Economic Community** (EEC), which was established in 1957, and which eventually became the European Union (EU). After EEC showed signs of succeeding, the UK set up the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) with six other nations. But it was only a mild success, and the UK later regretted its refusal to join the EEC.

In the 1970 elections, the Conservative Party regained control of the Government. **Edward Heath** became Prime Minister. In 1971 agreement was reached on terms for the UK's entry into the EEC. The UK joined the EEC in **1973**.

In **1979 Margaret Thatcher**, the Conservative Party leader became the Prime Minister. She became the 1<sup>st</sup> woman ever to hold the office. As Prime Minister, M. Thatcher worked to reduce government involvement in the economy. She believed that the state should not interfere in business, and privatized many industries that had been owned by the state. She reduced the power of the Trade Unions by a series of laws, and defeated the miners in the miners' strike in 1985. She also encouraged people not to rely on the welfare state, and instead to pay for their own health care, education and pensions.

People were often critical of Mrs. Thatcher's policies, and blamed her for the decline of many British industries and high unemployment. However she was seen as a very determined and patriotic Prime Minister, and she became especially popular after the **Falklands War** (1982, Argentine forces capitulated). Because of this she was often referred to as the "**Iron Lady**".

After winning 3 general elections, Thatcher was forced to resign in 1991 by members of her own party who criticized her attitude to the European Union. **John Major** succeeded her as Prime Minister. M. Thatcher was made a life peer in 1992 and is still a well-known public figure.

In **1997** the Labour Party, led by **Tony Blair**, got the victory at the general elections, and it was the ending of the Conservative Party's 18-year period in government.

In June 2007 **Gordon Brown** became Prime Minister, after the resignation of Tony Blair and three days after becoming leader of the governing Labour Party. Immediately before this he had served as Chancellor of the Exchequer in the Labour Government from 1997 to 2007 under Tony Blair. His tenure ended in May 2010, when he resigned as Prime Minister and Leader of the Labour Party.



In the 2010 general election held on 6 May, the Conservatives gained a plurality of seats in a hung parliament and **David Cameron** was appointed Prime Minister on **11 May 2010**, at the head of a coalition between the Conservatives and the Liberal Democrats. At the age of 43, D. Cameron became the youngest British Prime Minister since the Earl of Liverpool 198 years earlier. The Cameron Ministry is the first coalition government in the United Kingdom since the Second World War.

### **I. ANSWER THE QUESTIONS.**

1. Who were the two British heroes of the war against Napoleon?
2. What were the main features of Victorian society and government?
3. What was the role of Prince Albert in British history?
4. What was the Boer War?
5. What were the effects of World War I on British society?
6. What were the main effects of World War II?
7. What is a Welfare state? When was it created? What does the term "Welfare" mean today?
8. Why was Thatcher's period in office called a revolution? What did she mean when she proclaimed a return to Victorian values?
9. What are the relations
  - a. of the UK and EU?
  - b. of the UK and the Commonwealth?
  - c. of the UK and the USA now?

### **II. WHAT EVENTS ARE THESE NAMES ASSOCIATED WITH?**

Alexandrina Victoria, Prince Albert, Florence Nightingale, Neville Chamberlain, Winston Churchill, Clement Attlee, Margaret Thatcher, John Mayer, Tony Blair, Gordon Brown, David Cameron.

## ***Lecture 9***

### **9.1. Modern English**

If speakers of English from 1800 were able to speak to those from 2000, they would notice some differences in grammar and pronunciation, but not very many. The main difficulty for the nineteenth-century speakers would be in understanding the huge number of new words.

The discoveries and inventions in all areas of science in the last two hundred years led to new words for machines, materials, plants, animals, stars, diseases and medicine, and new expressions for scientific ideas. The spread of English around the world, and easier and faster communication, have resulted in the creation of thousands of other new words. About 100000 new words have entered the language in the last hundred years – more than ever before.

Here are some examples of these new words, with the date when each word appeared in writing. Most new words (about two-thirds) have been made by combining two old words: *fingerprint* (1859), *airport* (1919), *streetwise* (1965). The recent development in computers has introduced many of this type: *online* (1950), *user-friendly* (1977), and *download* (1980). Some new words have been made from Latin and Greek; for example, *photograph* (1839), *helicopter* (1872), *aeroplane* (1874), *video* (1958). Others are old words that have been given new meanings. For example, *pilot* (1907) was first used to refer to a person who directs the path of ships, and *cassette* (1960) used to mean a small box. About five percent of new words have come from foreign languages. For example, *disco* (1964) has come from French and *pizza* (1935) from Italian. And a few words have developed from the names of things we buy: for example, *coke* (1909) from *Coca-Cola*, and *walkman* (1981) from *Sony Walkman*.

Beginnings or endings have been added to make new words: *disinformation* (1955) is false information; *touchy-feely* (1972) describes people who express their feelings by touching others. Sometimes both a beginning and an ending have been added: for example, *unputdownable* (1947) describes a book which is so interesting that you cannot stop reading it. Some words have been shortened: *photo* (1860) for *photograph*; *plane* (1908) for *aeroplane*; *telly* (1940) and *TV* (1948) for *television*. Some words first appeared as slang before they joined the main language; for example, *boss* (1923) was an American slang word meaning *manager* in the seventeenth century. Some

words have combined sounds from two other words: for example, *smog* (1905), used to describe the bad air in cities, is made from *smoke* and *fog*. Only a few words have not been created from other words. Two examples are *nylon* (1938) to describe a man-made material, and *flip-flop* (1970), a type of shoe that makes a noise as you walk.

The growth in vocabulary is clear when we look at the making of the *Oxford English Dictionary* (*OED*) in the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries. This dictionary includes all English words since 1150 (even those that are no longer used). It shows, with examples, when each word was first used in writing and how the meaning of a word has changed over the centuries.

Finding all this information was a huge job, although no one realized at the beginning exactly *how* huge. James Murray, a forty-two-year-old Scot, was appointed as the director of work on the dictionary in 1879, and the aim was to finish the job in ten years. He organized an enormous reading programme: hundreds of ordinary people sent him examples of how words were used. After five years, the first part of the dictionary was produced, but it only covered the letters A – ANT. Everyone realized that this was going to take a lot longer than ten years to finish. In fact, it took another forty-four. Sadly Murray did not live to see its completion: he died in 1915, working on the letter *U*. However, he knew that he had helped to create a dictionary which would provide an accurate history of the development of the English language.

The first *OED* was completed in 1928 and had a total of 414800 words; over ten times the 41000 words in Johnson's dictionary of 1755. Of course, Johnson's dictionary did not include every word in use, but the comparison is still interesting. The second *OED*, produced in 1989, explains the meaning of 615100 words. It includes more scientific words and words from North America, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, the Caribbean, India and Pakistan. However, the *OED* does not include many spoken words, slang words or words from non-British kinds of English. Some people think that there are probably a million different words and expressions in English today.

The spread of new words in the twentieth century was made possible by newspapers, radio, television, films, pop music and the Internet. These ways of communication can reach huge numbers of people. Television and radio have also influenced pronunciation.

In the 1920s the BBC chose a particular accent of the upper classes of south-east England. It became known as 'Received Pronunciation' ('RP'), or

‘the King’s English’. The use of RP on radio and television meant that more people heard it and connected it with social importance. It was not acceptable to use strong regional accents on television or radio, or in professions such as teaching or politics. However, in 1960s social differences began to break down, and regional accents became more acceptable everywhere. And as the number of radio and television programmes grew, more presenters with different accents had to be employed.

Today RP is no longer a particularly important accent and people in Britain are now used to hearing all kinds of accents on radio and television. Different pronunciations, words and expressions can now travel faster and further.

## 9.2. English in America

“England and America are two countries separated by the same language,” wrote George Bernard Shaw in 1942. Is this true today? Do Americans speak a different kind of English? If so, why?

American English developed from languages used by different people who came to the New World. The first English settlers created new words for the animals, birds and plants that were new to them. Sometimes they created new words from other English words, such as *backwoods* (a forest with few people), *bluegrass* (a kind of grass), and *catfish* (a kind of fish). They also named thousands of places and rivers using words from the languages of American Indians; for example, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Potomac. Occasionally they borrowed the words from French, Spanish and Dutch settlers. Some words began to have new meanings, and to replace older words, for example, *bill* came to mean *a piece of paper money*, and replaced *note*.

Some words from the English of the 17<sup>th</sup> century live on in American English although they are no longer used in British English. For example, *fall* meaning *autumn*, *mad* meaning *angry*, *platter* for *dish* and *gotten* as the past participle of *got* (as in *Your dinner has gotten cold.*).

Modern American English pronunciation also shows the influence of the first settlers. They pronounced the *a* in *grass* /æ/, as in *hat*, because the long /a:/ only began to be used in England in the 18<sup>th</sup> century. This short /æ/ is part of American pronunciation today. Americans also pronounce /r/ at the end of words (for example *car*) and before a consonant (for example *hard*) as the early settlers did.

As the settlers moved west, they invented many colourful expressions, which are now part of British English too; for example, *to face the music* (to accept the unpleasant results of your actions), *to kick the bucket* (to die), *to keep one's shirt on* (to not get angry), and *hot under the collar* (angry). Some expressions show the influence of the railroad: *to go off the rails* (to behave strangely), and *to reach the end of the line* (to be unable to do any more without something).

American English has borrowed only a few words from all the different languages spoken by American settlers. The main reason for this is social. Newcomers were anxious to become American, and they and their children learned English to do so. However, some words and expressions from other languages have found their way into American English. For example, *check* (a bill for food or drinks), and *kindergarten* (a place where very young children play and learn) have come from German; *pasta*, *spaghetti* and other words for food have come from Italian; from Yiddish, the language of the East European Jews, there are *schmuck* (a stupid person), and *schlep* (to pull, or a long, tiring journey).

African-Americans developed their own varieties of English which are all known today as African-American English. They influenced American English, especially in the 20<sup>th</sup> century when large numbers of African-Americans left the South and moved north. Some words that they brought to American English are *jazz*; *cool* (originally used by jazz musicians and now widely used to mean *fashionable, generally very good*); *hip* meaning *very modern and fashionable*; and *dude*, another word for *man*.

At the time of independence in 1776, Americans began to take an interest in their language. They wanted to be separated from Britain in every way, and to feel proud of their country and way of life. Someone who felt particularly proud of American English was a teacher called Noah Webster (1758 – 1843). In 1783 -5 Webster wrote a speller, a grammar and a reader for American schools. The speller was later sold as *The American Spelling Book*, and was hugely successful, selling more than eight million copies in the following one hundred years. With the money from its sales, Webster was able to write dictionaries. In these, he wanted to show that American English was as good as British English, and that Americans did not have to copy the British. His first dictionary appeared in 1806, followed by the famous *An American Dictionary of the English language* in 1828. This was longer than Johnson's dictionary (it explained about 70000 words) and so gave American English the same importance as British English in the minds of Americans.

Sixty year earlier, Benjamin Franklin had suggested many changes to English spelling, and his ideas influenced Webster. In both his dictionaries Webster suggested new spellings, and many of these now the accepted American spelling; for example, *center*, *color*, *traveled*. Webster also influenced American pronunciation by insisting that each part of a word must be clearly pronounced; far example, *se-cre-ta-ry* not *se-cre-t'rt*.

John Adams, the second president of the United States from 1797 to 1801, thought that English would be the language of the world in the future. In 1780 he wrote: "English [will] be in the next and succeeding centuries more generally the language of the world than Latin was in the last or French is in the present age."

So what are the differences between American and British English today? As well as differences in pronunciation, there are some small differences in grammar and spelling. But the main differences are in vocabulary. Thousands of words are used differently. For example, the bottom floor of a building is called the *first floor* in American English, and the *ground floor* in British English. You can walk in the *sidewalk* in America and the *pavement* in Britain.

There are also different expressions in American and British English. For example, the American expression *to drop the ball* (*to make a mistake*), *to be in the chips* (*to suddenly have a lot of money*) and *to go south* (*to become less valuable*) are not used in English. Similarly many British expressions are not part of American.

The American expression OK is probably short of *Oll Korrekt* (*All Correct*), which was used as a joke by some young people in Boston and New York in 1838. Then in 1840 one of the men who wanted to be president was known as Old Kinderhook. His followers created the Democratic O.K. club. They used OK to get support for their man (but he didn't become president).

Some British people dislike the influence of American English, but this has not stopped thousands of American words entering British English and becoming completely accepted; for example, *supermarket* (1933), *teenager* (1941) and *fast food* (1951).

Although there are clear differences between the British and American varieties of English, the huge popularity of television, pop music and films has helped people on both sides of the Atlantic to understand each other's English more easily.

### 9.3. All Kinds of English

*Dinna fash yourself. – Don't upset yourself.* (Scotland)

*They work hard, isn't it? – They work hard, don't they?* (Wales)

*I'm after seeing him – I've just seen him.* (Ireland)

*Y'all come here. – Come here everyone.* (southern states of America)

*It's a beaut! – It's wonderful.* (Australia)

*She sing real good. – She sings very well.* (Jamaica)

*I'm not knowing. – I don't know.* (India)

*Make you no min am. – Take no notice of him/her.* (Nigeria)

All over the world, people speaking English as a first or second language use different vocabulary, grammar and accents in a large number of varieties of English. A variety of English is any kind of English spoken by a particular group of people. In each English-speaking country one variety of English is used nationally for official purposes. This is the 'Standard English' of that country. It is taught in schools and broadcast on radio and television. The same grammar, vocabulary and spelling rules are used by everyone, although the country's Standard English may be spoken with different accents. Standard English is different in different countries. For example, Standard Australian English is different from Standard British English.

In England, as well as Standard British English, there are many regional and social dialects. The most noticeable differences between them are those of pronunciation. A well-known difference is the *a* in words like *grass*. In the south this is pronounced as /gra:s/, and in the north as /græs/. In some parts of the north *happy* is pronounced as /hæpi/ or /hæpe/, and in the north-east *night* is pronounced as /ni:t/.

One dialect, called Estuary English, has become popular among young people, and is now spoken in much of south-east and central England. In it some words are pronounced in a similar way to Cockney – the dialect of East London. The /t/ in the middle and at the end of words disappears; so *letter* becomes /le'ə/, and *what* /wo'/. This dialect has become popular because of the influence of radio and television, and it is seen as modern and fashionable.

There are also differences in grammar between the dialects. Many dialects from the countryside use grammatical forms which Standard English has lost; for example, *He's a comin'* (*He's coming*), *thee* and *thou* for *you* singular, *I ain't going* (*I am not going*), or *He ain't come* (*He hasn't come*).

Outside England, in Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic, there are other varieties of English. Scots is very different from Standard British English – more so than any other British variety. There are many differences in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. Some Scots vocabulary is also used in northern English dialects (for example, *bairn* for *child* and *lass* for *girl*), but a huge number of words (20000 are listed in one book) are used only in Scots.

The English spoken in Wales also has its own character. There is a special intonation, which is similar to that used in Welsh; there are some words and expressions which have been borrowed from Welsh; sometimes word order is changed to give something more meaning; for example, *Happy she was!* (*She was very happy!*).

In Northern Ireland the main influence on English has been Scots, as large numbers of Protestant settlers came to Ireland from Scotland in the 16<sup>th</sup> century. In the Republic of Ireland, the main influences have been the dialects from the west of England and Gaelic. Gaelic is still spoken in the west of Ireland and its influence can be heard most strongly in the dialects in this part of the country. The Irish English spoken on radio and television is closer to Standard British English.

Some Irish English dialects show the Gaelic influence: for example, *Is it cold you are?* (*Are you cold?*); the use of *-een* to mean *a small thing*, for example *girleen* for *a small girl*; *He's after doing that* (*he's just done that*), and *Will I shut the door?* (*Shall I shut the door?*). Questions are often answered without *yes* or *no*, so the answer to *Were you born in Dublin?* Might be *Indeed I was*, or *I was not*.

From the 17<sup>th</sup> century, regional varieties of English were taken to North America, the Caribbean, Australia, New Zealand, Africa and Asia, and their influences can still be heard in the varieties of English in these countries. For example, in some dialects of American English there are many similarities to Irish English in pronunciation and some in grammar. *Youse*, which means *you* plural, and *anymore* in positive sentences like, *They live here anymore* (*They live here now*) are both from Irish English.

The three main regional dialects of American English are Northern, Midland and Southern. These reflect the movement of settlers to the west. Settlers from New England moved along past the Great Lakes; those from the middle of the east coast moved through the middle of the country, and those in the south went along the coast to the south. Because the Midland



dialect is spoken over the largest area, and perhaps by two-thirds of the people, this dialect is the best known outside America, and is sometimes called 'General American'.

African-American English was born of slavery between the 17<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries, when million of people from West Africa were brought to America and the Caribbean as slaves to work on large farms growing sugar. The British slave buyers and African slaves communicated on the slave ships in pidgin English. When the Africans arrived in America and the Caribbean they continued to use Pidgin English with both their slave owners and with each other, as they often spoke different African languages. Later, this pidgin English developed into a Creole when the slaves' children and grandchildren started to use it as a first language. African-American language probably developed from this Creole. Today African-American English has some grammatical differences from American English; for example, *she come (she's come), you crazy (you are crazy), he be going to work (he is going to work), twenty cent (twenty cents)*.

French, Dutch, Spanish and Portuguese Creoles also had a big influence on the English of the Caribbean. (Other influences have been local American Indian languages, and Hindi spoken by settlers from India.) In the Caribbean today there are a large number of Creoles, as well as local varieties of Standard English. The vocabulary of each Creole differs, but the grammar and pronunciation are similar. For example, there is *de* for *the*, *ting* for *thing*, and *ax* for *ask*.

Here is a part of a poem in Jamaican Creole by Louise Bennett. It is called "Noh Lickle Twang!" ("Not Even a Little Accent!"). In it, the poet complains that her son has come back from America without an American accent.

*Ef you want please him meck and him tink  
Yuh bring back something new.  
Yuh always call him 'Pa' dis evenin'  
Wen him come sey 'Poo'.  
(If you want to please him [your father] make him think  
You've brought back something new.  
You always call him 'Pa'; this evening  
When he comes say 'poo'.)*

Australian English has developed from a number of varieties of English. Most of the 130000 prisoners sent to Australia between 1788 and

1840, and the 'free settlers' who joined them, came from the south and east of England, Scotland and Ireland. The vowels in Australian English sound similar to those in Cockney (for example, *today* sounds similar to RP *to die*), and some Australian expressions are from British, Irish and American English. Some words for plants and animals, and many place names, have come from Aboriginal languages. Others are inventions of the Australians: *g'day* (hello); *crook* (ill); *sheila* (girl, woman), *to be as full as a boot* (to be very drunk); *first in, best dressed* (the first people to do something will have an advantage); *couldn't lie straight in bed* (very dishonest).

New Zealand English and South African English have some similarities to Australian English in their pronunciation because all three countries were settled by English speakers at about the same time. Each variety has small pronunciation differences, though, and its own vocabulary. In New Zealand English there are words from Maori, and in South African English there are words from Afrikaans and African languages.

Other countries were also governed by the British in the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries: India, Hong Kong, Singapore, Nigeria, Kenya, Papua New Guinea. Others were governed by America: the Philippines and Puerto Rico. In many of these countries English is an official language, although it is not most people's first language. The local languages influence the pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and use of English. For example, in Indian and Nigerian English, words like *and* and *of* are pronounced as strongly as other words in the sentence. In India the continuous form is used with verbs like *understand* and *like*: *I am liking*; *He is understanding*. In Nigerian English *sorry* can mean *I am sorry for you*, not *I am sorry for hurting you*.

## 9.4. Slang

The word 'slang' can mean several things. It can mean: the words and expressions used by a particular group of people to show that they belong to the group; language that is not acceptable in official situations because it is often too impolite, or too new; any new words, or new meanings of old words, that people use in everyday conversation. Slang is colourful and often funny.

There are thousands of slang words and expressions in English, from all over the world. Here are just a few of them

### ***American slang***

*Awesome – very good*

*Check it out! – Look at it to find out if it's OK.*

*Get real! – Face facts!*

*No way! – Absolutely not!*

### ***Australian slang***

*Daggy – untidy*

*Rack off! – Go away!*

*Ripper – very good*

*Sunnies – sunglasses*

### ***Irish slang***

*Banjaxed – broken*

*Cat – no good, awful*

*Chiseller – child*

*Langers – drunk*

### ***South African slang***

*Howzit – hello, nice to see you*

*Jol – party, a good time*

*Lekker – nice, good*

*Oke – man, guy*

### ***Jamaican slang***

*Big up – celebrate, show respect*

*Dawta – a young woman*

*Wicked – very good*

*Wheels – a car*

Most slang changes quite quickly as the people using it get bored with it, and as they need to create new words to keep puzzling outsiders. But some slang lasts longer: for example, *bum* has been used as an impolite word for *bottom* since the 14<sup>th</sup> century. Some slang used by one particular group may become part of general slang. For example, in the 20<sup>th</sup> century the word *wimp* moved from American teenage slang to general slang meaning *a weak person*. Slang can sometimes become part of Standard English. For example, *row* meaning *disturbance* was slang in Britain in the 18<sup>th</sup> century, but now is an acceptable word. Other slang words change in meaning over time. For example, in American English *previous* meant *arriving too soon* in the 1900s; in 1920 it meant *tight* (of clothes) and now it means *a bit rude*.

‘Rhyme slang’ developed by the Cockneys of East London is particularly colourful and inventive. Here, part of the slang expression rhymes with the word in Standard English. For example, *garden plant* means *aunt*, *plates of meat* means *feet*, *bread and honey* means *money*. It can become more difficult to understand when the rhyming word is not used. For example, *I need some bread* means *I need some money*. Rhyming slang sometimes rhymes with the names of places and famous people, too. So, for example, *Britney Spears* means *beers*. Rhyming slang can also be heard in Australia and America. Slang is very inventive part of language: new words are always appearing and disappearing. Some words are used only by the small groups that created them, others become part of national and international slang, and others cross into everyday spoken language. In this way, slang is an important source of new words in Standard English.

An interesting fact is that the first books of English slang, which appeared in the 16<sup>th</sup> century, were just lists of criminal slang. The first dictionary of slang followed in 1698. This included some non-criminal slang. Today there are dictionaries of all kinds of slang, and many lists of slang are on the Internet.

## ***Lecture 10***

### **10.1. The UK Education System**

In the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland there are two basic systems of education: one covering England, Wales and Northern Ireland, and one covering Scotland. Traditionally English, Welsh and Northern Irish systems have emphasized depth of education whereas the Scottish system has emphasized breadth. The English, Welsh and Northern Irish students tend to sit a small number of more advanced examinations and Scottish students tend to sit a larger number of less advanced examinations.

Education in Britain is provided by the *Local Education Authority (LEA)* in each county. It is financed partly by the Government and partly by local taxes. At the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century planning and organization were not controlled by central government. Each LEA was free to decide how to organize education in its own area. In 1988, however, the “National Curriculum” was introduced, which means that there is now greater governmental control over what is taught at schools.

