MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE OF UKRAINE

State Institution "South Ukrainian National Pedagogical University named after K. D. Ushynsky"

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LINGUOCOUNTRYSTUDY OF GREAT BRITAIN:

history and socio-cultural life

УДК: 81.111

Друкується за рішенням Вченої Ради ДЗ «Південноукраїнський національний педагогічний університет імені К. Д. Ушинського» (протокол засідання № від 2021 р.)

Демчук А. І. Лінгвокраїнознавство Великої Британії: історія та соціокультурне життя для студентів другого курсу факультету іноземних мов спеціальності 014 Середня освіта (Мова і література (англійська)) : навч. посібник / А. І. Демчук. – Одеса : ПНПУ імені К. Д. Ушинського, 2021. – 176 с.

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Навчальний посібник «Лінгвокраїнознавство Великої Британії: історія та соціокультурне життя» розроблено для студентів другого курсу факультету іноземних мов спеціальності 014 Середня освіта (Мова і література (англійська)). Навчальний посібник складається з лекційного матеріалу, автентичних публіцистичних текстів лінгвокраїнознавчої тематики, комплексу вправ до кожного з них, тестів для самоконтролю та списку рекомендованої літератури до курсу. Навчальний посібник призначений дляаудиторної та самостійної роботи студентів, для підготовки до семінарських занять, а також поточного контролю знань.

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INTRODUCTION

Dear students,

this textbook is an additional resource for those of you who recognize that profound knowledge of British history and socio-cultural life is necessary to improve understanding and use of the English language as it is spoken in Britain.

The first part of the text-book covers the current programme of the optional discipline "Linguocountrystudy of Great Britain and the USA" that is a part of the Bachelor's degree curriculum. The material of the first part is intended to aid you, students of Foreign Languages Department, in your independent studies and exam preparation. The theoretical part includes brief content of five topics in History of Great Britain tracing the development of the nation from prehistoric times to the Tudor age: "Britain's prehistory", "the Celts and the Romans", "the Saxon invasion. The Vikings. The Norman conquest", "Feudalism. Magna Carta. The wars of Roses", "The Tudors. Reformation" and the tests for self-control.

The History section is followed by the practical part. The practical part contains authentic publicistic texts on various topics covering "Linguocountrystudy of Great Britain" curriculum, i.e. aspects of British history (the first settlements, the Celts, the Romans, the Anglo-Saxons, the Vikings, the Norman Conquest, the War of the Roses) as well as aspects of British socio-cultural life (the population of Great Britain, its national symbols, the legal system of England and Wales, the regions of England and their dialects, Scottish and Welsh traditions, festivals and fairs in Great Britain, British pubs, modern British music, theatre and cinematography).

In each unit there is a main text or article plus extra reading or video material which is presented in the form of internet links. The information provided in this way either illustrates a point made in the main text or adds some extra details, or introduces other related issues.

After each main text you will find a task section. The task sections include questions intended to check your understanding of the main text, tasks aimed at enlarging your linguocountrystudy vocabulary, topics for written work (essays) and presentations that, we hope, encourage you to demonstrate your creativity, imagination and inspiration. Several units (11, 18, 20) contain speaking tasks: here you are supposed to record yourself. Each task section ends with online tests that will help you independently evaluate the level of your knowledge.

To share, check and get an assessment of your self-studying results you are welcome to join Linguocountrystudy class on the learningApps.org platform following the link or scanning QR code:

https://learningapps.org/join/oo6iegd5

Joining our Linguocountrystudy class on the learningApps.org platform you will also have an opportunity to consult your teacher.

At the end of the text-book you will find the list of video resources. The list comprises useful links of the BBC documentary episodes “Digging for Britain” and “History documentary” as well as brilliant pieces of the British cinematography such as “Elizabeth”, “King’s speech”, “Dark hours”, “The young Victoria”, “The White queen”, etc. that enrich and broaden students’ scope of knowledge of the historical events, prominent historical personalities, British cultural and political life.

Good luck!

PART I. HISTORY SECTION

BRITAIN'S PREHISTORY

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

The first settlements. 1) 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. For the wanderer-hunter culture this was a disaster, for deer and other animals on which they lived largely died out. 2) About 3000 BC Neolithic (or New Stone Age) people crossed the narrow sea from Europe in small round boats of bent wood covered with animal skins. Each could carry one or two persons. These people kept animals and grew corn crops, and knew how to make pottery. They came from the Iberian (Spanish) peninsula. 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. They built "barrows" – burial mounds made of earth and clay, on the chalk uplands of South Britain.

That is why Neolithic people, who inhabited Britain, are called "chalkland people". After 3000 BC the chalkland people started building great circles of earth banks and ditches. Inside, they built wooden buildings and stone circles. These "henges", as they are called, were centres of religious, political and economic power. The most spectacular was Stonehenge, which was built in separate stages over a period of more than a thousand years. After about 2400 BC, huge bluestones were brought to

the site from 6 south Wales. The movement of these bluestones was an extremely important event, the story of which was passed on from generation to generation. Stonehenge was almost certainly a sort of capital, to which the chiefs of other groups came from all over Britain. Certainly, earth or stone henges were built in many part s of Brita in, as far as the Orkney Islands north of Scotland, and as far south as Cornwall. They seem to have been copies of the great Stonehenge in the south. 3) After 2400 BC new groups of people arrived in southeast Britain from Europe. They were round-headed and strongly built, taller than Neolithic Britons. Their arrival is marked by the first individual graves, furnished with pottery beakers, from which they get their name: the “Beaker” people. The Beaker people brought with them from Europe a new cereal, barley, which could grow almost anywhere. Stonehenge remained the most important centre until 1300 BC. The Beaker people's richest graves were there, and they added a new circle of thirty stone columns. British society continued to be centred on a number of henges across the countryside. From about 1300 BC hill-forts replaced henges as the centres of local power. Most of them were found in the southeast. The henge civilisation seems to have become less important. Family villages appeared across the country manifesting a settled farming class.

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. The Celts were technically advanced. They knew how to work with iron. The Celts are important in British history because they are the ancestors of many of the people in Highland Scotland. W" les, Ireland, and Cornwall today. Celtic languages, which have been continuously used in some areas since that time, are still spoken. From about 500 BC trade contacts with Europe declined, and regional differences between northwest and southeast Britain increased. The Celts were organised into different tribes, and tribal chiefs were chosen from each family or tribe, sometimes as the result of fighting matches between individuals, and sometimes by election.

The last Celtic arrivals from Europe were the Belgic tribes. It was natural for them to settle in the southeast of Britain, probably pushing other Celtic tribes

northwards as they did so. 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. They continued to use and build hill forts. The hill-fort remained the centre for local groups. The insides of these hill -forts were filled with houses, and they became the simple economic capitals and smaller “towns” of the different tribal areas into which Britain was now divided. Various Celtic tribes traded with many peoples during the Iron Age in most of Central and Western Europe.

The Celts proved to be very active merchants on the coastlines of the Mediterranean Sea as well, exchanging mostly iron tools, wine, and pottery. Additionally, a considerable number of Celtic artefacts which belonged to the Hallstatt culture were excavated on the territory of several Central European countries.

The Celtic tribes were ruled over by a warrior class, of which the priests, or Druids, seem to have been particularly important members. These Druids could not read or write, but they memorised all the religious teachings, the tribal laws, history, medicine and her 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 at times it included human sacrifice.

During the Celtic period women may have had more independence than they had again for hundreds of years. When the Romans invaded Britain two of the largest tribes were ruled by women who fought from their chariots. The most powerful Celt to stand up to the Romans was a woman, Boadicea. She had become queen of her tribe when her husband had died. She was tall, with long red hair, and had a frightening appearance. At the time of the Roman conquest of southern Britain Queen Boudica ruled the Iceni tribe of East Anglia after her husband’s (King Prasutagus’) death. Boudica was a striking looking woman. She was very tall, the glance of her eye most fierce; her voice harsh. A great mass of the reddest hair fell down to her hips. Her appearance was terrifying. Boudica and her daughters drove round in her chariot to all her tribes before the battle, exhorting them to be brave. Boudica was not killed in the

battle but took poison rather than be taken alive by the Romans. Boudica has secured a special place of her own in British folk history remembered for her courage. The Warrior Queen who fought the might of Rome. And in a way she did get her revenge, as in 1902 a bronze statue of her riding high in her chariot, designed by Thomas Thorneycroft, was placed on the Thames embankment next to the Houses of Parliament in the old Roman capital of Britain, Londinium.

THE ROMANS

At the time of the Roman arrival, Britain (originally known as Albion) was mostly comprised of small Iron Age communities, primarily agrarian, tribal, with enclosed settlements. Southern Britain shared their culture with northern Gaul (modern day France and Belgium); many southern Britons were Belgae in origin and shared a common language with them. In fact, after 120 BCE trading between Transalpine Gaul intensified with the Britons receiving such domestic imports as wine; there was also some evidence of Gallo-Belgae coinage. Previously, the Channel, or Mare Britannicum, had always served as a natural border between the European mainland and the islands. During his subjugation of Gaul during the Gallic Wars, Caesar had wanted to interrupt Belgae trade routes; he also assumed the Britons were assisting their kindred Belgae. Later, he would rationalize his invasion of Britain by telling the Roman Senate that he believed the island was rich in silver. Although the Republic was probably aware of the island's existence, Britain, for the most part, was completely unknown to Rome, and to many more superstitious citizens, only existed in fables; traders repeatedly told of the islanders' barbarous practices.

Caesar's initial contact with the islanders went poorly, and he had to quickly reorganize his army to avoid defeat. During his second 'invasion' when he was accompanied by five legions, he pushed further northward across the Thames River to meet the Briton chieftain Cassivellaunus. Although he was joined for battle by several local chieftains, to avoid crossing the Channel in poor weather, Caesar feigned growing problems in Gaul, arranged a peace treaty with Cassivellaunus, and returned to the European mainland without leaving a 10 garrison. While many Romans were

enthusiastic about Caesar's excursion across the Channel, Caesar's worst enemy Cato was aghast. The Greek historian Strabo, a contemporary of the late Republic, said the only things of value were hunting dogs and slaves. More important to Caesar was the difficulties developing in Gaul, a failed harvest, and possible rebellion. The Romans would not return to Britain for another century. With the death of Caesar and the civil war that followed, the Republic was no more, and the new empire's interest in Britannia intensified under both Emperors Augustus and Caligula as the Romanization of Gaul progressed. While Augustus's attentions were drawn elsewhere, Caligula and his army stared across the Channel towards the British Isles - the emperor only ordered his men to throw their javelins at the sea - there would be no invasion. The actual annexation fell to the most unlikely of emperors, Claudius (41 – 54 AD).

