

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
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АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК

Практикум по развитию навыков перевода и реферирования текстов для
студентов I–III курсов исторического факультета,
направление подготовки 030600.62

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Настоящий практикум предназначен для студентов направления подготовки 030600.62 «История», изучающих английский язык.

Практикум содержит познавательные тексты, работа с которыми позволит студентам получить представление о Великобритании, современном состоянии её общественно-политической жизни, положении на мировой арене, культурных явлениях, исторических событиях. Работа с текстами позволит развить навыки пользования справочными изданиями, конспектирования и реферирования оригинальной литературы страноведческого содержания, научиться давать необходимый комментарий, суммировать сведения из разных источников, высказываться и вести беседу по любой из пройденных тем. Рекомендованные в практикуме упражнения позволят студентам совершенствовать дискурсивную и межкультурную компетенции.

Практикум может быть использован для аудиторной и самостоятельной работы.

Exercises for developing translation and communication skills:

- 1 Read and translate the text with the help of a dictionary.
- 2 Write out all the new words from the texts.
- 3 Complete the list of words from the texts which are essential for discussing.
- 4 Translate in writing the part of the text.
- 5 Read the text and show all the geographical objects on the map.
- 6 Read the text and define the character of this text (scientific, popular science, or biographical) and say whether there is some new information for you.
- 7 Read the text, and define its general idea and character (scientific, popular science or fiction).
- 8 Explain the character of this text and give your reasons.
- 9 Read and give the main idea of the text in 3 sentences.
- 10 Read the text, entitle it and get its main idea.
- 11 Give the main points of the text in a few sentences.
- 12 Make up 10 questions to the text to cover the contents.
- 13 Ask your classmates questions to cover the contents of the text.
- 14 Read, translate the text and be ready to make up a dialogue on the theme.
- 15 Read the text, and find the key words in each passage and use them to review the text.
- 16 Make up a plan to the text and be ready to retell the text according to the plan.
- 17 Render the text in detail using the plan.
- 18 Tell this story in English, add whatever information you can.
- 19 Have a round-table discussion on one of the topics given above.
- 20 Give a brief account of the contents of the text. Do it in written form.

The Plan of the Synopsis

1 The Title

I've read the text (article, story) entitled ...

I'd like to tell you about the text (article, story) entitled ...

I want to tell you about the text (article, story) entitled ...

2 The Source

This is an article (story, text) published in the newspaper (magazine, book) ...

3 The Author

The author of the text is ... , a famous writer (journalist, scientist)

4 The Idea /The Message

The main idea of the text (article, story) is to show (to prove, to underline, to convince) ...

5 The Subject

The text is about ...

The text describes (gives information about) ...

6 The Content

The text (story, article) starts with the fact (with the description of, with the characteristic of) ...

Then the author describes ...
After that the author touches upon the problem of ...
Next the author deals with the fact (the problem) ...
Besides the author stresses that ...
Finally the author comes to the conclusion that ...

7 The Conclusion

My attitude to the article (story, text) is contradictory (complicated, simple).
On the one hand I agree that...
On the other hand I can't agree that ...
I've learned a lot of interesting (important, new) facts (information, things) from the text. It makes us think of ...
It gives us food for thoughts. It proves the idea (the theory, the point of view, the opinion) ...
It can help us in self-education (in solving our problems). I'd like to cite the author (to make a quotation).

8 Your Advice

So in my opinion it is (not) worth reading.

Conversational Formulas

- expressing one's opinion:

-I think...
-I feel that...
-As far as I'm concerned....

- asking for someone's opinion:

-Do you think that...?
-What do you feel/think about...?
-Are you sure that...

- giving reasons:

-I think ... is right because...
- ... That's why I feel that ...
-... and so I think that...

- asking for reasons:

-Why?
-Why do you think that...?
-What makes you feel that...?

- defending one's opinion:

-Yes, but what I really mean is ...
-What I am trying to say is ...
-On the contrary, I ...
-What you said is really an argument for my point of view.

I feel ...

- agreeing / supporting other people's opinions:

-Yes, that's right.
-That's what I feel, too.

- I think so, too.
- Exactly.
- I (fully) agree with you.
- X put it very well.
- I feel that X is right.
- X raised some good points.
- O.K.
- ***disagreeing / contradicting other people's opinions:***
- I don't agree.
- I don't think so.
- That's not ...
- You can't say that.
- That's no proof.
- That's not the point / question / problem...
- But surely...
- Oh, no...
- ***stating whether something is right or wrong***
- True.
- That's right.
- That's it exactly.
- Wrong.
- That isn't right.
- Absolutely not.
- ***expressing certainty and uncertainty, probability and possibility***
- I'm absolutely certain that...
- I'm sure that...
- There is definitely...
- There may be...
- Perhaps...
- I'm not at all sure if...
- I don't think that...
- ... is not very likely.
- That could /may /might happen.
- ... is not possible.
- ***making comparisons***
- ... is not as ... as ...
- ... are as ... as ...
- ... is a much more important ... than ...
- ... are less important than ...
- There are far fewer /not as many arguments for ...
as against...
- You can't compare ... with ...
- You have to compare ... with ...
- ***expressing interest or indifference***

- I'm interested in ...
- I'd like to know more about ...
- I'd like to do something on ...
- ... sounds interesting.
- Please tell me more about ...
- ... doesn't interest me.
- I don't care.
- What a boring topic.
- ***expressing likes and dislikes***
- I love /I like...
- ...is great /very good /fun /fantastic.
- I enjoy ...
- What I like best is ...
- I hate /dislike ...
- What I don't like about ... is ...
- ***stating preferences***
- I'd rather...
- I prefer ... to ...
- I'd much rather ... than ...
- ***expressing intentions***
- I'm going to...
- In 10 years' time I'll...
- When I'm twenty I'll...
- I want to...
- I intend to ...
- ***expressing doubts***
- I can't say if...
- I have my doubts about it.
- Do you think that ...? I doubt it.
- It's very doubtful whether...
- You haven't convinced me yet.
- You may have a point there, but I'm still not sure...
- OK, but...
- ***expressing personal insights***
- I learnt that...
- I became clear that / obvious that...
- I realized that...
- I found out about...

UNIT I. GREAT BRITAIN TODAY

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (the UK) is situated on the British Isles. The British Isles consist of two large islands, Great Britain and Ireland, and about five thousand small islands (e.g. The Orkney and the Shetland Islands, The Hebrides, etc.)

The British Isles are separated from the European continent by the North Sea and the English Channel (or La Manche), the narrowest part of which is called the Strait of Dover (or Pas de Calais, 32 km wide) The western coast of Great Britain is washed by the Atlantic Ocean and the Irish Sea.

The UK is made up of four countries: England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Their capitals are London, Cardiff, Edinburgh and Belfast respectively. The capital of the UK is London. The other largest cities of the United Kingdom are Manchester, Birmingham, Glasgow, Liverpool, Bristol, etc.

The surface of the British Isles varies very much. The north of Scotland is mountainous and is called the Highlands, while the south, which has beautiful valleys and plains, is called the Lowlands. The highest mountain top is Ben Nevis in Scotland. There are a lot of rivers in GB, but they are not very long. The Severn is the longest river, while the Thames is the deepest and the most important one.

The mountains, the Atlantic Ocean and the warm waters of Gulf Stream influence the climate of the British Isles. It is mild and damp.

The population of the UK is over 62 mln people. The UK is inhabited by the English, the Scots, the Welsh and the Irish who constitute the British nation. English is not the only language. The Gaelic language (Scottish), Welsh and Irish are also used.

The flag of the UK is known as the Union Jack. The national anthem is "God Save the Queen".

Every country has its own national emblem. The red rose is the national emblem of England, the thistle is the national emblem of Scotland, the daffodils and the leek are the emblems of Wales and the shamrock (a kind of clover) is the emblem of Ireland.

Britain is one of the most highly industrialized countries in the world. The main branches of the British economy are engineering, mining, ship-building, motor vehicle manufacturing, textile, chemistry, electronics, fishing and food processing.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is a constitutional monarchy. The head of State is the Queen or a King. She or he inherits the title, and is not elected by people. Nowadays the Queen of the United Kingdom is Elizabeth II, she reigns but doesn't rule. The real power belongs to the Prime minister, who is the head of Government. The British Parliament consists of 2 Houses: the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The main political parties are the Labour, the Conservative and the Liberal.

The British Empire

In the 19th century Great Britain was the dominant industrial and maritime power. Since the 15th century Britain started building an Empire of colonies which stretched into every continent: China, India, some countries in Africa, South America, islands in the West Indies, Canada, Australia, New Zealand. 'Many of them became colonies at a time when several European countries, including Britain, France, Spain and the Netherlands were competing for trade around the world and for new sources of raw material. Around 1920 the British Empire included around a quarter of the world's population' (Oxford Guide to British and American Culture).

In India, Britain's first interest had been the sources of raw materials – spices, diamonds, rubber, and later tea. Britain wanted India for itself, and even called it the 'Jewel in the Crown " i.e. the most precious possession in the Empire. Trade with India was very important for Britain's industrial development in 19th century.

In Africa, Britain's interest was mainly focused on taking over the Cape of Good Hope at the southern point to control the sea route to India and slave trade soon after Christopher Columbus's discovery of the New World. In 20 most of the colonies led nationalist movements for independence as they did not want to be exploited by the Empire and submit to the British rules. As a result many colonies gained their independence from Britain, some of them - Canada, New Zealand, Ireland, Australia, South Africa, Burma, the Sudan - entered a union called the Commonwealth.

'The British Commonwealth of Nations is an association of 53 independent nations and several British dependences (= the countries controlled by another country) most of which used to be part of the British Empire. It was set up in 1931 and has been known as the Commonwealth since 1949. Members of the Commonwealth have special links with the UK and with each other and agree to work together towards world peace, the encouragement of trade, the defence of democracy and improvements of human rights, health and education. It also encourages joint cultural and sporting events, particularly the Commonwealth Games.