The costs for a normal education in the United Kingdom are as follows:

- Primary: Free
- Secondary: Free
- Further (Secondary) Education in either a sixth form or collage: Free (if under 19 or on a low income).
- Higher / Tertiary Education (University): A tuition fee is up £ 3000 per annum.

### ***10.1.1. Nursery Education (under 5 years)***

Children do not have to go to school until they reach the age of five, but there is some free nursery-school education before that age.

However, LEAs do not have nursery-school places for all who would like them and these places are usually given to families in special circumstances, for example families with one parent only. Because of the small number of nursery schools, parents in many areas have formed play groups where children under 5 years can go for a morning or afternoon a couple of times a week.

### ***10.1.2. Primary Education (5 to 11 years)***

Primary education takes place in *infant schools* (pupils aged from 5 to 7 years) and *junior schools* (from 8 to 11 years). (Some LEAs have a different system in which middle schools replace junior schools and take pupils aged from 9 to 12 years).

### ***10.1.3. Private Education (5 to 18 years)***

Some parents choose to pay for private education in spite of the existence of free state education. Private schools are called by different names to state schools: the *preparatory* (often called "*prep*") *schools* are for pupils aged up to 13, and the *public schools* are for 13 – 18 year-olds. These schools are very expensive and they are attended by about 5 per cent of the school population. The fees can vary from £ 5000 per annum to £ 30 000 per annum for Eton, for example.

#### ***10.1.4. Secondary Education (11 to 16/18 years)***

Since 1944 Education Act of Parliament, free secondary education has become available to all children in Britain. Indeed, children must go to school until the age of 16, and pupils may stay on for one or two years more if they want.

Secondary schools are usually much larger than primary schools and most children – over 80 per cent – go to a *comprehensive school* at the age of 11. These schools are not selective – you do not have to pass an exam to go there.

In 1965 the Labour Government introduced the policy of *comprehensive education*. Before that time, all children took an exam at the age of 11 called the “11+”. Approximately the top 20 per cent were chosen to go to the *academic grammar schools*, where they were taught academic subjects to prepare them for university, the professions, managerial jobs or other highly skilled jobs. Those who failed the “11+” (80 per cent) went to *secondary modern schools*, where the lessons had a more practical and technical bias.

A lot of people thought that this system of selection at the age of 11 was unfair on many children. So comprehensive school was introduced to offer suitable courses for pupils of *all* abilities. Some LEAs started to change over to comprehensive education immediately, but some were harder to convince and slower to act. There are a few LEAs who still keep the old system of grammar schools, but most LEAs have now changed over completely to non-selective education in comprehensive schools.

#### ***10.1.5. Comprehensive Schools***

Comprehensive schools want to develop the talents of each individual child. So they offer a wide choice of subjects, from art and craft, woodwork and domestic science to the sciences, modern languages, computer studies, etc. All these subjects are enjoyed by both boys and girls.

Pupils at comprehensive schools are quite often put into “sets” for the more academic subjects such as mathematics or languages. Sets are formed according to ability in each subject, so that for example the children in the highest set for math will not necessarily be in the highest set for French. All pupils move to the next class automatically at the end of the year.

## 10.2. School Life

Nearly all school work a five-day week, with no half-day, and are closed on Saturday. The day starts at or just before nine o'clock and finishes between three and four, or a bit later for older children. The lunch break usually lasts about an hour-and-a-quarter. Nearly two-thirds of pupils have lunch provided by the school. Parents pay for this, except for the 15% who are rated poor enough for it to be free. Other children either go home for lunch or take sandwiches.

Methods of teaching vary, but there is most commonly a balance between formal lessons with the teacher at the front of the classroom, and activities in which children work in small groups round a table with the teacher supervising. In primary schools, the children are mostly taught by a class teacher who teaches all subjects. At the age of seven and eleven, children have to take national tests in English, mathematics and science. In secondary school children have different teachers for different subjects and are given regular homework.

## 10.3. School Year

Schools usually divide their year into three "terms", starting at the beginning of September.

Autumn term	Christmas holidays (about 2 weeks)	Spring term	Easter holidays (about 2 weeks)	Summer term	Summer holidays (about 6 weeks)
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In addition, all schools have "a half-term" (= half-term holidays), lasting a few days or a week in the middle of each term.

## 10.4. School Uniform

At most secondary schools in Britain pupils have to wear a school uniform. This usually means a white blouse for girls (perhaps with a tie), with a dark-coloured skirt and pullover. The colours may be grey, brown, navy blue, dark green or similar. Boys wear a shirt and a tie, dark trousers and dark-coloured pullovers. Pupils of both sexes wear blazers – a kind of jacket – with the school badge on the pocket. They often have to wear some kind of hat on the way to and from school – caps for the boys, and berets or

some other kind of hat for the girls. Shoes are usually black or brown and should be sensible – no high heels.

Young people in Britain often don't like their school uniform, especially the hats and shoes. Sometimes they do not wear the right clothes. Schools will often give them a warning the first time that this happens but then punish them if they continue not to wear the correct uniform.

## **10.5. Education Reform**

In the late 1980s the Conservative government made important changes to the British educational system. The aim was to provide a more balanced education. One of the most fundamental changes was the introduction of a new "National Curriculum". In fact, 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 is the Welsh language part of the curriculum.

The introduction of the national curriculum is also intended to have influence on the subject-matter of teaching. At the lower primary level, this means a greater emphasis on "the three Rs" (Reading, wRiting and aRithmetic). At higher levels, it means a greater emphasis on science and technology. A consequence of the traditional British approach to education has been the habit of giving a relatively large amount of attention to arts and humanities (which develop a well-rounded human being), and relatively little to science and technology (which develop the ability to do specific jobs).

In secondary schools, for example, 80% of the timetable must be spent on the 'core curriculum'. This must include English, Mathematics, Science and a Modern language for all pupils up to the age of 16. At the same time, the new curriculum places greater emphasis on the more practical aspects of education. Skills are being taught which students will need for life and work, and 'work experience' – when pupils who are soon going to leave school spend some time in a business or industry – has become a standard part of the school programme.

Together with the "National Curriculum", a programme of "Records of a Achievements" was introduced. This programme is known as "REACH", and it



attempts to set learning objectives for each term and year in primary school, and for each component of each subject at secondary school. This has introduced much more central control and standardization into what is taught. Many people think this will raise educational standards, but some teachers argue that they have lost their ability to respond to the needs and interests of *their* pupils, which may be different from the pupils in other areas.

As part of the “REACH” programme, new tests have been introduced for pupils at the age of 7, 13 and 16. The aim of these tests is to discover any schools or areas which are not teaching to high enough standards. But many parents and teachers are unhappy. They feel that it is a return to the days of the “11+” and that the tests are unfair because they reflect differences in home background rather than in ability. Some teachers also fear that because of preparation for the tests, lessons will be ‘narrower’, with a lot of time being spent on Mathematics and English, for example, while other interesting subjects which are not tested may be left out.

Educational reform has brought other changes too. City Technology Colleges (CTCs) are new upper schools for scientifically gifted children, who – the Government hopes – will be the scientists and technological experts of the future. These schools are partly funded by industry.

In addition to the CTCs, the Government gave ordinary schools the right to ‘opt out of’ (choose to leave) the Local Education Authority (LEA) if a majority of parents want it. Previously all state schools were under the control of the LEA, which provided the schools in its area with money for books etc., paid the teachers, and controlled educational policy. Now schools which opt out receive money directly from the Government and are free to spend it as they like. They can even pay teachers more or less than in LEA schools if they want to, and they can accept any children – the pupils do not have to come from the neighbourhood. Many people fear that this means a return to selection, i.e. these schools will choose the brightest children. The Government says that the new schools mean more choice for parents.

## **10.6. Exams**

At the age of 14 or 15, in the third or fourth form of secondary school, pupils begin to choose their exam subjects. In 1988 a new public examination – the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) – was introduced for

16 year-olds. This examination assesses pupils on the work they do in the 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> year at secondary school, and is often internally assessed, although there may also be an exam at the end of each course.

Pupils who stay into the sixth form or who go on to a Sixth Form College (17 year-olds in the Lower Sixth and 18 year-olds in the Upper Sixth) usually fall into two categories. Some pupils retake GCSEs in order to get better grades. Others study two or three subjects for an “A” Level (Advanced Level) GCE exam (General Certificate of Education). This is a highly specialized exam and is necessary for University entrance. Since 1988 there has been a new level of exam: the “AS” Level (Advanced Supplementary), which is worth half an “A” Level. This means that if pupils wish to study more than two or three subjects in the sixth form they can take a combination of “A” and “AS” Levels.

### **10.7. Leaving School at Sixteen**

Many people decide to leave school at the age of 16 and go to a Further Education (FE) College. Here most of the courses are linked to some kind of practical vocational training, for example in engineering, typing, cooking or hairdressing. Some young people are given “day release” (their employer allows them time off work) so that they can follow a course to help them in their job.

For those 16 year-olds who leave school and who cannot find work but do not want to go to FE College, the Government introduced the Training Credit Scheme. This scheme allows young people £ 2000 to buy training leading to a National Vocational Qualification from an employer or a training organisation that participates in the scheme. Because the young people pay for their own training it encourages employers to give them work. It also gives the trainee valuable work experience.

### **10.8. British Universities**

The most famous British universities are *Oxford University*, situated in the city of Oxford, which is the oldest university in the English-speaking world and *Cambridge University*, which are sometimes referred as *Oxbridge*. These two universities have a long history of competition with each other.

The date of Oxford University’s foundation is unknown, and indeed it may not have been a single event, but there is evidence of teaching there as early as 1096. When Henry II of England forbade English students to study at

the University of Paris in 1167, Oxford began to grow very quickly. The foundation of the first halls of residence, which later became colleges, dates from that year. Following the murder of two students accused of rape in 1209, the University was disbanded (leading to the foundation of the University of Cambridge). In 1214, the University returned to Oxford with a charter negotiated by Nicholas de Romanis, a papal legate.

Both are collegiate universities, consisting of the university's central facilities, such as departments and faculties, libraries and science facilities, and then 39 colleges and 7 permanent private halls (PPHs) at Oxford and 31 colleges at Cambridge. All teaching staff and degree students must belong to one of the colleges or PPHs. These colleges are not only houses of residence, but have substantial responsibility for the teaching of undergraduates and postgraduates. Some colleges only accept postgraduate students. Only one of the colleges, St. Hilda's, Oxford where Margaret Thatcher was taught, remains single-sex, accepting only women although several of the religious PPHs are male-only.

Cambridge has produced more Nobel prize laureates than any other university in the world, having 80 associated with it, about 70 of whom were students there. It regularly heads league tables ranking British universities, and a recent league table by the Times Higher Education Supplement rated it sixth in the world overall and first for science.

The colleges and PPHs of Oxbridge are institutions independent of the university itself and enjoy considerable autonomy. For example, colleges decide which students they are to admit, and appoint their own fellows (senior members). They are responsible for the domestic arrangements and welfare of students and for small group teaching, referred to as supervision.

Other notable universities include colleges of the *University of London*, such as *Imperial College*, one of the strongest homes of science in the world, the *London School of Economics* and such newer groups as the "Redbrick" universities, built in Victorian times, such as the *University of Manchester* and *Birmingham University*.

*The Open University* (commonly *Open University* (OU)), but officially "The" is part of its name) is a distance learning and research university founded by Royal Charter in the United Kingdom. The University is funded by a combination of student fees, contract income, and allocations for teaching and research by the higher education funding bodies in each of the

four countries of the UK. It is notable for having an open entry policy, i.e. students' previous academic achievements are not taken into account for entry to most undergraduate courses. The majority of the OU's undergraduate students are based in the United Kingdom and principally study off-campus, but many of its courses (both undergraduate and postgraduate) can be studied off-campus anywhere in the world. There are a number of full-time postgraduate research students based on the 48 hectare university campus where they use the OU facilities for research, as well as more than 1000 members of academic and research staff and over 2500 administrative, operational and support staff.

The OU was established in 1969 and the first students enrolled in January 1971. The University administration is based at Walton Hall, Milton Keynes in Buckinghamshire, but has regional centres in each of its thirteen regions around the United Kingdom. It also has offices and regional examination centres in most other European countries. The University awards undergraduate and postgraduate degrees, as well as non-degree qualifications such as diplomas and certificates, or continuing education units.

With more than 250,000 students enrolled, including around 32,000 aged under 25 and more than 50,000 overseas students, it is the largest academic institution in the United Kingdom and Europe by student number, and qualifies as one of the world's largest universities. Since it was founded, more than 1.5 million students have studied its courses. It was rated top university in England and Wales for student satisfaction in the 2005 and 2006 United Kingdom government national student satisfaction survey, and second in the 2007 survey. Out of 132 universities and colleges, the OU was ranked 43rd in the *Times Higher Education* Table of Excellence in 2008, between the University of Reading and University of the Arts London; it was rated highly in specific subjects such as art history, sociology (below Oxford and Cambridge) and development studies. It was ranked overall as a nationally top forty, and globally top five hundred university by the *Academic Ranking of World Universities* in 2011, as well as being ranked 247 for citations of its academics.

The Open University is also one of only three United Kingdom higher education institutions to gain accreditation in the United States of America by the Middle States Commission on Higher Education, an institutional accrediting agency, recognized by the United States Secretary of Education and the Council for Higher Education Accreditation.

### ***10.8.1. Life at College***

Good 'A' Level results in at least two subjects are necessary to get a place at one. However, good exam passes alone are not enough. Universities choose their students after interviews, and competition for places at universities is fierce.

For all British citizens a place at university brings with it a grant from their Local Education Authority. The grants cover tuition fees and some of the living expenses. The amount depends on the parents' income. If the parents do not earn much, their children will receive a full grant which will cover all their expenses.

### ***10.8.2. Free at Last***

Most 18 and 19 year-olds in Britain are fairly independent people, and when the time comes to pick a college they usually choose one as far away from home as possible. So, many students in northern and Scottish universities come from the south of England and vice versa. It is very unusual for university students to live at home. Although parents may be a little sad to see this happen, they usually approve of the move, and see it as a necessary part of becoming an adult.

Anyway, the three university terms are only ten weeks each, and during vacation times families are reunited.

### ***10.8.3. Freshers***

When they first arrive at college, first year students are called 'freshers'. A fresher's life can be exciting but terrifying for the first week.

Often freshers will live in a Hall of Residence on or near the college campus, although they may move out into a rented room in their second or third year, or share a house with friends. Many freshers will feel very homesick for the first week or so, but living in hall soon helps them to make new friends.

During the first week, all the clubs and societies hold a 'freshers' fair' during which they try to persuade the new students to join their societies. The freshers are told that it is important for them to come into contact with many opinions and activities during their time at the university, but the choice can be a bit overwhelming!

On the day that lectures start, groups of freshers are often seen walking around huge campuses, maps in hand and a worried look on their faces. They are learning how difficult it is to change from a school community to one of many thousands. They also learn a new way of studying. As well as lectures, there are regular seminars, at which one of a small group of students (probably not more than ten) reads a paper he or she has written. The paper is then discussed by the tutor and the rest of the group. One or twice a term, students will have a tutorial. This means that they see a tutor alone to discuss their work and their progress. In Oxford and Cambridge, and some other universities, the study system is based entirely around such tutorials which take place once a week. Attending lectures is optional for 'Oxbridge' students!

After three or four years (depending on the type of course and university) these students will take their finals. Most of them (over 90 per cent) will get a first, second or third class degree and be able to put BA (Bachelor of Arts) or BSc (Bachelor of Science) after their name. It will have been well earned.

### **Talking Points**

- Do you think secondary education should be selective or comprehensive? What are the advantages and disadvantages of both systems?
- What do you think are the advantages of school uniform? And the disadvantages?
- Is it a good thing to leave home at the age of 18? What are the advantages and disadvantages?
- Many British people believe that if you do nothing more than study hard at university, you will have wasted a great opportunity. What do they mean and do you agree?
- How do British universities differ from universities in your country? What do you like and dislike about the British system?

# PART II

## The United States of America

### *Lecture 11*

#### 11.1 Flag and National Symbols of the USA

The flag of the United States consists of 13 equal horizontal stripes of red and white representing the 13 original colonies and a blue rectangle with 50 small, white, five-pointed stars, representing the 50 states. The flag is commonly called **the Stars and Stripes** and less commonly **Old Glory**.

The name “**Old Glory**” was coined in the 1830s, and was of particularly common use during of the 48-star version (1912 – 1959). The flag has gone through 26 changes since the “new union” of 13 states adopted it. The origin of the U.S. flag design is uncertain. A popular story credits **Betsy Ross** for sewing the first flag from a pencil sketch of George Washington who personally commissioned her for the job. The following remark about the design of the flag is attributed to G. Washington:

*We take the stars from the heaven, the red from our mother country, separate it by white stripes, thus showing that we have separated from her...*

“**The Star Spangled Banner**” is the national anthem. In September 1814, during the War of 1812 between the British and Americans, a lawyer named Francis Scott Key watched a fiery battle in the Baltimore Harbor. The morning after the battle he saw the flag waving, and was inspired to write a poem. This poem became the national anthem, “**The Star Spangled Banner**”.

From time to time it is suggested that the song “**America the Beautiful**” be made the national anthem, in place of “**The Star Spangled Banner**”. Proponents of this idea argue that “**America the Beautiful**” is a better national anthem because it praises the whole country, not only the flag, and it was not written as a result of a war. Also, it is much easier to sing. “**America the Beautiful**” was written in 1893 by Katherine Lee Bates, a writer and professor at Wellesley College. While on vacation, she took a ride up Pike’s Park, a mountaintop in Colorado, and saw a spectacular view that few people in those days had the opportunity to see. The “spacious skies” and ‘purple mountains’ inspired her to write a poem, which was eventually published. The public loved the poem; and it was often put to music using any tune that

fit the lyrics. Eventually, the poem was set to the music of a *hymn*, “Materna”, by Samuel Ward, and this is the song that Americans know and love today as the most beautiful tribute to their country.

**The Pledge of Allegiance** is a promise or oath of allegiance to the U.S., and the Stars and Stripes. It is usually recited at public events, and especially in school classrooms, where the Pledge is a mandatory morning ritual. In its present form, the words of the Pledge are:

*I pledge allegiance to the Flag of the United States of America, and to the Republic for which it stands, one Nation under God, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all.*

**The Great Seal of the United States**, first used in 1782, is used to authenticate certain documents issued by the Government. Though the U.S. has never adopted any “national coats of arms”, the image from the Great Seal is used as a national symbol, and it is used on state documents such as passports.

## **11.2. The American System of Government**

The governmental systems in the United States –federal, state, county, and local – are quite easy to understand. They are quite easy to understand, that is, if you grew up with them and studied them at school. One foreign expert complained, for example, that the complexity of just the cities’ political and governmental structure is “almost unbelievable.” The ‘real Chicago,’ he explained, “spreads over 2 states, 6 counties, 10 towns, 30 cities, 49 townships, and 110 villages. Overlaid upon this complex pattern are 234 tax districts and more than 400 school districts...’

There are, however, several basic principles which are found at all levels of American government. One of these is the “one person, one vote” principle which says that legislators are elected from geographical districts directly by the voters. Under this principle, all election districts must have about the same number of residents.

Another fundamental principle of American government is that because of the system of checks and balances, compromise in politics is a matter of necessity, not choice. For example, the House of Representatives controls spending and finance, so the President *must* have its agreement for his proposals and programs. He cannot declare war, either, without the



approval of Congress. In foreign affairs, he is also strongly limited. Any treaty must first be approved by the Senate. If there is no approval, there is no treaty. The rule is “the President proposes, but Congress disposes.” What a president wants to do, therefore, is often a different thing from what a President is able to do.

### ***11.2.1. Congress***

Congress, the legislative branch of the federal government, is made up of the Senate and the House of Representatives. There are 100 Senators, two from each state. One third of the senators are elected every two years for six-year terms of office. The Senators represent all of the people in a state and their interests.

The House of Representatives has 435 members. They are elected every two years for two-year terms. They represent the population of “congressional districts” into which each state is divided. The number of Representatives from each state is based upon its population. For, instance, California, the state with the largest population, has 45 Representatives, while Delaware has only one. There is no limit to the number of terms a Senator or Representative may serve.

Almost all elections in the United States follow the ‘winner-take-all’ principle: the candidate who wins the largest number of votes in a Congressional district is the winner.

Congress makes all laws, and each house of Congress has the power to introduce legislation. Each can also vote against legislation passed by the other. Because legislation only becomes law if both houses agree, compromise between them is necessary. Congress decides upon taxes and how money is spent. In addition, it regulates commerce among the states and with foreign countries. It also sets rules for naturalization of foreign citizens.

### ***11.2.2. The President***

The President of the United States is elected every four years to a four-year term of office, with no more than two full terms allowed. As is true with Senators and Representatives, the President is elected directly by the voters (through state electors). In other words, the political party with the most Senators and Representatives does *not* choose the President. This means that

the president can be from one party and the majority of those in the House of Representatives or Senate (or both) from another. This is not uncommon.

Thus, although one of the parties may win a majority in the midterm elections (those held every two years), the President remains President, even though his party may not have a majority in either house. Such a result could easily hurt his ability to get legislation through the Congress, which must pass all laws, but this is not necessarily so. In any case, the President's policies must be approved by the House of Representatives and the Senate before they can become law. In domestic as well as in foreign policy, the President can seldom count upon the automatic support of Congress, even when his own party has a majority in both the Senate and the House. Therefore he must be able to convince Congressmen, the Representatives and the Senators, of his point of view. He must bargain and compromise. This is a major difference between the American system and those in which the nation's leader represents the majority party or parties, that is, parliamentary systems.

Within the Executive branch, there are a number of executive departments. Currently these are the department of State, Treasury, Defense, Justice, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, Labor, Health and Human Resources, Housing and Urban Development, Transportation, Energy, and Education. Each department is established by law, and, as their names indicate, each is responsible for a specific area. The head of each department is appointed by the President. These appointments, however, must be approved by the Senate. None of these Secretaries, as the department heads are usually called, can also be serving in Congress or in another part of the government. Each is directly responsible to the President and only serves as long as the President wants him or her to. They can be best seen, therefore, as presidential assistants and advisors. When they meet together, they are termed "the President's Cabinet." Some Presidents have relied quite a bit on their Cabinets for advice, and some very little.

### ***11.2.3. The Federal Judiciary***

The third branch of government, in addition to the legislative (Congress) and executive (President) branches, is the federal judiciary. Its main instrument is the Supreme Court, which watches over the other two branches. It determines whether or not their laws and acts are in accordance

with the Constitution. Congress has the power to fix the number of judges sitting on the Court, but it cannot change the powers given to the Supreme Court by the Constitution itself. The Supreme Court consists of a chief justice and eight associate justices. They are nominated by the President but must be approved by the Senate. Once approved, they hold office as Supreme Court Justices for life. A decision of the Supreme Court cannot be appealed to any other court. Neither the President nor Congress can change their decisions. In addition to the Supreme Court, Congress has established 11 federal courts of appeal and, below them, 91 federal district courts.