In 43AD, Emperor Claudius with an army of four legions and auxiliaries under the command of Aulus Plautius crossed the English Channel, landing at Richborough. They began the conquest of the island. Some believe the emperor's only goal was personal glory; years of humiliation under Caligula left him longing for recognition. Although he had only been there sixteen days, Claudius would take credit, of course, for the conquest with a glorious triumphant return to Rome in 44 AD. The Romans brought the skills of reading and writing to Britain. The written word was important for spreading ideas and also for establishing power.

As early as AD 80 the governor Agricola "trained the sons of chiefs in the liberal arts. The result was that the people who used to reject Latin began to use it in speech and writing. Further the wearing of our national dress came to be valued and the toga (the Roman cloak) came into fashion. While the Celtic peasantry remained illiterate and only Celtic speaking, a number of town dwellers spoke Latin and Greek with ease, and the richer landowners in the country almost certainly used Latin. Latin completely disappeared both in its spoken and written forms when the Anglo-Saxons invaded.

The most obvious characteristic of Roman Britain was its towns, which were the basis of Roman administration and civilisation. Many grew out of Celtic settlements, military camps or market centres. Broadly, there were three different kinds of town in Roman Britain, two of which were towns established by Roman charter.

These were the coloniae, towns peopled by Roman settlers, and the municipia , large cities in which the whole population was given Roman citizenship. The third kind, the civitas, included the old Celtic tribal capitals, through which the Roman's administered the Celtic population in the countryside. At first these towns had no walls.

Then, probably from the end of the second century to the end of the third century AD, almost every town was given walls. At first many of these were no more than earthworks, but by AD 300 all towns had thick stone walls. The Romans left about twenty large towns of about 5, 000 inhabitants, and almost one hundred smaller ones. Many of these towns were at first army camps, and the Latin word for camp, castra, has remained part of many town names to this day (with the ending chester, caster or cesrer): Gloucester, Leicester, Doncaster, Winchester, Chester, Lancaster and many others besides.

These towns were built with stone as well as wood, and had planned streets, markets and shops. Some buildings had central heating. They were connected by roads which were so well built that they survived when later roads broke up. These roads continued to be used long after the Romans left, and became the main roads of modern Brita in. Six of the se Roman roads met in London, a capital city of about 20,000 Outside the towns, the biggest change during the Roman occupation was the growth of large farms, called "villas". These belonged to the rich Britons who were, like the townspeople, more Roman than Celt in their manners. Each villa had many workers. The villas were usually close to towns so that the crops could be sold easily. There was a growing difference between the rich and those who did the actual work on the land. Most people. still lived in the same kind of round huts and villages which the Celts had been living in four hundred years earlier when the Romans arrived.

In some ways life in Roman Britain seems very civilised but it was also hard for all except 12 the richest. The bodies buried in a Roman graveyard at York show that life expectancy was low. Half the entire population died between the ages of twenty and forty while 15 per cent died before reaching the age of twenty.

Test your knowledge:

1. The Celts built

a) boroughs b) hill forts c) henges d) towns

2. Hadrian's wall marked the border between

a)England and Wales b) England and Ireland c) England and Scotland d) England and France

3. The Romans occupied Britain in

a) 55 BC b) 43 AD c) 55 AD d) 43 BC

4. Towns peopled by Roman settlers were called

a) civitas b) coloniae c) municipia d) castras

5. Who was the leader of the Celtic tribe who rebelled against the Romans?

a) Victoria b) Elizabeth c) Boudica d) Mary

6. The Celtic tribes were ruled over by

a) druids c) rich landowners c) warriors d) earls

7. The Romans brought to Britain

a) the skills of reading and writing b) the skills of singing and dancing c) the skills of making iron weapon d) the skills of making pottery

8. The Romans left about

a) 20 large villages b) 20 large towns c) 1000 large towns d) 1000 large villages

9. Villas belonged to a) rich Celts b) rich Romans c) rich Britons d) poor farmers

10. Rome pulled its last soldiers out of Britain in

a) 400 AD b) 409 AD c) 405 Ad d) 309 AD

11. Arrange the ancestors of the modern British in a chronological order:

a) Chalkland people; b) hunters, gatherers and fishers; c); The Celts d) Beaker people

12. Stonehenge was built by

a) Beaker people b) Chalkland people c) Vikings d) Angles

THE SAXON INVASION

In 449 the Jutes landed in Kent and this was the beginning of the conquest. The British natives fought fiercely against the invaders and it took more than a hundred and fifty years for the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes to conquer the country. Other Germanic tribes conquered the Roman provinces on the Continent without any serious resistance as the bulk of the population in the provinces occupied by the Romans welcomed the Germanic conquerors as their liberators. But the British Celts were free at the time and their resistance was often stubborn and prolonged. In the South-East the Celts were soon overwhelmed, but in the western parts of the country they offered stout resistance for many years.

Now and then the Celts won and the invaders were forced back. As a result Britain held out longer than the other provinces of the Roman Empire. It was only by the beginning of the 7th century that the invaders managed to conquer the greater part of the land. The final refuge of the Celts was Cornwall and Wales — the mountainous districts of the West — and the northern part of the island (Scotland) where the Celts were still living in tribes and, later on, some independent states were formed. The Celts of Ireland remained independent too. In the course of the conquest many of the Celts were killed, some were taken prisoners and made slaves or had to pay tribute to the conquerors.

Some of the Celts crossed the sea to the North-West of France and settled in what was later on called Brittany after the Celtic tribes of Britons. The new conquerors brought about changes altogether different from those that had followed the conquest of the country by the Romans. The new settlers disliked towns preferring to live in small villages. In the course of the conquest they destroyed the Roman towns and villas. All the beautiful buildings and baths and roads were so neglected that they soon fell in ruins. Sometimes the roads were broken up, the stones being used for building material. Thus the art of road-making was lost for many hundreds of years to come. The Jutes,

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

As a result of the conquest the Anglo-Saxons made up the majority of the population in Britain and their customs, religion and languages became predominant. The Saxons were a Germanic tribe that originally occupied the region which today is the North Sea coast of the Netherlands, Germany, and Denmark. Their name is derived from the “seax” - a type of sword or dagger typical of the Germanic tribes of the Migration period. One of the earliest historical records of this group, that we know of, comes from Roman writers dealing with the many troubles that affected the northern frontier of the Roman Empire during the second and third century.

It is possible that under the “Saxons” label, these early Roman accounts also included other neighbouring Germanic groups in the regions such as the Angles, the Frisians, and the Jutes; all these groups spoke closely related West Germanic languages that in time would evolve into Old English. The Angles were one of the main Germanic peoples who settled in Great Britain in the post-Roman period. They founded several of the kingdoms of AngloSaxon England, and their name is the root of the name England. The name comes from the district of Angeles, an area located on the Baltic shore of what is now Schleswig-Holstein.

The Jutes were one of the Germanic tribes who, with the Angles and Saxons, invaded Britain in the 5th century ad. The Jutes have no recorded history on the European continent, but there is considerable evidence that their home was in the Scandinavian area (probably Jutland) and that those who did not migrate were later absorbed by the Danes. According to the Venerable Bede, the Jutes settled in Kent, the Isle of Wight, and parts of Hampshire. In Kent their name soon died out, but there is considerable evidence in the social structure of that area that its settlers were of a different race from their neighbours. There is archaeological evidence to confirm Bede’s statement that the Isle of Wight and Kent were settled by the same people, and their presence in Hampshire is confirmed by place-names.

Government and society

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

The Saxons divided the land into new administrative areas, based on shires or counties. "Shire" is the Saxon word, "county" is the Norman one, but both are still used. In 1974 the counties were reorganised, but the new system is very like the old one. Over each shire was appointed a shire reeve, the king's local administrator. In time his name became shortened to "sheriff". In each district was a "manor" or large house. This was a simple building where local villagers came to pay taxes, where justice was administered and where men met to join the Anglo-Saxon army, the fyrd. The lord of the man or had to organise all this and make sure village land was properly shared. It was the beginning of the manorial system which reached its fullest development under the Normans. At first the lords, or aldermen were simply local officials. But by the beginning of the 11th century they were warlords and were often called by a new Danish name, earl. Both words, alderman and earl remain with us today: aldermen are elected officers in local government and earls are high ranking nobles.

It was the beginning of a class system, made up of king, lords, soldiers and workers on the land. One other important class developed during the Saxon period the men of learning. These came from the Christian Church.

THE VIKINGS

The Viking raids on England started in the late 8th century. The attack on Lindisfarne monastery in 793 was a particularly dramatic and significant event, heralding the onset of frequent raids on coastal communities, with churches and monasteries being particularly targeted for their wealth. Sporadic raiding gradually turned to larger-scale assaults, as war-bands amalgamated, and these took on a more political aim. Over-wintering in defended camps, the control of extensive areas of land, and the extraction of "protection money" (the so-called Danegeld) became characteristic of Viking activity in England. English resistance was uncoordinated and often ineffective. England was a region of several independent kingdoms - often at war with each other - and the lack of a unified political and military structure meant that Viking war-bands could roam the countryside with some impunity.

Eventually, King Alfred of Wessex was able to confront the Viking "Great Army" at Edington, in 878, when his victory enabled him to establish terms for peace, though this did not put a complete stop to Viking activity which continued on and off for several more generations. Alfred had to concede the northern and eastern counties to the Vikings, where their disbanded armies settled, created new settlements and merged with the local populations. Lincoln, Nottingham, Derby, Stamford and Leicester became important Viking towns within The Danelaw (or "Scandinavian England"), while York became the capital of the Viking Kingdom of York which extended more or less over what we call Yorkshire. These areas were gradually reconquered and brought back under English control by Alfred's successors, but not before the Scandinavian influence had been locally imprinted to an extent which is still detectable today. After the Battle of Clontarf (1014) many of the Hiberno-Norse Vikings migrated to England and settled in the north-west, from the Wirral to the Lake District. In northern England, as a crude generalisation, the Pennine watershed represents the interface of the "Norwegian" and "Danish" Viking regions.

The last major Viking battle took place at Stamford Bridge near York in 1066, but the threat of further Scandinavian invasion, with ambitions to conquer and rule, did not diminish until well after the Norman Conquest of 1066 and, in fact, under Canute / Cnut (994-1035) the realm had a Danish monarch and was part of an Anglo-Scandinavian empire.