Through the Commonwealth many of the countries still have political and economic links with Britain. Perhaps the most important and lasting cultural influence of the British Empire has been the spread of the English language which is still either an official language or taught as a second language in many countries' (Oxford Guide to British and American Culture).

The loss of Empire

At the end of the First World War, the German colonies of Africa, as well as Iraq and Palestine in the Middle East, were added to Britain's area of control. Its empire was now bigger than ever before, and covered a quarter of the entire land surface of the world.

There were already signs, however, that the empire was coming to the end. In India there has been a growing demand for freedom during the 1920s and 1930s. This was partly because of the continued mistrust and misunderstanding between the British rulers and the Indian people, well described in E.M. Forster's novel *A Passage to India*, published in 1924. But it was also the result of a growing nationalist

movement, skillfully led by Mahatma Gandhi, which successfully disturbed British rule. By 1945 it was clear that British rule in India could no longer continue. It was impossible and extremely expensive to try to rule 300 million people without their cooperation. In 1947 the British finally left India, which then divided into a Hindu state and a smaller Muslim state called Pakistan. Britain also left Palestine, where it was unable to keep its promises to both the Arab inhabitants and the new Jewish settlers. Ceylon became independent the following year.

For most of the 1950s Britain managed to keep its other possessions, but after Suez it began to give them up.

Between 1945 and 1965 500 million people in former colonies became completely self-governing. In some countries, like Kenya, Cyprus and Aden, British soldiers fought against local people. Other countries became independent more peacefully.

Britain tried to hold onto its international position through its Commonwealth, which all the old colonies were invited to join as free and equal members. This has been successful, because it's based on the kind of friendship that allows all members to follow their own policies without interference. At the same time, it allows discussion of international problems in a more relaxed atmosphere than is possible through the United Nations. It was with the help of the Commonwealth that Zimbabwe finally moved peacefully from rebellion by the whites to independence and black majority rule.

By 1985 Britain had few of its old colonial possessions left; and those it still had were being claimed by other countries: Hong Kong by China, the Falklands\Malvinas by Argentina, and Gibraltar by Spain. (From An Illustrated History of Britain by D. McDowall)

UK political system

The United Kingdom of Great Britain is a parliamentary democracy with a constitutional monarch, Queen Elizabeth II, as head of State. The organs of government are: Parliament, the executive and the judiciary. The legislature, Parliament, is the supreme authority. It comprises two chambers — the House of Lords and the House of Commons — together with the Queen in her constitutional role.

The executive consists of the central Government — that is the Prime Minister and the cabinet and other ministers, who are responsible for initiating and directing the national policy, government departments, local authorities and public corporations.

The judiciary determines common law and interprets status and is independent of both the legislature and the executive. The Government derives its authority from the elected House of Commons. A general election, for all seats in the House of Commons, must be held at least every five years. The Government is normally formed by the political party which is supported by the majority in the House of Commons. The party's leader is Prime Minister. He chooses a team of ministers, of whom 20 or so are the Cabinet. The second largest party becomes Her Majesty's Loyal Opposition with its own leader and "Shadow Cabinet". The House of

Commons comprises members from the constituencies in England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland who represent people whose history and traditions differ.

The House of Lords is a hereditary Chamber. In Great Britain there is no written constitution, only customs, traditions and precedents.

Parliament

Parliament, as has been mentioned above, is the supreme legislative authority and consists of three separate elements: the Queen, the House of Lords and the elected House of Commons. These are outwardly separate, constituted on different principles and meet together only on occasions of symbolic significance such as the State Opening of Parliament.

Over the centuries the balance between the three parts of the legislature as changed, so that the Queen's role, as has been stated above, is now only formal and the House of Commons has gained supremacy over the House of Lords.

The British Parliament is often called the "Mother of Parliaments", as the legislative bodies of many countries - most notably, those of the members of the Commonwealth - are modelled on it.

Functions of Parliament

The main functions of British Parliament today are as follows:

- to pass laws
- to vote on financial bills so that the government could carry on his work
- to discuss the government's administrative policies - foreign affairs, the state of agriculture, educational problems, etc.
- to debate important political issues of the day.

By custom, Parliament is also informed before the ratification of all important international treaties and agreements. The making of treaties is, however, a royal prerogative exercised on the advice of the government and is not subject to parliamentary approval.

The House of Lords

The House of Lords is the upper house of the British Parliament. It has more than 1,000 members, although only 250 take an active part in the work of the House. The work of the members of the House of Lords mainly consists of debating some matters, examining and making changes to the bills from the House of Commons.

The House of Lords includes aristocrats who have inherited their 'seats' from their fathers, people with titles, 26 Anglican bishops, 950 hereditary peers, several senior judges of the legal system, and life peers (retired politicians, trade unionists or businessmen whose titles do not go on their children).

Unlike MPs they cannot be elected and do not receive a salary. There has been talk of reform of the House of Lords to reduce the number of hereditary peers who have right to sit in the Lords because many Britons think that this system is undemocratic.

The House of Commons

The House of Commons is the lower house of the British Parliament. It consists of 659 Members of Parliament (MPs) who each represent an area the country called a constituency. The United Kingdom is divided into 659 constituencies, each of which

has an elected MP in the House of Commons. Members of Parliament are elected in a general election in which everyone over the age of 18 can vote in an election. A by-election is held in his or her constituency in case of MP's death or resignation. Parliamentary elections must be held every five years at the latest.

Each of the major political parties appoints a representative, candidate to compete for each seat. Smaller parties may have a candidate in only a few constituencies.

In fact, The House of Commons is only one of the three which has true power.

Political Party System

The electoral system in Britain depends much upon the political party system, which has existed in the country since the 17th century. Organised political parties present their policies in the form of manifestos to the electorate for consideration during the intensive few weeks of campaigning before General Election Day. A party candidate in a constituency is elected to Parliament on a combination of election manifesto, the personality of the candidate and the attraction of the party. It should be noted, though, that party activity is not limited by the election period itself but continues as the politicians battle for power and the ears of the electorate.

For the last 250 years a predominantly two-party system has operated in Britain. Until 1918 it were the Conservatives (still known by their previous nickname, the 'Tories') and Liberals (the party which traces its origins to the 18th century 'Whigs') that took turns at holding power. Since 1945 either the Conservative Party or the Labour Party has held power.

Conservative Party

The Conservative Party was formed by Robert Peel from what was left of the old Tory Party in the 1830s. Peel and his successor Benjamin Disraeli (the first Conservative Prime Minister) together shaped modern Conservatism. Originally the party of church, aristocracy and landed gentry, it has always been the party of the Right, identified with the idea of economic freedom and the existing social order. The Party gives emphasis to the importance of law and order, and the maintenance of strong armed forces to protect British interests. Today as in the 19th century, it appeals to a 'property-owning' democracy and is supported by wealthier classes, large business, a sizeable percentage of skilled and unskilled workers, and women who always vote Conservative. The Party is strong in southern England (the counties with traditional Conservative support are called 'the Shires'); and it is in Scotland that the Conservatives have suffered serious setbacks.

Labour Party

The Labour Party was founded by James Keir Hardie in 1892 at the Trades Union Congress as a result of the movement for independent political working class representation in Parliament. It has traditionally gathered its support from the trade unions, the working class and some middle-class backing.

The Labour Party is less disciplined but possibly more democratic, with more open disagreements between the leadership and other party members. Labour is pre-

eminently the party of social justice, though its emphasis is less on equality than on the achievement of well-being and opportunity for all members of society. It tends to put the collective well-being of society above individual freedom, in the economic sphere at any rate. Traditionally it has been committed to public ownership of major industries, and to economic planning. The trade union movement, which founded the Labour Party, remains influential in the evolution of the party policy.

The Labour Party's electoral strongholds have traditionally been in the old industrial areas of south Wales, Scotland and in the Midland and northern English industrial cities. In recent years the Labour Party has reviewed its policies in order to broaden its appeal to wider masses and has taken into account changing economic and social conditions to remain a major force in British politics.

Liberal Party

Before 1918 there had never been a centre party on the British political scene. With the formation of the new Labour Party, a party of the Left, first a small ally of the Liberal Party and eventually the main alternative to the Conservatives, there appeared a chance for the Liberal Party as a centre party. But after a disastrous division of the Liberals between the wars and the second split in 1931, the party seemed to have ceased any effective existence.

In the 1960s, however, growing dislike of both major parties helped Liberals to win some by-elections, and these local successes inspired a vigorous revival.

The May 2005 General election clearly demonstrated that the Liberal Party has turned into a fringe party with only 0.1 % of votes and no representation in the House of Commons.

Social Democratic Party

In 1981 a second centre party was created, the Social Democratic Party. It was inspired by Roy Jenkins, a former Labour moderate. Many people, including academics, who had not previously been active in party politics, soon joined the new party.

The Social Democrats and Liberals quickly formed an alliance of the centre, and at the end of 1981 had much more public support, than either the Conservative Government or the Labour Opposition. The two parties prepared an agreed statement of their policy, and each constituency had one Alliance candidate for Parliament, either a Liberal or a Social Democrat. At the 1983 election the Alliance received almost as many votes as Labour. However, the Alliance's support was not concentrated in some areas, but widely spread, its success was frustrated by the electoral system.

In the next four years the Alliance had many successes in elections to local councils and in by-elections for Parliament, but failed to make a sustained advance.

After the general election of 1987, in which the Alliance did a little less well than in 1983, most members of the both parties agreed that they should merge to form a single party, and the merger was accomplished. The united party, called SLDP (Social and Liberal Democrats), since 1989 known as the Liberal Democrats, now remains as the only serious party of the centre.