The Supreme Court has direct jurisdiction in only two kinds of cases: those involving foreign diplomats and those in which a state is a party. All other cases which reach the Court are appeals from lower courts. The Supreme Court chooses which of these it will hear. Most of the cases involve the interpretation of the Constitution. The Supreme Court also has the “power of judicial review,” that is, it has the right to declare laws and actions of the federal, state, and local government unconstitutional. While not stated in the Constitution, this power was established over time.

#### ***11.2.4. Checks and Balances***

The constitution provides for the three main branches of government which are separate and distinct from one another. The powers given to each are as carefully balanced by the powers of the other two. Each branch serves as a check on the others. This is to keep any branch from gaining too much power or from misusing its powers.

Congress has the power to make laws, but the President may veto any act of Congress. Congress, in its turn, can override a veto by a two-thirds vote in each house. Congress can also refuse to provide funds requested by the President. The President can appoint important officials of his administration, but they must be approved by the senate. The President has also the power to name all federal judges; they, too, must be approved by the Senate. The courts have the power to determine the constitutionality of all acts of Congress and of presidential actions, and to strike down those they find unconstitutional.

The system of checks and balances makes compromise and consensus necessary. Compromise is also a vital aspect of other levels of government in the Unites States. This system protects against extremes. It means, for example, that

new presidents cannot radically change governmental policies just as they wish. In the U.S., therefore, when people think of “the government”, they usually mean the entire system, that is, the Executive Branch and the President, Congress, and the courts. In fact and in practice, therefore, the President (i.e. “the Administration”) is not as powerful as many people outside the U.S. seem to think he is. In comparison with other leaders in systems where the majority party forms “the government”, he is much less so.

### ***11.2.5. Political Parties***

The Constitution says nothing about political parties, but over time the U.S. has in fact developed a two-party system. The two leading parties are the Democrats and the Republicans. There are other parties besides these two, and foreign observers are often surprised to learn that among these are also a Communist party and several Socialist parties. Minor parties have occasionally won offices at lower levels of government, but they do not play a role in national politics. In fact, one does not need to be a member of a political party to run in any election at any level of government. Also, people can simply declare themselves to be members of one of the two major parties when they register to vote in a district.

Sometimes, the Democrats are thought of as associated with labor, and the Republicans with business and industry. Republicans also tend to oppose the greater involvement of the federal government in some areas of public life which they consider to be the responsibilities of the states and communities. Democrats, on the other hand, tend to favor a more active role of the central government in social matters.

To distinguish between the parties is often difficult, however. Furthermore, the traditional European terms of “right” and “left”, or “conservative” and “liberal” do not quite fit the American system. Someone from the “conservative right,” for instance, would be against a strong central government. Or a Democrat from one part of the country could be very “liberal,” and one from another part quite “conservative.” Even if they have been elected as Democrats or Republicans, Representatives or Senators are not bound to a party program nor are the subject to any discipline when they disagree with their party.

When some voters will vote a “straight ticket,” in other words, for all of

the Republican or Democratic candidates in an election, many do not. They vote for one party's candidate for one office, and another's for another. As a result, the political parties have much less actual power than they do in other nations.

In the U.S., parties cannot win seats which they are then free to fill with party members they have chosen. Rather, both Representatives and Senators are elected to serve the interests of the people and the areas they represent, that is, their "constituencies." In about 70 percent of legislative decisions, Congressmen will vote with the specific wishes of their constituencies in mind, even if this goes against what their own parties might want as national policy. It is quite common, in fact, to find Democrats in Congress voting for a Republican president's legislation, quite a few Republicans voting against it, and so on.

### ***11.2.6. Elections***

Anyone who is an American citizen, at least 18 years of age, and is registered to vote may vote. Each state has the right to determine registration procedures. A number of civic groups, such as the League of Women Voters, are actively trying to get more people involved in the electoral process and have drives to register as many people as possible. Voter registration and voting among minorities has dramatically increased as a result of the Civil Rights Movement.

There is some concern, however, about the number of citizens who could vote in national elections but do not. Americans who want to vote must register, that is put down their names in a register before the actual elections take place. There are 50 different registration laws in the U.S. – one set for each state. In the South, voters often have to register not only locally but also at the county seat. In European countries, on the other hand, "permanent registration" of voters is most common.

Another important factor is that there are many more elections in the U.S. at the state and local levels than there are in most countries. If the number of those who vote in these elections (deciding, for example, if they should pay more taxes so new main street bridge can be built) were included, the percentage in fact would not be that much different from other countries. Certainly, Americans are much more interested in local politics than in those at the federal level. Many of the most important decisions, such as those concerning education, housing, taxes, and so on, are made close to home, in the state or county.

The national presidential elections really consist of two separate campaigns: one is for the nomination of candidates at national party conventions. The other is to win the actual election. The nominating race is a competition between members of the same party. They run in a succession of state primaries and caucuses (which take place between March and June). They hope to gain majority of delegate votes for their national party conventions (in July or August). The party convention then votes to select the party's official candidate for the presidency. Then follow several months of presidential campaigns by the candidates.

In November of the election year (years divisible by four), the voters across the nation go to the polls. If the majority of the popular votes in a state go to the Presidential (and Vice-Presidential) candidate of one party, then that person is supposed to get all of that state's "electoral votes." These electoral votes are equal to the number of Senators and Representatives each state in Congress. The candidate with the largest number of these electoral votes wins the election. Each state's electoral votes are formally reported by the "Electoral College." In January of the following year, in a joint session of Congress, the new president and Vice-president are officially announced.

### ***11.2.7. Federalism; State and Local Governments***

The fifty states are quite diverse in size, population, climate, economy, history, and interests. The fifty state governments often differ from one another, too. Because they often approach political, social, or economic questions differently, the states have been called "laboratories of democracy." However, they do share certain basic structures. The individual states all have republican forms of government with a senate and a house. (There is one exception, Nebraska, which has only one legislative body of 49 'senators.") All have executive branches headed by state governors and independent court systems. Each state has also its own constitution. But all must respect the federal laws and not make laws that interfere with those of the other states (E.G., someone who is divorced under the laws of one state is legally divorced in all). Likewise, cities and local authorities must make their laws and regulations so that they fit their own state's constitution.

The Constitution limits the federal government to specific powers, but modern judicial interpretations of the Constitution have expanded federal

responsibilities. All others automatically belong to the states and to the local communities. This means that there has always been a battle between federal and state's rights. The traditional American distrust of a too powerful central government has kept the battle fairly even over the years. The states and local communities in the U.S. have rights that in other countries generally belong to the central government.

All education at any level, for example, is the concern of the states. The local communities have the real control at the public school level. They elect the school board officials, and their local community taxes largely support the schools. Each individual school system, therefore, hires and fires and pays its own teachers. It sets its own policies within broad state guidelines. Similarly, there is no national police force, the FBI being limited to a very few federal crimes, such as kidnapping. Each state has its own state police and its own criminal laws. The same is true with, for example, marriage and divorce laws, driving laws and licenses, drinking laws, and voting procedures. In turn, each city has its own police force that it hires, trains, controls, and organizes. Neither the President nor the governor of a state has direct power over it. By the way, police departments of counties are often called "sheriffs' departments." Sheriffs are usually elected, but state and city police officials are not.

There are many other areas which are also the concern of cities, towns, and villages. Among these are the opening and closing hours for stores, street and road repair, or architectural laws and other regulations. Also, one local community might decide that a certain magazine is pornographic and forbid its sale, or a local school board might determine that a certain novel should not be in their school library. (A court, however, may later tell the community or school board that they have unfairly attempted to exercise censorship.) But another village, a few miles down the road, might accept both. The same is true of films.

Most states and some cities have their own income taxes. Many cities and counties also have their own laws saying who may and may not own a gun. Many airports, some of them international, are owned and controlled by cities or counties and have their own airport police. Finally, a great many of the most hotly debated questions, which in other countries are decided at the national level, are in America settled by the individual states and communities. Among these are, for example, laws about drug use, capital punishment, abortion, and homosexuality.

A connecting thread that runs all the way through governments in the U.S. is the “accountability” of politicians, officials, agencies, and governmental groups. This means that information and records on crime, fires, marriages and divorces, court cases, property taxes, etc. are public information. It means, for example, that when a small town needs to build a school or buy a new police car, how much it will cost (and which company offered what at what cost) will be in the local paper. In some cities, meetings of the city council are carried live on radio. As a rule, politicians in the U.S. at any level pay considerable attention to public opinion. Ordinary citizens participate actively and directly in decisions that concern them. In some states, such as California, in fact, citizens can petition to have questions, (i.e., “propositions”) put on the ballot in the state elections. If the proposition is approved by the voters, it then becomes law. This “grass roots” character of American democracy can also be seen in New England town meetings or at the public hearings of local school boards.

Adding this up, America has an enormous variety in its governmental bodies. Its system tries to satisfy needs and wishes of people at the local level, while at the same time the Constitution guarantees basic rights to anyone, anywhere in America. This has been very important, for instance, to the Civil Rights movement and its struggle to secure equal rights for all Americans, regardless of race, place of residence, or state voting laws. Therefore, although the states control their own elections as well as the registration procedures for national elections, they cannot make laws that would go against an individual’s constitutional rights.

### ***11.2.8. Political Attitude***

It has been often said and does seem to be true: Americans seem almost instinctively to dislike government and politicians. They especially tend to dislike “those fools in Washington” who spend *their* tax money and are always trying to “interfere” in *their* local and private concerns. Many would no doubt agree with the statement that the best government is the one that governs least. Neighborhoods, communities, and states have a strong pride in their ability to deal with their problems themselves, and this feeling is especially strong in the West.

Americans are seldom impressed by government officials (they do like



royalty, as long as it is not theirs). They distrust people who call themselves experts. They don't like being ordered to do anything. For example, in the Revolutionary War (1776 - 1783) and into the Civil War (1861 - 1865), American soldiers often elected their own officers. In their films and fiction as well as in television series, Americans often portray corrupt politicians and incompetent officials. Anyone who wants to be President, they say with a smile, isn't qualified. Their newsmen and journalists and television reporters are known the world over for "not showing proper respect" to governmental leaders, whether their own or others. As thousands of foreign observers have remarked, Americans simply do not like authority.

Many visitors to the U.S. are still surprised by the strong egalitarian tendencies they meet in daily life. Americans from different walks of life, people with different educational and social backgrounds, will often start talking with one another "just as if they were all equal." Is everybody equal in the land that stated - in the eyes of God and the law - that "all men are created equal?" No, of course not. Some have advantages of birth, wealth, or talent. Some have been to better schools. Some have skins or accents or beliefs that their neighbors don't especially like. Yet the ideal is ever-present in a land where so many different races, language groups, cultural and religious beliefs, hopes, dreams, traditional hates and dislikes have come together.

All in all, what do Americans think of their system of government? What would "we the people" decide today? One American, a Nobel Prize winner in literature, gave this opinion: "We are able to believe that our government is weak, stupid, overbearing, dishonest, and inefficient, and at the same time we are deeply convinced that it is the best government in the world, and we would like to impose it upon everyone else."

Of course, many of today's Americans would disagree in part or with all. "Who is this one American," they might ask, "to speak for all of us?"

## **I. ANSWER THE QUESTIONS.**

1. What is the legislative branch of U.S. government called?
2. What are the two houses of Congress?
3. For how many years does the President serve?
4. Where does the President live and work?
5. How should people address the President?

## II. FILL IN THE CHART

	The Senate	The House of Representatives
Number of Members		
Number of Members Per State		
Length of Term		
Number of Terms		
Age Requirement		
Citizenship Requirement		

## *Lecture 12*

### 12.1. Physical Geography

The United States of America is situated in the central part of the North American continent. It is the fourth largest country in the world in area after Russia, Canada and China. The total area of the USA is 9.631.419 sq. km.

The USA is bordered in the north by Canada, in the west by the Pacific Ocean, in the south by Mexico, the Gulf of Mexico and the Strait of Florida, and in the east by the Atlantic Ocean.

The continental US may be divided into five major physiographic regions:

- the Atlantic Coastal Plain,
- the Appalachian Mountains,
- the Interior Lowlands which include the Central Lowlands and the Great Plains,
- the Western Cordillera,
- the Western Mountain Plateaus.

The hydrology of the country is dominated by the Mississippi River basin including two major tributaries (the Missouri and the Ohio Rivers). The Mississippi is considered one of the world's longest rivers which flows into the Gulf of Mexico.

The Colorado, the Sacramento, the Columbia flow into the Pacific Ocean.

The main lakes in the USA are the Great Lakes in the north (Huron, Ontario, Michigan, Erie and Superior) which are joined together by short rivers or canals, and the St. Lawrence River joins them to the Atlantic Ocean. The Niagara takes the water of Lake Erie to Lake Ontario forming the famous Niagara Falls.

In the west of the USA the Great Salt Lake holds substantial volume of surface water.

The climate of the USA varies along with the landscapes, from tropical in Southern **Florida** to tundra in **Alaska**. Most of the north and east experiences a moderate continental climate, with hot summers and cold winters. Most of the American South experiences a subtropical humid climate with mild winters and long humid summers. Rainfall decreases from the humid forests of the Eastern Great Plains to the semiarid shortgrass prairies on the High Plains abutting the Rocky Mountains.

Deserts, including the **Mojave**, extend through the lowlands and valleys of the American Southwest from westernmost **Texas** to **California** and northward throughout much of **Nevada**. Some parts of the American West, including **San Francisco**, California, have a Mediterranean climate. Rain forests line the windward mountains of the Pacific Ocean Northwest from **Oregon** to **Alaska**.

## **12.2. Human Geography and Demographics**

### **History of Immigration**

The USA has the **third** largest population in the world after China and India. Who are the American people? **Walt Whitman**, a famous American poet said: "The U.S. is not merely a nation, but a nation of nations." People from around the world have come to the U.S. and influenced its history and culture. That's why the American society has often been characterized as a great "**melting pot**", in which people from many nations have blended into what is called "Americans". In other words, they have adopted the American culture as their own.

More recently, some people have compared the USA to a **mosaic** – a picture made of many different pieces. America's strength, they argue, lies in its diversity and in the contribution made by people of many different cultures. America needs to preserve and encourage this diversity, while making sure that everyone has equal opportunities to succeed. ("**Salad Bowl**" "**Pizza**" and "**Patchwork**" are other terms to describe American culture.)

The first people of the American continent came from Asia across the Bering Strait from **Siberia** to Alaska about **35.000 – 20.000** years ago. They

were the people that Columbus in the 15<sup>th</sup> century called “**Indians**” in mistaken belief that he had reached the East Indies.

The Spaniards established the first European settlements in North America in the 16<sup>th</sup> century, but it was English settlements from the early 17<sup>th</sup> century that provided the great bulk of population.

**From 1620 to 1820** a large group of people came to the USA, but not as willing immigrants, but against their will. These people were **Africans** brought to work as **slaves** on the plantations of the South. In all, about 8 million people were brought from Africa.

**Beginning in the 1820s** the number of immigrants coming to the USA from Northern and Western Europe increased rapidly. Faced with problems in Europe – poverty, war – immigrants hoped for and often found better opportunities in America.

**From the 1870s to the 1930s** even more people came from Italy, Poland, Russia and Ukraine..

**By the late 20<sup>th</sup> century** the character of the immigration has changed: Hispanics from Mexico, Central and South America and the Caribbeans were the largest ethnic group among immigrants. In the 1980<sup>th</sup> they were followed by East Asians (Chinese, Koreans, Japanese and so on) and South Asians (Indians and Pakistanis).

The people of the USA comprises:

- a large white majority, (also called Caucasian) 68,0%
- African Americans, (also called Blacks) 12,9%
- Hispanics, (also called Latino) 13,4%
- Asian Americans 4,2%
- Native Americans (Indians) 1,5%

The terms that have been used to refer to African Americans have changed over the history of the USA. The terms “Negro” and “colored” were used in the past; they are not commonly accepted today. The Black and African American seem to be the most acceptable in today’s society; other terms are derogatory and should not be used.

The USA has no official religion. Church is separated from the state.

**Protestants** make up 53% of the American population (Baptists, Methodists, Lutherans, Disciples of Christ, etc.). About 26% are **Roman Catholics**, 2% are **Jews** (Note that in the USA, Jews are identified as a

religious group – not as a nationality.). 2% are **Eastern Orthodox**, and 2% are **Muslims**. 7% consider themselves to be **non-religious**.

According to the US Census Bureau, the population of the country in 2005 was **295.734.134**, and is growing. Immigration is still significant 11% of Americans born abroad.

Although many Americans are rich by any standards, 12,4% live below “poverty line”. In 1999 the average per capita income was \$21.587 and the medium household income was \$41.994.

### **12.3. American Indians (Amerindians)**

Based on anthropological and genetic evidence, scientists generally agree that most Native Americans descend from people who migrated from Siberia across the Bering Strait, at least 12 000 years ago.

When Columbus arrived in the 15<sup>th</sup> century, there were about **10 million** people in North America. They had developed many different kinds of societies and had built civilizations.

The European colonization of America changed the lives and culture of the Native Americans forever. The story of the westward growth of the USA is a story of destruction of the Native Americans.

In the 15<sup>th</sup> – 19<sup>th</sup>, the Native American population was destroyed, by the results of displacement, diseases and in many cases by wars with European groups and enslavement by them. The first Native American group met (1492) Columbus, the Arawaks, **250.000** people, were violently enslaved. Only **500** survived by the year 1550, and the group was extinct before 1650.

In the **15<sup>th</sup> century** Europeans brought horses to the Americas. Some of these animals escaped and began to breed and increase their numbers in the wild. Ironically, horses had originally evolved in the Americas, but the last American horses died out at the end of the last ice age. The re-introduction of horses had a great impact on Native American culture. The new mode of travel made it possible for some tribes to expand their territories, exchange goods with neighboring tribes, and capture game more easily.

Europeans also brought diseases against which the Native Americans had no immunity. Chicken pox and measles were especially deadly for Native American population. Some historians estimate that up to **80%** of native populations may have died because of European diseases.

In the **19<sup>th</sup> century** the Westward expansion of the U.S. forced out large numbers of Native Americans from vast areas of their territories. Under President Andrew Jackson, Congress passes **the Indian Removal Act of 1830**, which forced the Five Civilized Tribes from the east onto western reservations, to take their land for settlement. The forced migration was marked by great hardships and many deaths. Its rout is known as the **Trail of Tears**.

Conflicts known as “Indian Wars” broke out between the US forces and many different tribes. Authorities signed various treaties during this time, but later broke almost all of them. Well-known battles include the Native American victory at the **Battle of Little Bighorn** in **1876**, and the massacre of Native Americans at **Wounded Knee** in **1890**, when the US army killed all the Sioux men, women and children they could find. On **January 31, 1876** the US government ordered all surviving Native Americans to move in reservations.

In **1887** the Congress passed the Act, which put an end to tribal life and converted North Americans to the white way of living.

Only the **Indian Reorganization Act of 1930** stopped the policy of genocide. But by this time many North Americans had lost their native language, their culture, their lands, some tribes had disappeared.

According to 2003 United States Census Bureau estimates **2.786.652 Native Americans** in the US. Western states especially California, Oklahoma, Arizona, and New Mexico have the largest Indian populations. About one-third of the Native Americans live in reservations, land that is aside for them. Most of the others live in cities. Poverty, unemployment, alcoholism, heart diseases and diabetes are major problems, especially on the reservations.

## **12.4. The First English Settlements**

The discovery of America by Columbus (1492) caused a wave of excitement in Europe. To many Europeans the **New World** opened new opportunities for wealth and power.

Spaniards concentrated in the central and southern parts of North America. In the 1550s they took control of Florida and the land west of the Mississippi River, basing their activity on the West Coast.

The English and French began exploring eastern North America in about 1500. At first, both nations sent only explorers and fur traders to the New World. But after 1600 they began establishing permanent settlements there.

The first successful English colony was founded at **Jamestown**, Virginia, in **1607**. The early years of the Jamestown settlement were hard ones. This was partly the fault of the settlers themselves. The site they have chosen was low-lying and malarial. And although their English homeland was many miles away across a dangerous ocean, they failed to grow enough food to feed themselves. They were too busy dreaming of gold. There was “no talk, no hope nor work, but dig gold, wash gold, load gold”, wrote one of the colonists leaders, Captain John Smith.

And then the colonists began to die – in ones, in twos, finally in dozens. Some died in Amerindian attacks, some of diseases, some of starvation. By April 1608, out of a total of 197 Englishmen who had landed in Virginia only 53 still alive.

Jamestown reached its lowest point in the winter 1609 - 1610. Of the 500 colonists living in the settlement in October 1609, only 60 were still alive in March 1610. This was “the starving time”. Stories reached England about settlers who were so desperate for food that they dug up and ate the body of an Amerindian they had killed during an attack.

Yet new settlers continued to arrive. The Virginia Company gathered homeless children from the streets of London and sent them out to the colony. Then it sent a hundred convicts from London’s prisons. Such emigrants were often unwilling to go.

Some Virginia emigrants sailed willingly, however. For many English people these early years of the 17<sup>th</sup> century were a time of hunger and suffering. Incomes were low, but the prices of food and clothing climbed higher every year. Many people were without work. And if the crops failed, they starved. Some English people decided that it was worth risking the possibility of hardships in Virginia to escape from the certain of them at home. For Virginia had one great attraction that England lacked: plentiful land. This seemed more important than the reports of diseases, starvation and cannibalism there. In England, as in Europe generally, the land was owned by the rich. In Virginia a poor man could hope for a farm of his own to feed his family.

On the 16<sup>th</sup> of September 1620 English Puritans (**the Pilgrims**) left England for America to escape religious persecution for their opposition to the Church of England and to find religious freedom. The pilgrims sailed from Europe to America on the ship “**Mayflower**”, and were accompanied by a hundred of other emigrants they called “Strangers”.

On the 9<sup>th</sup> of November 1620 they reached Cape Code, a sandy hook of land in what is now the state of Massachusetts.

Cape Code is far north of the land granted to the Pilgrims by the Virginia Company. But the Pilgrims did not have enough food and water, and many were sick. They decided to land at the best place they could find. On the 21<sup>st</sup> of December they rowed ashore and set up camp at a place they named Plymouth. So it was the beginning of the **Plymouth Colony** what later became Massachusetts. Plymouth was the second permanent British settlement in North America and the first in New England.

The Pilgrims chances to survive were not high. The frozen ground and the deep snow made it difficult for them to build houses. They had very little food. Before spring came, half of the little group of a hundred settlers were dead.

But the Pilgrims were determined to succeed. The fifty survivors built better houses. They learned how to fish and hunt. Friendly Amerindians gave them corn and showed how to plant it. It was not the end of their hardships, but when a ship arrived in Plymouth in 1622 and offered to take passengers back to England, not one of the Pilgrims accepted.

Other English Puritans followed the Pilgrims to America. Ten years later a much larger group of almost a thousand colonists settled nearby in what became the Boston area. These people left England to escape the rule of a new king, Charles I, who was even less tolerant than his father James had been to people who disagreed with his politics in religion and government.

The Boston settlement prospered from the start. Its population grew quickly as more and more Puritans left England to escape persecution. Many years later, in 1691 it combined with the Plymouth colony under the name of Massachusetts.