King Alfred: Alfred, also spelled Aelfred, byname Alfred The Great (born 849—died 899), king of Wessex (871–899), a Saxon kingdom in southwestern England. He prevented England from falling to the Danes and promoted learning and literacy. Compilation of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle began during his reign. He probably received the education in military arts normal for a young man of rank. He first appeared on active service in 868, when he and his brother, King Aethelred (Ethelred) I, went to help Burgred of Mercia (the kingdom between the Thames and the Humber) against a great Danish army that had landed in East Anglia in 865 and taken possession of Northumbria in 867.

The Danes refused to give battle, and peace was made. In this year Alfred married Ealhswith, descended through her mother from Mercian kings. Late in 871, the Danes invaded Wessex, and Aethelred and Alfred fought several battles with them. Ethelred died in 871 and Alfred succeeded him. After an unsuccessful battle 20 at Wilton he made peace. It was probably the quality of the West Saxon resistance that discouraged Danish attacks for five years. In 876 the Danes again advanced on Wessex: they retired in 877 having accomplished little, but a surprise attack in January 878 came near to success. The Danes established themselves at Chippenham, and the West Saxons submitted “except King Alfred.” He harassed the Danes from a fort in the Somerset marshes, and until seven weeks after Easter he secretly assembled an army, which defeated them at the Battle of Edington. They surrendered, and their king, Guthrum, was baptized, Alfred standing as sponsor; the following year they settled in East Anglia. Wessex was never again in such danger. Alfred had a respite from fighting until 885, when he repelled an invasion of Kent by a Danish army, supported by the East Anglian Danes. In 886 he took the offensive and captured London, a success that brought all the English not under Danish rule to accept him as king. The possession of

London also made possible the reconquest of the Danish territories in his son's reign, and Alfred may have been preparing for this, though he could make no further advance himself. He had to meet a serious attack by a large Danish force from the European continent in 892, and it was not until 896 that it gave up the struggle. The failure of the Danes to make any more advances against Alfred was largely a result of the defensive measures he undertook during the war. Old forts were strengthened and new ones built at strategic sites, and arrangements were made for their continual manning. Alfred reorganized his army and used ships against the invaders as early as 875.

Later he had larger ships built to his own design for use against the coastal raids that continued even after 896. Wise diplomacy also helped Alfred's defense. He maintained friendly relations with Mercia and Wales; Welsh rulers sought his support and supplied some troops for his army in 893. Alfred succeeded in government as well as at war. He was a wise administrator, organizing his finances and the service due from his thanes (noble followers). He scrutinized the administration of justice and took steps to ensure the protection of the weak from oppression by ignorant or corrupt judges. He promulgated an important code of laws, after studying the principles of lawgiving in 21 the Book of Exodus and the codes of Aethelbert of Kent, Ine of Wessex (688–694), and Offa of Mercia (757–796), again with special attention to the protection of the weak and dependent. While avoiding unnecessary changes in custom, he limited the practice of the blood feud and imposed heavy penalties for breach of oath or pledge.

Cnut (Canute): by name Canute the Great, Danish Knut, or Knud, den Store, Norwegian Knut den Mektige (died Nov. 12, 1035), Danish king of England (1016–35), of Denmark (as Canute II; 1019–35), and of Norway (1028–35), who was a power in the politics of Europe in the 11th century, respected by both emperor and pope. Neither the place nor the date of his birth is known. Canute was the grandson of the Polish ruler Mieszko I on his mother's side. As a youth he accompanied his father, Sweyn I Forkbeard, king of Denmark, on his invasion of England in 1013. Canute was left in charge of the fleet at Gainsborough, Lincolnshire, and it was probably then that he met Aelfgifu, daughter of an ealdorman (chief officer) of Northumbria who had been murdered with King Aethelred II's connivance in 1006; she bore him two sons,

Sweyn and Harold. Sweyn I Forkbeard was accepted as king of England by the end of 1013 but died in February 1014, and the English invited Aethelred to return. Canute and the men of Lindsey planned a combined expedition, but Canute deserted his allies at Easter and sailed to Denmark, putting his hostages, savagely mutilated, ashore at Sandwich. In 1015 he returned and began a long struggle with Aethelred's son Edmund II Ironside. Earl Uhtred of Northumbria submitted to Canute in 1016 and was murdered in his hall. After Aethelred died in April 1016, the English witan (council) elected Canute king at Southampton, but those councillors who were in London, with the citizens, elected Edmund. Canute won a victory at Ashingdon, Essex, on October 18, and the kingdom was then divided; but Edmund died on November 30, and Canute succeeded to the whole. Canute's first actions were ruthless: he gave Englishmen's estates to his Danish followers as rewards; he engineered the death of Edmund's brother Eadwig; and he had some prominent Englishmen killed or outlawed. Edmund's infant sons, 22 however, eventually reached an asylum in Hungary. Already in 1016, Canute had given the earldom of Northumbria to the Norwegian Viking Eric of Hlathir, and in 1017 he put the renowned Viking chief Thorkell the Tall over East Anglia. Yet Canute did not rule like a foreign conqueror for long: by 1018 Englishmen were holding earldoms in Wessex and Mercia. The Danish element in his entourage steadily decreased. Thorkell was outlawed in 1021, and, during the rest of the reign, of his three most influential advisers only one was a Dane. Canute paid off most of his fleet in 1018, and the Danes and the English reached an agreement at Oxford, one authority adding "according to Edgar's law." A draft of the treaty survives, written in the style of Archbishop Wulfstan of York, who later drew up Canute's laws, mainly based on previous legislation.

It is likely that it was Wulfstan who aroused in the young Canute an ambition to emulate the best of his English predecessors, especially King Edgar. Canute proved an effective ruler who brought internal peace and prosperity to the land. He became a strong supporter and a generous donor to the church, and his journey to Rome was inspired by religious as well as diplomatic motives. He needed English support against external dangers. King Aethelred's sons were in Normandy, and Canute married their

mother, Emma, in 1017 to prevent her brother, Duke Richard II, from espousing their cause. English forces helped to secure Canute's position in Scandinavia in 1019, when he went to Denmark to obtain the throne on his brother's death; in 1023, when the outlawed Thorkell was causing trouble; and again in 1026 when his regent in Denmark, Ulf Jarl, the husband of his sister Estrid, joined the king of Norway and the king of Sweden in a coalition against Denmark. Though Canute was defeated at the Battle of the Holy River, Sweden, terms were made. Scandinavian sources attribute to Canute the death of Ulf soon afterward.

Canute fomented with bribes the unrest of Norwegian landowners against their king, Olaf II Haraldsson, and was able to drive him out in 1028. He put Norway in charge of Haakon, son of Eric of Hlathir, and, after Haakon's death, of his concubine Aelfgifu and their son Sweyn. Olaf attempted to return in 1030 but fell at 23 Stiklestad. Aelfgifu and Sweyn became unpopular and fled to Denmark in 1035 before Canute's death. Edward the Confessor: born 1002 / 05 — died Jan. 5, 1066, London; canonized 1161; feast day originally January 5, now October 13), king of England from 1042 to 1066. Although he is often portrayed as a listless, ineffectual monarch overshadowed by powerful nobles, Edward preserved much of the dignity of the crown and managed to keep the kingdom united during his reign of 24 years. His close ties to Normandy prepared the way for the conquest of England by the Normans under William, duke of Normandy (later King William I), in 1066. Edward was the son of King Ethelred II (reigned 978–1016) and Emma, daughter of Richard II, duke of Normandy.

When the Danes invaded England in 1013, the family escaped to Normandy; the following year Edward returned to England with the ambassadors who negotiated the pact that returned his father to power. After Ethelred's death in 1016 the Danes again took control of England. Edward lived in exile in Normandy until 1041, when he returned to the London court of his half brother (Emma was their mother), King Hardecanute. Edward succeeded to the throne in 1042 and quickly seized the property of his mother, who had plotted against his accession. Nevertheless, for the first 11 years of his reign the real master of England was Godwine, earl of Wessex, though Edward preserved his right as king to appoint bishops. Edward married Godwine's daughter

Edith in 1045, but by 1049 a breach had occurred between the two men. In 1051 Edward outlawed the Godwine family and dismissed Edith. During this period Edward rapidly lost popularity by giving foreigners—particularly Normans—high positions in his government.

Test your knowledge:

1. The Witan was created by

a) the Saxons b) the Celts c) the Romans d) the Vikings

2. The Vikings invaded Britain in a) 865 b) 856 c) 765 d) 756

3. The Jutes settled mainly in a) Kent b) Mercia c) Wessex d) East Anglia

4. The Vikings came from … a) Germany b) Normandy c) Norway and Denmark d) Iberian peninsula

5. "Danegeld" means

a) Danish money b) Danish king c) Danish Vikings d) Danish law

6. When Cnut and his son died the Witan chose to be king

a) Offa b) Ethelred c) Harold d) Edward

7. Aldermen were

a) local priest b) local officials c) foreign warriors d) rich farmers

8. Edward lost his popularity because he

a) raised taxes b) outlawed the Godwin family c) gave Normans high positions in his government d) seized the property of his mother

9. King Alfred succeeded

a) Cnute b) Ethelred c) Edward d) Offa

10. The king's local administrator was called

a) fyrd b) shire reeve c) manor d) alderman

THE NORMAN CONQUEST

In 1052 Godwine and his sons were able to gather large forces against the king. They compelled Edward to restore their lands and recall Edith as his wife, and they exiled many of his foreign favourites. Upon Godwine's death in 1053, his son Harold became the most powerful figure in the kingdom. It was Harold rather than Edward who subjugated Wales in 1063 and negotiated with the rebellious Northumbrians in 1065. Consequently, Edward on his deathbed named Harold as his successor, even though he allegedly had already promised the crown to William, duke of Normandy.

Edward had exploited his lack of an heir as a diplomatic tool by promising the succession to various parties. Indeed, according to Norman accounts, Edward sent Harold to Normandy in 1064 to confirm his promise to William. While en route, Harold was captured by one of William's vassals and may have been ransomed by the duke, who then took Harold on a military campaign in Brittany. Harold swore an oath to William that he would defend William's claim to the English throne. The violation of the alleged oath was one of the justifications used in support of the Norman invasion of England. Harold was killed at the Battle of Hastings in Sussex in October 1066, and two months later William ascended the throne.

In the years following Edward's death, his reputation for piety grew, in part as a result of the political needs of his successors. In the late 11th and the early 12th century, Edward's childless marriage came to be understood as the consequence of his devotion to virginity and the chaste life. He was praised for issuing prophecies, and a number of miracles were attributed to him. In the 1130s Osbert of Clare, a monk at Westminster Abbey, where Edward had built a new church, wrote the saint's life the Vita beati Eadwardi regis Anglorum ("Life of the Blessed Edward, King of the English").