There are about half a dozen *other parties* represented in the House of Commons, mainly regionally based in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Among most prominent are two nationalistic parties: the Scottish National Party (founded in 1934) and Plaid Cymru or the Welsh National Party (founded in 1925). In Northern Ireland there compete the pro-Catholic nationalistic party of Sinn Fein (a political wing of the IRA) and Ulster Unionist Party, which is strongly Protestant. Their aims are ranging up to the extreme of complete independence.

The Green Party, who campaigns chiefly on environmental issues, was slower to develop than the Greens in some other European countries but the number of votes it had rapidly increased. *Other smaller parties* such as the extreme-right-wing National Front as well as publicity-seeking fringe groups may also contest a general election. But a party which does not achieve a certain number of votes in the election loses its deposit - the sum paid when a party registers to fight an election.

Party System in Parliament

The party system in Parliament largely operates as follows: once the results of a general election are known, the majority party in the Commons normally forms the new government. By tradition, the leader of the majority party is asked by the Sovereign to form a government and about a hundred of its members in the House of Commons and the House of Lords receive ministerial appointments on the advice of the Prime Minister. The largest minority party becomes the official Opposition, with its own leader and 'shadow cabinet', which is more or less as the government would be if the party were in power, and the relevant members act as opposition spokesmen on major issues.

The shape of the Commons debating chamber makes an important comment on the political process in Britain. Unlike many European chambers which are semicircular, thus reflecting the spectrum of political opinion in their seating plan, the Commons is rectangular, with the Speaker's chair at one end, and either side of it five rows of benches running the length of the chamber. On one side, to the Speaker's right, sits Her Majesty's Government and its supporters, and on the other Her Majesty's Opposition, composed of all members who oppose the government. The front benches on either side are reserved for members of the Cabinet and other ministers, and Opposition spokesmen, known as the 'shadow cabinet', respectively. Thus, the arrangement of seating in the House of Commons reflects the system, since leaders of the government and the opposition parties sit on facing 'front benches', with their supporting MPs, or «beck benchers» behind them.

Similar arrangements for the parties also however, Lords who do not wish to be associated may sit on the «cross-benches».

The effectiveness of the party system in Parliament depends largely on the relationship between the government and opposition parties. Depending on the relative voting strengths of the parties in the House of Commons, the Opposition may try to overthrow the government by defeating it in a vote on a «matter of confidence».

The Monarchy

The United Kingdom is one of seven constitutional monarchies with- in Europe (the other six being Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden, Norway and Spain). Britain's monarchy is the oldest, dating back to the 9th century. It existed four centuries before the Parliament and three centuries before the law courts. The present monarch, Queen Elizabeth II, is directly descended from Saxon king Egbert, who united England under his rule in 829.

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

To understand the European royal line of succession it must be remembered that in ancient times a king was preferable to a queen. A monarch was expected to lead an army into battle; few women could do that. (Boudicca, or Boadicea, queen of the British tribe of the Iceni in the second century, was one of few.) Thus a crown passed from father to son or, as in Scotland in the early Middle Ages, to a king's most respected kinsman. Britain has a queen today, Elizabeth II, only because her father, George VI, had no son. Had he had a son, however much younger than his daughters, that son would have succeeded George VI on the throne in 1952. When a British monarch has sons and daughters, the sons always take precedence. The children (sons or daughters) of a monarch's eldest son take precedence over the monarch's second son, and he and his children (sons or daughters) take precedence over the third son, and so on. Only if a monarch has no living son, and no grandchildren through his sons, will that monarch be succeeded on the throne by his daughter.

The present royal line of succession, read in conjunction with the 'family tree' of the House of Windsor, shows how that principle works in practice. There have, of course, been exceptions to the rule.

God save the Queen

1

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

2

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

3

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

Sovereigns of England 1066–1603

William I 1066–1087
 William II 1087–1100
 Henry I 1100–1135
 Stephen 1135–1154
 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

Henry IV 1399–1413

Henry V 1413–1422

Henry VI 1422–1461 (1470–1471)

Edward IV 1461–1483

Edward V 1483

Richard III 1483–1485

Henry VII 1485–1509

Henry VIII 1509–1547

Edward VI 1547–1553

Lady Jane Grey 1553

Mary I 1553–1558

Elizabeth I 1558–1603

**Sovereigns of Scotland
 1034–1625**

Duncan I 1034–1040

Macbeth 1040–1057

Lulach 1057–1058

Malcolm III 1058–1093

Donald III 1093–1094, 1094–1097

Duncan II 1094

Edgar 1097–1107

Alexander I 1107–1124

David I 1124–1153

Malcolm IV 1153–1165

William I 1165–1214

Alexander II 1214–1249

Alexander III 1249–1286

Margaret 1286–1290

John 1292–1296

Robert I 1306–1329

David II 1329–1371

Edward disputed 1332, 1333–1346

Robert II 1371–1390

Robert III 1390–1406

James I 1406–1437

James II 1437–1460

James III 1460–1488

James IV 1488–1513

James V 1513–1542

Mary Queen of Scots 1542–1567

James VI 1567–1625

Sovereigns of England and Scotland

James I/VI 1603–1625

Charles I 1625–1649

(Commonwealth 1649–1660)

Charles II 1660–1685

James II/VII 1685–1689

William III/II 1689–1702

Mary II jointly 1689–1694

Anne 1702–1714

Sovereigns of Great Britain

Anne 1702–1714

George I 1714–1727

George II 1727–1760

George III 1760–1820

George IV 1820–1830

William IV 1830–1837

Victoria 1837–1901

Edward VII 1901–1910

George V 1910–1936

Edward VIII 1936

George VI 1936–1952

Elizabeth II since 1952



In 1707 the Act of Union created the Kingdom of Great Britain. In 1801 the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland was established, although English/British monarchs had also been monarchs of Ireland since Henry VIII claimed regal sovereignty in 1542. The nation is now styled 'The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland'. It has become customary for monarchs to be numbered following the English system: the present Queen Elizabeth II is properly 'Elizabeth I' in Scotland.

Key to symbols used in this book:
 = Married; † Children of marriage;
 m. Married; Sep. Separated; Div. Divorced;
 d. Died; KG Knight of the Garter

ABOVE: Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II photographed by Cecil Beaton on Coronation Day, 2 June 1953.

RIGHT: The Royal Coat of Arms.

The British Monarchy From Egbert AD 802 to Queen Elizabeth II London

London, the capital of Great Britain, is one of the oldest and largest cities of the world.

It is said that London is two thousand years old. Hundreds of years before our era it was a small settlement on the banks of the Thames. To this place, in the year 55 B.C., Caesar came from London.

Llyn-din (which means `a lonely place`) – that was the name of the settlement – became Londinium. The Romans made Londinium a large and rich city with good streets, beautiful palaces, shops and villas. It was surrounded by walls and its gates were locked at nights.

In the fifth century the Romans left Britain and Saxons and Danes invaded the British shores. They conquered the land and ruined the city.

During nearly 400 years Londinium lay in ruins, grass grew where the beautiful buildings had been before, wild beasts walked on the good Roman roads.

In the 9th century and later Saxon kings began to rebuild the ruined city of Londonium. Soon, two miles west from it, another centre, Westminster Abbey was founded.

In 1066 came William the Duke of Normandy, or William the Conqueror. He settled in Londinium which now became London. For 500 years the Normans were masters of Britain. They brought with them Latin and French civilization, the learning, the laws and the organization of the land.

The Norman masters went everywhere about the country, building new palaces and churches and cathedrals. Simple wooden halls were good enough for poor Britons, stone and marble were used by the Normans who wanted to shine in the conquered land. The ideas were Norman, the labour was British.

Westminster Abbey was finished and William was the first king to be crowned there. Since then for nearly 1000 years, all English kings have been crowned in the Abbey. Many of them are buried there too.

At that time the Tower of London was built on the Thames, it stands there unchanged, for nearly 1000 years.

In 1665 a great misfortune – the Plague – fell upon London. At that time London was a busy, rich and crowded city. The streets were so narrow that the people, out of their bedroom windows on one side of the road, could shake hands with those living on the opposite side. Lots of ships came to London daily. On one of them, together with some goods, the Great Plague had arrived in London. People fell ill one after another, whole families died. Many people tried to run away from London and died on the roads. In the city the houses of the sick were guarded so that no one could come in or go out. Baskets were hung out of the windows for the food for those inside. A large red cross was painted on the door to tell everybody: The Plague Is In the House. At night `the Dead Cart` went round the streets. The driver rang the bell and shouted, `Bring out your dead`. All life in London came to a standstill, the ships stopped coming, the streets were empty and grass grew between the stones.

By the end of summer there were not enough people to bury the dead. In a few months nearly 100,000 died, about one fifth of the population. It was the winter cold that saved the city.

In 1666, just the year after the Plague, there was the Great fire in London, which destroyed 3000 houses and 97 churches. They say that a young and careless baker left at night a small bundle of wood near a very hot oven. In a few hours big flames were seen all along the narrow street. All the houses, made of wood, soon were burning like paper. Small shops on the riverside caught fire at once and from there on to the houses on London Bridge. The fire on the bridge destroyed the water-wheel, so there was no more water to put out the fire. Only when the wind changed and then stopped blowing, a heavy rain fell and London – what was left of it – was saved.

The Fire cleared away the old and dirty houses and a new London, a London of stone, with wider streets and better houses was built.

Windsor Castle

Of the many Royal Palaces in Europe none can trace its origin to so early a period as does Windsor Castle or is so closely connected with national history. For over 800 years Windsor has been the residence of the Kings and Queens of England. The building on the present site is undoubtedly of Norman origin, and the site itself was originally chosen for strategic purposes. Interesting and attractive stories attributing the origin of the Castle to Roman and Saxon times are probably legendary, although it is known that Edward the Confessor had a palace at Old Windsor, some three miles away.