The ideas of the Massachusetts Puritans had a lasting influence on American society. One of their first leaders, John Winthrop, said that they would build an ideal community for the rest of mankind to learn from. "We shall be like a city on a hill," said Winthrop. "The eyes of the people are upon us." To this day many Americans continue to see their country in this way, as a model for other nations to copy.

Colonists arrived from other European countries, but the English were far better established in America. By **1733** English settlers had found 13 colonies along the Atlantic Coast, from New Hampshire in the North to



Georgia in the South. The French controlled Canada and Louisiana, which included the vast Mississippi River watershed.

England and France fought several wars during the 18<sup>th</sup> century in North America. The end of the **Seven Years War** in **1763** left England in control of Canada and all of North America east of the Mississippi. France chose to leave its North America colony, **New France** to Britain and to keep its Caribbean Islands.

All the land west of the Mississippi was under Spanish control, which was gradually incorporated into the U.S.

The earliest colonists built a flourishing economy. The majority of the rice, indigo, tobacco, livestock, maize, wheat and timber produced was sent for export. Trade was chiefly with Britain, whose manufacturing firms depended on raw materials from its colonies. In return they received manufactured goods. The colonies also traded with the French, Dutch and Spanish.

## **I. ANSWER THE QUESTIONS.**

1. How many states does the USA consist of?
2. Explain the symbolism of the stripes and stars on the US flag.
3. What are the "Pilgrim Fathers"?
4. What were the first English settlements in America?
5. What problems did the first settlers face in America?
6. What is Trail of Tears?
7. Give the names of the three ships on which Ch. Columbus made his first voyage to America?

## **II. WRITE "T" FOR TRUE AND "F" FOR FALSE.**

### **CORRECT THE FALSE SENTENCES.**

1. \_\_\_ Before the American Revolution, the British flag was the flag of the 13 American colonies.
2. \_\_\_ The Great Union flag was the flag of England during the Revolutionary war.
3. \_\_\_ Some people say that Abraham Lincoln made the first American flag.
4. \_\_\_ The "Star-Spangled Banner" is a song about the Liberty Bell and the Statue of Liberty.

5. \_\_\_\_ The flag of the United States now has 13 stars for the American colonies and 50 stripes for the 50 states.
6. \_\_\_\_ The Pledge of Allegiance is a promise of loyalty to the United States.

## *Lecture 13*

### **13.1 The War of Independence The Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776)**

Relations between American Colonies and Britain began to break down during the mid-1700s.

The **Seven Years War**, known to Americans as the French and Indian War, between England and France was ended by the Peace of Paris, which was signed in 1763. France gave up its claim to Canada and to all North America east of the Mississippi River.

Britain had won an Empire. But its victory led directly to conflict with its American colonies. Even before the final defeat of the French, colonists in search of better life began to move over the Appalachian Mountains into the Ohio valley. To prevent war with the Amerindian tribes who lived in the area, the English king, George III, issued a proclamation 1763. It forbade colonists to settle west of the Appalachian until proper treaties had been made with the Amerindians.

The king's proclamation angered the colonists. They became angrier still when the British government told them that they must pay new taxes on imports of sugar, coffee, textiles, and other goods. The government also told them that they must feed and give shelter for British soldiers it planned to keep in the colonies.

In 1765 the British Parliament passed another new law called the Stamp Act. This too was intended to raise money to pay for the defense of colonies. It said that the colonists had to buy special tax stamps and attach them to newspapers, licenses, and legal papers such as wills and mortgage.

Ever since the early years of the Virginia settlement Americans had claimed the right to elect representatives to decide the taxes they paid. Now they insisted that as "freeborn Englishmen" they could be taxed only by their own colonial assemblies. We have no representatives in the British

parliament, they said, so what right does it have to tax us? “No taxation without representation” became their demand.

In 1765 representatives from nine colonies met in New York. They formed the “Stamp Act Congress” and organized opposition to Stamp Act. Most colonists simply refused to use stamps.

All this opposition forced the British government to withdraw the Stamp Act. But it was determined to show the colonists that it had the right to tax them. Parliament passed another law called the Declaratory Act. This stated that the British government had “full power and authority (over) colonies and people of America in all cases whatsoever.”

In 1767 the British placed new taxes on tea, paper, paint, and other goods that the colonies imported from abroad. Again the colonists refused to pay. Riots broke out in Boston and the British sent soldiers to keep order.

In **1768 Boston** was occupied by the British soldiers. From there the problems grew. In **1770** some colonists clashed with the British troops on a Boston street. An angry crowd threw snowballs filled with ice and stones at some soldiers. Then the soldiers fired into the crowd, killing 5 men. This event became known as **Boston Massacre**.

In **1773** to protest a new tax on tea Bostonians, dressed as Indians, threw a lot of boxes of tea into the Boston Harbour. This event became known as the **Boston Tea Party**. This event provoked the British government to close the Boston Harbour, but Boston depended on trade very much.

Before long, colonists in and around Boston began preparing to fight. The first shots were fired in **April 1775**, when British soldiers faced colonial rebels in Lexington, Massachusetts.

In **May 1775** representatives of the 13 colonies met in Philadelphia, as it was America’s most important city, to decide to remain with Britain or fight for independence. Fighting had already begun, but many people still hoped for peace with Britain. Finally, more than a year later, on **July 4, 1776 the Declaration of Independence** was adopted at the Continental Congress. The Declaration says that independence is a basic human right.

*“We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain alienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of happiness....”*

The *Declaration of Independence* is the most important document in American history. It was written by Thomas Jefferson, a landowner and a

lawyer from Virginia. After repeating that the colonies were now ‘free and independent states”, it officially named them the United States of America.

At first the Revolutionary war went badly for the Americans. With few provisions and little training, American troops generally fought well, but were outnumbered and overpowered by the British. The turning point of the war came in **1777** when American soldiers defeated the British Army at **Saratoga**, New York. France had been secretly supporting America, but didn’t want to ally itself openly. But after Saratoga, France and America signed treaties of alliance, and France provided the Americans with troops and warships.

The last major battle of the American Revolution took place at **Yorktown, Virginia, in 1781**. A combined force of American and French troops surrounded the British and forced them to capitulate. Fighting continued in some areas for 2 more years, and officially the war was ended with the Treaty of Paris in **1783**, by which Great Britain recognized American independence and granted the new United States all of North America from Canada in the north to Florida in the south, and from the Atlantic coast to the Mississippi River.

## **13.2. The Constitution of the USA**

### **The Bill of Rights**

When the War of Independence was won, the colonies came together not as a nation, but as a confederation, a group of states. In 1783 most Americans felt more loyalty to their own state than to the new United States. They saw themselves first as Virginians or New Yorkers rather than as Americans.

Each individual American state had its own government and behaved very much like an independent country. It made its own laws and its own decisions about how to run its affairs. The first big problem that faced the new United States was how to join these sometimes quarrelsome little countries into one nation.

During the War of Independence the states agreed to work together in a national Congress to which each state sent representatives. The agreement that set up this plan for the states to cooperate with one another was called the Articles of Confederation. It began to operate in 1781.

Under the articles of Confederation the central government of the United States was very weak. It was given certain rights, but it had no power to make those rights effective. Congress could vote to set up United States

army and navy, but it could only obtain soldiers and sailors by asking the states for them. It could vote to spend money, but it had no power to collect taxes to raise the money. This caused serious problems. When, for example, Congress needed money to pay debts owed to France, some states refused.

When the War of Independence was over, individual states began to behave more and more like independent nations. Some set up tax barriers against others. New York placed heavy import duties on firewood imported from the neighbouring state of Connecticut and on chickens and eggs from New Jersey.

The weakness of its government made it difficult for the new United States to win the respect or the help of foreign nations. The British felt that the American government was so weak that it was not worth dealing with. George IV was sure that the Americans would soon be begging to rejoin the British Empire. Even France, the ally of the Americans during the War of Independence, refused to recognize Congress as a real government.

Many Americans became worried about the future. How could the country prosper if the states continued to quarrel among themselves?

It was clear that for the United States to survive there would have to be changes in the Articles of Confederation. In February 1787, Congress asked each state to send delegates to a meeting or “convention” in Philadelphia to talk about such changes. The smallest state, Rhode Island, refused, but the other twelve agreed. The meeting became known as the Constitutional Convention. It began in September 1787, and 55 men attended. They chose George Washington to lead their discussion.

The delegates soon decided that the confederation could not work and that a new system of government was needed. For this purpose, they wrote the United States Constitution. The Constitution united the states into one country.

*We, the People of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessing of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution of the United States of America.*

The Constitution gave the United States a “federal” system of government with a wide range of powers. But it made the federal government much stronger than before. It gave the power to collect taxes, to organize armed forces, to make treaties with foreign countries and to control trade of all kinds.

The constitution made arrangements for the election of a national leader called the President to take charge of the federal government. He would head the “*executive*” side of the nation’s government.

The law-making or “*legislative*” powers of the federal government were given to a Congress. This was made up of representatives elected by the people. Congress was to consist of two parts, the Senate and the House of Representatives. In the Senate each state would be equally represented, with two members, whatever the size of its population. The number of representatives a state had in a House of Representatives, however, would depend upon its population.

Finally, the Constitution set up a Supreme Court to control the “*judicial*” part of the nation’s government. The job of the Supreme Court was to make decisions in any disagreements about the meaning of the laws and the Constitution.

The Constitution made sure that there was a “balance of power” between these three main parts, or “*branches*” of the federal government. To each branch it gave powers that the other two did not have; each had ways of stopping wrongful actions by either of the other two. This was to make sure that no one person or group could become powerful enough to take complete control of the nation’s government.

Before the new system of government set out in the Constitution could begin, it had to be approved by the majority of the citizens in at least nine of the thirteen states. People made speeches and wrote newspaper articles both for and against the Constitution. Finally, those in favour won the argument. In June 1788 the assembly of the state of New Hampshire voted to accept, or “ratify” the Constitution. It was the ninth state to do so.

The Constitution became the country’s basic law. The men who wrote it included some of the most famous and important figures in American history. Among them were **George Washington** (the 1<sup>st</sup> President of the U.S., 1789 – 1797), **John Adams** (the 2<sup>d</sup> President, 1797 – 1801), **Thomas Jefferson** (the 3<sup>d</sup> President, 1801 – 1809), **James Madison** (the 4<sup>th</sup> President, 1809 – 1817), **Alexander Hamilton** (the 1<sup>st</sup> US Secretary of Treasury, 1789 – 1795), and **Benjamin Franklin** (an outstanding political leader). These men won the lasting fame as **the Founding Fathers of the United States**.

The constitution went into effect in March 1789. But it was still not really complete. In 1791 10 amendments known as **the Bill of Rights** were

added to the document. The Bill of Rights became law on **December 15, 1791**.

The reason for the Bill of Rights was that the original Constitution said nothing about the rights and freedoms of individual citizens. The Bill of Rights altered this. It promised all Americans freedom of speech, the right to bear arms, freedom of religion and the rights to trial by jury and peaceful assembly. It was not until the 1970s or even later that all these rights were guaranteed to Native Americans and African-Americans.

### **13.3. The Louisiana Purchase Expansion to the West**

In 1800 the western boundary of the United States was the Mississippi River. Beyond its wide and muddy waters there were great areas of land through which few white people had traveled. The land stretched west for more than 600 miles to the foothills of the Rocky Mountains. It was known at the time as Louisiana.

The Louisiana Purchase was the first major action of President Thomas Jefferson, and it almost doubled the size of the U.S. In **1801** T. Jefferson learned that France had taken from Spain a large area between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains called Louisiana (the French named the area after their King Louis XIV). Spain was a weak nation, and didn't cause a threat to the U.S. But France – then ruled by Napoleon Bonaparte – was powerful and aggressive. Jefferson considered French control over Louisiana as a danger to the USA. Americans feared that Napoleon Bonaparte might send French soldiers and settlers to Louisiana and so block the further westward growth of the United States. In **1803** Thomas Jefferson arranged the purchase of the area from France. For 15 million dollars Napoleon Bonaparte sold Louisiana to the United States.

Even before this Thomas Jefferson had been planning to send an expedition to explore these territories. He hoped that the explorers might find an easy way across North America to the Pacific Ocean.

The expedition was led by Meriwether Lewis and William Clark. In the spring of 1804 29 men left the trading post of St. Louis, where the Missouri River flows in from the northwest to meet the Mississippi. For months the explorers rowed and sailed their boats up the Missouri, hoping that it would lead them to the Pacific Ocean.

Lewis and Clark arrived back in St. Louis in late September 1806. They

had been away for 2 and a half years and traveled almost 4000 miles. They had failed to find an easy overland route to the Pacific, but they had shown that the journey was possible. They also had brought back much useful information about both Louisiana and the western lands that lay beyond it.

The lands beyond Louisiana were known as Oregon. They stretched from Alaska in the north to California in the south and inland through the Rocky Mountains to the undefined borders of Louisiana. In 1805 four countries claimed to own Oregon – Russia, Spain, Britain and the United States. Russia owned Alaska, and Spain ruled in California. But in Oregon the British and the Americans were in the strongest position.

By 1830s the British had more settlements and trading posts in Oregon than the Americans. American political leaders began to fear that Britain would soon gain complete control of the area. To prevent this they made great efforts to persuade more Americans to start farms in Oregon.

Soon American settlers outnumbered the British in Oregon. American newspapers and political leaders began to express an idea called “manifest destiny.” This was a claim that it was the clear (“manifest”) intention of fate (“destiny”) that the territory of the United States should stretch across North America from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Supporters of manifest destiny demanded that the United States should take the whole of Oregon, all the way north to the boundary with Alaska at latitude 54 degrees 40 minutes. They began using slogan “Fifty four forty or fight” and threatened the British with war. In 1844 James K. Polk was elected President of the US. Polk believed strongly in manifest destiny. In the speech at the start of his presidency he said that the American claim “to the whole of Oregon is clear and unquestionable.”

By the summer 1846 the United States was already at war with Mexico. The war had grown out of events that had been taking place in Texas. Thousands of Americans had settled in Texas, but up to the 1830-s it was ruled by Mexico. The Texas Americans, or Texans, came to dislike Mexican rule. In October 1835, they rebelled. Led by General Sam Houston they defeated a much larger Mexican Army in 1836 at the Battle of San Jacinto and made Texas an independent republic. But most Texan did not want their independence to be permanent. In 1845 Texas became part of the United States.

The Mexican-American war was ended by a peace treaty signed in February 1848. The treaty forced Mexico to hand over enormous stretches of its territory to the US. Today these lands form the American states of



California, Arizona, Nevada, Utah, New Mexico and Colorado.

In 1853 with the **Gadsden Purchase** (**James Gadsden** was an American ambassador in Mexico) America bought from Mexico the strip of land that makes up the southern edge of Arizona and New Mexico. The United States then owned the territory of its present states **except** Alaska (purchased from Russia in 1867) and Hawaii (annexed in 1898).

### **13.4. The Civil War (1861 – 1865). Reconstruction Ku Klux Klan (KKK)**

There were two main reasons of the war. The 1<sup>st</sup> was the issue of **slavery**; should Africans who had been brought by force to the US be used as slaves. The 2<sup>nd</sup> was the issue of **states' rights**: should the US federal government be more powerful than the governments of individual states. It was a war between pro-slavery South and anti-slavery North.

The North and the South were very different in character. The economy of the **South** was based on **agriculture**, especially cotton. Picking cotton was hard work, and the South depended on slaves for it. The **North** was more **industrial**, with a large population and greater wealth.

Slavery and opposition to it had existed since before independence (1776), but in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, **the abolitionists**, people who wanted to make slavery illegal, gradually increased in number. The South's attitude was that each state had the right to make any law it wanted, and if southern states wanted slavery, the US government could not prevent it. Many southerners became **secessionists**, believing that southern states should break away from the Union and become independent.

In the year 1810 there were 7.2 million people in the United States. For 1.2 million of these people the words of the *Declaration of Independence* "that all men are created equal" were far from true.

Thomas Jefferson, who wrote the *Declaration of Independence*, owned slaves himself. So did George Washington and other leaders of the movement for American independence and freedom. Both Jefferson and Washington had uneasy consciences about this. But other big landowners in southern states such as Virginia defended slavery. How could they cultivate their fields of tobacco, rice and cotton without slaves?

In the north of the United States farms were smaller and the climate

was cooler. Farmers there did not need slaves to work the land for them. Some northerners opposed slavery for moral and religious reasons also. Many were abolitionists – that is, people who wanted to end or abolish slavery by law. By the early nineteenth century many northern states had passed laws abolishing slavery inside their own boundaries. In 1808 they also persuaded Congress to make it illegal for ships to bring any new slaves from Africa into the US.

By the 1820s southern and northern politicians were arguing fiercely about whether slavery should be permitted in the new territories that were then being settled in the West. The argument centered on the Missouri territory, which was part of Louisiana Purchase. Eventually the two sides agreed on a compromise. Slavery would be permitted in the Missouri and Arkansas territories but banned in lands west and north of Missouri.

The Missouri Compromise, as it was called, did not end the dispute between North and South. By the early 1830s another angry agreement was going on. This time the agreement began over import duties. Northern states favored such duties because they protected their young industries against the competition of foreign manufactured goods. Southern states opposed them because southerners relied upon foreign manufacturers for both necessities and luxuries of many kinds. Import duties would raise the prices of such goods.

In the next twenty years the US grew much bigger. In 1846 it divided the Oregon Territory with Britain. In 1848 it took vast areas of the Southwest from Mexico. Obtaining these new lands raised again the question that the Missouri Compromise of 1820 had tried to settle – should slavery be allowed on new American territory? Once again southerners answered “yes”. And once again northerners said “no”.

In 1850 Congress voted in favour of another compromise. California was admitted to the United States as a free state, while people who lived in Utah and New Mexico were given the right to decide for themselves whether or not to allow slavery.

In 1854 a Senator named Stephen Douglas persuaded Congress to end the Missouri Compromise. West of Missouri, on land that was supposed to be closed to slavery, was a western territory called Kansas. In 1854 Congress voted to let its people decide for themselves whether to permit slavery there.

A race began to win control of Kansas. Pro-slavery immigrants poured in from the South and anti-slavery immigrants from the North. Each group

was determined to outnumber the other. Soon fighting and killing began. Because of all the fighting and killing in the territory Americans everywhere began referring to it as “bleeding Kansas.”

In 1858 when Senator Stephen Douglas asked the voters of Illinois to re-elect him to Congress, he was challenged by a Republican named Abraham Lincoln. In a series of public debates with Douglas, Lincoln said that the spread of slavery must be stopped. He was willing to accept slavery in the states where it existed already, but that was all.

Lincoln lost the 1858 election to Douglas. But his stand against slavery impressed many people. In 1860 the Republicans chose him as their candidate in the year’s presidential election

In **1861 Abraham Lincoln** was elected President. He and his Party, the Republicans were against slavery but said they would not end it. The southern states didn’t believe it and began to leave the Union. In **1860** there were **34 states** in the USA. **Eleven** of them (*South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee and North Carolina*) left the Union and formed the **Confederation States of America**, often called as the **Confederacy**. **Davis Jefferson** became its President and for most of the war **Richmond**, Virginia was the capital.

The US government didn’t want a war, but on **April 12, 1861** the Confederate Army attacked Fort Sumter, which was occupied by the Union Army. President Lincoln could not ignore the attack, so the **Civil War** began.

On January 1, 1863, Lincoln issued the **Emancipation Proclamation**, which declared freedom for slaves in all areas of the Confederacy that were still in rebellion against the Union. The Proclamation changed the purpose of the war. From a struggle to preserve the Union, it became a struggle both to preserve the Union and to abolish slavery

The Civil War lasted 4 years. More Americans died in this war than in all other wars combined. Before the war, there had been great advances in weapons, but few advances in medicine. Soldiers often died of wounds.

The North had certain advantages over South. It had a larger population and most of the factories and banks. But it had the more difficult task – conquest rather than defense. Also, many of nation’s top military leaders were from Southern states and joined the southern cause. At first, the South gained the upper hand, but gradually the North took more and more territory until confederate resistance wore down, and Union armies swept

through South. On **April 9, 1865**, General Robert E. Lee – the commander of the Confederate army – capitulated. Ulysses S. Grant, a Union army General, treated the defeated Confederate soldiers generously. After they had given up their weapons and promised never again to fight against the United States, he allowed them to go home. He told them they could keep their horses “to help with the spring ploughing.”

Towards the end of the Civil War, the North set out to establish terms under which Confederate States would be readmitted to the Union. The process, through which the South returned, as well as the period following the war, was called Reconstruction.

Northerners divided into two groups over Reconstruction policy. The **moderates** wanted to end the hostility between the North and South, and the **radicals** believed the South should be punished. President Lincoln might have worked a compromise. But assassin **John Wilkes Booth** shot him on April 14, 1865. Lincoln died next day. Vice President **Andrew Johnson** became president. He tried to carry out Lincoln’s policy, but he was unable to overcome radical opposition.

The reconstruction Programme drafted by Congress, included laws to advance the rights of the Blacks. The 13<sup>th</sup> Amendment to the Constitution (**1865**) outlawed slavery throughout the US. The 14<sup>th</sup> Amendment to the Constitution (**1868**) confirmed the citizenship of blacks, and the 15<sup>th</sup> Amendment (**1870**) made it illegal to deny the right to vote on the basis of race.

Congress insisted that the Confederate states agree to follow all federal laws. Between 1866 and 1870, all the Confederate States returned to the Union.

But all the former Confederate states except Tennessee refused to accept the 14<sup>th</sup> Amendment. In March 1867, Congress replied by passing the Reconstruction Act. This dismissed the white governments of the southern states and placed them under military rule. They were told that they could again have elected governments when they accepted the 14<sup>th</sup> Amendment and gave all black men the vote.

By 1870 all the southern states had new “Reconstruction” governments. Most were made up of blacks, a few white southerners who were willing to work with them and white men from the North.

Most white southerners supported the Democratic political party. These southern Democrats claimed that the Reconstruction governments were incompetent and dishonest. There was some truth in this claim. Many of the

new black members of the state assemblies were inexperienced and poorly educated. Some of the white men from the North were thieves.

But Reconstruction governments also contained honest men who tried to improve the South. They passed laws to provide care for orphans and the blind, to encourage new industries and the building of railroads, and to build schools for both white and black children.

None of these improvements stopped southern whites from hating Reconstruction. This was not because of the incompetence or dishonesty of its governments. It was because Reconstruction aimed to give blacks the same rights that whites had. Southern whites were determined to prevent this. They organized terrorist groups to make white men the Masters once more. The aim of these groups was to threaten and frighten black people and prevent them from claiming their rights.

Many Southern whites joined the **Ku Klux Klan (KKK)**, a secret society that used violence to keep blacks, Jews and other ethnic groups from voting and trying to achieve equality. The organization was first formed in **Tennessee** in **1866**, but it was made illegal in 1871. It began again in **1915**, attacking not only African Americans but also Jews, Roman Catholics and people from foreign countries. It had nearly 5 million members in the 1920s. The Klan became strong again in 1960s when it opposed the Civil Rights Movement, often with violence. But today it has less influence. The members wear long white robes and tall pointed hats to hide their identity. Their leader is called Grand Wizard. They sometimes burn the Christian symbol of the cross in front of the houses of African Americans or people who support them.