In 1161 Pope Alexander III, during his struggle with Frederick Barbarossa and the antipope Victor IV, was recognized as the legitimate pope by England's King

Henry II in exchange for canonizing Edward, and in 1163 the translation of Edward's relics was attended by secular and political leaders of the kingdom.

In the later Middle Ages Edward was a favourite saint of English kings such as Henry III and Richard II. William the Conqueror's coronation did not go as planned. When the people shouted "God Save the King" the nervous Norman guards at Westminster Abbey thought they were going to attack William. In their fear they set fire to nearby houses and the coronation ceremony ended in disorder.

Although William was now crowned king, his conquest had only just begun. and the fighting lasted for another five years. There was an Anglo-Saxon rebellion against the Normans every year until 1070. Few Saxon lords kept their lands and those who did were the very small number who had accepted William. All the others lost everything. By 1086 twenty years after the arrival of the Normans, only two of the greater landlords and only two bishops were Saxon, William gave the Saxon lands to his Norman nobles.

FEUDALISM. MAGNA CARTA

William organised his English kingdom according to the feudal system which had already begun to develop in England before his arrival. The word "feudalism" comes from the French word "feu", which the Normans used to refer to land held in return for duty or service to a lord. The basis of feudal society was the holding of land, and its main purpose was economic. The central idea was that all land was owned by the king but it was held by others called "vassals", in return for services and goods. The king gave large estates to his main nobles in return for a promise to serve him in war for up to forty days. The nobles also had to give him part of the produce of the land. The greater nobles gave part of their lands to lesser nobles, knights and other "freemen". Some freemen paid for the land by doing military service while others paid rent. The noble kept "serfs" to work on his own land. These were not free to leave the estate, and were often little better than slaves.

There were two basic principles to feudalism: every man had a lord and every lord had land. The king was connected through this "chain" of people to the lowest man in the country. At each level a man had to promise loyalty and service to his lord.

This promise was usually made with the lord sitting on his chair and his vassal kneeling before him, his hands placed between those of his lord. This was called “homage”, and has remained part of the coronation ceremony of British kings and queens until now. On the other hand, each lord had responsibilities to his vassals. He had to give them land and protection. When a noble died his son usually took over his estate. But first he had to receive permission from the king and make a special payment. If he was still a child the king would often take the produce of the estate until the boy was old enough to look after the estate himself. In this way the king could benefit from the death of a noble. If all the noble's family died the land went back to the king, who would be expected to give it to another deserving noble. But the king often kept the land for 28 some years, using its wealth before giving it to another noble. If the king did not give the nobles land they would not fight for him.

Between 1066 and the mid fourteenth century there were only thirty years of complete peace. So feudal duties were extremely important. The king had to make sure he had enough satisfied nobles who would be willing to fight for him. William gave out land all over England to his nobles. By 1086 he wanted to know exactly who owned which piece of land and how much it was worth. He needed this information so that he could plan his economy, find out how much was produced and how much he could ask in tax. He sent a team of people all through England to make a complete economic survey. His men asked all kinds of questions at each settlement: how much land was there? Who owned it? How much was it worth? How many families, ploughs and sheep were there? And so on. This survey was the only one of its kind in Europe. Not surprisingly, it was most unpopular with the people, because they felt they could not escape from its findings. It so reminded them of the paintings of the Day of Judgement, or “doom” on the walls of their churches that they called it the “Domesday” Book. The name stuck. The Domesday Book still exists, and gives us an extraordinarv amount of information about England at this time.

When William died, in 1087, he left the Duchy of Normandy to his elder son, Robert Curthose (“Curthose” derives from the Norman French “Courtheuse”, was apparently acquired when his father teased him as a child for having short legs).

He gave England to his favourite second son, William, known as “Rufus” (Latin for red) because of his red hair and red face.

And to the youngest, Henry Beauclerc (good scholar), he left only a large sum of money.

When Robert went to fight the Muslims in the Holy Land, he left William (Rufus) in charge of Normandy. William Rufus died in a hunting accident in 1100, shot dead by an arrow. He had not married, and therefore had no son to take the crown. At the time of William’s death, Robert was on his way home to Normandy from the Holy Land. Their younger brother. Henry knew that if he wanted the English crown he would have to act very quickly. He had been with William at the time of the accident. He took charge of the king's treasury. He then rode to Westminster, where he was crowned king three days later. Robert was very angry and prepared to invade. It took him a year to organise an army. The Norman nobles in England had to choose between Henry and Robert. In the end they chose Henry because he was in London, with the crown already on his head. Robert’s invasion was a failure and he accepted payment to return to Normandy. But Henry wanted more.

In 1106 Henry invaded Normandy and captured Robert. Normandy and England were reunited under one ruler. Henry I spent the rest of his life fighting to keep Normandy from other French nobles who tried to take it. In 1120 Henry’s only son was drowned at sea. During the next fifteen years Henry hoped for anothe r son but finally accepted that his daughter, Matilda, would follow him. Henry had married Marilda to another great noble in France, Geoffrey Plantagenet, Geoffrey was heir to Anjou, a large and important area southwest of Normandy. Henry made all the nobles promise to accept Matilda when he died. But then Henry himself quarreled publicly with Marilda’s husband, and died soon after. This left the succession in question.Stephen of Blois,Henry I’s nephew, claimed the crown. Most of the nobles chose Stephen. Only a few nobles supported Matilda. She invaded England four years later. Her fight with Stephen led to a terrible civil war in which villages were destroyed and many people were killed.

In 1153 Matilda and Stephen agreed that Stephen could keep the throne but only if Marilda's son, Henry, could succeed him. Stephen kept the promise. Henry II, the first of the great Plantagenet dynasty, was the first unquestioned ruler of the English throne for a hundred years. He destroyed the castles which many nobles had built without royal permission and made sure that they lived in manor houses that were undefended. The manor again became the centre of local life and administration.30 Henry quarreled with his beautiful and powerful wife, Eleanor of Aquitaine, and his sons, Richard and John, took Eleanor's side. It may seem surprising that Richard and John fought against their own father. But in fact they were doing their duty to the king of France, their feudal overlord, in payment for the lands they held from him.

In 1189 Henry died a broken man, disappointed and defeated by his sons and by the French king. Henry was followed by his rebellious son, Richard. Richard I, the Lionheart, has always been one of England's most popular kings, although he spent hardly any time in England. He was brave, and a good soldier, and his nickname "lionheart" proves this. He went to the Holy Land to make war on the Muslims and he fought with skill, courage and honour. On his way back from the Holy Land Richard was captured by the duke of Austria, with whom he had quarreled in Jerusalem. The duke demanded money before he would let him go, and it took two years for England to pay.

Shortly after, in 1199, Richard was killed in France. He had spent no more than four or five years in the country of which he was a king. Richard had no son, and he was followed by his brother, John. Magna Carta A born cynic, with a puckish sense of humour, treacherous and entirely without scruple, he was possessed of some of the restless energy of his father and was prone to the same violent rages but unlike his father, John was unstable, and cruel, and very greedy. His deep distrust of others sometimes verged on paranoia.

John made himself unpopular with the three most important groups of people, the nobles, the merchants and the Church. John was unpopular mainly because he was greedy. The feudal lords in England had always run their own law courts and profited from the fines paid by those brought to court. But John took many cases out of their

courts and tried them in the king's courts, taking the money for himself. It was normal for a feudal lord to make a payment to the king when his daughter was married, but John asked for more than was the custom. In the same way, when a noble died , his son had to pay money before he could inherit his father's land. In31 order to enlarge his own income, John increased the amount they had to pay. In other cases when a noble died without a son, it was normal for the land to be passed onto another noble family. John kept the land for a long time, to benefit from its wealth. He did the same with the bishoprics. As for the merchants and towns, he taxed them at a higher level than ever before.

In 1204 King John became even more unpopular with his nobles. The French king invaded Normandy and the English nobles lost their lands there. John had failed to carry out his duty to them as duke of Normandy. He had taken their money but he had not protected their land.

In 1215 John hoped to recapture Normandy. He called on his lords to fight for him, but they no longer trusted him. They marched to London, where they were joined by angry merchants. Outside London at Runnymede, on the River Thames near Windsor in the south of England, a few miles up the river. John was forced to sign a new agreement. This new agreement was known as "Magna Carta", the Great Charter, and was an important symbol of political freedom. The king promised all "freemen" protect ion from his officers, and the right to a fair and legal trial. At the time perhaps less than one quarter of the English were "free men". Most were not free, and were serfs or little better. Hundreds of years later, Magna Carta was used by Parliament to protect itself from a powerful king. In fact Magna Carta gave no real freedom to the majority of people in England. The nobles who wrote it and forced King John to sign it had no such thing in mind. They had one main aim: to make sure John did not go beyond his rights as feudal lord.

Magna Carta marks a clear stage in the collapse of English feudalism. Feudal society was based on links between lord and vassal. At Runnymede the nobles were not acting as vassals but as a class. They established a committee of twenty-four lords to make sure John kept his promises. That was not a "feudal" thing to do. In addition,

the nobles were acting in co-operation with the merchant class of towns.32 The nobles did not allow John's successors to forget this charter and its promises. Every king recognized Magna Carta, until the Middle Ages ended in disorder and a new kind of monarchy came into being in the sixteenth century. It is not certain how many copies of the 1215 Magna Carta were originally issued, but four copies still survive: one in Lincoln Cathedral; one in Salisbury Cathedral; and two at the British Library.

Test your knowledge:

1. What did the people shout during the coronation of William the Conqueror ?

a) “God Save the King” b) “God Save the Queen” c) “God Save the Nobles” d) “God Save the People”

2. How long had William been fighting against Anglo-Saxons? a) another three years b) another twenty years c) another five years d) last ten years

3. Whom did William give out the land to? a) to serfs b) to the king of France c) to nobles d) to himself

4. How many days did the noblemen have to serve the king?

a) 10 b) 20 c) 60 d) 40

5. What were the duties of the king in relation to his vassals?

a) to give them the land and protection b) to give them the land c) to protect them d) to love them

6. When the noble died his land

a) went back to the king b) went to the wife c) went to the neighbor d) went to his son

7. What territories did William control?

a) Normandy and England b) England and Germany c) Scotland and England d) Normandy and Scotland

8. How did William II die?

a) in a dream b) of plague c) in a hunting accident d) in the battle

9. When did Henry I capture Normandy ?

a) 1103 b) 1106 c) 1110 d) 1107

10. When did John the Lackland sign a new agreement “Magna Carta”?

a) 1217 b) 1210 c) 1213 d) 121535

THE WARS OF ROSES

As the grandson and nephew of the last French Capetian kings, Edward considered himself to be a far nearer relative than a cousin. He quartered the lilies of France with the lions of England in his coat-of-arms and formally claimed the French throne through right of his mother. By doing so Edward began what later came to be known as the Hundred Years War.

