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**A GUIDE TO BRITISH AND AMERICAN (US)
HISTORY**

**ЛІНГВОКРАЇНОЗНАВСТВО ВЕЛИКОЇ БРИТАНІЇ ТА США
Навчальний посібник**

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Навчальний посібник являє собою лекційно-практичний курс, що складається з лекцій, присвячених основним історичним та культурним подіям Великої Британії та США з стародавніх часів до наших днів. Крім текстів лекцій посібник містить тести та питання для самоконтролю, які дозволяють студентам перевірити ступінь розуміння та засвоєння тексту лекцій 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 та хочуть поглибити свої знання з історії та культури країн, мова яких вивчається.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Навчальний посібник «Лінгвокраїнознавство Великої Британії та США» являє собою лекційно-практичний курс, що складається з 11 лекцій, присвячених основним історичним та 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 англійських країн. Особливу увагу приділено запозиченням в англійській мові від кельтського завоювання Британських островів до розвитку англійської мови як державної.

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

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Автори

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. It's 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 *Isles of Wight*, the *Hebrides*, and the island group of *Orkney* and *Shetland* but does not include the Isle of Man or 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 Roman 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 of 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 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 PM at the end of the election (normally the leader of the party that has the majority in the HC).

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

3: enacts legislation (вводити законопроекти); 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 16 former colonies, including Australia, Canada, New Zealand, represented by the governor. The Head of the Commonwealth (16 + some more other 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 PM 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 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.

A number of **special royal occasions** taking 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 (HL), reads her speech from the throne, wears a crown.

The Remembrance day – in November, service in the White Hall for the dead of the 2WW, lays a wreath at the Cenotaph.

June – 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's 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 (Diana). Grace and favour apartments, free of charge.

The Royal Family: The Queen's husband – Philip the Duke of Edinburgh (1921) – famous for his the Queen (monarch) s. Princess Royal Ann, daughter. The Prince of Wales (1948), Heir to the Throne – Heir Apparent. Prince William (21 now) – Heir Presumptive, Prince Henry (1984). Prince Andrew (1960) – the Duke of York, Prince Edward (1964) – the Earl of Wessex.

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 – PM and the Cabinet. The White Hall – Her Majesty's Government, 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 Commons, also a few – Lords. It is based on a tradition, because in the Commons the Government is expected to explain its policies. In the 19th 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 PM 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, his colleagues have to disown him/her, will have to resign.

2 PM first among equals. In theory the 2nd is supposed to encourage balance and freedom for individual ministers, in practice it can give rise to tension. Insures leadership, allows for each minister some responsibility and freedom in their field.

Cabinet meetings are held in private, 1-2 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 an MP. 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, an MP 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 has featured members of nobility who were granted seats by nature of birthright, although this system has been 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 MPs 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 Lord’s 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 XVII-th 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 MPs 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 19th century were the only parties elected to the House of Commons. Once working-class men were given the vote, however, Socialist MPs were elected, but it was not until 1945 that Britain had its first Labour Government. At this election, the number of Liberal MPs 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 MPs than all the others combined.

The Conservative Party can broadly be describes 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 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

Conservative Party	Labour Party	Liberal Democrats
<p>History: 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>Traditional outlook: 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>Since 1979: 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>Organization: leader has relatively great degree of freedom to direct policy.</p> <p>Voters: the richer section of society, plus a large minority of the working classes.</p>	<p>History: formed at the beginning of the twentieth century from an alliance of trade unionists and intellectuals. First government in 1923.</p> <p>Traditional outlook: 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>Since 1979: 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>Organization: in theory, policies have to be approved by annual conference; in practice, leader has more power than this implies.</p> <p>Voters: working class, plus a small middle-class intelligentsia.</p>	<p>History: 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>Policies: 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>Voters; from all classes, but more from the middle class.</p>

Money: mostly from business people.	Money: more than half from trade unions	Money: private donations (much poorer than the big two)
Nationalist 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/	Parties in Northern Ireland The names of the parties often change, but they mostly represent either the Protestant or the Catholic communities. There is one large 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.	Other parties 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
Flag	St George's Cross	Dragon of Cadwallader	St Andrew's Cross	St Patrick's Cross
Plant	Rose	Leek / Daffodil	Thistle	Shamrock
Colour	White	Red	Blue	Green
Patron Saint	St George	St David	St Andrew	St Patrick
Saint's day	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 UK and GB – 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 & 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, the Unicorn in the right. Under them a blue ribbon with words “Dieu et mon droit” (God & my right) – Richard I. In the background – rose (England), thistle (Scotland), trefoil (Ireland), leek (Wales).