But Reconstruction had not been for nothing. It had been the boldest attempt so far to achieve racial justice in the United States. The 14<sup>th</sup> Amendment was especially important. But fundamental problem of the black's place in society remained to trouble future generations.

## **I. ANSWER THE QUESTIONS**

1. What are the Fathers of Nation?
2. When was the Declaration of Independence adopted?
3. Which American President was the first to live in the White House?
4. What is Louisiana Purchase?
5. When was the constitution of the USA adopted?
6. What is the Bill of Rights?

7. What is the difference between the Bill of Rights in the UK and the Bill of Rights in the USA?
8. What is A. Lincoln famous for?

## II. DEFINE THE FOLLOWING TERMS

Boston Tea Party, American Revolution, the Treaty of Paris of 1783, Amendment, the Louisiana Purchase, the frontier, the Mexican War, the Gadsden Purchase, the Confederate States of America, abolitionists, the Emancipation Proclamation, Reconstruction, Ku Klux Klan.

## III. IDENTIFY THE EVENTS IN AMERICAN HISTORY RELATED TO THE FOLLOWING NAMES

George Washington, James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, Robert E. Lee, John Walkers Booth, Andrew Johnson.

## *Lecture 14*

### **14.1. The Industrial Revolution (the end of the 19th century)**

After the Civil War American industry changed dramatically. Machines replaced hand labour as the main means of manufacturing, increasing the production capacity of industry greatly. A new nationwide network of railways distributed goods far and wide. Investors and bankers supplied big amounts of money that business leaders needed to expand their operations.

The industrial growth had important effects on American life. The new business centered in cities. As a result, people moved to cities in great numbers, and the cities **grew by leaps and bounds**. For example, Chicago grew rapidly – from 50.000 people in 1850 to over 1 million by 1900. (According to the US Census Bureau, the population of Chicago in 2002 was 2.886.251.)

The value of goods produced by American industry increased almost tenfold between 1870 and 1916. Inventors created, and business leaders produced and sold a variety of new products.

The products included the typewriter (1867), barbed wire (1874), the

telephone (1876) (**Alexander Bell** started the Bell Telephone Company, which became the largest in America), the photograph (early form of record player) (1877), the electric light (1879) (**Thomas Edison**), and the petrol-engine car (1885). Although many of these inventions were originated in other countries, American industrialists and their growing markets developed them into true consumer products.

In the late 1800s the American railway system became a nationwide transportation network. A high point in railway development came in **1869**, when workers laid tracks that joined the Central Pacific and Union Pacific railways near Ogden, Utah. This event called the **Golden Spike Ceremony** marked the completion of the world's first transcontinental railway system. The system linked the US by rail from coast to coast. The new railways stimulated economic growth. The railways became highly profitable businesses for owners.

The business boom caused a sharp increase in investments in the stocks and bonds of corporations. New banks sprang up throughout the country. Banks helped to finance the nation's economic growth by making loans to business.

American writer Mark Twain called this era of industrialization "**The Gilded Age**". Twain used this term to describe the culture of the newly rich of the period. Lacking traditions, the wealthy developed a showy culture supposedly based on the culture of upper class Europeans. The enormous mansions of the newly rich Americans imitated European palaces. The wealthy filled the mansions with European works of art, antiques, rare books, and gaudy decorations.

## **14.2. The USA in World War I.**

### **The Rise of America after World War I**

In August 1914 a war started on the continent of Europe. It was the beginning of a struggle that lasted more than four years, brought death to millions of people and changed the history of the world.

The main countries fighting the war were, on one side, France, Great Britain and Russia. They were known as the Allies. On the other side the main countries were Germany and Austria, who were called the Central Powers.

Most Americans wanted to keep out of the war. They saw it as a purely European affair that was not their concern.

But Americans found it difficult to stay impartial for long. In the first days of the war the German government sent its armies marching into neutral Belgium. This shocked many Americans. They were even more shocked when newspapers printed reports – often false or exaggerated – of German cruelty towards Belgian civilian.

From the very beginning of the war the strong British navy prevented German ships from trading with the USA. But the trade between the United States and the Allies grew quickly.

German leaders were determined to stop this flow of armaments to their enemies. They announced in 1915 that they would sink all Allied merchant ships in the seas around the British Isles. On a hazy afternoon in May a big British passenger ship called the *Lusitania* was nearing the end of its voyage from the US to Britain. Suddenly, without any warning, it was hit by a torpedo from a German submarine. Within minutes the *Lusitania* was sinking. More than 1000 passengers went with it to the bottom of the ocean. 128 of those passengers were Americans.

The sinking of the *Lusitania* made Americans very angry. But most still wanted peace. President Wilson made strong protest to the German government. For a time the Germans stopped the submarine attacks.

In autumn of 1916 American voters re-elected Wilson, mainly because he kept them out of the war. In January 1917, Wilson made a speech to Congress. In it he appealed to the warring nations of Europe to settle their differences and make “a peace without victory.”

But by now American bankers had lent a lot of money to the Allies. And American military supplies were still pouring across the Atlantic. German military leaders feared that, unless the flow of supplies was stopped, their country would be defeated. Only nine days after Wilson’s speech the German government again ordered their submarines to begin sinking ships sailing towards Allied ports. In the next few weeks German submarines sank 5 American ships. With German torpedoes sending American sailors to their death in the grey waters of the Atlantic, Wilson felt that he had no choice. On April, 2 1917 he asked Congress to declare war on Germany. Wilson’s aim was not simply to defeat Germany. He saw the war as a great crusade to ensure the future peace of the world. For him the war would become a war



“to make the world safe for democracy, the war to end all wars.”

In spring of 1918 the German armies began a last desperate offensive against the French and the British. Their aim was to win the war before the new American army was ready to fight. By July they were within a few miles of Paris.

In August 1918 the allied armies counter-attacked. The German armies were driven back towards their own frontiers. In October the German government asked for peace. On November 11, 1918 German and Allied leaders signed an agreement to stop fighting. The war was over.

By January 1919 President Wilson was in Europe. He was there to help to work out a peace treaty.

After much arguing and without consulting the Germans the allied leaders agreed on a peace treaty. They called it the Versailles Treaty, after the place near Paris where it was signed in May 1919.

The Versailles Treaty was harder in its treatment of the Germans than Wilson had wanted. He was disappointed with much of the Versailles Treaty. But he returned to the US with high hopes for part of it. This was a scheme that he believed could still make his dream of a world without war come true. It was a plan to set up a League of Nations, an organization where representatives of the world's nations would meet and settle their differences by discussion instead of war.

Many Americans were against their country becoming permanently involved in the problems of Europe. And they were suspicious of the League of Nations. In March 1920 the Senate voted against the United States joining the League of Nations, and the idea was dropped.

The years following World War I brought sweeping changes. The economy entered a period of spectacular growth. The booming economy and fast-paced life of these years (the 1920s) gave them the nickname the **Roaring Twenties**. The mass movement to cities meant more people could enjoy such activities as cinema, plays and sporting events. Radio broadcasting began on a large scale. The car gave people a new means of mobility. The cost of cars continued to drop and sales rose.

The new role of women also changed the society. The 19<sup>th</sup> Amendment to the Constitution (August 26, 1920) gave women the right to vote in all elections. Many women who found careers outside the home began thinking themselves more as the equal of men, and less as housewives and mothers.

American factories produced more goods every year. The busiest were those making automobiles. Between 1922 and 1927 the number of cars on the roads rose from under eleven million to over twenty million. The electrical industry also prospered. It made hundreds of thousands of refrigerators, vacuum cleaners, stoves and radios.

The United States became the first nation in history to build its way of life on selling vast quantities of goods that gave ordinary people easier and more enjoyable lives.

The growth of industry made many Americans well-off. Millions earned good wages. Thousands invested money in successful firms so that they could share their profits. Many bought cars, radios and other new products with their money. Often they obtained these goods by paying a small deposit and agreeing to pay the rest of the cost through an "installment plan." Their motto was "Live now, pay tomorrow" – a tomorrow which most were convinced would be like today only better, with even more money swelling their wallets.

To help businessmen Congress placed high import taxes on goods from abroad. The aim was to make imported goods more expensive, so that American manufacturers would have less competition from foreign rivals. At the same time Congress reduced taxes on high incomes and company profits. This gave rich men more money to invest.

Yet there were a lot of poor Americans. The main reason for poverty among industrial workers was low wages. Farmers and farm workers had a hard time for different reasons.

During World War I farmers were able to sell their wheat to Europe for high prices. By 1921, however, the countries of Europe no longer needed so much American food. And farmers were finding to sell their produce at home more difficult. Immigration had fallen, so the number of people needing food was growing more slowly.

American farmers found themselves growing products they could not sell. By 1924 around 600,000 of them were bankrupt.

But to Americans who owned shares or "stock", in industrial companies the future looked bright. Sales of consumer goods went on rising.

In 1928 the American people elected a new President, Herbert Hoover, who was sure that American prosperity would go on growing and poverty in which some Americans still lived would be remembered as something in the

past. He said that there would soon be “a chicken in every pot and two cars in every garage.”

Looking at the way their standard of living had risen during the 1920s, many other Americans thought the same.

### **14.3 Great Depression**

#### **Franklin Delano Roosevelt (FDR) and his New Deal**

In 1929 wild financial speculation led to a stock market crash. On **October 29, 1929** the New York Stock Exchange fell (“**Black Tuesday**”). Many businesses and banks failed and millions people lost their jobs.

To understand this incident we need to look at what had been happening in Wall Street in the months and years before that October afternoon.

Wall Street is the home of the New York Stock Exchange. Here dealers called stockbrokers buy and sell valuable pieces of paper - share certificates. Each certificate represents a certain amount of money invested in a company.

Every year in the 1920s the sales of cars, radios and other consumer goods rose. This meant bigger profits for the firms which made them. This in turn sent up the value of shares in such firms.

Owning shares in a business gives you the right to a share of its profits. But you can make money from shares in another way. You can buy them at one price, then, if the company does well, sell them later at a higher one.

More and more people were eager to get some of this easy money. Like most other things in the United States in the 1920s, you could buy shares on credit. A hundred dollars cash would “buy” a thousand dollars’ worth of shares from any stockbroker. Many people borrowed large amounts of money from the banks to buy shares in this way – “on the margin” as it was called.

Most of these “on the margin” share buyers were gamblers. Their idea was to spot shares that would quickly rise in value, buy them at one price and then resell at a higher one a few weeks later. They could then pay back the bank, having made a quick profit.

By the fall of 1929 the urge to buy shares had become a sort of fever. Prices went up and up.

Yet some people began to have doubts. The true value of shares in a business firm depends upon its profits. By the fall 1929 the profits being made by many American firms had been decreasing for some time. If profits were

falling, thought more cautious investors, then share prices, too, would soon fall. Slowly such people began to sell their shares. Day by day their number grew. Soon so many people were selling shares that process did start to fall.

At first many investors held on to their shares, hoping that prices would rise again. But the fall became faster. A panic began. On Thursday, October 24, 1929 – Black Thursday – 13 million shares were sold. On the following Tuesday – October 29 – Terrifying Tuesday – 16.5 million were sold.

By the end of the year the value of all shares had dropped by \$ 40 000 million. Thousands of people, especially those who had borrowed to buy on the margin, found themselves facing debt and ruin. Many committed suicide.

This collapse of American share prices was known as the Wall Street Crash. It marked the end of the prosperity of the 1920s.

The USA suffered through the Great depression for more than 10 years. At the height of the Depression **1933** about 13 million Americans were out of work, and many others had only part-time job. Farm income declined so sharply that more than 750.000 farmers lost their land. Throughout the Depression many Americans went hungry. People stood in “bread lines”, and went to “soup kitchen” to get food provided by charities.

President Hoover believed that he could do two things to end the Depression. The first one was to “balance the budget” – that is, to make sure that the government’s spending did not exceed its income. The second was to restore businessmen’s confidence in the future, so that they would begin to take workers again.

In the early 1930s Hoover told people that the recovery from the Depression was “just round the corner”. But the factories remained closed. The breadlines grew longer. People became hungrier. To masses of unemployed workers Hoover seemed uncaring and unable to help them.

Then **Franklin D. Roosevelt** came on the scene. His efforts to end the depression made him one of the most popular US presidents. The voters elected him to 4 times (1933 – 1945). No other president had served more than 2 terms.

F. D. Roosevelt’s main idea was that the federal government should take the lead in the fight against the Depression. He told the American people: “The country needs and demands bold, persistent experimentation. Above all try something”. Roosevelt’s **New Deal** was a turning point in American history. It marked the start of a strong government role in the nation’s economic affairs that has continued and grown to the present day.

For a hundred days, from March 8 to June 16, 1933 President Franklin D. Roosevelt sent Congress a flood of proposals for new laws. The American people asked for action. In the “Hundred Days” Roosevelt gave it to them.

Many of new laws set up government organizations called “agencies” to help the nation to recover from the Depression. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) found work for many thousands of young men. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) gave individual states government money to help their unemployed and homeless. The Agricultural Adjustment Administration (AAA) set out to raise crop prices by paying farmers to produce less. The National Recovery Administration (NRA) worked to make sure that business paid fair wages and charged fair prices.

Roosevelt believed that his most urgent task was to find people work. He was especially anxious about the young. Roosevelt was sure that putting money into people’s pockets was like pouring fuel into an engine that had stopped to make it start again. The engine could then once more drive the economic machinery that earned the country its living.

By the 1939, despite the New Deal, ten million American workers again had no jobs. Then, in September 1939 Hitler started the Second World War. The United States quickly became the main supplier of weapons to the countries fighting Hitler. American factories began working all day and all night. The number of people without jobs fell. In 1941 the US joined the war itself and unemployment disappeared.

So the Great Depression was only ended by industrial production for the war (World War II).

## **14.4. World War II and the “Post-War” Years**

World War II broke out on the 1<sup>st</sup> September 1939, when Hitler’s armies marched into Poland. By the summer 1940 Hitler’s armies had overrun all of Western Europe. Only Britain – exhausted and short of weapons – still defied them. With Hitler the master of Europe, and his ally, Japan, becoming ever stronger in Asia, Americans saw at last the dangerous position of the United States, sandwiched between two.

Roosevelt persuaded Congress to approve the first peacetime military conscription in American history and to suspend the neutrality Acts. Now he sent Britain all the military equipment that the United States could spare –

rifles, guns, ships. Early in 1941 the British ran out of money. In March Roosevelt persuaded Congress to accept his Lend Lease Plan.

At first America stayed out of the war. Lend Lease gave Roosevelt the right to supply military equipment and other goods to Britain without payment. He could do the same with any country whose defense he considered necessary to the safety of the United States. American guns, food and aircraft crossed the Atlantic Ocean in large quantities. They played a vital role in helping Britain to continue to fight against Hitler. When Hitler attacked the Soviet Union in June 1941, Roosevelt used the Lend Lease to send aid to Russians, too.

On **December 7, 1941** Japanese planes bombed the U.S. military base at **Pearl Harbour**, Hawaii. The USA declared war on Japan on **December 8, 1941**, and three days later Germany and Italy declared war on the USA.

The US government organized the whole American economy towards winning the war. It placed controls on wages and prices, and introduced high income taxes. Gasoline and some foods were rationed. Factories stopped producing consumer goods such as automobiles and washing machines, and started making tanks, bombers and other war supplies. The government also spent a vast amount – two thousand million dollars – on a top secret research scheme. The scheme was code-named the Manhattan Project. By 1945 scientists working on the scheme had produced and tested the world's first atomic bomb.

On May 7, 1945 after a long struggle, the Allies (the USSR, the USA, the UK) forced the mighty German machine to capitulate. Vice President **Harry S. Truman** had become president upon Roosevelt's death a month earlier. The allies demanded Japan to capitulate but the Japanese continued to fight.

**Harry S. Truman** made one of the major decisions in history. He ordered to use atomic bomb. An American airplane dropped the first atomic bomb on Hiroshima, Japan, on August 6, 1945. A second atomic bomb was dropped on Nagasaki on **August 9, 1945**. Japan formally capitulated on **September 2, 1945**, and World War II was over.

After the War the Soviet Union and China took strategic decision to spread Communism to other countries. The USA as the world's most powerful democratic country took on the leading role as the opponent. The containment of Communism became the major goal of the US post-war foreign policy. The postwar struggle between the USSR and the USA became known as **the Cold War**.

Both countries built up arsenals of nuclear weapons, and it made each nation capable of destroying the other.

**The Korean War** resulted from the Cold War. On June 25, 1950, troops from Communist North Korea, equipped by the Soviet Union, invaded South Korea. The UN called on member nations to restore peace. Truman sent American troops to help South Korea, and the UN sent a fighting force made up of troops from many nations. The war lasted 3 years and ended in a truce on July 27, 1953.

Like the war in Korea, the **Vietnam War** was a result of the US policy during the Cold War. Vietnam, a colony of France, wanted to become independent, but the US believed that Communists were behind the independence movement, and so opposed it. The US became involved in Vietnam only gradually. At first, under President Eisenhower, it provided the French with supplies. In 1954 the **Geneva Accords** divided Vietnam into the Communist North and the anti-Communist South. Under President Kennedy, in the early 1960s many US soldiers were sent to the South as advisors. In 1964, after an attack on US ships, Congress passed the **Gulf of Tonkin Resolution**, which gave President Johnson greater power to fight a war, and in spring 1965 Marines were sent to South Vietnam.

The Vietnam War divided the American society. Many University students opposed to it. Students' protests resulted in violent conflicts between the police and students. When Vietnam veterans returned home they found that, instead of receiving the respect normally given to war veterans, they were the object of public anger.

The war in Vietnam taught the US that there are limits to its military strength, and showed that the American people were not willing to pay the high cost in money and in lives for a war away from home. In **1973 President Nixon** removed America's last ground forces from Vietnam.

President Nixon also took steps to reduce tension between the USA and China and the USSR, the two leading Communist Powers. In 1972 he visited these countries. Nixon reached agreements with Chinese and Soviet leaders.

Richard Nixon is unfortunately best remembered for the **Watergate Scandal**, an American political scandal and constitutional crisis of the 1970s, which eventually led to the resignation of the Republican president Nixon. The affair was named after the hotel where the burglary that led to a series of investigations occurred. It involved Republican Party members who in **1972**

tried to steal information from the office of the Democratic Party in the Watergate building in Washington DC. Nixon said that he didn't know about this, but *The Washington Post* and tapes of his telephone conversations proved he did. The word ending **-gate** has since been used to create names of other scandal (**Irangate**).

The economy became the main concern of **President Ronald Reagan**, who succeeded **Jimmy Carter** in **1981**. Reagan wanted to slash the inflation rate and balance the federal budget. Inflation slowed again, largely due to a decline that began in mid-1981.

To stimulate the economy, Reagan proposed the largest federal income tax reduction in US history. Congress approved the tax-cut program, which scheduled cuts in 1981, 1982 and 1983. But high interest rates continued to limit spending by consumers and investment by business. The recession worsened, and the nation experienced its highest rate of unemployment since 1941. An economic recovery began in 1983, and unemployment fell sharply. Inflation remained low. But the tax cuts and heavy government defense spending helped to bring about record deficit in federal budget.

Many in the USA remember «**Reaganomics**» policies with great affection.

Since then the USA has tried to stamp its authority on the world with series of wars, most recently Kuwait, Afghanistan and Iraq.

## 14.5. The Civil Rights Movement

Although the Civil Rights Movement – the struggle for equal rights for blacks – had long been in existence, it gained strength in the 1950s. Blacks had fought in WWII and after the war many blacks migrated from farms to cities. They were less willing to put up with unequal conditions.

The **Montgomery bus boycott**, in **1955**, was an important event in Blacks' struggle for equal treatment. Buses in Montgomery, Alabama were segregated. Whites sat in the front of the bus; blacks had to sit in the back. One day **Rosa Parks** (died in 2006), a black seamstress, was on her way home from work. The bus became crowded, and she was told to give her seat to a white man. This, too, was the law. Rosa Parks refused to give up her seat. She was arrested and fined.

This incident angered Montgomery's black community. It was time to change the law, community leaders decided. And they thought of a strategy.



They would boycott – refuse to use – buses. Since many bus riders were blacks, this strategy was effective – and was fiercely fought by the white community. The boycott lasted over a year. In 1956 the US Supreme Court ruled that bus segregation was against the law of the USA.

One of the civil rights movement's great leaders emerged from Montgomery boycott. The boycott had been partly organized by the then-unknown minister of Montgomery's Dexter Avenue Baptist Church, a man named **Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.**, who advocated nonviolent protest.

In the early 1960s there were many sit-ins in which protestors would, for example, sit at segregated lunch counters. Although the civil rights efforts were nonviolent, they often met violent responses on the part of mobs and the police. Civil rights workers were jailed, beaten, and sometimes even murdered.

By the mid-1960s the civil rights movement had got the attention of the nation and of Congress. Congress had passed laws making segregation illegal, making job discrimination illegal, and strengthening voting rights. The movement had achieved many of its goals.

However, King and others realized that these changes in the law were not enough. There was still much discrimination and prejudice, and blacks on average earned far less than whites. King was convinced that problems of poverty – of blacks and whites, in the South and in the North – had to be dealt with. In **1968**, he was organizing a **Poor People's Campaign**. On **April 4**, while visiting Memphis, Tennessee to speak to striking workers, King was assassinated.

America has made great progress. But King's dream of true equality for all still has not fully come true.

## **14.6. The American Century**

Denims and hot dogs, skyscrapers, mass production and rock music – what do all these have in common? One thing is that they can be found today all over the world. Another is that all of them were born in the United States. The country which for most of its existence had been an importer of influences has become in the 20<sup>th</sup> century a major exporter of them. In many areas of life, American popular tastes and attitudes have conquered the world.

After the Second World War the spread of American influence was continued by a powerful new force – television. As early as 1947, around

170 000 American families had television sets flickering in their living rooms. Soon millions were organizing their activities around the programs on television that evening.

By the 1960s filmed television programs had become an important American export. Other countries found it cheaper to buy American programs than to make their own. Soon such exported programs were being watched by viewers all over the world. One of the most popular was "I love Lucy", a 1950c comedy series featuring a red-haired comedienne named Lucille Ball.

In music, the process of Americanization could be seen clearly in the huge international popularity of rock. Rock began as "rock-n-roll", a music that was first played in 1950s. It came from American South, and combined black blues with the country music of working class whites to produce heavily rhythmic – "rocking" – sound that appealed especially to young people.

To the rock-n-roll enthusiast, Elvis Presley came to symbolize a new culture of young. Among other things, this culture developed its own vocabulary, ways of dressing, even hair styles. More significantly for the future, it began to reject socially approved ideas and ways of behaving.

By the 1970s rock-n-roll blended with the protest songs of the 1960s to become rock, a music that was harder and less escapist. Rock became an international phenomenon, one that millions of younger people worldwide saw as their natural cultural language.

The Americanization of popular taste and habits was not restricted to entertainment. The growing popularity of hamburgers, fried chicken and other easily prepared "fast food" spread American eating habits all over the world. Blue jeans and T-shirts Americanized the dress of people on every continent. And supermarkets Americanized the everyday experience of shopping for millions.