The conflict was to last for 116 years from 1337 to 1453. The wars of roses The Wars of the Roses were a series of dynastic wars fought between supporters of two rival branches of the House of Plantagenet, the houses of Lancaster, whose emblem was the red rose and the House of York whose badge was the white rose.

First Battle of St. Albans. 22 May, 1459. As the result of a long standing power struggle involving Richard, Duke of York and Margaret of Anjou, wife of the Lancastrian King Henry VI, banners were unfurled at St. Albans in the first battle in the civil war which was later to be termed the Wars of the Roses. The opposing armies clashed at the town of St Albans. The Yorkists made two frontal assaults down the town's narrow streets against Lancastrian barricades, to no effect.

The Earl of Warwick lead his troops through back lanes and gardens, to launch a surprise attack on Lancastrian troops in the Market Square. The Lancastrians were routed. Warwick then issued orders to shoot those guarding the king, Henry seems at this point in the battle to have been wounded by an arrow. The Lancastrians troops stationed at the barricades realised they were ouflanked and fled.

Henry VI was captured and escorted back to London by the victorious Yorkists. The leading Lancastrian Dukes of Somerset and Northumberland along with Lord Clifford were killed. Northhampton. 10 July, 1460. Margaret of Anjou, fiercely defensive of the rights of her son, Edward of Lancaster, the Prince of Wales, remained utterly determined to crush the Yorkist claim to the throne. She gathered an army to advance 36 her son's cause and York, Salisbury and Warwick were forced into flight

before her. In response the Duke of York marched his forces from his base at Ludlow, but was intercepted by a Lancastrian army lead by Lord Audley.

Attempts at negotiation between Warwick and the Lancastrians proved fruitless as Henry refused to admit Warwick to his presence. The ensuing battle outside the walls of Northampton proved a significant Yorkist victory, the Duke of Buckingham, the Earl of Shrewsbury and Lords Egremont and Beaumont were all killed whilst attempting to protect the king from the Yorkists closing on his tent. Henry was again captured and Margaret and her son were forced to flee. Wakefield. 30 December, 1460.

The resolute Margaret of Anjou responded to this victory by raising a further army. York and his brother-in-law and ally Richard Neville, Earl of Salisbury advanced to meet the Queen. They defeated a Lancastrian advance guard lead by Andrew Trollope and arrived at Sandal castle in Yorkshire were they planned to spend Christmas. A large force of around 6,000, lead by the Duke of Somerset and Lord Clifford surrounded the castle. York impulsively lead his army down from the castle and into a trap. Two large forces of the Lancastrian army, commanded by the Earl of Wiltshire and Lord Roos, emerged from nearby woods and the jaws of the trap snapped shut on the Yorkist leader. The Duke of York was killed in the ensueing slaughter. His son the Earl of Rutland was killed whilst in the course of escape, Salisbury was captured and executed. Their severed heads were displayed at York, that of York himself decorated in derision with a paper crown.

The Battle of Mortimer's Cross. 2 February, 1461. York’s eldest son, Edward, Earl of March, took up the position of leader of the Yorkist cause. An efficient general, he presented as a formidable opponent to Margaret. Edward IV joined forces with the dead Salisbury's son, Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, in London, determined to avenge his father's death. Edward marched into Hereford to engage the Lancastrian lords, Jasper Tudor and the Earl of Wiltshire, who were routed at Mortimer's Cross. Prior to the battle a complete parhelion appeared in the 37 sky, from which phenomena it is believed, Edward adopted his badge of the Sun in Splendour. Jasper's father, Owen Tudor, was captured and beheaded after the battle. Second Battle of St. Albans. 17

February, 1461. A large Lancastrian army proceeded towards London, who were met by the Earl of Warwick, with the king in his train at the town of St. Albans on Barnard's Heath. Elaborate defences of caltraps, spiked nets and various traps were set up in anticipation of the arrival of the Lancastrian army. However, the attack did not materialise as Warwick had envisaged. The Lancastrian vanguard entered St Albans from the direction of Dunstable and pursued the Yorkist rearguard in retreat from the town. The main body of the Yorkist army was then attacked from the flank and the rear. Warwick marched west to join forces with the approaching Yorkist army under Edward, leaving London undefended. Terrrified by tales of Lancastrian pillaging and looting, the citizens of London refused to open the gates, forcing the Lancastrians to withdraw north to Yorkshire. Battle of Towton. Palm Sunday, 29 March, 1461.

The Battle of Towton, a bitter blood bath was fought in a fierce snowstorm on a plateau between the villages of Towton and Saxton in Yorkshire. Both sides had amassed sizeable armies of around 50,000 each. Edward led the Yorkist centre, Warwick the right and Fauconberg the left. The Lancastrian army was led by the Duke of Somerset, who controlled the centre, the Earl of Northumberland commanding the right and the Duke of Exeter the left. The Lancastrian army occupied a good strategic position at the summit of the plateau. The Yorkist archers, greatly aided by the wind direction, were able to shoot much further than their Lancastrian counterparts. Finally the Lancastrians charged their opponents and ferocious hand to hand fighting ensued. Edward himself fought on foot. The Duke of Norfolk arrived on the scene with reinforcements ensuring a Yorkist victory. The routed Lancastrians fled, Some of the worst slaughter took place at the aptly named Bloody Meadow, where it was reported men crossed the River Cock over the bodies of their fallen comrades. The dead littered the fields all the way from Towton to Tadcaster. At Tadcaster some 38 Lancastrian troops made a stand but were slaughtered. The rout lasted throughout the night and into the morning. Towton proved to be the largest and bloodiest battle ever fought on English soil, with casualties reported to have been in excess of 28,000.

Henry VI, Margaret of Anjou, and the Lancastrian Prince of Wales fled north to seek refuge in Scotland. The triumphant Earl of March was accepted as king and crowned as Edward IV at Westminster Abbey on 28 June, 1461.

Battle of Hexham. 14 May, 1464. On his return from the Scottish border, Montague again met the Lancastrians forces at Hexham, which resulted in a further Yorkist victory. Many Lancastrian leaders were executed after the battle, severely limiting their effectiveness as a rival party for the crown. Battle of Edgecote Moor.

26 July, 1469. King Edward IV's unpopular marriage to the greedy and grasping Elizabeth Woodville eventually suceeded in alienating Warwick and his brother George Plantagenet, Duke of Clarence.

In 1469 in response to an uprising in Yorkshire Edward gathered an army and marched north, he was intercepted and defeated on the journey by a Lancastrian force. Warwick and Clarence had already landed in England from Calais to join the rebels under "Robin of Redesdale". Edward was captured and "the Kingmaker" Warwick assumed control of the country, albeit in his name.

Battle of Losecote Field. 12 March, 1470. Under the ruse of putting down an uprising, Edward IV raised an army in 1470 and attacked Warwick's forces at Empingham. Victory went to the royal forces. The battle acquired its name of 'Losecoat Field' due to the haste in which the rebels shed their coats in flight. Warwick and Clarence fled to France, where they were encouraged by Louis XI to form an alliance with the exiled Margaret of Anjou, Warwick married his younger daughter, Anne Neville, to Margaret's son, the Lancastrian Prince of Wales.

The Battle of Barnet. 14 April, 1471. Warwick, returning from France, joined forces with his allies Montague, the Duke of Exeter and the Earl of Oxford at Coventry and marched toward London. Edward awaited them just north of the town of Barnet. A thick mist descended prior to the battle, obscuring sight of the enemy, resulting in both army's being incorrectly aligned, with their right wings were overlapping.

The royal army duly advanced, the right wing outflanking Warwick's left. The same situation arose with the royal left wing, which was similarly outflanked and routed by Warwick's right, commanded by the Earl of Oxford, an excellent general.

The King managed to deploy his reserve and attacked Warwick in the centre. Oxford, who had been engaged in the pursuit of the fleeing Yorkists, returned to the battle, due to the thick mist, Montague's men mistook Oxford's banner for the Yorkist sun in splendour and opened fire on them. Oxford's contingent fled and the rebels were routed. The mighty Warwick was killed fleeing the battlefield in an attempt to reach his horse. Tewkesbury.

4 May, 1471. Margaret of Anjou and her son, Edward, Prince of Wales, landed from France on the eve of the Battle of Barnet to hear the disquieting news of the Yorkist victory at Barnet and her ally, Warwick's death. Edward pursued them as they marched to Wales to join forces with the staunch Lancastrian, Jasper Tudor, Earl of Pembroke and caught up with them at Tewkesbury, in Gloucestershire. The Prince of Wales and Lord Wenlock led the Lancastrian centre and the Earl of Devon, the left. Margaret retired to a nearby convent, to await the outcome of the battle. Edward IV himself commanded the centre of the Yorkist army, his youngest brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, the left and William, Lord Hastings the right. Edward attacked at dawn, following an exchange of artillery fire, the Yorkists advanced at which Somerset attacked the flank of the Yorkist left.

The Yorkist's responded by attacking Somerset's flank. Somerset himself attacked and slew the aged Wenlock, whom he frenziedly accused of not supporting him. The remainder of the Lancastrians panicked and fled, pursued into Tewkesbury by the exultant Yorkists. The Prince of Wales was either killed fleeing the battle or shortly thereafter. Lancastrians who sought sanctuary in Tewkesbury Abbey were dragged out and executed.

The Lancastrian cause was now 40 utterly decimated, Margaret, crushed at last by the death of her son, was taken prisoner and imprisoned in the Tower of London. Bosworth. 22 August, 1485. On the death of Edward IV, his young sons, Edward V and Richard, Duke of York. were imprisoned in the Tower of London, after which they were never again seen alive, and the throne was taken by his brother, who became Richard III. His right was challenged by Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who claimed

to be the heir of Lancaster. Henry landed at Milford Haven in Wales on August 7, 1485 and Richard III advanced to meet him.

The two armies eventually faced each other south of the village of Market Bosworth in Leicestershire. The ranks of the Yorkist army were infiltrated with treason. Lord Thomas Stanley and his brother Sir William who positioned their armies to the sides of the battle and their timely intervention ensured a victory for Henry Tudor, who suceeded to the throne as Henry VII. Richard III was killed in battle, having refused to flee. Henry later married Edward IV's eldest daughter, Elizabeth of York. Click for a fuller account of the battle. The Battle of Stoke. 16 June, 1487. An imposter arose to challenge the newly established Tudor regime in 1487.