It is at any rate certain that in the year 1086 entry is found in the Domes day Book referring to a Fortress on the present site. During the reign of the Norman Kings the Castle grew in importance, and the buildings had attained the proportions of a Royal Palace.

The Round Tower has been the central feature of the Castle since its original conception. The early Norman structure was probably some form of fortification erected on a natural mound, protected by a moat, probably also by a strong palisade. This was replaced by a masonry ring wall, late in the 12th century. The first substantial building erected on the mound was known as the Rose Tower, which was built by Edward III, and in which the King convened a "Round Table" after the manner of the mythical King Arthur. Knights and Squires from every country in Christendom, as well as those of England, were invited to attend, and the meeting took place within the Tower. In 1344 the order now known as the Order of the Garter was established within its walls, when 26 Knights were elected members, including Edward III and the Black Prince. Persons of importance have been held captive in the Tower from its earliest times. The Tower is the official headquarters of the Governor of the Castle, an office which dates back to the reign of William the Conqueror.

The Tower was raised to its present elevation by Wyattville during the

extensive renovations carried out early in the nineteenth century. The present Tower is considerably higher than any previous building, and is crowned with a flag tower, from which the Royal Standard is flown when the King is in residence, the Union Jack being displayed on other occasions. An ornamental old-time garden now takes the place of the original moat. In the centre of the Tower is a well, 164 feet in depth.

York

A short history

The Romans, the Vikings and the Normans all made York their northern headquarters. For hundreds of years it was England's second city, a rich and prosperous port, superior in wealth and status to all except London.

The Romans called it «Eboracum» and built defensive walls and a fortress where York Minster now stands. Constantine the Great, the first Christian emperor of Rome, was in York when he succeeded to his title. The next great invasion, that of the Vikings, happened about 450 years after the Romans withdrew. They called their new headquarters Iorvik, from which the name York derives. York's street names almost all originated with the Vikings.

Then came William the Conqueror in 1068. He quashed a rebellion, built himself a grand castle and flattened the city. The first Norman Minster, on the foundations of earlier stone churches, was begun in 1070. By the Middle Ages York, with its great River Ouse bringing trade and prosperity, was the most thriving town in the north of England. Many of the medieval and Tudor buildings survived the Reformation and the English Civil War. By the 18th century, York, no longer an international port, had become a large and busy market town and the focal point for northern society.

After the arrival of the railway and two chocolate companies, Terry's and Rowntree, in the 19th century, the city prospered once more. The history not only of York, but also of England, is evident in the ancient buildings and the streets, walked by the millions of visitors who arrive each year to marvel at what the city has to offer.

The Historic City of York

As well as being an example of living history, the city knows well how to show its history to visitors. The National Railway Museum's collection of steam trains and Royal Carriages is world-famous. In the Castle Museum one can imagine oneself in a 19th century world of Victorian streets, shops, farmhouses and homes. York Story, in Castlegate, is a lively museum showing how the city of York grew during 1900 years. In the newest museum, visitors travel in a special electric car (like a time machine) through an original Viking street with the sights, sounds and smells which a Viking in York would have experienced.

Most splendid of all, of course, is the magnificent Minster. It is the largest Gothic cathedral in northern Europe and the most important church in the North of England. It is famous for its mediaeval stained glass windows, and the interior is full of colour and light. You can see the huge Minster for miles. You can climb to the top of the tower or take a trip into history below ground, where you can see the Roman remains.

A short history of the origins and development of English

The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders - mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from "Englaland" and their language was called "Englisc" - from which the words "England" and "English" are derived.



Рисунок 1. Germanic invasion.

Germanic invaders entered Britain on the east and south coasts in the 5th century.

Old English (450-1100 AD)

The invading Germanic tribes spoke similar languages, which in Britain developed into what we now call Old English. Old English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words *be*, *strong* and *water*, for example, derive from Old English. Old English was spoken until around 1100.

Middle English (1100-1500)

In 1066 William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy (part of modern France), invaded and conquered England. The new conquerors (called the Normans) brought with them a kind of French, which became the language of the Royal Court, and the ruling and business classes. For a period there was a kind of linguistic class division, where the lower classes spoke English and the upper classes spoke French. In the 14th century English became dominant in Britain again, but with many French

words added. This language is called Middle English. It was the language of the great poet Chaucer (c1340-1400), but it would still be difficult for native English speakers to understand today.

Modern English

Early Modern English (1500-1800)

Towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter. From the 16th century the British had contact with many peoples from around the world.

This, and the Renaissance of Classical learning, meant that many new words and phrases entered the language. The invention of printing also meant that there was now a common language in print. Books became cheaper and more people learned to read. Printing also brought standardization to English. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the dialect of London, where most publishing houses were, became the standard. In 1604 the first English dictionary was published.

Late Modern English (1800-Present)

The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from two principal factors: firstly, the Industrial Revolution and technology created a need for new words; secondly, the British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries.

Varieties of English

From around 1600, the English colonization of North America resulted in the creation of a distinct American variety of English. Some English pronunciations and words "froze" when they reached America. In some ways, American English is more like the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Some expressions that the British call "Americanisms" are in fact original British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost for a time in Britain (for example trash for rubbish, loan as a verb instead of lend, and fall for autumn; another example, frame-up, was re-imported into Britain through Hollywood gangster movies). Spanish also had an influence on American English (and subsequently British English), with words like canyon, ranch, stampede and vigilante being examples of Spanish words that entered English through the settlement of the American West. French words (through Louisiana) and West African words (through the slave trade) also influenced American English (and so, to an extent, British English).

Today, American English is particularly influential, due to the USA's dominance of cinema, television, popular music, trade and technology (including the Internet). But there are many other varieties of English around the world, including for example Australian English, New Zealand English, Canadian English, South African English, Indian English and Caribbean English.

A brief chronology of English

- 55 BC Roman invasion of Britain by Julius Caesar. Local inhabitants speak Celtic.
- AD 43 Roman invasion and occupation. Beginning of Roman rule of Britain.
- 436 Roman withdrawal from Britain complete.
- 449 Settlement of Britain by Germanic invaders begins.
- 450-480 Earliest known Old English inscriptions. 1066 William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy, invades and conquers England.
- c1150 Earliest surviving manuscripts in Middle English.
- 1348 English replaces Latin as the language of instruction in most schools.
- 1362 English replaces French as the language of law. English is used in Parliament for the first time.
- c1388 Chaucer starts writing The Canterbury Tales.
- c1400 The Great Vowel Shift begins.
- 1476 William Caxton establishes the first English printing press.
- 1564 Shakespeare is born.
- 1604 Table Alphabeticall, the first English dictionary, is published.
- 1607 The first permanent English settlement in the New World (Jamestown) is established.
- 1616 Shakespeare dies.
- 1623 Shakespeare's First Folio is published
- 1702 The first daily English-language newspaper, The Daily Courant, is published in London.
- 1755 Samuel Johnson publishes his English dictionary.
- 1776 Thomas Jefferson writes the American Declaration of Independence.
- 1782 Britain abandons its colonies in what is later to become the USA.
- 1828 Webster publishes his American English dictionary.
- 1922 The British Broadcasting Corporation is founded.
- 1928 The Oxford English Dictionary is published.

English as a global language

Today we are living in a «Global Village». As the Internet explosively grows, ever more people are becoming aware of this «Global Village» on a personal level. People correspond with others from around the globe on a regular basis, products are bought and sold with increasing ease from all over the world and 'real time' coverage of major news events is taken for granted. English plays a central role in this 'globalization' and it has become the de facto language of choice for communication between the various peoples of the Earth. English is the first language of capitalism, of international commerce and trade; it has more cultural resources, in the sense of work of literature, films, and television programmes, than any other language. It is the main language of newspapers, airport and air traffic control, international business and academic competitions, pop music, and advertising.

Here are some important statistics.

It is estimated that over 1 billion people are currently learning English worldwide. According to the British council, as of the year 2000 there were 750 million English as Foreign language speakers. In addition, there were 375 million English as Second Language (ESL) speakers. The difference between the two groups amounts to English as Foreign Language speakers using English occasionally for business or pleasure, while English as a Second Language speakers use English on a daily basis.

These impressive numbers are driven by adult speakers around the world who use English to communicate in the workplace. It is a commonly held misconception that these speakers need English to communicate with native speakers. While ESL is required for those living and working in English speaking cultures such as the UK and USA, it is equally true that English is used as the lingua franca between nations where English is not the primary language.

(www.britishcouncil.org)

Higher education

Higher education is provided at universities and on advanced courses at polytechnics and other establishments of higher and further education. The oldest and best-known universities are in Oxford, Cambridge, London, Manchester, Liverpool, Durham, Edinburgh, Bristol, Cardiff, Birmingham. A university consists of a number of faculties: divinity, medicine, arts (philosophy), law, music, natural sciences, economics, engineering, agriculture, commerce and education. After three years of study, a student may proceed to a Bachelor's degree and later to the degree of Master and Doctor.'

The Bachelor's degree is given to students who pass examinations at the end of three or four years of study, Bachelor of Arts for history, philosophy, language and literature and sometimes some social studies, or Bachelor of Science or Commerce or Music. Bachelors' degrees are at two levels, Honours and Pass. In some cases the Honours degree is given for intensive study and examination in one, two or perhaps three related subjects, while the Pass (or "General") degree may be somewhat broader. In other cases the Honours degree is given to the students who are more successful in their examination.

The first post-graduate degree is that of Master, conferred for a thesis based on at least one year's full-time work. Everywhere the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is given for a thesis which is an original contribution to knowledge.