The first supermarkets appeared in the United States in the 1950s. With their huge variety of foods and other consumer goods, supermarkets gave shoppers a much wider range of choices. In the 1950s many Americans saw their loaded shelves and full freezers a visible proof of the superiority of the American way of organizing a nation's economic life.

By the 1980s groups of tall, shining buildings with outer walls of glass and metal were dominating city centers all over the world. To many people

they were images of late-twentieth-century modernity. Yet their origin can be traced back more than a hundred years to the American Midwest.

During the 1880s a number of high, narrow buildings began to rise in the center of Chicago. Similar buildings – so tall that people began to call them “skyscrapers” – were soon rising over other American cities. In the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century they became one of the principal visual symbols of the modern United States.

Skyscrapers were the result of a need for more working and living places where the cost of land was very high. Instead of using a lot of expensive space on the ground their builders used the free space of the sky. New industrial techniques, and availability of plenty of cheap steel, made it possible for them to do it.

Such buildings gave visual expression to the impact of the United States on the twentieth-century world. They were gleaming symbols of a name that some historians were giving to the century even before it reached its end. The name was “the American Century.”

## **I. DECIDE WHETHER THE STATEMENTS ARE TRUE OR FALSE**

1. The US federal Government consists of two branches: the executive and the legislative.
2. There are two major political parties in the USA: the Democrats and the Republicans.
3. Church and state are not separated in the USA.
4. It is illegal to carry guns in all of the USA states.
5. Coke became so popular because cocaine was originally added to it.
6. Martin Luther King was African American Civil Rights activist.
7. The Ivy League is a group of ten elite Universities of the USA.
8. Watergate is a political scandal and constitutional crisis of the 1970s.
9. Broadway is a major shopping street in New York.
10. John Fitzgerald Kennedy was the 35<sup>th</sup> President of the USA who was killed in 1963 in Dallas, Texas.

## **II. IDENTIFY THE EVENTS IN AMERICAN HISTORY RELATED TO THE FOLLOWING NAMES**

Franklin Roosevelt, Al Capone, Harry S. Truman, Richard Nixon, Ronald Reagan, Clark Gable, the Warner Brothers, Francis Ford Coppola, Frank Sinatra, Elvis Presley, Marilyn Monroe, John F. Kennedy, G. Bush (2), Condoleezza Rice, Bill Clinton, Hillary Clinton, Barack Obama.

### ***Lecture 15***

#### **15.1. The US Education System**

Education in the United States is mainly provided by the public sector, with control and funding coming from three levels: federal, state, and local. Child education is compulsory.

Public education in the United States is provided by separate states, not the federal government. School curricula, funding, teaching, employment, and other policies are set through locally elected school boards with jurisdiction over school districts with many directives from state legislatures. Educational standards and standardized testing decisions are usually made by state governments. Unlike many other countries, the US has no standard nationwide curriculum. Rather it is up to the teachers and administrators of the school districts to determine what is and is not taught, although increasingly, statewide curricula are being developed. Also, under the No Child Left Behind Act (2003) there is increasing state and federal pressure to use standardized tests, which lead to a more uniform curriculum.

Under the No Child Left Behind Act (2003), all American states must test students in public schools statewide to ensure that they are achieving the desired level of minimum education, such as on the Regents Examinations in New York, or the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT), and the Massachusetts Comprehensive Assessment System (MCAS); students being educated at home or in private schools are not included. The act also requires that students and schools show "adequate yearly progress." This means they must show some improvement each year. When a student fails to make adequate yearly progress, No Child Left Behind Act mandates that

remediation through summer school and/or tutoring be made available to a student in need of extra help.

During high school, students (usually in 11th grade) may take one or more standardized tests depending on their postsecondary education preferences and their local graduation requirements. In theory, these tests evaluate the overall level of knowledge and learning aptitude of the students. The SAT (Scholastic Assessment Test) and ACT (American College Testing) are the most common standardized tests that students take when applying to college. A student may take the SAT, ACT, or both depending upon the post-secondary institutions the student plans to apply to for admission. Most competitive schools also require two or three SAT Subject Tests, which are shorter exams that focus strictly on a particular subject matter. However, all these tests serve little to no purpose for students who do not move on to post-secondary education, so they can usually be skipped without affecting one's ability to graduate.

In the American educational system children are generally required to attend school from the age of 5 or 6 until age 16, although most continue until they are at least 17 or 18. The public education systems vary from one state to another but generally are organized as follows:

- age 5: Kindergarten;
- ages 6 – 11: Elementary school. Grades 1 to 5 or 6;
- ages 12 - 14 or 11 – 13: Junior high school or middle school (usually grades 7 – 9 or 6 – 8, respectively);
- ages 14 – 18: High school.

Additionally, many children attend schools before they reach the age of five. These pre-schools are often private and not part of the public educational system although some public school systems include pre-schools.

Elementary school	
Pre-school	4-5
Kindergarten	5-6
1st Grade	6-7
2nd Grade	7-8
3rd Grade	8-9
4th Grade	9-10
5th Grade	10-11

Middle school	
6th Grade	11-12
7th Grade	12-13
8th Grade	13-14
High school	
9th Grade	14-15
10th Grade	15-16
11th Grade	16-17
12th Grade	17-18
Post-secondary education	
Tertiary education (College or University)	Ages vary, but often 18-23 (Freshman, Sophomore, Junior and Senior years)
Vocational education	Ages vary
Graduate education	Ages vary
Adult education	Ages vary

Admission to public schools is usually based on residency. To compensate for differences in school quality based on geography, school systems serving large cities and portions of large cities often have "**magnet schools**" that provide enrollment to a specified number of non-resident students in addition to serving all resident students. This special enrollment is usually decided by lottery with equal numbers of males and females chosen. Some magnet schools cater to gifted students or to students with special interests, such as the sciences or performing arts.

### ***15.1.1. Private Schools***

About 90% of all children attend public schools. The remaining 10 % go to private schools, which often are associated with religion. Private schools in the United States include parochial schools (affiliated with religious denominations), non-profit independent schools, and for-profit private schools. Private schools charge varying rates depending on geographic location, the school's expenses, and the availability of funding from sources, other than tuition. For example, some churches partially subsidize private schools for their members. Some people have argued that when their child attends a private school, they should be able to take the funds that the public

school no longer needs and apply that money towards private school tuition in the form of vouchers. This is the basis of the school choice movement.

Private schools have various missions: some cater to college-bound students seeking a competitive edge in the college admissions process; others are for gifted students, students with learning disabilities or other special needs, or students with specific religious affiliations. Some cater to families seeking a small school, with a nurturing, supportive environment. Unlike public school systems, private schools have no legal obligation to accept any interested student. Admission to some private schools is often highly selective. Private schools also have the ability to permanently expel persistently unruly students, a disciplinary option not legally available to public school systems. Private schools offer the advantages of smaller classes, under twenty students in a typical elementary classroom, for example; greater individualized attention and in the more competitive schools, expert college placement services.

### *15.1.2. Home Schooling*

In 2007, approximately 1.5 million children were homeschooled, up 74% from 1999 when the U.S. Department of Education first started keeping statistics. This was 2.9% of all children.

Many select moral or religious reasons for homeschooling their children. The second main category is "unschooling," those who prefer a non-standard approach to education.

Most homeschooling advocates are wary of the established educational institutions for various reasons. Some are religious conservatives who see nonreligious education as contrary to their moral or religious systems, or who wish to add religious instruction to the educational curriculum (and who may be unable to afford a church-operated private school or where the only available school may teach views contrary to those of the parents). Others feel that they can more effectively tailor a curriculum to suit an individual student's academic strengths and weaknesses, especially those with singular needs or disabilities. Still others feel that the negative social pressures of schools (such as bullying, drugs, crime, sex, and other school-related problems) are detrimental to a child's proper development. Parents often form groups to help each other in the homeschooling process, and may even assign classes to different parents, similar to public and private schools.

Opposition to homeschooling comes from varied sources, including teachers' organizations and school districts. The National Education Association, the largest labor union in the United States, has been particularly vocal in the past. Opponents' stated concerns fall into several broad categories, including fears of poor academic quality, loss of income for the schools, and religious or social extremism, or lack of socialization with others.

### ***15.1.3. Educating Children with Disabilities***

The federal law, Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) requires states to ensure that all government-run schools provide services to meet the individual needs of students with special needs, as defined by the law. All students with special needs are entitled to a free and appropriate public education (FAPE).

Schools meet with the parents or guardians to develop an Individualized Education Program that determines best placement for the child. Students must be placed in the least restrictive environment (LRE) that is appropriate for the student's needs. Government-run schools that fail to provide an appropriate placement for students with special needs can be taken to due process wherein parents may formally submit their grievances and demand appropriate services for the child. Schools may be eligible for state and federal funding for the (sometimes large) costs of providing the necessary facilities and services.

### ***15.1.4. Grading Scale***

In schools in the United States children are continually assessed throughout the school year by their teachers, and report cards are issued to parents at varying intervals. Generally the scores for individual assignments and tests are recorded for each student in a grade book, along with the maximum number of points for each assignment. At any time, the total number of points for a student when divided by the total number of possible points produces a percent grade, which can be translated to a letter grade. Letter grades are often but not always used on report cards at the end of a marking period, although the current grade may be available at other times (particularly when an electronic grade book connected to an online service is in use). Although grading scales usually differ from school to school, the



most common grade scale is letter grades – "A" through "F" – derived from a scale of 0–100 or a percentile. In some areas, Texas or Virginia for example, the "D" grade (or that between 70–60) is considered a failing grade. In other jurisdictions, such as Hawaii, a "D" grade is considered passing in certain classes, and failing in others.

Example Grading Scale												
A			B			C			D			F, E, I, N, or U
+		–	+		–	+		–	+		–	
100– 97	96– 93	92– 90	89– 87	86– 83	82– 80	79– 77	76– 73	72– 70	69– 67	66– 63	62– 60	below 60 percent

### ***15.1.5. Extracurricular Activities***

A major characteristic of American schools is the high priority given to sports, clubs and activities by the community, the parents, the schools and the students themselves. Extracurricular activities are educational activities not falling within the scope of the regular curriculum but under the supervision of the school. These activities can extend to large amounts of time outside the normal school day; home-schooled students, however, are not normally allowed to participate. Student participation in sports programs, drill teams, bands, and spirit groups can amount to hours of practices and performances.

Sports programs and their related games, especially football and/or basketball, are major events for American students and for larger schools can be a major source of funds for school districts. Schools may sell "spirit" shirts to wear to games; school stadiums and gymnasiums are often filled to capacity, even for non-sporting competitions.

High school athletic competitions often generate intense interest in the community. Inner city schools serving poor students are heavily scouted by college and even professional coaches, with national attention given to which colleges outstanding high school students choose to attend. State high school championship tournaments football and basketball attract high levels of public interest.

In addition to sports, numerous non-athletic extracurricular activities are available in American schools, both public and private. Activities include Quiz bowl, musical groups, marching bands, student government, school newspapers, science fairs, debate teams, and clubs focused on an academic area (such as the Spanish Club) or cultural interests (such as Key Club).

## 15.2. American Universities

Many pupils, upon finishing high school, choose to continue their education. Post-secondary education in the United States is called higher or tertiary education and colleges and universities are called higher schools. Higher education is provided by

- two-year community and junior colleges (usually awarding the lowest associate's degree);
- four-year colleges (awarding bachelor's degree);
- universities (awarding graduate degrees including master's degree and post-graduate doctoral degree).

Colleges are the nucleus of American higher education. They may be separate, and in this case students graduate from them with a bachelor's degree and may continue their higher education at one of the graduate schools of some university – working there, for instance, towards master's degree. So, colleges are undergraduate institutions while universities include both undergraduate and graduate schools.

### *15.2.1. Types, Cost of Studies, Management and Structure of American Universities*

It should be remembered that American education is totally decentralized and much diversified. Federal authorities do not interfere into this sphere, and each state is responsible for developing its own educational system.

All the universities may be divided into **two types** depending on sources of their financial support. The first type is “**public**” **universities**. They are financed by the state, the county, or the city. That is why they are not totally independent, and the authorities of the state, county, or city have some influence on the university's policies, organization of tuition, etc. This influence is mostly nominal and concerns some very general guidelines. But universities are usually not financed from one source only. There are also many sources of support and sponsorship permitting the institution to stay comparatively independent.

The second type of universities – the “**private ones**” are totally independent of state and local authorities. They are governed by their own fully independent boards of trustees. The sources of financial support are provided by different groups or organizations and by private individuals.

Some of the most famous universities in the USA belong to this type – among them the renowned Harvard University in Cambridge near Boston.

As for the most important differences between public and private universities, three of them can be named. *The first* is the standard of tuition, the standards of students' accommodations, etc. They are traditionally considered higher in private institutions since they can afford to pay higher salaries to professors and teachers and to employ best of them, to purchase the newest and the best equipment, to create better conditions for students' dormitories and so on and so forth. That is why the diplomas of such universities are sometimes valued higher than those of state universities, and it is the private universities that often boast of training the intellectual elite of the country.

*The second difference* is that a private institution can be oriented at students of definite religious nomination, ethnic origin, etc. For instance, there are Catholic universities, Jewish universities, special universities for students of African-American or Hispanic origin. It is utterly impossible in public higher education institutions where any teaching of religious doctrines, any division of students according to their religious beliefs, ethnic origins, and political views are strictly prohibited by law.

*The third difference* is the cost of education. Higher education in the United States is never free of charge. It is true that a lot of students both in public and private institutions get scholarships, but to receive one, a student has to go through a fierce competition to prove her or his right to it. (A *scholarship* is nothing like our Ukrainian students' stipend, i.e., money that students receive to live on. A scholarship is only payment for tuition, and as to board, lodging, clothing and other necessities, it is a student's personal problem where to get money to pay for them. That is why so many, if not the majority, of American students work during their course of studies – even if they get scholarship. There are even special offices at many universities that help students to find jobs providing for their needs but not interfering with their studies.) If you don't get a scholarship (that may cover all the tuition or only a part of it), you must pay your tuition fees. Besides, you pay for books and materials, research and theses expenses, as well as for the room and board if you live in a university dormitory and have meals in students' restaurants and canteens. In private universities it is very costly – a cost of attending it for four years of undergraduate studies varies from \$15000 to \$20000 (in some universities it may be the cost of attending it during a year). Public universities are much cheaper – especially for those who are called in-state student, i.e.,

students-residents of the state attending the university of the same state. Their education during one year at such a university may cost about \$3000 while for out-of-state students it is substantially higher - \$5000 – 6000.

Any institution of higher education in the USA has to be accredited to be recognized. Accreditation is a voluntary and continuous process (an institution board itself has to express a wish and apply to the appropriate accrediting body for being accredited). Accreditation is granted by special recognized independent (non-governmental) accrediting bodies. Two types of accreditation may be granted – institutional (meaning recognition of the institutions as a whole) and specialized (meaning recognition of programs, curricula, syllabi, teaching materials, equipment, teaching staff, etc. for teaching specific disciplines). If institutional or specialized accreditation is granted, it is an official recognition of the fact that the institution or the program meets the established standards of quality.

It has already been mentioned that institutions of higher education are governed by *boards of trustees*, sometimes called *regents* that may be totally independent in private institutions or follow some very general guidelines set by state or local authorities in public ones. The nominal head of the institution is a *president* or *chancellor* who represents it in all its outside relations and supervises everything concerning the institution as a whole. But she or he rarely interferes into the affairs of a separate department, into organization of teaching, learning, or work there until some general principles of the entire institution functioning are infringed. In some institutions of higher education there is also such a high-rank administrative position as a *Provost* and she or he may have her/his own assistants – *Vice-Provost*. For instance, there may be a Vice-Provost for International Education. The *assistants of the president* responsible for separate areas of institutional life and work are called *deans*. The dean of students is responsible for students' life, their accommodations, curricula, degree requirements, and other purely academic matters. But actual management and development of these matters, actual teaching and organization of the teaching/learning process are done by the professors and teachers who are called members of the faculty. The word *faculty* in American English does not have the same meaning as in Russian or Ukrainian. It is not connected with the administrative division of a university but only signifies the teaching staff at it.

The main unit of any university in the USA (or separate colleges and

schools within large universities) is a *department*. It is at the departments that different fields of studies are taught and research in these fields is done. Thus, there may be a department of organic chemistry, of biology, English department, etc. Future teachers, including teachers of English as a second and/or foreign language are trained at the department that is sometimes called the Department of Learning and Instruction. Each department is headed by a *chairperson* who is usually elected for a specific term (all the other administrative positions within a university are also mostly elected but they may be appointed for a definite or indefinite period of time).

A chairperson serves as an intermediary between a department and other university bodies, the president, the deans, and different superior administrators. He or she determines (in consultation with the faculty) teaching assignments, allocates and monitors the department budget, coordinates and supervises recruitment of faculty members and department staff. This staff usually includes a secretary (administrative assistant) and some other assistants – many of them students (work-study students).

Finishing the discussion of the general organization and structure of an American university, it should be mentioned that a university always has its own territory, called campus, more or less isolated from the territory of the rest of the city. All the university buildings (including students' dormitories) are situated on the campus which makes it quite compact and convenient. Since universities are often rather big with tens of thousands of students, a campus may also be very big – making it a small city within a city. In very big universities there may be even several campuses.

### 15.2.2. Faculty

Every person who chooses an academic career and starts teaching and doing research at a university has an aim of becoming a full member of the faculty and getting a *tenure*. The academic tenure in the USA is quite different from the system of employing university teachers in Ukraine when a teacher or a professor has to be reelected every three or five years. Getting tenure in a US university means guaranteed continuation of your appointment at this university until retirement. To dismiss a tenured member of the faculty is very difficult. It requires a very serious cause, or a change of the academic program, or a very strict financial exigency, and becomes possible only after a

long and difficult procedure. This system is designed to ensure economic security of academics since only such security can lead to academic freedom which is the basis for reaching really high standards in teaching and research. If a member of a faculty is tenured, it means that she or he is recognized as an expert in her/his field.

But it should be mentioned that to become a tenured member of the faculty is very difficult, nobody can hope to get a tenure at the start of his university career without lengthy probation period. Many academics spend all their life and retire without getting a tenure. The usual way to getting a tenure is passing from bottom to top in faculty ranks.

The lowest faculty rank is that of *instructor*. Instructors are usually academics with no or little university teaching experience, and their contracts within the university are to be renewed annually.

The next rank in the academic hierarchy is that of an *assistant professor*. The person who has reached it is also considered to be in an introductory position but already set on a tenure track. Usually an assistant professor is a Ph.D., i.e., has a doctorate. This position of an assistant professor is the most important stage since during it the major teaching and research experience is gained and the academic reputation is established. The position may be considered as the final stage of probation before a tenure because at the end of assistant professorship stage a person may apply for tenure or promotion.

There is no set term of duration for a higher academic position either - that of an *associate professor*. But an associate professor is usually a tenured member of the faculty with an established reputation, considerable contribution to his or her specific field of research and to the institution where he/she works, and with great teaching experience.

After a certain number of years an associate professor may apply for the next academic rank - a *full professor* (professor). Conferring this rank is really a recognition of one's outstanding scholarly and teaching achievements.

If all the above ranks are for acting and active academics there is also an honorary rank or title usually given at the end of a long and distinguished academic career (most often at the retirement age). It is the title of *professor emeritus*.

There are also three academic ranks for those academics who work only part time or during a limited period. A *lecturer* is a faculty member teaching some particular course or courses during a limited period of time. An *adjunct*

*professor* usually teaches only part time, and she or he is usually a distinguished member of the faculty with some considerable contribution to her or his field. Finally, a visiting professor is the titled of a distinguished scholar with a high reputation in her or his field invited to teach at this university for a limited period of time.

It should be taken into consideration that it is absolutely impossible for faculty members in the US institutions of higher education to do only teaching without research work that results in publishing in professional and scholarly journals. The principle “publish or die” reigns supreme since without such publications an academic not only will never be promoted but will soon have to abandon the academic career.

A lot of academic's career depends on her or his annual evaluation by her or his students, colleagues, and supervisors (administration). These evaluation of all the members of the faculty are regular, standardized, questionnaire- type procedures determining to a great extent whether the contract with a certain academic be renewed, promoted or tenure granted, some institutional honours awarded, or an appointment to some institutional committee made.

### ***15.2.3. Students: Admission***

Each university or college develops its own admission policy so that admission to some of the universities is highly competitive while at some others it is much easier to become a student. That is why prospective students send their applications to several universities at once. In this way if you fail at one university, you can be successfully admitted to another. But any university takes the following factors into consideration when deciding the question of admission of a prospective student: 1) her or his school grades; 2) completion of courses required for students at a definite university; 3) scores gained on entrance exams that are of the written type and measure both knowledge and aptitude; 4) references from her or his past teachers.

Exams are taken at special examination centres and their results are directed to the university in question.

Thus, to be admitted as an undergraduate student, you do not need to go in person to the university you are applying to before admission. You just

send all the required papers there and come to the university only after receiving the notification that you are actually admitted.

#### ***15.2.4. Students: Undergraduate Studies***

Undergraduate studies are those that lead to the baccalaureate or bachelor's degree at their completion. A bachelor's degree is the first academic degree and it has two major types – that of the Bachelor of Arts (B.A.), for those specializing in humanities, and that of the Bachelor of Science (B.Sc.), for those specializing in sciences. There are also baccalaureates in some specific field, for example, there may be a Bachelor of Nursing.

Undergraduate studies usually last for four years with the first year students called *freshmen*, second year student called *sophomores*, third year ones called *juniors*, and fourth year ones *seniors*. The first two years are devoted to what is called “liberal arts” (variety of disciplines and courses that are not specific to the field where this particular student plans to work in future but are aimed at intellectual development and providing basic cultural and educational background).

The last two years of undergraduate period are devoted mostly to the courses in one discipline – the same one in which the student plans to specialize. This field of specialization is called a *major* – so that a student may be said to *major in* mathematics, biology, or American literature. To obtain a baccalaureate in your major, you must study a number of *obligatory* courses and choose a definite number of *elective* courses (that you can choose from a suggested list).

It is not required to obtain the bachelor's degree in the same university where the student plans to continue her or his education (graduate course). Baccalaureate can be obtained at another university or even at a separate college. In general, American education system is very flexible in that respect. Students can not only start their undergraduate or graduate studies at any age, they also can make what is called a “stopout” for any number of years and then continue again. That is the course of great diversity of students' ages that can be observed in an American college and university classroom. Ages there can vary literally from 18 to 60, and even 70-year old people occasionally be seen.

Some shorter and less expensive alternatives to undergraduate studies became popular in the USA. They are ensured by the already mentioned two-year community, junior and technical colleges. These provide students with liberal arts background and semi-professional and technical training.



### ***15.2.5. Student: Graduate and Post-Graduate Studies***

Graduate studies lead to obtaining a master's degree. They last not less than one year but in some specialties require two years. To have a master's degree, a specific number of courses must be studied with a specific level grades obtained and a master's thesis prepared by the end of the graduate period. The graduate (or advanced) studies are based on research and preparation for professional practice. The main division of master's degrees, just like with the bachelor's degrees, is the division into M.A. (Master of Arts) and M.Sc. (Master of Science), but we can now witness the appearance of new types of master's degrees – such as M.B.A. (Master of Business Administration).