Lambert Simnel, who posed as Edward, Earl of Warwick along with his die-hard Yorkist supporters, including John de la Pole Earl of Lincoln, Richard III's appointed heir, he planned an invasion of England. They were met by Henry VII's forces under the Earl of Oxford at East Stoke. Initially the rebel army seemed to be gaining the upper hand, but after the arrival on the battlefield of Lancastrian reinforcements, they were eventually routed and Henry VII triumphant.

THE TUDORS. REFORMATION.

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

HENRY VII

• avoided quarrels with Scotland and with France;

• made an important agreement with the Netherlands which allowed English trade to grow again; • forbade anyone to keep armed men;

• encouraged the use of heavy fines as punishment because this gave money to the Crown.

HENRY VIII (the BLUE BEARD)

• broke with Rome (through several acts of Parliament England became politically a Protestant country). Establishing the Church of England in 1534 and the Act of Supremacy (King Henry VIII of England and subsequent monarchs the supreme head of the Church of England);

• The English navy increased under Henry VIII from just 5 ships at the beginning of his reign to about 60 ships (Father of the English navy);

• Henry VIII decreased the power of the nobles and increased the power of Parliament and the monarchy;

• The Union of England and Wales which was legally accomplished by Parliament in 1536 and 1543.

The Act of Supremecy, passed in 1534, established King Henry VIII as the Supreme Head of the English Church. The Reformation Parliament of 1529-1536 approved the king's break with the see of Rome, as well as Henry's divorce and remarriage. In 1539 it was ordered that an English translation of the Bible be placed in every parish church in England. The aged Bishop Fisher refused to subscribe to the Act of Supremecy, and hailed as a Catholic martytr, he received the support of the Pope, who promised to make him a Cardinal in reward for his heroic stand for the rights of the Church against the formidable monarch's wishes. Enraged and ruthless when opposed, Henry vowed that if a hat arrived to make him a cardinal, the Pope would find Fisher had no head on which to wear it.

The Bishop stood bravely by his principles. On 17th June, 1535, he was found guilty of treason and sentenced to death. Sir Thomas More, Henry’s Lord Chancellor and the author of Utopia, also refused to acknowledge the Act of Supremecy. Despite the pleadings of his family, he could not bring himself, in good conscience to subscribe to the Act. After a harsh term of imprisonment in the Tower, he was informed on the morning of 1st July, 1535, that he was to die later that day. More conducted himself

with great courage and walked calmly to his execution wearing a coarse garment and holding a red cross.

Thomas asked the Lord Lieutenant for help to mount the steps of the scaffold and joked "but as for my coming down again, let me shift for myself." Before laying his head on the block More loudly declared "I die the king's good servant, but God's first." His head joined that of Fisher on a pike on London Bridge, but was removed under cover of darkness by sympathizers. Thomas Cromwell - (born c. 1485, Putney, near London—died July 28, 1540, probably London), principal adviser (1532–40) to England's Henry VIII, chiefly responsible for establishing the Reformation in England, for the dissolution of the monasteries, and for strengthening the royal administration. At the instigation of his enemies, he was eventually arrested for heresy and treason and executed. Cromwell's part in the English Reformation has been much debated. At one time he was credited with supplying Henry with a complete plan of action as early as 1529; later it became usual to see in him nothing but the king's most competent executive agent. The truth seems to be that he was in no way in charge until early in 1532, taking over when the king's policy of forcing the pope to come to terms had proved to be a failure.

It was, to all appearances, Cromwell who then came forward with a clear notion of how to achieve Henry's purpose without the pope. His policy consisted in making a reality of some large and vague claims to supreme power that Henry had uttered at intervals. He proposed to destroy Rome's power in England and to replace it by the royal supremacy in the church. He was behind the first attacks on the papacy (1532) and the act against the payment by bishops of their first year's revenue to Rome. He secured the submission of the clergy to the king in matters of legislation, and in 1533 he secured the passage of the Act in Restraint of Appeals to Rome, preventing appeals to Rome in matrimonial and testamentary cases. Its preamble embodied his political theory of the sovereign national state. Thereafter he was in complete control of the government, though he remained careful to pretend to be acting on the king's authority.

In 1534 he completed the erection of the royal supremacy with the passage of the Act of Supremacy. In 1536, as a newly created baron, Cromwell was also appointed the king's deputy as head of the church. Cromwell's own religious views have been in much doubt. They certainly were not very strong, and his essentially secular temper subordinated religious to political considerations. Nevertheless, he came to be firmly associated with a radical policy of reform and Reformation. In the main, this resulted from difficulties abroad. While hostility between France and Spain had prevented foreign intervention during the critical years of the Reformation, 1533–36, there seemed a danger of an alliance against England after that date. Cromwell, whose forthright and clear-sighted temper was less well suited to the conduct of foreign affairs than was Henry VIII's skillful opportunism, involved himself in projects of a Lutheran 45 alliance distasteful to the king, who wished to stand on Catholic orthodoxy.

In 1539 Cromwell made the mistake of trying to force the king to his side by compelling him to marry Anne of Cleves. The king from the start hated his fourth wife, and by February 1540 it was clear that the alliance with the German princes that she represented was unnecessary. Thereafter, Cromwell's fall came quickly. He fought back for a few months, being created earl of Essex and lord great chamberlain in April 1540, but early in June his enemies persuaded Henry that his vicegerent was a heretic and a traitor. He was arrested on June 10, condemned without a hearing, and executed on July 28. His fall did not end the Reformation, but it marked the end of competent government and purposeful policy in Henry's reign.

BLOODY MARY

- Remembered for burning nearly 300 Protestant men, women and children during her reign;
- restored the navy, established new hospitals, improved the education of the clergy and increased the authority of local government;
- in 1557, England was dragged into a war with Spain against France. This was a disastrous campaign for Mary's troops and England officially lost possession of Calais in January 1558, which was its last stakehold in France.

ELIZABETH I

• defeated the Spanish Armada (1588);

• turned England into a strong and dominant naval power. • turned the Scots into a permanent ally;

• increased literacy in England. The promotion of the Arts: her love of arts led to theatres being built and great poets and playwrights like Shakespeare, Spenser and Marlow emerging;

• expanded England overseas – Elizabeth I encouraged explorers like Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Francis Drake, Sir John Hawkins and others, to discover new places and form colonies.

• helped the poor: her Poor Laws gave support to those in poverty. The Poor law – 1563 Act Different types of poor people were categorised in order to determine the treatment that they might receive as follows: 1) The "Deserving Poor" the old the young and the sick who should receive help. These poor people were provided with "Outdoor Relief" in the form of clothes, food or money; 2) The "Deserving Unemployed" those willing and able to work but unable to find employment. These poor people were provided with "Indoor Relief" in the form of being cared for in almshouses, orphanages and workhouses; 3) The sick were cared for in hospitals; • Apprenticeships were arranged for the young; 4) The "Undeserving Poor" those who turned to a life of crime or became beggars. The dishonest men in these categories were criminals who turned to various forms of theft. The beggars in these categories were referred to as "Idle Beggars" but many have since been referred to as "Poor Beggars". The punishments for these categories were extremely harsh.

Test your knowledge:

1. Who made an important trade agreement with Netherlands in 1485?

a) Henry VII b) Elizabeth I c) Charles V d) Catherine of Aragon

2. What did Henry VII consider to be the basis of wealth for England?

a) wars b) international politics c) shipbuilding d) international trade

3. This king was cruel, wasteful with money and interested in pleasing himself.

a) Edward VI b) Henry VIII c) Henry VII d) Elizabeth I

4. Why did Henry VIII dislike the Church of England?

a) because The Pope didn't allow him to divorce b) he didn't believe in God c) he couldn't completely control it d) because of personal believes

5. Henry VIII married…

a) three times b) six times c) four times d) was single

6. After Henry's death the crown was succeeded by

a) Edward VI b) Henry IX c) Elizabeth I d) Elizabeth II

7. Edward VI died in the age of… a) 16 b) 25 c) 51 d) 21

8. The queen Mary was a) a foreign invader b) cousin of Edward VI c) sister of Henry VIII d) daughter of Henry and Catherine

9. When Mary died the throne was passed to…

a) James IV b) Elizabeth I c) Henry IX d) Elizabeth II

10. What did Elizabeth I do with her half-sister Mary?

a) put in prison b) named as a throne successor c) proclaimed her an authorized representative of Her Majesty the Queen d) executed

PART II. PRACTICAL TASKS

Module 1. The foundation stones. The early and late Middle Ages. The Tudors.

UNIT 1

Britain's prehistory: the Neolithic period in Britain

The Neolithic Revolution was a period of human advancement seen across the world, as the irresistible new technology, farming, took hold, and sedentary civilisation became feasible. The earliest societies to abandon their hunter-gatherers' lifestyles were the Middle East and China, their Neolithic period beginning around 8000 BC.

The Neolithic in Britain came slightly later, introduced by migrants from Europe in around 4000 BC. They brought with them agricultural techniques, and the previously untamed landscape of Britain quickly became more ordered.

The end of the Neolithic in Britain was around 2500 BC, leading into the Bronze Age.

Much like other eras in British history, which boast extravagant stately homes and castles, the Neolithic left an imposing mark upon the British landscape. Megalithic stone circles such as Avebury, and its more famous sibling, Stonehenge, are two of the most notable, but many more stone circles cover the countryside, a reminder of the innovation and power of the Neolithic peoples.

There is no better place to see the impact of the Neolithic period than Wiltshire, where the majority of the most iconic stone circles reside.

Stonehenge, Wiltshire is a wonder of the world, and perhaps the world's most famous prehistoric monument. The Megalithic structure was built in stages, with the early henge built about 5000 years ago and the stone circle erected near the end of the Neolithic around 2500 BC.

Avebury, Wiltshire. Amid the North Wessex Downs some four miles west of Marlborough, lies the small village of Avebury. This tiny settlement – including a scattering of cottages, the 16th-century manor and thatched pub – lies in the centre of the largest megalithic stone circle in Britain, bigger by far than Stonehenge, which lies some 20 miles to the south.

The circle and henge (a huge circular bank and ditch) surround the village of Avebury and were built between 2850 and 2200 BC.

Silbury Hill, Wiltshire (2400 BC) is Europe's highest prehistoric mound. Comparable in size to the Egyptian pyramids, it was built at around the same time. No burial chamber has ever been found inside and its purpose remains a mystery.