The Royal Beasts. 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 is **the St. George's Cross**-, a thin red cross on a white field. A red cross acted as a symbol for many crusaders in the 12th and 13th 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 12th century. Many historians feel that the Three Lions are the true symbol of England. (This symbol appears 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 around 49 millions inhabitants, of which about a quarter live in the greater London area. There are 24mil. male and 25mil.

female inhabitants. 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.

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. 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 000B.C.

Probably around 50 000B.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) peninsula 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 6th to 3rd 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 1st 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 had become queen of her tribe when her husband had died. She was tall, with long red hair, and had a frightening appearance. In 61 AD she led her tribe against the Romans. She nearly drove them from Britain, and she destroyed London, the Roman capital, before she was defeated 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 a cash market and a certain level of numeracy among certain segments of the 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-Celt.

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 1st 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 (25.0000 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, in 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 Roman 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 Br. 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 5th century (407) AD the Romans had to leave Britain to defend their own country against **the Germans** and **the Huns**.

There are today 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 E. 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 “**camp**”. 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 E. 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. What imprint did the Roman Empire leave on England and what physical evidence of its occupation can still be found?
5. 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 was

1. The Picts
2. The Romans
3. The Iberians

2. Where did the Scots settled?

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 5th 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 6th century and the beginning of the 7th 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 7th 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 particularly 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 18th 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 A-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 10th 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 Saxons divided the land into new administrative areas, based on *shires*, or counties. These shires, established by the end of the 10th 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 administered, 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 11th century they were warlords, and were often called by a new Danish name *earl*. Both words, alderman and earl, remain with us today: **aldermen** are elected officers in local government, and **earls** are high ranking nobles. It was the beginning of a class system, made up of

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 4th century AD. In the last hundred years the 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 6th century (597) and was completed, in the main, at the second half of the 7th 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; any 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 7th 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.

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 9th 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 Great Britain are the Celtic-speaking people living today?
4. Why did the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity take place in the 7th 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 9th 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 | 6. Mercia |
| 5. Wessex | 7. Essex |

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

- | | |
|---------------|--------------|
| 1. Brighton | 3. Sheffield |
| 2. Birmingham | 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 8th century and during the 9th and the 10th 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 A-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 camp. From these camps the Danes would make many raids upon the villages in the area. Thus began the 4th 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 A-S 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 A-S 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. Alfred granted much land to his warriors and in this 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 A-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.

So, 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.

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

In the 2nd half of the 10th century the Saxon monarchy was further consolidated. The A-Saxons won several victories over the Danes, took away the Danelaw and ruled over the whole E.

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-Saxons kings and never tried to make the Danelaw into a separate kingdom. These descendants of the Danish conquerors gave up privacy 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 A-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 E. 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 10th 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 11th 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 A-S feudal lords. He promised to rule according to the old A-S laws. As before the A-S 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 A-S 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 A-S 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 9th 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 11th 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 9th 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** to be the king. William claimed that England belonged to him and began preparations for a war.

William with his army landed in the south of England and the battle between the Normans and A-Saxons took place on **the 14th of October 1066** at a little village in the neighbourhood of the town now called **Hastings**. The Normans outnumbered the A-S forces and were greatly superior in quality. They were all men for whom fighting was the main occupation in life.

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 known **William the Conqueror**. He was crowned on the 25th 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.

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 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 A-S 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 a 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. Norman Influence on the Language

At that time 3 languages were spoken in the country. The Norman aristocracy spoke a Norman dialect of French (a tongue of Latin origin), but the Anglo-Saxons spoke English, a language of Germanic tribes. Norman French became the official language of the state. All the official documents were written in it. The clergy used mostly Latin. The rich Anglo-Saxons found it convenient to speak Norman French. But the peasants and townspeople spoke English. The Normans looked upon English as a kind of peasant dialect. They despised anyone unable to speak their language.