The oldest Universities of Oxford and Cambridge were founded in the two towns towards the end of the twelfth century. The story of the University in Cambridge begins in 1209 when several hundred students and scholars arrived in the little town of Cambridge. These students were all churchmen and had been studying in Oxford, at the city of well-known schools. It was a hard life in Oxford for there was constant trouble between the townsfolk and the students. Then one day a student accidentally killed a man of the town. The Mayor arrested three other students who were innocent and by order of King John 2 (who was quarrelling with the Church and knew that the death of three churchmen would annoy it) they were put to death

by hanging. In protest, all the students moved elsewhere, some came to Cambridge, and so the new University was formed. There were many new quarrels with the townsfolk, for the University wanted to be independent of the Town. Side by side with the fight for freedom from Town rule and another for liberty from Church rule the University became its own master at last in 1500. Now at Oxford and Cambridge the colleges are self-governing institutions. In those early days student life was very different from what it is now. Students were of all ages and came from everywhere. The students were armed, some robbed the people of the countryside.

Students were forbidden to play games, to sing (except religious hymns), to hunt or fish, or even to dance. All the lessons were in the Latin language which students had to speak even among themselves.

In the early nineteenth century Oxford and Cambridge were the only two universities in England. The cost of education at these universities was so high that only the sons of the wealthier classes could afford to attend,

Many great men studied at Cambridge and Oxford amongst them Bacon the philosopher, Milton the poet, Newton the scientist, John Galsworthy the writer.

The universities have their own traditions, which they preserve carefully. A student must wear a cap and gown _it is a custom from the time when students were clergymen. If a student disobeys this regulation he must pay a fine. Students correctly dressed have their meals in the College dining-room and mustn't be late for dinner. Sporting activities are very numerous and popular and there is keen rivalry between the Colleges and the Universities. The most popular sport is rowing. Academic life in both Universities is full and varied. Students attend lectures given by professors and lecturers, their work is largely based on a "tutorial" system; each student meets his tutor 4 to have his work scrutinized and discussed.

Because of their age, traditions, historical associations and reputation the prestige of Oxford and Cambridge is very high, consequently, competition for admission is extremely keen.

WHAT ARE THE NATIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN?

The English

Almost every nation has a reputation of some kind. The French are supposed to be amorous, gay, fond of champagne: the Germans dull, formal, efficient, fond of military uniforms, and parades; the Americans boastful, gregarious and vulgar. The English are reputed to be cold, reserved, rather haughty people who do not yell in the street, make love in public or change their governments as often as they change their underclothes. They are steady, easy-going, and fond of sport.

The English are a nation of stay-at-homes. There is no place like home, they say. And when the man is not working he withdraws from the world to the company of his wife and children and busies himself with the affairs of the home. "The Englishman's home is his castle" is a saying known all over the world; and it is true that English people prefer small houses, built to house one family, perhaps with a small garden.

The fire is the focus of the English home. For the English it is the open fire, the toasting fork and the ceremony of English tea.

Foreigners often picture the Englishman dressed in tweeds, smoking a pipe, striding across the open countryside with his dog at his heels. This is a picture of the aristocratic Englishman during his holidays on his country estate. Since most of the open countryside is privately owned there isn't much left to the others to stride across. The average Englishman often lives and dies without ever having possessed a tweed suit.

Apart from the conservatism on a grand scale which the attitude to the monarchy typifies, England is full of small-scale and local conservatisms, some of them of a highly individual or particular character. Regiments in the army, municipal corporations, school and societies have their own private traditions which command strong loyalties. Such groups have customs of their own which they are very reluctant to change, and they like to think of their private customs as differentiating them, as groups, from the rest of the world.

British Titles

'Princes' and 'princesses' are members of the Royal Family.

There are different kinds of "lords", e.g. dukes, earls, and barons. These titles usually go from father to son.

Such titles as 'sir' for men and 'dame' for women are given to people who have given special service to the country (Paul McCartney, Elton John, David Beckham and Victoria Beckham).

A Squire

The English word squire comes from the Old French *escuier*, itself derived from the Late Latin *scutarius* ('shield bearer').

A squire was originally a young man who aspired to the rank of knighthood and who, as part of his development to that end, served an existing knight as his attendant or shield carrier (hence the name). However, during the middle ages the rank of esquire came to be recognized in its own right and, once knighthood ceased to be conferred by any but the monarch, it was no longer to be assumed that any esquire would in due course progress to be a knight. The connection between a squire and any particular knight also ceased to exist, as did any shield carrying duties. A squire then became nothing more than the holder of a certain social rank or status. It is also used by some men to address a man when they do not know his name.

An Esq - a title, the short form of the word 'Esquire' is sometimes still written after a man's name on an envelope of an official letter instead of 'Mr' before it.

A Baronet

A baronet (traditional abbreviation Bart, modern abbreviation Bt) or his female equivalent, a baronetess (abbreviation Btss.), is the holder of a hereditary title awarded by the British Crown, known as a baronetcy. The practice of awarding baronetcies was introduced by James I of England in 1611 in order to raise funds. Baronetcies have no European equivalent, though hereditary knights, such as the German and Austrian Ritter and the Dutch *erfridder*; may be held to be similar. There were originally three hereditary knighthoods in Ireland: one is currently extinct, whilst the other two still exist. The name baronet is a diminutive of the higher

peerage title baron. The rank of a baronet is between that of a baron and that of a knight. A baronetcy is unique in two ways:

- 1) it is a hereditary honour but is not a peerage and has never entitled the holder to a seat in the House of Lords; and
- 2) a baronet is styled 'Sir' but the baronetcy is not considered an order of knighthood.

National obsession - football

Football is the most popular sport in Britain, particularly amongst men. It is played by boys in most schools. Most towns have an amateur football team which plays in a minor league. Football is also the most popular spectator sport in Britain. Many people go to see their favourite professional team playing at home, and some go to away matches. Many more people watch football on television.

The rules of football are relatively simple: two teams of 11 players try to get a round ball into the opposing team's goal and to prevent their opponents from scoring. The ball may be kicked or headed, but never handled, except by the goalkeepers. The Football Association was founded in 1863 to decide the rules of football and the resulting game became known formally as association football. It is sometimes also called soccer. Many of today's leading clubs were established shortly afterwards.

Most professional clubs represent large cities, or parts of London. They include Everton, Liverpool, Manchester United, Arsenal, Chelsea and Tottenham Hotspur. The most famous Scottish clubs include Rangers and Celtic. In 1992 football was reorganized so that the best 20 teams in England and Wales play in the Premiership, while 70 other teams play in three divisions, run by the Football League. There is a Scottish Premier League and three divisions run by the Scottish Football League. At the end of each season, the top few teams in each division are promoted and the bottom teams are relegated. As well as the Premiership, the main competitions are the FA Cup and the League Cup. A few of the most successful sides have won the Double, both titles in the same year. The biggest clubs are now run as major businesses, and top players earn large salaries. They are frequently transferred between clubs for millions of pounds. Many foreign stars also now play for British teams.

An increase in football hooliganism in the 1970s and 1980s frightened many people away from football matches. English fans got a bad reputation in Europe and football violence became known as 'the English disease'. Disasters such as that at Hillsborough, in which many people died, also discouraged people from going to matches. Formerly, football grounds had terraces, where supporters stood packed close together, and stands containing rows of seats which were more expensive. These grounds have now almost all been replaced by all-seater stadiums, but people complain about the rising - cost of tickets. Many clubs have their own fanzine (= a magazine about the club written and published by the fans). Some supporters also buy a copy of their team's strip (= shorts and shirt in team colours).

(From Oxford Guide to British and American Culture)

Cricket

Cricket is a summer sport played in England and some other Commonwealth countries between two teams of 11 players on a grass pitch. In England, it is played between April and September at many levels, from informal games on the beach to matches between schools, villages and professional sides representing a county. Players traditionally play wearing white, although this is now being replaced in some competitions by coloured clothing.

Cricket is a complicated game played with wooden bats and a leather ball. Each team bats (= hits the ball) for an innings, trying to score runs, while the other team bowls (= throws the ball) and fields (= tries to catch or stop the ball after it has been hit). Their aim is to get the batsman out for as few runs as possible. Two batsmen are in (= on the pitch) at the same time, each defending a wicket (= three upright wooden posts with two short pieces of wood resting on top of them) which the bowler tries to hit. Each bowler in turn bowls an over (= throws the ball six times from the same end of the pitch). The two wickets are 22 yards apart and runs are scored when the batsmen run between them after they have hit the ball. A batsman can also score four runs if he hits the ball over the boundary (= a line round the edge of the pitch) or six runs if it goes over the boundary before it hits the ground. A batsman can be out for a variety of reasons and an innings usually ends when all but one of the batting team are out.

Matches may last for several days, though one-day and limited-over matches are popular. In England and Wales, 18 counties compete each year in two divisions in the county championship. They also compete in the Twenty20 Cup, a series of limited-over matches in which each team bowls 20 overs which started in 2003. The English national team plays test matches against other national sides including Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, Pakistan and the West Indies and in the Cricket World Cup which takes place every four years. England and Australia also compete for the Ashes a series of 5-day test matches.

(From Oxford Guide to British and American Culture)

Scotland

At the beginning of the 6th century Scotland was an independent country, ruled by Scottish kings and queens. At the same time the country was divided between different groups of people: the Picts and Celts (the oldest inhabitants), the Scots (who came from Northern Ireland), the Britons (who fled to Scotland from the Germanic invaders of England), and the Angles (Germanic tribes).

Towards the beginning of the 17th century (1603) England and Scotland finally united. It occurred after the death of a childless English Queen, Elisabeth I, when the country turned out to have no immediate heir to the throne. Consequently, Elisabeth's cousin, Mary Queen of Scots, put her son James who thus became James VI of Scotland and James I of England.

There are only about 5 million Scots, and most of them live in the southern half of the country - Lowlands, but they have kept a special culture and way of life of

their own. So we can distinguish the Highlanders, those living in the northern half of the country and the Lowlanders - living in the southern one.