The highest scholarly degree is that of Ph.D. (Doctor of Philosophy) and is not divided into arts and science. But there are some specialized doctoral degrees, such as Ed.D. (in education), M.D. (in medicine), J.D. (in law), and some others. To obtain a doctorate, two-year post-graduate studies (after obtaining the master's degree) are required but in many cases the process may take much longer.

### ***15.2.6. Structure of the Academic Year***

Usually the academic year that starts at the end of August or beginning of September and ends in early or late May is divided into two semesters of 15 or 18 weeks each. There is a two or four-week holiday from mid-December (Christmas holidays), and many colleges gave one-week Easter holiday in March or April. Some schools divide their academic year into four 12-week quarters, only the first three quarters being the school time while the fourth quarter is the summer vacation. Finally, in several institutions division of the academic year into three equal trimesters can be found.

### ***15.2.7. Registration System***

When a prospect student is admitted to the institution, only then her of his official enrollment begins. This enrollment is called *registration* and means registering for studying specific subjects. The selection of these subjects is done on the basis of student's consultations with her or his advisor. Subjects are selected in accordance with the study program that the student has chosen and their list includes both the subjects required by the student's

major department and elective disciplines either selected by the student herself/himself or recommended by the academic advisor. To be registered for a class or course, a student, with the approval of her/his advisor, has to fill a special registration form. This procedure is repeated at the start of every semester, trimester, or quarter.

#### ***15.2.8. Assessment (Grades)***

The highly competitive conditions of life and work in the USA make American students take great care of their grades. Undergraduates need high grades to enter prestigious graduate programs where it is not easy to gain a place. Those entering the job market after college or university know that getting a job greatly depends on their grades and ratings in their classes.

It should be mentioned that it is not allowed to teachers to discuss publicly (for instance, in class) the grades or the academic status of her or his individual students or read out their exams results. All such matters should be discussed with each student in private.

The American educational system uses letter grading. **A** is the highest grade, **B** is good or above average, **C** is satisfactory or average, **D** is below average, while **F** is failure. Pluses (+) and minuses (-) are also used as additions to letters to make a finer distinction of grades. For elective courses a “pass-fail” grade system is sometimes used under which a student who has completed her or his course with satisfactory results receives a “pass” grade while the one whose results are below the required level receives a “fail” grade.

An undergraduate student is expected to have grades not lower than **C** and “pass” an all her or his courses, while the graduate student the expected level of grades is not lower than **B**. A student whose average grades drop lower is placed on a probation for a period of one semester, trimester, or quarter. If his or her grades do not improve during that period he or she may be either temporarily suspended from studies or totally dismissed.

There are no set and fixed examination sessions in American universities. Students in the USA are mostly assessed, tested, graded, and rated continuously during the semester. Exams as final tests in some courses can be held at different times. So, the overall academic achievements of a given student are measured by grade points.

### ***15.2.9. Credit System***

The credit system in the American universities is an outcome of the above mentioned system of students' continuous assessment used instead of examination sessions held once or twice a year. In accordance with the credit system, the student's advance in every course is measured in course credits. They are often called *credit hours* and mostly equal the number of hours spent in class per week. In some cases credit hours may reflect the workload or level of difficulty of a course. So, a typical class is 3 – 4 credit hours and 2 – 3 laboratory periods are considered equal to one credit hour. Credits are awarded for different kinds and types of academic work, and every student must earn a definite number of credits for a semester, the whole undergraduate course of studies, the entire graduate course of studies, etc. Thus, 12 – 16 credits a semester or a quarter is the norm of academic load for an undergraduate student while the whole of the four-year baccalaureate degree required 120 – 136 credit hours. For a graduate student a one-semester academic load equals 9 – 12 credits while the whole master's degree course requires 30 - 36 credits after the bachelor's course. The doctorate requires 90 credits beyond the bachelor's, and 16 credits are awarded for the doctoral dissertation.

### ***15.2.10. Methods of Teaching and Learning***

There are differences from the traditional methods of teaching and learning in American higher schools. The first of them that strikes the eye is the fact that the number of lectures for students is quite small in comparison to what we are used in Ukraine. Those lectures that are held are of a lecture-discussion type when a professor makes frequent pauses to ask questions that stimulate discussions. In general, attempts are made to reduce lectures to a bare minimum as preference is given to interactive classes held in small groups of not more than 12 – 15 students.

In these classes the teacher plays the part of a consultant, a "facilitator" rather than an authoritarian supervisor. The greater part of talking in such classes is done by students themselves who also often seem to be organizing the lesson and conducting it. The teacher's guiding role is more implicit than explicit.

The above type of classes is close to seminar method. The difference is in the fact that these classes are often based not only on students' reading and

studying some materials and literature recommended by the teacher and/or found in the process of “library search”. They are often the outcomes of students’ project work and independent investigations that serve as a basis and starting point of classroom discussions and analysis.

The above mentioned classroom activities require a lot of independent work to be done by students and a lot of individual teacher’s work with them. A student and her/his professor work a lot on a one-to-one basis when a student, in consultation with a professor, takes some independent study (investigation) of an academic subject. A certain number of credits is earned by the student for such studies, and this number is usually greater than in a class course. Every independent study and most students’ assignments in general are completed with students’ submitting some kind of papers to their instructor. Checking and commenting on those papers is an important and time-consuming part of teaching job. Besides, since such a great emphasis is made on students’ out-of-class assignments, independent work, and preparation of different papers, each member of the faculty is expected to hold *office hours* for individual meeting with students and guiding their work. Office hours are always held in the member of the faculty’s personal office (*every member of the faculty in American universities as a rule has her or his personal office which is ordinary quite a spacious room with a writing desk, book shelves for a personal professional library, a computer, a telephone and some other equipment*) for not less than three hours per week. The office hours are always indicated on the member of the faculty’s door and in her/his course syllabus given to students.

There are different procedures for meeting your teacher during her or his office hours. Usually every student who comes is assigned from half an hour to fifteen minutes of the member of the faculty’s office time. Some members of the faculty prefer students coming by appointment only. With this purpose they provide students with their office telephone numbers so to call and make such an appointment. In other cases there may be a sign-in list on a professor’s office door and students write their names next to particular half-hour or fifteen minute time slot. There are also members of the faculty, who prefer informal “drops-in”, i.e., students come during office hours without previous appointments.

As a summary of everything said above it may be pointed out that the principal forms of teaching and learning in American universities are interactive seminar-type classes, students’ independent work and their doing

different out-of-class assignments. Lectures are also important though having much lesser share than the former forms.

But there is one more form of teaching/learning. It is different quizzes, tests and exams that are often given to American students. Small quizzes and tests are usually given regularly during the term. Exams and major tests are usually given twice a term – in the middle and at the end. It is on the basis of all examination results, papers, and laboratory reports that a student has written; on the basis of her/his participation in classroom discussions and preparedness for them; as well as on the basis of her/his class attendance that the final grade is assigned to the student by her or his professor. It is the term grade which is the most important evaluation of the work of every student registered in the class. This grade is always reported to the institution's registrar for inclusion into each student's record.

Speaking about the methods of teaching and learning in the USA, it cannot but be mentioned that they are greatly influenced by modern technical aids. For instance, audiovisual materials are an important integral part of practically every course and videos are extensively used in teaching many disciplines.

It goes without saying that computers are occupying a very important position in the system of higher education in the USA. It is not only computer-aid instruction, but direct inclusion of e-mail and Internet into the teaching/learning process. Instruction through computer networks is also the basis of *distance learning*. Distance learning is the modern substitute for extramural studies with their inadequate efficiency. In distance learning students listen to lectures, contact their peers and teachers, do assignments through their persona; computers networked to the computers of the distance learning centre. They are required to come to this centre in person for different classes and consultations only several times a year.

In American universities the greatest attention is paid to providing students with the best conditions and facilities for independent work as the most important part of the curriculum. Every university has a number of self-study centres, media centres, and computer labs where students can work independently with specially selected printed resources, audiovisual resources, software resources, as well as make use of incredible resources supplied by the Internet. But certainly the main self-study centre is university library. It should be mentioned that American students do not borrow their course books from

the library (there may be just one or two copies of any single course book in it kept there as a specimen) but buy them. So, students mainly use the university library to work with scholarly, reference, and other professional literature. American university libraries are incredibly rich in that respect containing sometimes hundreds of thousands and even millions of volumes.

University libraries are very convenient to use. They work very long hours, often Saturdays and Sundays included.

### ***15.2.11. Classroom Behaviour***

Students in the USA are expected to attend their classes regularly, to prepare for them thoroughly, and to take an active part in classroom discussions and in every kind of classroom work. There is always a deadline for submitting all kinds of written papers, and the paper of a student who is late is not accepted with all the unpleasant consequences for a defaulter. In general, if above the conditions and many other are not observed, an instructor is entitled to assign students lower term grades. Taking into consideration the importance of grades to American students, it is a great incentive to maintaining students' active involvement in classroom work and their classroom discipline. This discipline is quite strict, for instance, both the instructor and the students are expected to appear exactly on time for class sessions, and the students are always on their seats when the professor enters the room. But the discipline, though being strict and ensuring assiduous students' work, tends to be rather informal.

Both on campus and for class American students often dress informally. You will hardly see ties, formal suits and dresses. Slacks, jeans, T-shirts, shorts, sweaters are the kind of regular clothes throughout the year. It is practically the same style of dressing for members of the faculty.

Professors usually address their students by their first names, and students often address their teachers in the same way – which is considered normal and contributing to creative, cooperative, relaxing environment in the classroom. However, the students will use this form of address only if the instructor specifically requires them to do it – otherwise they will use the title (“professor”, “Dr.”, “Miss”, “Mr.”, etc.) with the last name or speak without using any title at all. It is not considered wrong to interrupt the instructor with questions, remarks, and comments on what is said, even to challenge

her or his opinion. Frantic waving of hands by students during a lecture or occasional comments without a permission to speak are not a sign of disrespect or rudeness. All of it is generally characteristic of the American academic and scholarly style of behaviour – and it should be interpreted as a sign of interest and desire to understand. That is why if a lecturer sees students' raising hands during the explanation, she or he stops and answers their questions. Such classroom behaviour, as well as informal dressing for classes, derives from the American belief that for education and learning experience to be successful, they should be approached in an interested, comfortable, and easy-going manner.

There are two other reasons behind such classroom behaviour. First, American children are taught from early age to always speak up when they do not understand something or have a different opinion. It is often considered the teacher's duty to encourage active debate in the classroom, especially if it is a university classroom. But if a professor does not like to be interrupted in her or his lecture or talk, s/he may always request her/his students to ask questions or to make comments at the end of it, and the students will usually comply with it.

The second reason for the classroom behaviour described above is the fact that, due to the cost of higher education, students consider themselves as consumers entitled to all the explanations they need. That is why they also expect full clarification at the beginning of each course as to the matters of grading policy, the course structure, aims and requirements, the dates, contents, requirements concerning all the papers, assignments, tests and exams. Students want and usually get at the very inception of the course the written outline of it – the topics to be covered in the course, the readings assigned to it, the dates the assignments are due, the time of and requirements to mid-term and other examinations, etc.

Faculty members at American universities often emulate their students in informality of classroom behaviour. It may be demonstrated not only in informal dressing and calling students by their first names, but in general behaviour as well. You will frequently see a professor teaching while sitting on a table, or languidly reclining in an armchair, or roaming about the classroom.

The equipment and furniture of classrooms are often conducive to an informal, easy-going manner. Most classrooms are not very big (for not more than 15 students) and quite cozy. Students do not sit at long desks placed in

rows. As a rule, every student has an individual arm-chair-type seat with a folding prop for writing. These seats can be moved at will but are usually placed in a circle with the teacher's desk and seat closing the circle at its top. All this makes an American university classroom quite a lively and dynamic place.

Informality of American students, liveliness, and dynamism of their and their teachers' classroom behaviour in no way preclude or diminish students' respect to the faculty that is always clearly demonstrated. But students also expect their opinions to be listened to and discussed, not waved aside. They expect their written assignments, quizzes, test, and papers to be checked and returned to them in reasonable time (not later than the time appointed by the professor herself/himself) and thoroughly commented. They expect everything (classes, instructor's office hours, etc.) to begin and end as appointed. But most of all they expect to be treated as sensible human beings having rights to speak up and express their opinions and challenge the opinions of others – not like vessels to be filled up with knowledge by older and wiser superior.

The important aspect of academic mores in the USA is the attitude towards what is called *cheating* in the classroom, when doing assignments, during quizzes, tests, and exams. Giving unauthorized prompts to your fellow students, using "cribs", and other unauthorized materials when taking quizzes, tests, or exams, copying other students' papers and assignments and trying to pass them off as your own, all other cases of plagiarism when, for instance, in her or his paper a student copies whole passages or pages from a course book or scholarly book without citing the source – all these and other similar kinds of behaviour are considered as academic cheating. In American universities academic cheating is treated as a major offence – in fact, a crime. A student found guilty of plagiarism, of trying to find out beforehand the exact tasks or questions to be answered during tests or exams, or giving unauthorized prompts to other students will face very serious penalties. A special record will be made of her or his misdemeanor that may prove a serious obstacle in the entire future career.

It should be mentioned at the end of the discussion devoted to classroom behaviour that in American universities the mores in general are greatly influenced by the diversity of students' ages and backgrounds. The same diversity often exists in racial, cultural, and even educational backgrounds of different students in the class. That is why an instructor often has to take into account the fact that she or he cannot always assume a base of



common knowledge and culture in the group. What is more important is that s/he has to be very careful (politically correct) in what she or he says and how she or he behaves – not to hurt racial, national, religious, and other beliefs and feelings of some of the students.

### ***15.2.12. Life on Campus and Extracurricular Activities***

University campuses in the USA are small, independent communities with campus life very active. There is usually a student government that oversees all students' concerns and activities. There are various students' associations whose activities range embraces practically all possible students' interests.

Sports associations and clubs play an important part because sport is always paid great attention to in American universities. But there are also numerous associations, clubs, and discussion groups or societies engaged in politics, art, drama, poetry, and what not.

A campus newspaper is usually published by students themselves, and a lot of concerts, cultural, and theatrical events are organized where students perform – though often outside actors and artists are invited.

Some of students' associations and societies may seem quite strange, exotic, or even shocking – for instance, associations of sexual minorities. There are also selective associations which may be difficult to join. They are called “Greek” organizations, known as fraternities or sororities – one example of which is the famous *Phi Beta Kappa*. The name of the society founded in 1776 originates from the first letters of the Greek expression *philosophia biou kibernetes* meaning “philosophy, the guide of life”, which is the society motto.

College and university students may be elected to these fraternities usually in their senior years. To become a member of such fraternity or sorority a student has to pass successfully through a complicated election procedure and meet a number of criteria. It is considered a great honour to be elected as a member, and a sign of social ostracism to be back-balled.

Students' groups and societies are often discipline-focused (a history club) or they may be concerned with some national language and culture (Spanish, German, Ukrainian language and culture clubs); they may also be focused on some peculiar issues (minorities' rights and development,

ecology, etc.). There are different associations of students according to their national origin, or associations of foreign students by countries (Chinese students, Korean students, etc.). A lot of students' organizations are broader community-oriented and action-oriented – for instance, those that provide assistance to physically handicapped people, sponsor lecture series and drama events, and a lot of others of this kind. Many of students' voluntary associations are branches of large national ones, such as Rotary Club, Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, the League of Women Voters, and a number of others.

All these groups, societies, clubs, and associations are absolutely voluntary, all the initiative originates from students only, and all the activities are organized solely by them without any outside interference. On the other hand, there is some degree of overseeing to prevent excesses. This supervision is usually provided by the Office of Student Life accountable to the dean of students. But such supervision really has the only aim of preventing excesses and is in no way prohibitive in nature. For instance, nobody prohibits different students' protest actions on campus that are quite frequent and often directed against the university administration.

Members of the faculty also have various clubs, societies, and associations of their own, and a lot of instructors and professors are involved with students' associations as participants or/and advisors.

Various formal dances, parties, and such like events are often organized by diverse clubs, societies, and associations, and informal parties and gatherings in the dormitories are also quite frequent.

The academic buildings are usually open to students and faculty members round the clock – and they are often full round the clock, even at night, because a lot of people have urgent work to do.

But on the other hand, there are strict security measures, and any attempts at misdemeanor, or at breaking the regulations are usually quickly, and often quite ruthless, dealt with. It should be noted that life on university campuses is not so cloudless as it may seem. Crime is an all-American problem, and universities have not totally avoided it. Thefts, robberies, even rapes and murders happen – that is why all the universities employ security forces that sometime have a lot of work to do. But the absolute majority of students and staff are as a rule quite well-behaved, regulation- and law-abiding. It should not be forgotten that American students' academic load is very great (often much greater than in Ukraine) and they study very

diligently, industriously, and conscientiously because of their preoccupation with grades – since students feel that all their future life depends on their academic achievements. Besides, as it has already been mentioned, a lot of students have to study and to work at the same time to provide for their maintenance at the university. So, they just do not have time and opportunities for idling and disorderly behaviour.

### **Talking Points**

- Discuss the difference between public and private higher education establishments in the USA. What type of American higher education establishment would you prefer to study at? State the reasons for your preference.
- What is your opinion about the campus life and extracurricular activities in American universities? Discuss the differences from the standards of campus life and the standards of extracurricular activity organization in Ukrainian universities.

### **Writing Topic**

- At the request of the Ukrainian Ministry of Education write a short guide for Ukrainian students who are going to study at American colleges and universities. Specify the cost of undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate studies in the USA, the admission system, etc.

# **APPENDIX 1**

## **IT'S INTERESTING TO KNOW SHOPS AND SHOPPING IN THE UK AND THE USA**

### **Marks & Spencer**

#### **A British Success Story**

Marks & Spencer, the British food and clothes company, is the most famous British shop in the world. At the moment, there are 283 M&S shops in Britain, and other shops in France, Belgium, Holland, Spain, and Portugal. Currently, they are building a large new store in Paris on the rue de Rivoli. In North America, the company owns Brooks Brothers and there are about fifty stores in Canada. More and More people, from Hong Kong to Lisbon, are buying their clothes and food from M&S.

The company employs about 50000 people worldwide. Sales have increased by 80% over the last ten years, mainly due to expansion overseas. Many of the shops abroad are franchises. Owners of franchises buy all their stock from M&S and pay the company a percentage of their turnover.

The clothes vary from country to country. In Thailand, for example, M&S sells more short-sleeved shirts because of the climate. In Japan, they sell smaller sizes because of the average size of the population. In Austria, they stock very large clothes. Food departments sell typically British food: tea, cake, biscuits, etc., and the shops in Paris are very popular at lunchtime for the sale of sandwiches.

Why is Marks & Spencer so successful? The standards of quality are very high. All suppliers have regular inspections. All customers can return any item, which they think, is unsatisfactory. Shelf lives are short. This means that items only stay in the shop for six or seven weeks. Eighty per cent of the suppliers are British; in fact, M&S buys twenty per cent of the total cloth produced in Britain. Prices are high, but so is the quality. In Britain, one man in five buys his suit at M&S, and one woman in three buys her underwear there.

What about the future? At the moment, the company is studying plans for development in Eastern Europe, Japan, and even China. Next century, it is possible that one Chinese in five will wear Marks & Spencer suits. That's a lot of suits!

## Currency and Cash

The currency of Britain is the pound sterling, whose symbol is “£”, always written before the amount. Informally, a pound sometimes is called a “quid”, so £20 might be expressed as “twenty quid”. There are 100 pence (written “p”, pronounced “pea”) in a pound.

The one-pound coin has four different designs: an English one, a Scottish one, a Northern Irish one and a Welsh one (on which the inscription on the side is in Welsh, on all the others it is in Latin).

Coins are made at the Royal Mint. Paper notes, which have the Queen’s head on one side and a famous person, for instance, Charles Dickens, on the other are worth £5, £10, £20, and £50.

In Scotland banknotes with a Scottish design are issued. These notes are perfectly legal in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, but banks and shops are not obliged to accept them if they don’t want to and nobody has the right to demand change in Scottish notes.

The US dollar is made up of 100 cents. The Department of Treasury prints bills (paper money) in various denominations (Values): \$1, \$2, \$5, \$10, \$20, \$50, and \$100. US bills are green in colour and so are sometimes called greenbacks. On the front, each has the picture of a famous American. The dollar bill, for instance, shows George Washington, the first US president. An informal name for dollars is bucks, because in the early period of US history people traded the skins of bucks (deer) and process would sometimes be given as number of buckskins.

The Treasury also makes US coins: pennies that are worth 0.01 of a dollar, nickels (0.05), dimes (0.1) and quarters (0.25). There are also half-dollars (0.5) and silver dollar but these are not often seen.

When you write an amount in figures the dollar sign (\$) goes to the left of the amount and a decimal point (.) is placed between the dollars and the cents. If the amount is less than one dollar, the cent sign (¢) is put after the numbers. So you write \$5, 45.62, and 62¢.

## How Much Do You Want?

On tins and packets of food in British shops, the weight of an item is written in the kilos and grams familiar to people from continental Europe. However, most British people have little idea of what these terms mean. Therefore, many of their packets and tins also record their weight in pounds

(written as “lbs”) and ounces (written as “oz”). Moreover, nobody ever asks for a kilo of apples or 200 grams of cheese. If those were the amounts you wanted, you would have to ask for “two ponds or so” of apples and “half a pound or less” of cheese and you would be about right.

Shoe and clothing sizes are also measured on different scales in Britain. The people who work at shops, which sell things usually, know about continental and American sizes too, but most British people don't.

### **Spending Money: Shopping**

The British are not very adventurous shoppers. They like reliability and buy brand-name goods wherever possible, preferably with the price clearly marked (they are not very keen on haggling over prices). It is therefore not surprising that a very high proportion of the country's shops are branches of chain stores.

Visitors from other European countries are sometimes surprised by the shabbiness of shop-window displays, even in prosperous areas. This is not necessarily a sign of economic depression. It is just that the British do not demand art in their shop windows. In general, they have been rather slow to take on the idea that shopping might actually be fun. On the positive side, visitors are also sometimes struck by the variety of types of shop. Most shops are chain stores, but among those that are not, there is much individuality. Independent shop owners feel no need to follow conventional ideas about what a particular shop does and doesn't sell.

In the last quarter of the 20<sup>th</sup> century supermarkets have been moving out of towns, where there is lots of free parking space. As they do so, they are becoming bigger and turning into 'hypermarkets' stocking a wider variety of items. For example, most of them now sell alcoholic drinks, which are conventionally bought at shops called 'off-license'. They also sell petrol and some items traditionally found in chemists and newsagents.

However, this trend has not gone as far as it has in some other European countries. For example, few supermarkets sell clothes, shoes, kitchen utensils or electric goods. They still concentrate mainly on everyday needs. An exception is the first warehouse-shopping club in Europe, opened in 1993 in Essex by the American company Costco. Here, 'members' (who have paid a small fee) can find almost everything that a shopper could ever want to buy – at a reduced price. Shopping clubs of this kind have spread

rapidly all over the USA. At the time of writing, it is too early to say whether they will do so in Britain. The move out of town, however, is already well established, with many of the country's chain stores following the supermarkets into specially built shopping centres, most of them covered. (Britain has some of the largest covered shopping areas in Europe.)