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

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. Why was the unification of the A-S kingdoms into one kingdom in the 9th century necessary?
2. What were the conditions of the treaty concluded in 886?
3. How did the Danish king Canute secure his power in England?
4. What were the reasons and pretext for the Norman invasion?
5. What is the Bayeux tapestry? Why is it considered a valuable historical document?
6. What was the Domesday Book? What useful information does it give to us about England in the 2nd half of the 11th century?

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's 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.

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 quarreled publicly with Matilda's husband, and died soon after. This left the succession in question.

So Matilda and Henry's nephew 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**). As a result 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. First, he was given the nickname "**Lackland**", because in 1204 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 quarreled 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 (**15th 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.

Magna Carta marks a clear stage in the collapse of E. 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 12th 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 Monfort 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 Monfort 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 Monfort in the battle of Evesham in **1265**. Once again he had full royal authority, although he was careful to accept the balance which de Monfort 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 14th 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. Hardly anywhere escaped its effects.

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 13th 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 12th-century practice of letting out their land to energetic freeman farmers who bit by bit added to their own land. In the 12th 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 15th 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 14th 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 14th 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 13th 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, who grew up to be simple-minded and book-loving and he had no children. 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. Besides, he hated warlike nobles, and was an unsuitable king for such a violent society. 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 20th 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.

I. Answer the following questions.

1. What is Magna Carta?
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?

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 period 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 and 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' 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 15th century had begun the transitional period from feudalism to capitalism, and the 16th 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.

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.

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, and executed Protestants who refused to accept it.

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.

To emphasize the national character of his Church, the service was to be held in English and not in Latin, and every church was to have an English Bible.

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. Besides, 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.

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, who died in 1547, when he was 57.

6.3. The Protestant – Catholic Struggle

6.3.1. Edward VI

Edward VI 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.

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.

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. Parliament accepted Philip as king of England only for Mary's lifetime. Many Protestants opposed this, and she ordered hundreds of them to be burned to death, for which she became known as "Bloody Mary".

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 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 and was made to abdicate in favour of her son James. Mary was imprisoned, escaped to join the army of her supporters, was defeated and came to Elizabeth for asylum. Elizabeth solved the problem imprisoning her rival sister in the Tower of London. There Mary was constantly the centre of plots against Elizabeth organized by the northern Catholic lords. The aim of their revolt (1569) was to take the throne from

Elizabeth and to give it to Mary. At last 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. 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 Jonson** all wrote during this era. 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 18th 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 16th century.

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.

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 main Tudor kings. 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 do you know about Thomas More?
6. What was William Cecil?
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.

Act of Supremacy, Reformation, dissolution of monasteries, Act of Union, Bloody Mary, "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 Power**. 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 as 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 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 industrial 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.

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 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. 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 3rd 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**. 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 suppresses 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)

In **1658** O. Cromwell died. 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 2nd 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 a joint 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.

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

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 in Germany 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.

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; 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.

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 mln. 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** stayed in power from 1714 to 1760. The **Tories** 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.

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-17th 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 do we call 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. Who are the Hannover's?

II. Define the following terms.

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

Lecture # 8

8.1. Industrial Revolution

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

By the end of the 18th century, some families had made huge 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 18th 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. 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 is still is.

The cost of such goods was made cheaper than ever by improved transport during the 18th 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 17th 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 Trafalgar in 1805, where he destroyed the 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 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 20th 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 more 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 travelers 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 Prince Albert 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 the UK was involved in it on the side of the Ottoman 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 book *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 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.

Victoria is often remembered as a bad-tempered old woman who once said "We are not amused". However in her yearly life she was a happy and enthusiastic queen who was very popular with ordinary people.

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 19th 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 **Sept.1, 1939** and the war that **Winston Churchill** had so publicly foreseen had begun. On **Sept.3**, Great Britain and France declared war on Germany. **Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain** at once named W. Churchill **first Lord of the Admiralty**, the same post he had held in WWI.