Today Scotland is governed from London and is one of the four constituent countries of the UK. Scotsmen are rather annoyed if you call them Englishmen. They have their own capital city (Edinburgh), their own law and stamps. They have a language of their own - Scot Gaelic - an ancient Celtic language - which is spoken now by only a few people on the islands. Their own church, the Church of Scotland, is different from the Church of England. There is a special minister in the Government, the Secretary of State for Scotland, who is responsible for education, local government and other important matters in Scotland.

The Scottish people have their own kind of music (the traditional 'bagpipes'), their own kind of clothes (the colorful 'tartans', kilts), and their own kind of food and drink, including their famous haggis and Scotch whisky. They also love dancing.

Highland fling is the oldest of the Scottish dances, dating back to the 11th century. The dance is - performed on the same spot.

Men and women also dance a reel, another famous Scottish dance, very cheerful and quick. Some reels are difficult but others are very easy. Often the men stand in one line and the women in another.

Tartan

Every Scotsman belongs to a clan. For example, everybody with the name MacGregor is a member of the Macgregor's clan. There are about 300 different clans in Scotland. Each clan has its own special tartan - precisely patterned and multi-colored cloth. It derives from the Irish-Scots words tuar and tan, meaning 'color' and 'district' respectively.

In Scotland by the 15th and 16th centuries the word tartan was being widely used by English and Scots speakers. Tartans, or colored woven checks, may be in different colors. Originally, the tartan was worn as a single piece of cloth, drawn in at the waist and thrown over the shoulders.

By the tartan you can learn which clan the man belongs to. There are more than 300 tartans: some clan has more than one tartan. They are now part of international fashion. Tartan is generally defined as fabrics woven of colored yarn that repeat in sequence, not only across the width but along the length of the cloth. However, many visitors to Scotland are keen to find out if they have historical connections with any particular clan so that they may proudly wear the correct tartan. There are a lot of variations in differing shades depending on whether it is considered ancient or modern. The ancient colours are lighter and not as bright due to the old type dyes that were used.

By the 19th century, a fashion boom had occurred in tartan, and it became popular attire at high-society balls, both in Britain and abroad.

(From Tartans. The Facts & Myths)

Bagpipes

A bagpipe is a musical instrument played by blowing air into a bag held under the arm, and pressing it out through pipes. Similar instruments are played in many countries, including Ireland, but in Britain the bagpipes are mainly associated with Scotland. The sound they make is unusual, but their music is suitable both for dancing and for serious occasions such as funerals. A person who plays the bagpipe is called a piper.

Scottish names

If a man is called Jock MacTavish, it is clear that he is a Scotsman. A lot of Scottish family names begin with 'Mac' or 'Mc' - like MacDonalds, MacKenzie - which means 'son of' and people with this name usually feel they belong to the same family or clan. Campbell or Cameron are other common surnames. Common boys' names are Jimmy or Jock, Angus, Donald or Duncan. Common girls' names are Morag, Fiona or Jean. ('Jock' is like John and Jack in England, Ivan - in Russia and Fritz in Germany).

Scottish boy names: Dallas, Gilmat, Glendon, Reed, Banner, Aengus, Allister, Lachlan, Laird, Davidson, Nathrach, etc.

Scottish girl names: Annabel, Bonni, Donetta, Dallas, Kameron, Kenzie, Mackenzie, Maggie, Robena, etc.

Wales (Cymru)

Wales is a principality (it has been a Principality since the 13th century) and one of the four constituent parts of the United Kingdom (along with England, Scotland, and Northern Ireland). Wales is located in the south-west of Great Britain, and is bordered by England to the east, the Bristol Channel to the south, St. George's Channel in the west, and the Irish Sea to the north. The term Principality of Wales, in Welsh, Tywysogaeth Cymru, is often used, although the Prince of Wales has no role in the governance of Wales and this term is unpopular among some.

Wales has not been politically independent since 1282, when it was conquered by King Edward I of England and incorporated into a single political and administrative system with England in the 16th century. England fully annexed Wales in 1535, in the reign of Henry VIII.

The capital of Wales since 1955 has been Cardiff, although Caernafon is the location where the Prince of Wales is invested. In 1999, the National Assembly for Wales was formed, which has limited domestic powers and cannot make law.

However, the Welsh sense of difference survived. A cultural self-consciousness was awakened in the mid-19th century, through a revival of literature in Welsh and the literary and music festivals, eisteddfods, for which emphasised Welsh identity. From 1900 onwards identity was also expressed through rugby football, which became a sport of national importance.

The Welsh are very proud of their language and culture. People in Wales speak English but at the same time they have their own language- Welsh. In politics, too, the Welsh have followed their own ideas. There is a strong Welsh nationalist party founded in 1925 - Plaid Cymru, who want to keep Welsh culture alive in Wales. They

make sure that Welsh programs appear on TV, and that road signs are written in both English and Welsh. Mostly Welsh is spoken now and in recent years people protested against the influence of English on the Welsh culture and language. Even today, the Methodist chapels play an important part in the life of Welsh towns and villages.



Рисунок 2. Island Anglesey. The Welsh town with the longest name.

There are only 3 million Welsh, and they have struggled to maintain their identity in the second half of the twentieth century. They have had to do this not only against the political might of London but also the erosion of Welsh culture through English radio and television. In terms of Welsh language, for example, at the end of the nineteenth century over 50 per cent still spoke Welsh as their first language.

Because of fears that the language might disappear completely, Welsh language study has become compulsory in Welsh schools, and there is now Welsh medium radio and television. Some people learn Welsh before they learn English - and some of these people never learn much English. Some Welsh families speak Welsh to each other at home, but they read English newspapers and books. As a result 19 per cent still use Welsh, mainly in the north west and mid-Wales and many more over a wide area now understand it. The survival of the Welsh language is the most notable way in which the Welsh keep their special identity.

The Welsh national game: Rugby

The Welsh are traditionally mad about rugby. Rugby Union is the national game of Wales, and during the 1970s the Welsh team was thought to be the best in the world. The rules of the game are rather complicated but mainly involve the carrying or kicking of a large oval-shaped ball over your opponents' goal line (the line at each end of the pitch where 'H'-shaped goal-posts are) and pressing it firmly on the ground to score a try. A team consists of 15 players, 8 of whom are usually much bigger and heavier than the rest.

Although the game seems to be similar to American football, the players are not allowed to throw the ball forward. Other points can be won by kicking the ball between the special 'H'-shaped goal-posts. And there is a lot a pushing!

Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland, with its population of about 1.7 million, is a province of the United Kingdom. The territory of Northern Ireland is sometimes called 'Ulster' and the capital city is Belfast. It consists of six of the traditional nine counties of the historic province of Ulster: Antrim, Down, Armagh, Tyrone, Fermanagh and

Londonderry. The area is surrounded by the North Sea to the north and east. Belfast is the capital city.

Ireland is famous for its whiskey (which has a taste quite different from Scotch), for its Guinness (a sort of dark bitter beer), Irish coffee; legends, stories and myths. Story-telling has always been part of the Irish way of life - stories of gods and people who lived in a land of adventure, warfare and romance, stories told by the fire side.

Northern Ireland was for many years the site of a violent ethno-political conflict ('the Troubles') between those claiming to represent Nationalists, who are predominantly Roman Catholic, and those claiming to represent Unionists, who are predominantly Protestant (who were the descendants of Scottish and English emigrants).

Unfortunately Northern Ireland is still best known for the years of conflict called 'the Troubles', but despite its reputation for political troubles, Northern Ireland is a very beautiful, green farming land, with many forests, lakes and rivers. The coast is especially lovely and when you are fishing in a quiet river, or sunbathing on the beach, it is easy to feel that troubles are a long way away.

Some points of history **Reformation and Plantation**

The history of Anglo-Irish relations began with the colonization of Ireland by the Normans under Henry II of England in the 12th century. Over the next two centuries these Norman settlers became 'more Irish than the Irish'. However, in the 16th century Henry VIII quarreled with Rome and declared himself Head of the Anglican Church. Resistance from Irish Catholics was strong but was put down by Henry's armies. And by trying to force Irish Catholics to become Anglican and by taking a lot of their land, Henry began the two lasting problems of Anglo-Irish relations - religion and land.

When people think of Northern Ireland, they usually think of troubles - guns, bombs and soldiers. They have heard of the fighting between Catholics and Protestants. The reasons for it go far back into Irish history.

In the early 17th century the 'Plantation of Ulster' began. 'Plantation' meant that 23 new towns were built in Ulster to protect the Protestant settlers known as 'planters', most of whom came from Scotland.

In 1800, after the Irish Rebellion of 1798, the British and the Irish parliaments enacted the Act of Union, which merged the Kingdom of Ireland and the Kingdom of Great Britain - itself a union of the Kingdoms of England (Wales had been incorporated into England by the Act of Union of 1536) and Scotland, made in 1707 - to create the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

In September 1914, just as the First World War broke out, the UK Parliament finally passed the Third Home Rule Act to establish self-government for Ireland, but was suspended for the duration of the war. The period from 1916-1921 was marked by political violence and upheaval, ending in the partition of Ireland and independence for 26 of its 32 counties.

Partition

The fourth and final Home Rule Bill (the Government of Ireland Act 1920) partitioned the island into Northern Ireland (= Ulster: six northeastern counties) and Southern Ireland (the rest of the island). In July 1921, the Irish and British governments agreed a truce that halted the war. After a long and violent struggle the southern part of Ireland finally became a Free State. It was in December 1921, when representatives of both governments signed an Anglo-Irish Treaty. This abolished the Irish Republic and created the Irish Free State, a self-governing Dominion of the British Empire in the manner of Canada and Australia. Under the Treaty, Northern Ireland could opt out of the Free State and stay within the United Kingdom: it promptly did so. Ulster (Northern Ireland) chose to remain part of the UK. This division is called a 'partition'.