Ring of Brodgar, Orkney. The best preserved Neolithic and early Bronze Age landscape in Europe. Sites include the Ring of Brodgar stone circle, the Stones of Stenness, the chambered tomb of Maes Howe and the Skara Brae settlement.

When settlers from Europe arrived in Britain around 4000 BC, they carried with them the means to civilise Britain- farming.

Native dwellers embraced this change, as they were already shifting to a more sedentary lifestyle. Many hunter-gatherers already lived in permanent settlements. However, the arrival of the migrants from Europe hastened the pace at which agriculture took hold. In less than 400 years – by about 3700 BC – farming had swept through England, Wales and Scotland.

1. **Find the answers in the text:**
   1) Who brought the Neolithic to Britain? What did they bring with them?
   2) What are the most famous stone circles in Britain?
   3) What is the highest burial mound in Europe? Where is it located?

4) What do the sites of Ring of Brodgar include?
5) What means of civilization did the settlers from Europe carry with them to Britain?

2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**

sedentary civilization, feasible lifestyle, imposing mark, Stonehenge, burial mound, chambered tomb, native dweller.

3. **Watch the video about Stonehenge:**

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yP2DlTwQuIY

a) make outlines about its history;
b) make a list of historic realia and explain them;
c) write an essay "The mystery of Stonehenge" (400 words).

4. **Choose one of the British prehistoric monuments and prepare a presentation (10-12 slides). The following links can help you:**

https://www.english-heritage.org.uk/learn/histories/prehistoric-monuments/
https://theculturetrip.com/europe/united-kingdom/scotland/articles/9-incredible-neolithic-sites-to-see-in-scotland/
https://www.britainexpress.com/wales/anglesey/ancient.htm
https://www.discoveringireland.com/neolithic-sites-in-ireland/

5. **Study the information related to Britain's prehistory (p. 6-9) and test your knowledge:**

https://drive.google.com/drive/my-drive

Decide if each of the statements is TRUE or FALSE

1. People who lived in the Stone Age survived by hunting and gathering.
   a. True
   b. False
2. The sea has always separated Britain from mainland Europe.
   a. True
   b. False
3. The first farmers arrived in Britain during the Bronze Age.
   a. True

b. False

4. The first farmers in Britain probably originated from north-west Europe.

a. True

b. False

5. The first farmers buried their dead in “barrows”.

a. True

b. False

6. Stonehenge was possibly a place where many people went to celebrate social or religious events at different times of the year.

a. True

b. False

7. Skara Brae on Orkney (an island off Scotland) has helped people who study historical buildings and objects to learn about the Stone Age.

a. True

b. False

8. Hill-fort is a type of earthworks used as a fortified refuge or defended settlement.

a. True

b. False

Check your answers online: https://learningapps.org/display?v=p296j22uk20

UNIT 2

The Beaker people: a new population for ancient Britain

By James McNish

Ancient DNA shows that the culture that brought Bronze Age technology to Britain was connected to a migration that almost completely replaced the island's earlier inhabitants.

Museum scientists were part of an international team that examined DNA from over 400 prehistoric skeletons, drawn from sites across western and central Europe. The study looked at people buried before and after the arrival of the Beaker culture, which spread across Europe and can be tracked through its distinctive pottery.

Prof Ian Barnes, Research Leader in Ancient DNA at the Museum, explains, 'We found that the skeletal remains of individuals from Britain who lived shortly after this time have a very different DNA profile to those who came before. It seems that there is a large population turnover.'

In continental Europe, however, the story is different. The new ideas and technologies appear to have spread among different peoples without large-scale migration.

Beaker ware from different regions shared many characteristics. The pot on the left is from Sierentz in France (© Anthony Denaire) , and from Bathgate in Scotland (© National Museums Scotland) on the right.

Pottery is an example of how studying artefacts opens windows into past cultures. Around 4,500 years ago, a new, bell-shaped pottery style appeared in Iberia, in present-day Spain and Portugal. These 'bell-beakers' quickly spread across Europe, reaching Britain fewer than 100 years later.

Archaeologists have been unsure whether the spread of Beaker pottery - and the culture associated with it - represented a large-scale migration of people, or was simply due to the exchange of new cultures and ideas.

The study helps resolves this century-old debate, says Museum archaeologist Dr Tom Booth: “The question of whether new things spread by the movement of people or ideas has been one of the most important and long-running questions in archaeology, and it's fascinating to see that both are the case for the Beaker culture”.

The people who were part of the Beaker culture can be identified as they were buried with distinctive artefacts such as their pottery. The researchers compared the DNA from skeletons buried around Europe from two different periods: before the Beaker culture arrived there and afterwards.

The study shows that the Beaker culture spread into central Europe from Iberia without a significant movement of people. Skeletons from Beaker burials in Iberia are not genetically close to central European Beaker skeletons.

Population change in Bronze Age Britain

Britain saw significant population changes, however. Beaker culture was taken up by a group of people living in Central Europe whose ancestors had previously migrated from the Eurasian Steppe. This group continued to migrate west and finally arrived in Britain around 4,400 years ago.

The DNA data suggests that over a span of several hundred years, the migrations of people from continental Europe led to an almost complete replacement of Britain's earlier inhabitants, the Neolithic communities who were responsible for huge megalithic monuments such as Stonehenge.

The DNA also shows that the Beaker folk would have had generally different pigmentation that of the population they replaced, who had olive-brown skin, dark hair and brown eyes. In comparison, the Beaker folk brought genes significant reduction in skin and eye pigmentation, with lighter skin, blue eyes and blonde hair becoming more common in the population.

1. **Find the answers in the text:**
   1) What Beaker pottery can tell us?
   2) Who were the Beaker people?
   3) How can the people who were part of the Beaker culture be identified?
   4) How did population change in Bronze Age Britain?
   5) What do the Beaker people's DNA data show?
2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**

   Bronze Age technology, skin and eye pigmentation, DNA, distinctive artefacts, large-scale migration, megalithic monuments, henge, Stonehenge, Neolithic communities, stone circles, barrows.
3. **Use the words and phrases from task 2 and write an essay of 500 words "Bronze Age Britain".** The following links can help you:

   https://www.britainexpress.com/History/Bronze_Age.htm

   https://www.bbc.co.uk/bitesize/topics/z82hsbk/articles/z874kqt

   https://www.legendarydartmoor.co.uk/beaker_pot.htm
4. **Watch the video "Who killed the Stonehenge people"**:

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kNLgbgHYohg

   Write down five main issues discussed in the video.
5. **Check your knowledge:**

1) The Beaker people buried their dead in barrows.

a) True

b) False

2) The Beaker people knew how to make pottery.

a) True

b) False

3) The Beaker people invaded Britain.

a) True

b) False

4) Beaker culture was taken up by a group of people living in Central Europe whose ancestors had previously migrated from the Eurasian Steppe.

a) True

b) False

5) The Beaker people built Stonehenge.

a) True

b) False

6. The Beaker people put a beaker in each grave.

a) True

b) False

7. The Beaker culture is a complex cultural phenomena which started 4,700-4,400 years ago.

a) True

b) False

8. The Beaker people brought barley to Britain.

a) True

b) False

Check your answers online: https://learningapps.org/display?v=p19ujpny220

UNIT 3

Some Thoughts on the Celts

by Desmond Johnston

The Celts - Origin and Background

The object of these notes, as the title implies, is to express the writer's ideas and opinions. One culture which unwittingly has caused much confusion in people's minds is that of the Celts. In recent centuries the problem seems to have begun with the antiquarian William Stukeley (1687 - 1765) who associated such ancient monuments as Stonehenge and Avebury with the Celtic Druids, unaware of course that such monuments predated the Celtic Druids by a couple of millennia. Thus began the association of the Celts with the structures of the remote past.

The fact that the Celts as such were a relatively recent civilization, contemporaneous with the Greek, Roman, and Etruscan cultures did not gain wide acceptance until the 20th century - and even today many may find it hard to accept the flowering of Celtic culture as post 500 BC.

The question of the location of the heartland of Celtic culture has caused much confusion - even today many people would say Ireland / Scotland rather than the Upper Danube. Much Greek and Roman literature has survived and it ought to be easy to pinpoint the Celts on their home ground. Herodotus, a Greek historian of the 5th century BC, refers to the Danube "which has its source among the Celts near Pyrene - the Celts live beyond the Pillars of Hercules (Gibraltar) next to the Cynesians who are the most Westerly people of Europe". What is happening here is confusion between the Celtic homeland on the Upper Danube and the limit of their influence - Iberia.

The Greek geographer Pytheas (4th century BC) comments on the location of the British Isles as being "North of the land of the Celts." Again we have a reference to the fringes of Celtic influence rather than to their home ground.

Another Greek geographer Pausanias (2nd century AD) tells us that the Gauls originally called Celts live in the remotest region of Europe on the coast of an enormous tidal sea.

Okeanos (the River of Ocean which surrounds the world) is the most distant part of the sea - the people who live beside it are Iberians and Celts - it contains the island of Britain. The remotest Celts are called Kabares who live on the edges of the ice desert - a very tall race of people." Again we have no reference to the source of the Celts but a clear indication of two major areas under Celtic influence - Gaul (France) and Iberia (Spain / Portugal) with a hint of a Scandinavian connection.

Julius Caesar (1st century BC) in his account of his campaigns in Gaul gives us a very clear picture of Celtic culture in one region in which it was dominant (Gaul). He also makes a statement which perhaps deserves more attention than it has generally received - "The Druidic doctrine is believed to have been found existing in Britain and thence imported into Gaul: even today those who want to make a profound study of it generally go to Britain for the purpose." We will have occasion later to follow up this statement which implies that an important component of Celtic culture has another - and by implication - older - source which is located in the British Isles. Caesar goes on to refer to the areas of Gaul under greatest Celtic influence but does not include the territory of the Belgae in the North. It is the Belgae who migrated in large numbers to the South and East of Britain. So Caesar associates a large area of Gaul with Celtic influence but again makes no reference to a Celtic homeland.

A possible reason for the lack of information on this topic is that by the time of the authors quoted the Celts may have been losing ground in their homeland and were best known in the territories in which they had acquired influence. It is significant that it is the earliest account (Herodotus circa 450 BC) which gives us a clue to an Upper Danube location.

This has been confirmed by archaeology - the general area Switzerland / Austria is now accepted as being the source of the Celtic peoples. In looking into the origins of Celtic race / culture some writers have described the earlier manifestations of these as "proto-Celts" - a term not always acceptable. The earliest manifestation which can be specifically associated with the Celts is the Bronze Age Hallstatt culture, from post 1000 BC to around 500 BC. This culture was a wealthy one being centred on a salt-mining region, therefore trading widely with European areas generally and even further a field.