Chamberlain's government fell in **1940** after various military setbacks. On **May 10**, **King George VI** asked Churchill to form a new

government. At the age of **66**, 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, 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 **Dec. 7, 1941**. In **August 1942**, 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. 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” (Churchill, Truman and Stalin) met in **Potsdam**, Germany to discuss the administration of Germany. But 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 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 Jan. 1965 he was given a state funeral.

Britain’s experience of the WWII was less hard than in the WWI. 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 WWII 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 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 1st woman ever to hold the office. As Prime Minister, 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, 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 WWI on British society?
6. What were the main effects of WWII?
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 Mayier, Tony Blair, Gordon Brown , David Cameron.

PART II

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Lecture #9

9.1 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 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.

9.2. 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 9,631,419sq.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 includes 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**.

9.3. Human Geography and Demographics

9.3.1. 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**” and “**Pizza**” 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 15th 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 **16th** century, but it was English settlements from the early **17th** 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 20th 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 1980th 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 Black) 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 quickly, having increased nearly 15 million since 2000. 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.

Many such details may be read at the website,

<http://www.quickfacts.census.gov/qfd/states/00000.html>

9.4. 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 15th 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 the destruction of the Native Americans.

In the 15th – 19th, 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 **15th 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 Americans population. Some historians estimate that up to **80%** of native populations may have died because of European diseases.

In the **19th 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 route 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 on 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.

9.5. 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 on 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 17th 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 16th 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 9th 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 21st 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 18th 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?

Lecture #10

10.1 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** between England and France 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 (ever) 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 rebel 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.

10.2. 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, 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 1st President of the

U.S., 1789 – 1797), **John Adams** (the 2d President, 1797 – 1801), **Thomas Jefferson** (the 3d President, 1801 – 1809), **James Madison** (the 4th President, 1809 – 1817), **Alexander Hamilton** (the 1st 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.

10.3. 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 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. In **1803** Jefferson arranged the purchase of the area from France.

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.

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 1845 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 1830s 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 Texans 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).

10.4. The Civil War (1861 – 1865)

Reconstruction

Ku Klux Klan (KKK)

There were two main reasons of the war. The 1st was the issue of **slavery**; should Africans who had been brought by force to the US be used as slaves. The 2d 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 19th 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 process 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.

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.

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

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, include laws to advance the rights of the Blacks. The 13th Amendment to the Constitution (**1865**) outlawed slavery throughout the US. The 14th Amendment to the Constitution (**1868**) confirmed the citizenship of blacks, and the 15th 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 14th 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 accept the 14th 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 14th 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 #11

11.1. 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 Am.), 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.

11.2. The USA in WWI.

The Rise of America after WWI

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 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 the German government ordered its 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 WWI 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 19th 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 WWI 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 600000 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.

11.2 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. The pieces of paper are 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.

Roosevelt’s main ides 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 (WWII).

11.3. World War II and the "Post-War" Years

World War II broke out on the 1st 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

At first America stayed out of the war. But 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.

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 WWII 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.

11.4. 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 gotten 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.

11.5. 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 20th 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 20th 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 35th 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.

Appendix 1
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

The House of Windsor

George V 1910 – 1936
Edward VIII 1936
George VI 1936 – 1952
Elizabeth II 1952 –

Appendix 2
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 3

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 4

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)

Prime Minister: Stephen Harper was sworn in (to swear – приводит до присяги) as Canada's 22nd Prime Minister on **February 6, 2006**. The leader of the Conservative party.

Canada's Parliament consists of three parts: the House of Commons, the Senate and the governor general.

Governor-General: Michaëlle Jean became Canada's 27th governor general in September 2005.

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 5

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.

Prime Minister: Kevin Rudd (2007) (born 21 September 1957) is the 26th and current Prime Minister of Australia and federal leader of the centre-left Australian Labor Party (ALP).

Governor General: Quentin Alice Louise Bryce (born 23 December 1942) is the current (25th) Governor-General of Australia (the first woman to hold the position).

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.[98] 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 6
HISTORY AND CULTURE OF ENGLISH SPEAKING
COUNTRIES
Questions for Examination
(Correspondence Department: Sumy, Lebedin, Putivl 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 19th 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 7
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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