With the partition of Ireland in 1922, 92.6% of the Free State's population were Catholic while 7.4% were Protestant. Between 1922 and 1923 both sides fought the bloody Irish Civil War.

And the Irish Free State declared itself a republic in 1949 and is now known as the Irish Republic, or Eire (an old Irish word for Ireland). So, after this partition, the relationship between the Protestants and the Northern Irish Catholics in Northern Ireland were getting more and more strained and tense. Their anger grew and, in the end, it turned to violence.

(From Spotlight on Britain by S. Sheerin)

Conflict

The present 'troubles', as the Northern Irish say, have been going on since the 1960s. In 1949, Northern Ireland still had its own Prime Minister and its own Parliament in Belfast which was responsible for the internal (not foreign) affairs, but it was still part of the UK.

From the beginning, the Parliament was dominated by ruling Protestants. Northern Irish Catholics, who were now in a minority, found that they did not have equal rights, opportunities with Protestants for housing and employment. Thus, endless chains of rioting, demonstrations, bloody fighting and many deaths began. In addition, many British soldiers have been killed.

Nowadays there are ordinary Protestants, ordinary Catholics, catholic secret armies and protestant secret armies in Northern Ireland. Both the Protestant and the Catholic communities have illegal secret armies fighting a bloody war. On the Catholic side, are the IRA (Irish Republican Army) and INLA (Irish National Liberation Army). Both these organizations want to achieve a united Ireland by violent means, but they are condemned today by the government of the Irish Republic.

On the Protestant side are the UDA (Ulster Defense Association) and the UVF (Ulster Volunteer Force). The government of the Irish Republic and the British government are very much concerned about the present day situation in Northern Ireland.

(From Spotlight on Britain by S. Sheerin)

St. Patrick's Day

No matter where you are in the world, with one exception, 17th March has always been a great day to be Irish. The exception is Ireland itself, where until recently St. Patrick's Day was regarded with scepticism.

From Liverpool to New York, from Toronto to Melbourne, it was an occasion of ethnic pride, when even tenth generation emigrants celebrated their Irishness by wearing green, dyeing the local rivers green, and even drinking green beer. Meanwhile, back at headquarters, the inhabitants of the sainted isle itself tended to wear anything except green, and struggled to muster any enthusiasm for the event.

Patrick's Day parades were being held by the Irish abroad for a century before it occurred to the Irish at home to do likewise, and even then the Dublin version was half-hearted. It's debatable whether the Irish finally caught the bug, or just belatedly realized that the commercial potential of the event was going untapped. But around the same time as Riverdance, the Dublin parade was transformed into a big production - a sort of cold-weather Mardi Gras.

The national holiday is not just a 24-hour event anymore: it's a five-day festival with everything from fireworks displays to symposiums, in which intellectuals discuss the meaning of being Irish. The event is aggressively marketed, especially in the U.S. Of the old-style Paddy's Day, only the weather remains.

Attendance at the Dublin parade still does not include the government, however. The importance of the diaspora means that in mid-March almost every minister will be overseas, attending Irish parties from Kilburn to Kuala Lumpur. The most prestigious party is in the White House, where the Irish Prime Minister presents the U.S. President with a bowl of shamrock.

(www.discovernorthernireland.com)

Irish Names: Origin of Irish First Names

Irish names have a number of origins which are greatly influenced by the historical events that took place. Ireland was converted to Christianity by Saint Patrick and this explains why there has been a persistent preference for Christian, Hebrew and Aramaic names. The names of the 12 Apostles of Christ have always been very popular. Examples: Patrick, Patricia, Paul, Andrew, Adam, Aaron.

The Norse invasion in the Twelfth century and the Cromwellian colonisation in the seventeenth centuries brought still further variety to the first names that were chosen by parents of Irish children. Many of the Anglo names that were introduced were originally of Germanic Saxon origin. Examples: Robert, William, Richard, Gerard.

The Gaelic revival that took place in the late 1800's and early 1900's saw a return to fashion of many of the native Gaelic names that were drawn from the myths, legends and folklore of the Gaelic culture. Examples: Shane, Seamus, Ryan, Brian, Niall.

In the latter half of the twentieth century and now, at the start of the twenty-first century, the influence of media resources such as television and the internet has

meant that names that were never used in Ireland a hundred years ago have now become very popular. Examples: Kyle, Ethan, Dillon, Cameron, Reece.

(www.ireland-information.com)

Gaelic names

Years ago, all Irish people spoke Gaelic, and this language is still spoken in some parts of Ireland, although today all Irish people speak English also. Evidence of Gaelic is still found in place names, e.g. 'bally' - town, 'lough' - lake, 'inis' - island, 'glen' - valley, 'slieve'- mountain. The influence of Irish Gaelic is also found in the names of people.

Here are some typical boys first names: Conor, Sean, Evan, Patrick, Thomas, Liam, Seamus, Catail, Colin, Edward, etc.

Irish girls names: Chloe, Brid, Shauna, Seanna, Rebecca, Sarah, Megan, Shauna, Sinead, etc.

Paddy (short for Patrik) and Micky (Michael) are not Gaelic names but they are found so often in Ireland that these two names are sometimes used jokingly to mean 'an Irishman'. Many Irish surnames begin with:

O'... meaning from the family of

Fitz ... meaning son of

Mac ... meaning son of

Kil... meaning son of

Gil... meaning son of

Examples: (O'Neil, Fitzgerald, Gilmary, MacHugh, KilMartin)

(From Spotlight on Britain by S. Sheerin)

UNIT II. SOME POINTS OF THE UK HISTORY

The First Inhabitants

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.

Around 10,000 BC, as the Ice Age drew to a close, Britain was peopled 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 5000 BC Britain had finally become an island, and had also become heavily forested.

Neolithic Age

About 3000 BC Neolithic (or New Stone Age) people crossed the narrow sea from Europe in small rounded boats of bent wood covered with animal skins. These people kept animals and grew corn crops and knew how to make pottery. They probably came from either the Iberian (Spanish) peninsula or even the North-African coast. 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.

These were the first of several waves of invaders before the first arrival of the Romans in 55 BC.

Bronze Age

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 force, or whether they were invited by Neolithic Britons because of their military or metal-working skills. Their arrival is marked by 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 seemed to have brought a single culture to the whole of Britain. They also brought skills to make bronze tools and these began to replace stone ones.

The Celts

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

than the people who used bronze. It is possible that they drove many of the older inhabitants westwards into Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Celts began to control all the lowland areas of Britain, and were joined by new arrivals from the European mainland. They continued to arrive in one wave after another over the next seven hundred years.

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 Celtic tribes continued the same kind of agriculture as the Bronze Age people before them. But their use of iron technology and their introduction of more advanced ploughing methods made it possible for them to farm heavier soils.

The Celtic tribes were ruled by a warrior class, of which the priests, or Druids, were important members. The Druids could not read or write, but they memorized all the religious teachings, the tribal laws, history, medicine and other knowledge necessary in Celtic society. The Druids from different tribes all over Britain probably met once a year. They had no temples, but they met in sacred groves of trees, on certain hills, by rivers or by river sources. We know little of their kind of worship except that they worshipped different gods and magical forces practicing human sacrifice.

(From An Illustrated History of Britain by D. McDowall)

Caesar Invades Britain

The first day in English history is 55 BC, in which year Julius Caesar (the memorable Roman Emperor) landed, like all other successful invaders of these Islands, at Thanet. This was in the Olden Days, when the Romans were top nation on account of their classical education, etc.

Julius Caesar advanced very energetically, throwing his cavalry several thousands of paces over the River Flumen; but the Ancient Britons, though all well over military age, painted themselves true blue, or wood, and fought as heroically under their dashing queen, Woadicea, as they did later in thin red lines under their good queen, Victoria.

Julius Caesar was therefore compelled to invade Britain again the following year (54 B.C., not 56, owing to the peculiar Roman method of counting), and having defeated the Ancient Britons set the memorable Latin sentence, 'Veni, Vidi, Vici', which the Romans, who were all very well educated, construed correctly.

The Britons, however, who of course still used the old pronunciation, understanding him to have called them 'Weeny, Weedy, and Weakly' ('tiny', 'frail', 'weak'), lost heart and gave up the struggle, thinking that he had already divided them All into Three Parts.

Proverbs are shot, pithy sayings that reflect the accumulated wisdom, prejudices, and superstitions of human race.

- 1 All roads lead to Rome.
- 2 Render unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's.
- 3 Rome wasn't built in a day.
- 4 East is East, West is West, and never the twain shall meet.
- 5 When in Rome, do as the Romans do.
- 6 Every country has its customs.
- 7 To fiddle while Rome is burning.

The Romans

Who were the invaders? When did they come? What makes the Scottish, Welsh, English and Northern Irish different from each other?

In AD 43 the Celts tribes were conquered by the Romans. The Roman Emperor Claudius invaded Britain and made it a Roman province. So, from AD 43 to about AD 409 today's England and Wales were parts of the Roman Empire.

After the Conquest the Romans led a semi-detached life without mingling with the Britons at all. They fortified the country by building a great number of military fortresses, towns, roads and many-storeyed houses. Many of the Roman towns were at first army camps, later the Latin word for camp, castra, stuck and became the ending of many town names to this day: Lancaster, Winchester, Manchester, Chester and many others.

The Roman culture was established across the southern half of Britain, making important contribution to the Celtic life. The Romans transformed London into an important trading centre in northern Europe. Many Britons began to wear togas. The

Romans brought the skills of reading and writing to the illiterate Celtic tribes. They knew how to make butter and cheese; they were the first who introduced their wine-making traditions and their vines to England. The Romans also brought new vegetables like pea, beet (beta), pepper (piper) and fruits like plums (prunus) and cherry (cerasum) on the British Isles. The Latin names of these fruits and vegetables entered the Celtic vocabulary. With time the Celtic native language absorbed many Latin words, such as street (strata via), wall (vallum), castle (castra).