The area in town where the local shops are concentrated is known as the high street (the American equivalent is 'Main Street'). British high streets have suffered from move towards out-of-town shopping. In the worst affected towns, as many as a quarter of the shops in the high street is vacant. But high streets have often survived by adapting. In larger towns, shops have tended to become either more specialized or to sell especially cheap goods (for people who are too poor to own a car to drive out of town). Many have become charity shops (selling second-hand items and staffed by volunteers) and discount stores. Many of the central streets are now reserved for pedestrians, so that they are more pleasant to be in.

Even most high streets still manage to have at least one representative of the various kinds of conventional food shop (such as butcher, grocer, fishmonger, greengrocer), which do well by selling more expensive luxury items. (Although the middle classes use them, supermarkets have never been regarded as 'smart' or fashionable places in which to shop.)

The survival of the high street has been helped by the fact that department stores have been comparatively slow to move out of town. Almost every large town or suburb has at least one of these. They are usually not chain stores and each company runs a maximum of a few branches in the same region.

Americans used to do shopping in the downtown areas of cities. In places like New York and Philadelphia there is still plenty of choice in downtown shopping, but elsewhere downtown shops have lost business to shopping malls, which people go by car. A typical mall has one or more anchor stores, well-known stores that attract people in. The Mall of America in Minnesota is one of the largest, with 400 stores on four levels.

### **The Corner Shop**

A shop by itself in a residential area is often referred to as 'the corner shop'. These sometimes sell various kinds of food, but they are not always general grocers. Usually their main business is in newspapers, magazines, sweets and tobacco products. It is from these that most 'paper rounds' are organized. Only in corner shops do shopkeepers know their customers

personally. Only in them is the interaction across the counter often social as well as transactional. People working in other shops are often very helpful, but the conversation usually has some clear purpose.

In the last quarter of the twentieth century, many corner shops have been taken over by people from southern Asia who have delighted the neighbourhood by staying open very long hours.

### **Shop Opening Hours**

The normal time for shops to open is nine in the morning. Large out-of-town supermarkets stay open all day until eight o'clock. Most small shops stay open all day (some take a break for lunch, usually between one and two) and then close at half past five or a bit later. In some towns there is an 'early closing day' when the shops shut at midday and do not open again. However, this is becoming rare. In fact, in the last quarter of the twentieth century, shop opening hours have become more varied. Regulations have been relaxed. It is now much easier than it used to be to find shops open after six. In some areas the local authorities are encouraging high street shops to stay open very late on some evenings as a way of putting new life into their 'dead' town centres.

But the most significant change in the recent years has been with regard to Sundays. By the early 1990s many shops, including chain stores, were open on some Sundays, especially in the period before Christmas. In doing this they were taking a risk with the law. Sometimes they were taken to court, sometimes not. The rules were so old and confused that nobody really knew what was and what wasn't legal. It was agreed that something had to be done. On one side were the 'Keep Sunday Special' lobby, a group of people from various Christian churches and trade unions. They argued that Sunday should be special, a day of rest, a day for all the family to be together. They also feared that Sunday-opening would mean that shop workers would be forced to work too many hours. On the other side were a number of lobbies, especially people from women's and consumer groups. They argued that working women needed more than one day (Saturday) in which to rush around doing the shopping. In any case, they argued, shopping was also something that the whole family could do together. In 1993 Parliament voted on the matter. By a small majority, the idea of a complete 'free-for-all' was defeated. Small shops are allowed to open on Sundays for as long as they like, but large shops and supermarkets can only open for a maximum of six hours.



## **Second-Hand Shopping**

Many people buy second-hand books, clothes, toys and household goods. Most towns have at least one second-hand shop run by a charity, to which people give things they no longer want so that they can be sold to raise money for the charity. Other second-hand shops sell things on behalf of people and give them part of the sale price. People also buy and sell things through the classified advertisements columns in newspapers.

In the USA garage sales and yard sales also enable people to sell things they no longer want. Many people make a hobby out of going to garage sales to look for bargains. In Britain car boot sales are equally popular. Sometimes people organize a jumble sale (*AmE* rummage sale) to raise money for a school or charity.

## **Distance Shopping**

Mail-order shopping has a long tradition in the USA. In the days when people were moving west many people lived a long way from any shop. The solution was the Sears and Roebuck catalogue, a thick book giving descriptions of every kind of product. People sent in their order by mail and the goods arrived the same way. Although Sears stopped producing its catalogues in the 1990s, mail-order shopping is still popular. People can now also browse the products of many companies on the Internet, place an order and pay by credit card. There are several mail-order services in Britain, and shopping on-line, especially for books, is becoming increasingly popular

## **Discussion**

**In your country, do shops stay open for more or fewer hours a week than they do in Britain? Do you think the de-regulation of shop opening hours is a good thing?**

## APPENDIX 2

# KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND FROM 1066

### The House of Normandy

William I	1066 – 1087
William II	1087 – 1100
Henry I	1100 – 1135
Stephen	1135 – 1154

### The House of Anjou (Plantagenet)

Henry II	1154 – 1189
Richard I	1189 – 1199
John	1199 – 1216
Henry III	1216 – 1272
Edward I	1272 – 1307
Edward II	1307 – 1327
Edward III	1327 – 1377
Richard II	1377 – 1399

### The House of Lancaster (sub-division of Plantagenet)

Henry IV	1399 – 1413
Henry V	1413 – 1422
Henry VI	1422 – 1461

### The House of York (sub-division of Plantagenet)

Edward IV	1461 – 1483
Edward V	1483
Richard III	1483 – 1485

### The House of Tudor

Henry VII	1485 – 1509
Henry VIII	1509 – 1547
Edward VI	1547 – 1553
Mary I	1553 – 1558
Elizabeth I	1558 – 1603

### **The House of Stuart**

James I	1603 – 1624
Charles I	1625 – 1649
The Commonwealth	1649 – 1659
Charles II	1660 – 1685
James II	1685 – 1688
Mary II &	1689 – 1694
William III	1689 – 1702
Anne	1702 – 1714

### **The House of Hanover**

George I	1714 – 1727
George II	1727 – 1760
George III	1760 – 1820
George IV	1820 – 1830
William IV	1830 – 1837
Victoria	1837 – 1901

### **The House of Saxe-Coburg**

Edward VII	1901 – 1910
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### **The House of Windsor**

George V	1910 – 1936
Edward VIII	1936
George VI	1936 – 1952
Elizabeth II	1952 –

## APPENDIX 3

### PRIME MINISTERS OF THE UK FROM 1721

<i>Term</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Political party</i>
1721-42	Sir Robert Walpole	Whig
1742-43	Earl of Wilmington	Whig
1743-54	Henry Pelham	Whig
1754-56	Duke of Newcastle	Whig
1756-57	Duke of Devonshire	Whig
1757-62	Duke of Newcastle	Whig
1762-63	Earl of Bute	Tory
1763-65	George Grenville	Whig
1765-66	Marquess of Rockingham	Whig
1767-70	Duke of Grafton	Whig
1770-82	Lord North	Tory
1782	Marquess of Rockingham	Whig
1782-83	Earl of Shelburne	Whig
1783	Duke of Portland	coalition
1783-1801	William Pitt the Younger	Tory
1801-04	Henry Addington	Tory
1804-06	William Pitt the Younger	Tory
1806-07	Lord Grenville	coalition
1807-09	Duke of Portland	Tory
1809-12	Spencer Perceval	Tory
1812-27	Earl of Liverpool	Tory
1827	George Canning	coalition
1827-28	Viscount Goderich	Tory
1828-30	Duke of Wellington	Tory
1830-34	Earl Grey	Whig
1834	Viscount Melbourne	Whig
1834-35	Sir Robert Peel	Whig
1835-41	Viscount Melbourne	Whig
1841-46	Sir Robert Peel	Conservative
1846-52	Lord Russell	Liberal
1852	Earl of Derby	Conservative
1852-55	Lord Aberdeen	Peelite
1855-58	Viscount Palmerston	Liberal
1858-59	Earl of Derby	Conservative
1859-65	Viscount Palmerston	Liberal
1865-66	Lord Russell	Liberal
1866-68	Earl of Derby	Conservative
1868	Benjamin Disraeli	Conservative
1868-74	W E Gladstone	Liberal
1874-80	Benjamin Disraeli	Conservative
1880-85	W E Gladstone	Liberal

1885-86	Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative
1886	W E Gladstone	Liberal
1886-92	Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative
1892-94	W E Gladstone	Liberal
1894-95	Earl of Rosebery	Liberal
1895-1902	Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative
1902-05	Arthur James Balfour	Conservative
1905-08	Sir H Campbell-Bannerman	Liberal
1908-15	H H Asquith	Liberal
1915-16	H H Asquith	coalition
1916-22	David Lloyd George	coalition
1922-23	Andrew Bonar Law	Conservative
1923-24	Stanley Baldwin	Conservative
1924	Ramsay MacDonald	Labour
1924-29	Stanley Baldwin	Conservative
1929-31	Ramsey MacDonald	Labour
1931-35	Ramsey MacDonald	national coalition
1935-37	Stanley Baldwin	national coalition
1937-40	Neville Chamberlain	national coalition
1940-45	Sir Winston Churchill	coalition
1945-51	Clement Attlee	Labour
1951-55	Sir Winston Churchill	Conservative
1955-57	Sir Anthony Eden	Conservative
1957-63	Harold Macmillan	Conservative
1963-64	Sir Alec Douglas-Home	Conservative
1964-70	Harold Wilson	Labour
1970-74	Edward Heath	Conservative
1974-76	Harold Wilson	Labour
1976-79	James Callaghan	Labour
1979-90	Margaret Thatcher	Conservative
1990-97	John Major	Conservative
1997-2007	Tony Blair	Labour
2007-2010	Gordon Brown	Labour
2010 -	David Cameron	Con / Lib coalition

## **APPENDIX 4**

### **PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES**

1. George Washington, 1789-1797
2. John Adams, 1797-1801
3. Thomas Jefferson, 1801-1809
4. James Madison, 1809-1817
5. James Monroe, 1817-1825
6. John Quincy Adams, 1825-1829
7. Andrew Jackson, 1829-1837
8. Martin Van Buren, 1837-1841
9. William Henry Harrison, 1841
10. John Tyler, 1841-1845
11. James Knox Polk, 1845-1849
12. Zachary Taylor, 1849-1850
13. Millard Fillmore, 1850-1853
14. Franklin Pierce, 1853-1857
15. James Buchanan, 1857-1861
16. Abraham Lincoln, 1861-1865
17. Andrew Johnson, 1865-1869
18. Ulysses Simpson Grant,  
1869-1877
19. Rutherford Birchard Hayes,  
1877-1881
20. James Abram Garfield, 1881
21. Chester Alan Arthur, 1881-1885
22. Grover Cleveland, 1885-1889
23. Benjamin Harrison, 1889-1893
24. Grover Cleveland, 1893-1897
25. William McKinley, 1897-1901
26. Theodore Roosevelt, 1901-1909
27. William Howard Taft, 1909-1913
28. Woodrow Wilson, 1913-1921
29. Warren Gamaliel Harding,  
1921-1923
30. Calvin Coolidge, 1923-1929
31. Herbert Clark Hoover,  
1929-1933
32. Franklin Delano Roosevelt,  
1933-1945
33. Harry S. Truman, 1945-1953
34. Dwight David Eisenhower,  
1953-1961
35. John Fitzgerald Kennedy,  
1961-1963
36. Lyndon Baines Johnson,  
1963-1969
37. Richard Milhous Nixon,  
1969-1974
38. Gerald Rudolph Ford, 1974-1977
39. James Earl Carter, Jr., 1977-1981
40. Ronald Wilson Reagan,  
1981-1989
41. George Herbert Walker Bush,  
1989-1993
42. William Jefferson Clinton,  
1993-2001
43. George Walker Bush, 2001-2009
44. Barack Hussein Obama, 2009-

## APPENDIX 5

### CANADA

**Land area:** 3,511,003 sq mi (9,093,507 sq km); **total area:** 3,855,102 sq mi (9,984,670 sq km).

**Population (2009 est.):** 33,487,208 (growth rate: 0.8%); life expectancy: 81.2; density per sq km: 3.

**Capital:** Ottawa, Ontario.

**Largest cities (metropolitan areas) (2004 est.):** Toronto, 5,203,600; Montreal, 3,606,700; Vancouver, 2,160,000; Calgary, 1,037,100; Edmonton, 1,101,600; Quebec, 710,700; Hamilton, 710,300; Winnipeg, 702,400; London, 459,700; Kitchener, 450,100.

**Monetary unit:** Canadian dollar.

#### History:

The first inhabitants of Canada were native Indian peoples, primarily **the Inuit** (Eskimo). The Norse explorer **Leif Eriksson** probably reached the shores of Canada (Labrador or Nova Scotia) in 1000, but the history of the white man in the country actually began in 1497, when **John Cabot**, an Italian in the service of Henry VII of England, reached Newfoundland or Nova Scotia. Canada was taken for France in 1534 by **Jacques Cartier**. The actual settlement of New France, as it was then called, began in 1604 at Port Royal in what is now Nova Scotia; in 1608, Quebec was founded. France's colonization efforts were not very successful, but French explorers by the end of the 17th century had penetrated beyond the Great Lakes to the western *prairies* and south along the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico. Meanwhile, the **English Hudson's Bay Company** had been established in 1670. Because of the valuable fisheries and fur trade, a conflict developed between the French and English; **in 1713**, Newfoundland, Hudson Bay, and Nova Scotia (Acadia) were lost to England. During **the Seven Years' War (1756–1763)**, England extended its conquest, and the **British general James Wolfe** won his famous victory over **Gen. Louis Montcalm** outside Quebec on Sept. 13, 1759. The **Treaty of Paris in 1763** gave England control.

#### Government:

*Canada became a country as Confederation in 1867. Their system of government is a parliamentary democracy and a constitutional monarchy.*

Canada is a federation of **ten provinces** (Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Labrador, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, and Saskatchewan) and **three territories** (Northwest Territories, Yukon, and Nunavut).

**Sovereign:** Queen Elizabeth II (1952).

**Canada's Parliament** consists of three parts: the House of Commons, the Senate and the governor general.

The governor general signs official documents and meets regularly with the prime minister and government officials has the right to be consulted, to encourage and to warn. While the **governor-general** is officially the representative of Queen Elizabeth II, in reality the governor-general acts only on the advice of the Canadian prime minister.

**The National Flag of Canada**, also known as the **Maple Leaf**, is a red flag with a white square in its centre, featuring a stylized 11-pointed red maple leaf. Its adoption in 1965 marked the first time a national flag had been officially adopted in Canada to replace the Union Flag. The Canadian Red Ensign had been unofficially used since the 1890s and was approved by a 1945 Order-in-Council for use "wherever place or occasion may make it desirable to fly a distinctive Canadian flag". In 1964, Prime Minister Lester B. Pearson appointed a committee to resolve the issue, sparking a serious debate about a flag change. Out of three choices, the maple leaf design by George F. G. Stanley and John Matheson based on the flag of the Royal Military College of Canada was selected. The flag made its first appearance on February 15, 1965; the date is now celebrated annually as **National Flag of Canada Day**.



# APPENDIX 6

## AUSTRALIA

### Geography:

The continent of Australia, with the island state of **Tasmania**, is approximately equal in area to the United States (excluding Alaska and Hawaii). Mountain ranges run from north to south along the east coast, reaching their highest point in **Mount Kosciusko** (7,308 ft; 2,228 m). The western half of the continent is occupied by a desert plateau. **The Great Barrier Reef**, extending about 1,245 mi (2,000 km), lies along the northeast coast. The island of Tasmania (26,178 sq mi; 67,800 sq km) is off the southeast coast.

**Land area:** 2,941,283 sq mi (7,617,931 sq km); **total area:** 2,967,893 sq mi (7,686,850 sq km).

**Population (2009 est.):** 21,262,641 (growth rate: 1.2%); birth rate: 12.4/1000; infant mortality rate: 4.75/1000; life expectancy: 81.6; density per sq mi: 7.

**Capital (2003 est.):** Canberra, 327,700.

**Largest cities:** Sydney, 4,250,100; Melbourne, 3,610,800; Brisbane, 1,545,700; Perth, 1,375,200; Adelaide, 1,087,600.

**Monetary unit:** Australian dollar.

### History:

The first inhabitants of Australia were the Aborigines, who migrated there at least 40,000 years ago from Southeast Asia. There may have been between a half million to a full million Aborigines at the time of European settlement; today about 350,000 live in Australia.

Dutch, Portuguese, and Spanish ships sighted Australia in the 17th century; the Dutch landed at the Gulf of Carpentaria in 1606. In 1616 the territory became known as New Holland. The British arrived in 1688, but it was not until Captain James Cook's voyage in 1770 that Great Britain claimed possession of the vast island, calling it New South Wales. A British penal colony was set up at Port Jackson (what is now Sydney) in 1788, and about 161,000 transported English convicts were settled there until the system was suspended in 1839.

Free settlers and former prisoners established six colonies: New South Wales (1786), Tasmania (then Van Diemen's Land) (1825), Western Australia (1829), South Australia (1834), Victoria (1851), and Queensland (1859).

Various gold rushes attracted settlers, as did the mining of other minerals. Sheep farming and grain soon grew into important economic enterprises. The six colonies became states and in 1901 federated into the Commonwealth of Australia with a constitution that incorporated British parliamentary and U.S. federal traditions. Australia became known for its liberal legislation: free compulsory education, protected trade unionism with industrial conciliation and arbitration, the secret ballot, women's suffrage, maternity allowances, and sickness and old-age pensions.

### **Government:**

*Australia has six states—New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, and Western Australia—and two major mainland territories—the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory (ACT).*

**Democracy.** Symbolic executive power is vested in the British monarch, who is represented throughout Australia by the governor-general.

### **Language:**

English is the national language. Australian English is a major variety of the language, with its own distinctive accent and vocabulary (some of which has found its way into other varieties of English), but less internal dialectal variation (apart from small regional pronunciation and lexical variations) than either British or American English. Grammar and spelling are largely based on those of British English. According to the 2001 census, English is the only language spoken in the home for around 80% of the population. The next most common languages spoken at home are Chinese (2.1%), Italian (1.9%), and Greek (1.4%).

A considerable proportion of first- and second-generation migrants are bilingual. It is believed that there were between 200 and 300 Australian Aboriginal languages at the time of first European contact. Only about 70 of these languages have survived, and many are only spoken by older people; only 18 Indigenous languages are still spoken by all age groups.<sup>[98]</sup> An indigenous language remains the main language for about 50,000 (0.25%) people. Australia has a sign language known as Auslan, which is the main language of about 6,500 deaf people.

### **Flag:**

The Australian Flag came into being after the federation of the Australian States into the Commonwealth of Australia on 1 January, 1901. The *Commonwealth Blue Ensign* was selected as a result of a public

competition (over 30 000 designs were submitted); although selected in 1901 and gazetted in 1903, it was not given Royal assent and adopted as the definitive Australian flag until 1954 in the Flags Act 1953 (Act No. 1 of 1954). It is based on the *Blue Ensign* of the United Kingdom, is twice as long as it is wide, and consists of a dark blue field that can be notionally divided into four quadrants. There is a different motif in each of the upper and lower hoist quadrants and the remaining two quadrants of the fly share another different constellation motif.

The present Australian flag can be considered to consist of three main elements:

- The *Union Jack* in the upper hoist quadrant or first quarter,
- The *Southern Cross* in the second quarter (also known as the top or head) and fourth quarter.
- The *Commonwealth Star* or *Star of Federation*, central in the third quarter or lower hoist, has seven points to denote the six states and the combined territories of the Commonwealth.

# **APPENDIX 7**

## **HISTORY AND CULTURE OF ENGLISH SPEAKING COUNTRIES**

### **(Questions for Examination)**

Questions for Examination

(Correspondence Department, Additional Specialty, English as a  
Second Specialty)

#### *The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland*

1. Celts.
2. Roman Britain.
3. Anglo-Saxon Invasion and its Consequences.
4. Danes.  
Alfred the Great.
5. Norman Conquest and its Consequences.  
William I.
6. The Magna Carta.
7. The Origin of Parliament.
8. The Hundred Years' War.
9. The Wars of Roses.
10. Reformation in Britain.  
Henry VIII.
11. The Tudor Absolutism.  
Elizabeth I.
12. The Stuarts.  
The Reasons of the Civil War (1640 – 1649).
13. Oliver Cromwell and Commonwealth.
14. The Restoration.  
Glorious Revolution (1688)
15. Constitutional Monarchy.  
The Bill of Rights (1689).
16. Victorian Period.
17. World War I and the "Post -War" Years.
18. World War II and the "Post-War" Years.
19. Flags and National Symbols.
20. Political system of Great Britain.
21. Education in Great Britain.
22. Tradition, Customs and national Holidays.

## *The USA*

23. The Native Population of America  
Discovery of America
24. The First English Settlements
25. The War for Independence (1775 – 1783)  
The Declaration of Independence (1776)
26. The Constitution of the USA and the Bill of Rights  
The Founding Fathers of the United States
27. The Louisiana Purchase  
Expansion to the West
28. The Civil War (1861 –1865)  
The Ku Klux Klan
29. The Industrial Revolution (the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century)  
The Rise of America after WWI
30. Great Depression  
Franklin Delano Roosevelt (FDR)
31. World War II and the “Post-War” Years
32. Civil Rights Movement (the 1950s – 1960s)  
Martin Luther King
33. Flags and National Symbols
34. Political System of the USA
35. Education in the USA
36. Tradition, Customs and National Holidays  
Cultural Diversity in the USA (“Melting Pot”, “Mosaic”, “Pizza”, “Salad Bowl”)

## *Canada*

37. Flag and National Symbols
38. Human Geography and Demographics
39. Ottawa and Toronto
40. Political System of Canada

## *Australia*

41. Flag and National Symbols
42. Human Geography and Demographics
43. Canberra and Sydney
44. Political System of Australia

## **APPENDIX 8**

### **PROJECTS COUNTRY STUDIES**

1. Donation activities of the richest Americans
2. System of education in the US
3. Ireland: Celtic period
4. The peculiarities of the English language in Ireland
5. Colonial period in Ireland
6. Symbols of Ireland
7. Struggle for independence: IRA, immigration, famine
8. Outstanding personalities of an Irish origin
9. Modern icons: politicians, writers, singers, film stars, sportsmen
10. Industry, agriculture. International economic relations
11. System of education in the UK
12. New Zealand: human geography, demographics
13. Maoris: history, culture
14. Symbols of New Zealand
15. Wild life
16. Economy. International economic relations
17. National icons: politicians, writers, singers, film stars, sportsmen
18. System of education
19. History. Symbols of Tasmania
20. Human geography and demographics

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ПАВЛОВ ВОЛОДИМИР ВАСИЛЬОВИЧ**

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