However, the Romans could not conquer 'Caledonia', as they called Scotland. In order to keep the savage and quarrelsome Picts and Scots out they built a huge wall along the northern border, separating England from Scotland, and named it Hadrian's Wall - after the Emperor Hadrian who planned. The withdrawal of the Roman legions took place in 410 AD as a result of decline of the Roman Empire.

The Anglo-Saxons

In the 5th century the Britons were attacked by Germanic tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and Jutes, who began arriving in Britain in great numbers. The Angles and Saxons (Anglo-Saxons) raided Britain from what is now northern Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands (Holland) occupying much of the south and east of the country (including some parts of southern Scotland).

According to the writings of Venerable Bede, an English monk and historian, barbaric Teutonic tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes were making raids against the Romano-British throughout the fifth and sixth centuries. The British Celts tried to resist the Germanic tribes, and that was a period of the half-legendary King Arthur and his knights of Round Table who defended Christianity against the heathen Saxons.

Finally Anglo-Saxons drove the Romanized Celts into the mountains in the far west, which they called Weallas, or 'Wales, meaning 'the land of the foreigners'. Anglo-Saxon King Offa of Mercia (757-796) built a huge earth wall, Offa's Dyke, the length of the Welsh border to keep out the troublesome Celts. The Celts fled westwards taking their culture, language and Christianity with them.

The Anglo-Saxons in England was a network of small kingdoms. They established Seven Kingdoms, known as the Heptarchy. Some of which still exist in county or regional names to this day: Essex (East Saxons), Sussex (South Saxons), Wessex (West Saxons); East Anglia (East Angles), Mercia, Northumbria; Kent (Jutes).

Anglo-Saxon invaders introduced a new culture to Britain and even today British customs and habits are described as 'Anglo-Saxon ', 'Anglo-Saxon tribes were warlike and quite illiterate, but their influence on the Celtic culture was great. They introduced a heavy plough which was more effective than anything else used before. Their families and tribes were very strong. Each member of them was loyal to his king or chief (Facts & Faces. From the History of Britain).

The Angles, Saxons and Jutes were pagans (they believed in many gods). They were the first who named the days of week after their Germanic gods.

Their gods were: Tu, or Tiesco - the god of Darkness, Woden - the god of

War, Thor - the Thunder, and Freia - the goddess of Prosperity. Thus, Tuesday was the day of god Tuesco, Wednesday - Woden's day, Thursday - Thor's day, Friday - Freia's day, Saturday - Saturn's day (Saturn was the name of a god worshipped by the ancient Romans), Sunday was the day of the sun, Monday- the day of the moon.

The Anglo-Saxon period lasted for 600 years, from 410 to 1066. Most of the information we have about Anglo-Saxons comes from the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, an early year-by-year history of England written in Old English. It ends in the 12th century, but mostly covers account of all the major events of the time. Among other things it describes the rise and fall of the bishops and kings and the important battles of the period.

Christianity

In 597 Pope Gregory the Great sent a Christian saint Augustine (died 604) with 40 monks to teach Christianity to the Anglo-Saxons. Augustine went to Canterbury, the capital of the king of Kent, Ethelbert, who was the first to be converted. Augustine built a church Canterbury and became the first Archbishop of Canterbury in 601.

Thus, 7th century was significant for the Christianization of England. Latin became the official language of the Catholic Church and monasteries. Catholic monasteries and early universities became the first centers of education in England.

The spread of Christianity was accompanied by a period of numerous Latin borrowings, such as bishop, nun, candle, scholar, magister, etc.

The Vikings

By the end of the 8th century the British Isles were subjected to one more invasion of non-Christian people from Scandinavia - the Vikings. In Britain they were also known as Danes or Norsemen.

The Vikings came from Norway and Denmark (Scandinavia) and settled in the Scottish islands and in some areas of eastern England making the town of York the capital of their kingdom. They were daring masters of the sea. Their swift wooden longships, equipped with both sails and oars, enabled them to undertake piratical raids on the coastal monasteries and settlements of the British Isles, western Europe and beyond.

The word 'Viking' probably means 'sea pirate' or 'people of the sea inlets'. The Vikings were known as very violent and cruel warriors but they were also noted by their skill in constructing ships and as good sailors. The Vikings are broadly viewed as pagan plunderers, but they were quick to adopt Christianity alongside their own gods.

They established the 'Viking rule', called Danelaw - the land where the law of the Danes ruled, Step by step, they succeeded in conquering all the territory of Britain.

'Viking rule' left significant traces on English vocabulary. The Scandinavian settlers spoke Old Norse, which was related to Anglo-Saxon, and which is the parent

language of modern Danish. The similarity of Old English and Old Norse led to much borrowing. Here are some examples of

Scandinavian borrowings: sky, skirt, ski, skill, die, law, husband, wrong, window, weak, ugly, saga, gate, give, get, birth, them, they, there, etc. The mixing of the two languages greatly enriched the English vocabulary.

'The most detailed accounts which we possess of the Viking Age are the Icelandic sagas. Some of these deal with the deeds of powerful rulers, such as the kings of Norway or the earls of Orkney. Others deal with the 'ordinary people' of Iceland, although the central characters even then tend to come from the ruling class. Often the sagas describe events in great detail, including what was said by those involved. The earliest sagas weren't written down until the twelfth century, and many of the most famous ones are even later. This means that the sagas were often written down two or three hundred years after the events which they describe, and it is not always clear where the compilers of the sagas used earlier material and where they simply made things up. There is a further problem that the sagas are primarily works of literature. Both events and particularly speech might well be rewritten to give a particular literary effect.'

(by Gareth Williams, <http://www.bbc.co.uk>).

Alfred the Great

In 870 only Wessex under a young king Alfred was left to resist the barbaric Danes. When Alfred became king in the year 871, the Vikings had been burning villages and churches for eighty years. In 878 Alfred captured London and made a treaty with the invaders. The Vikings controlled the east and the north of England and Alfred, nicknamed the Great, controlled the rest of the country.

'He was a very talented king. Actually, he was the only king in the British history to be called the 'Great'. When he came to the throne he was only 22. He was literate and wise. In his childhood he visited Rome and Paris. Alfred cared much for the education of the people. He founded many schools, he built new churches, brought foreign scholars, he ordered to translate several Latin texts into Anglo-Saxon (Old English) including 'The History of the English Church and People' by Bede and 'Pastoral Cares' by Pope Gregory. Alfred was first to begin the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, a year-by-year history of England.

He tried to restore country's economy and military forces. He created a type of settlements which were surrounded with a wall. They were later called 'boroughs'. Inside the boroughs he kept strict discipline. Alfred the Great established order in the law system and administration. Alfred is considered the father of the Royal Navy. His ships patrolled the coasts of Britain to prevent the invaders from stepping on the British land' (Facts & Faces. From the History of Britain, Murashova N.V.).

Alfred was quick to learn from his enemies. He organized a skillful and efficient army, built a fleet of warships using the Danish samples which were known to have defeated Viking invaders at sea more than once.

Alfred the Great saved England from the Danish conquest, but in 10th -11th

centuries King Canut's Empire already included such countries as Norway, Denmark and England. It means that towards this period the Danes managed to expand their possession in Great Britain and from 1013 to 1042 their royal power triumphed in England.

The Norman Conquest

The Norman Conquest was the last and most successful invasion in Britain. In 1066 the French-speaking Normans headed by Duke William I of Normandy (William the Conqueror) invaded England from France. The battle was fought near Hastings on the south coast of England and is known as the Battle of Hastings. The Normans defeated the English and French became the language of government.

But it all began with the death of Edward the Confessor, the king of England. (He was a holy man, and in 1161 the Pope made him a saint giving him the title of 'Confessor'). Long ago Edward had promised the throne to his closest relative Duke William of Normandy. But the problem was that Anglo-Saxons did not wish to be ruled by the Normans and preferred to put a Saxon king - Edward's brother-in-law Harold Godwin, a Saxon king who had claimed the English crown for himself. It was he who was Edward's last nominated heir. Harold was coronated at Westminster Abbey and when William of Normandy knew about it he decided to invade England and take what he had been promised - the right to be the next king of England!

William's Domestic Policy

The arrival and conquest of William radically altered the course of English history. The King was crowned at Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, 1066. Thus England entered the new era of feudalism.

English bishops were replaced to Norman ones. William built many castles to control the English people; he gave power and land to Norman aristocracy - 'vassals' (nobles, knights, freemen, who became the new governing class) in return for services.

By 1086 William decided to calculate the size of his land and the tax value of other land in the country. To know this he conducted a survey and made a written record of his property which was later called the 'Domesday Book'. William wanted to find out how much land there was, who owned which piece of land, how much it was worth, how many ploughs and sheep each family had and so on. It reminded people of the Day of Judgement, or 'doom'. The Book still exists and is of great historical importance because it actually contains the first precious survey of British people's life in the 11th and 12th centuries.

William could not speak a word of English: he and his barons, who kept coming over to England during the following 200 years, spoke Norman-French, not pure French because the Normans were simply the same Danes with a French polish. As a result their Norman French was imposed on the country's original Anglo-Saxon language. However, the Normans could not suppress the English language, communication went on in three languages:

- Latin was the language of church and monasteries;

- Norman-French was the language of the ruling class spoken at court and official institutions;

- common people held obstinately to their own mother tongue.

Though the Normans had subjugated the Anglo-Saxons, still they failed to subjugate their language. However, it is to be said, that the English language had undergone a lot of changes.

Modern English developed from Anglo-Saxon and is a Germanic language. However, all the invading peoples, particularly the Norman French, influenced the English language and you can find many words in English which are French in origin.

Today English vocabulary is approximately half Germanic (from the Saxons and Vikings) and half Romance (from French and Latin). There are however considerable borrowings from other languages.

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АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК

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