The use of iron was highly developed in this area by the end of the Hallstatt period. This gave a superiority in both tools and weapons and paved the way for the next phase in Celtic

development - the La Tène period. It would appear that this development was largely an internal cultural one - not necessarily fostered by newcomers. The use of iron ploughs made possible a greater volume of agricultural production. Skills in textile making were highly developed. The use of iron weaponry also gave military superiority. From an early period the influence of the Celtic culture was through the process of migration and commerce spreading Westwards across Europe, notably into Spain, France, North Italy.

This influence would appear at this stage to be mainly due to peaceful penetration. Population growth in the Celtic area led to the need for more land for settlement. Spain in particular was a mineral rich country much in demand by Phoenicians, Greeks, Carthaginians, and later by Romans. In the early part of the La Tène period Rome was still a small settlement of little account politically or economically. The main players were the Carthaginians, Greeks, and Etruscans. Both Carthaginians and Greeks had established a chain of settlements and coastal trading stations along the shores of the Mediterranean and outside the Pillars of Hercules.

Massilia (Marseille) a Greek colony and Gadir (Cadiz) a Phoenician colony were typical examples. The Celts were in a position to make full use of such river systems as the Danube, Rhine, and Rhone to access markets and sources of supply. Recent discoveries in Asia along the Silk Road have indicated that along this route were bases occupied by people akin to the Celts from at least 1000 BC. The Tokharian language as spoken in the Turkestan area has links with Celtic. So early Celtic influence based on settlement and commerce extended from the Atlantic to Asia.

Celtic Language

The Celtic linguistic contribution to European culture seems to have been a major one. It is not that the megalithic peoples of early Europe did not have their own well-developed languages - that is evidenced in the case of Finnish, Hungarian, Basque and Etruscan. Nor were the early Indo-European languages deficient. But there is no doubt that the language of the Celts was taken up at an early stage in their spheres of influence. Presumably trade, travel, and communication with settlers made a common tongue a sensible solution. (Akin to the later spread of Latin as a “lingua franca” and the more recent spread of English.)

Celtic is a member of the Indo-European language family. A form of Celtic could well be one of the earlier manifestations of the Indo-European tongues. Certainly in the centuries post 1000 BC Celtic in one or other of its two main forms spread from Scotland to Turkey, Iberia to Switzerland. Roman conquests particularly post 100 BC eliminated the Celtic tongue pretty effectively from areas such as Spain, Portugal, France, England. What survived the Roman occupation was lost in the Dark Ages under the influence of barbarian immigrants from the North and East. The only areas of Western Europe to escape Roman and barbarian influence to a large extent were Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Brittany, where forms of Celtic still survive.

On the question of the language of the areas in question, Irish Gaelic (Goidelic) is presumed to be the older version of Celtic. It could well have evolved from a common tongue spoken along the Atlantic fringes of Western Europe in the Neolithic / Bronze Ages. The two branches of the Celtic tongue are Q-Celtic or Goidelic - the older form now native to Ireland and also spoken in Scotland as well as recently in the Isle of Man, and P-Celtic / Brythonic / Gaulish spoken in Wales, Brittany, Cornwall (until recent times), Gaul, England, Scotland until Roman times.

During and after the decline of the Roman Empire Q-Celtic speaking settlers from North-East Ireland gained control of most of Scotland and supplanted P-Celtic by their own Gaelic / Goidelic tongue. Wales preserved its P-Celtic linguistic autonomy in the face of Roman, Norman, Anglo-Saxon, and Irish pressure. England may have retained its P-Celtic speech to some extent during the Roman period and it is thought that the language revived for a time after the Romans' departure. However continued exposure to Anglo-Saxon influences resulted in the loss of almost all the P-Celtic heritage except in a few place names.

Brittany may have retained some P-Celtic speech under Roman rule because of its geographical position, and the language is said to have got a boost in the Dark Ages with the immigration of refugees from South-West England and South Wales, as they left to avoid Anglo-Saxon and Irish infiltration. Cornwall did retain some P-Celtic speech until the 19th century. Q-Celtic likewise lingered in the Isle of Man until modern times. Migration of Irish warriors to countries like France, Spain, Austria from the 16th century led to the survival of pockets of Q-Celtic in corners of Europe. Similarly P-Celtic spoken by 19th century Welsh

settlers to Patagonia has left traces. Likewise in small areas of Australia and New Zealand Scottish Q-Celtic survived for a time.

During this period, around 200,000 people left Scandinavia to settle in other lands, mainly Newfoundland (Canada), Greenland, Iceland, Ireland, England, Scotland, the islands around Britain, France (where they became the Normans), Russia and Sicily. They traded extensively with the Muslim world and fought as mercenaries for the Byzantine emperors of Constantinople (Istanbul). However, by the end of the 11th century the great days of Viking expansion were over.

1. **Find the answers in the text:**
   1) Who gives us clues to the location of Celts in their writings? Give examples.
   2) What is a possible reason for the lack of information about the Celtic homeland?
   3) What was the result of population growth in the Celtic area?
   4) How would you describe the La Tène period of Celtic development?
   5) What language family does Celtic belong to?
   6) What are the branches of the Celtic language?
2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**

Pinpoint, tidal sea, profound, manifestation, penetration, akin, deficient, supplant, mercenary.

3. **Choose one of the topics and prepare a presentation (10-12 slides).**

- The mystery of the Celtic symbols and artworks
- The rituals of the Celts as the mirror of their culture
- Celtic Mythology

The following links can help you:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AU1dKfMIEUQ

https://www.britainexpress.com/History/Celtic_Britain.htm

https://theculturetrip.com/europe/united-kingdom/england/london/articles/the-most-stunning-celtic-artworks/

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AU1dKfMIEUQ

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OVovskAh5QA&t=854s

4. **Watch the video:**

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AU1dKfMIEUQ&t=446s

   and answer the following questions:

1) How were the Celtic chiefs buried?
2) Which animan took a prominent place in the story of the Celts?
3) What alterations did the climate have in 3000 BC and how did it affect people?
4) What chenges did technology experience at that time?
5) How and why was the first period of the Celtic development called?
6) Why was salt important fort he early people?
7) What was the cradle for the Celtic World?
8) What is the professor's opinion on the coming of the Celts?
9) What did the DNA test conducted in one of the Wales schools show?

5. **Study the information related to the Celts (https://drive.google.com/drive/recent) and test your knowledge:**

   Decide if each of the statement is TRUE or FALSE

   1) The Celts knew how to work with iron.

   a) True

   b) False

   2) Celtic language is not spoken today

   a) True

   b) False

   3) Woman had no rights in the Celtic society

   a) True

   b) False

   4) Many historians consider the Upper Danube to be the motherland of Celts.

   a) True

   b) False

5) Peoples of early Europe did not have their own well-developed languages before the Celts.

a) True

b) False

Check your answers online: https://learningapps.org/display?v=pf41caemc20

UNIT 4

How did the Romans change Britain?

In AD 410, the Roman Emperor Honorius sent a goodbye letter to the people of Britain. He wrote, "fight bravely and defend your lives...you are on your own now". The city of Rome was under attack and the empire was falling apart, so the Romans had to leave to take care of matters back home.

After they left, the country fell into chaos. Native tribes and foreign invaders battled each other for power. Many of the Roman towns in Britain crumbled away as people went back to living in the countryside.

But even after they were gone, the Romans left their mark all over the country. They gave us new towns, plants, animals, a new religion and ways of reading and counting. Even the word 'Britain' came from the Romans.

When the Romans arrived in AD43, they introduced new ideas and ways of living to Britain. Watch the video to find out more.

Roman roads

Britain had no proper roads before the Romans - there were just muddy tracks. So the Romans built new roads all across the landscape – over 16,000km (10,000 miles) in fact!

The Romans knew that the shortest distance from one place to another is a straight line. So they made all their roads as straight as possible to get around quickly.

They built their roads on foundations of clay, chalk and gravel. They laid bigger flat stones on top. Roman roads bulged in the middle and had ditches either side, to help the rainwater drain off.

Some Roman roads have been converted into motorways and main roads we use today. You can still find a few places where the original Roman road is still visible, too.

How did the Romans change religion?

Before the Romans came, the native Britons were pagans. They believed in lots of different gods and spirits.

The Romans were pagans too, but they didn't believe in the same gods as the Britons. They let the Britons worship their own gods, as long as they were respectful of the Roman ones too.

Christianity arrived in Britain during the second century. At first only a few people became Christian. When Christianity started to get popular, the Romans banned it. Christians refused to worship the Roman emperor and anyone who was caught following the new religion could be whipped or even executed.

By the beginning of the 4th century, more and more people were following Christianity. In AD313 the Emperor Constantine declared that Christians were free to worship in peace. By 391, Christianity was the official Roman religion, but pagan beliefs were still popular in Britain.

Language, writing and numbers

Before the Romans came, very few people could read or write in Britain. Instead, information was usually passed from person to person by word of mouth.

The Romans wrote down their history, their literature and their laws. Their language was called Latin, and it wasn't long before some people in Britain started to use it too. However, it only really caught on in the new Roman towns - most people living in the countryside stuck to their old Celtic language.

We've still got lots of words and phrases today that come from Latin. Words like 'exit', which means 'he or she goes out', and 'pedestrian', which means 'going on foot'.

Our coins are based on a Roman design and some of the lettering is in Latin. Written around the edge of some £1 coins is the phrase 'decus et tutamen' which means 'glory and protection'.

How did the Romans change towns?

The Romans introduced the idea of living in big towns and cities. Roman towns were laid out in a grid. Streets criss-crossed the town to form blocks called 'insulae'. In the middle was the 'forum', a big market square where people came to trade.

After the Romans, the next group of people to settle in Britain were the Anglo-Saxons. They were farmers, not townspeople. They abandoned many of the Roman towns and set up new kingdoms, but some Roman towns continued to exist and still exist today.

If a place-name has "chester", "caster" or "cester" in it, it's almost certainly Roman (for example, Gloucester, Doncaster and Manchester). The word "chester" comes from the Latin word 'castrum' which means 'a fort'.

London was a Roman city too, although they called it 'Londinium'. When the Romans invaded, they built a fort beside the River Thames. This was where traders came from all over the empire to bring their goods to Britain. It grew and grew, until it was the most important city in Roman Britain.

1. **Find the answers in the text:**
   1) Who sent a goodbye letter to the people of Britain? When did it happened?
   2) What materials Romans used to build roads?
   3) Who declared that Christians were free to worship in peace?
   4) What does the word "exit" mean?
   5) What types of towns did the Romans build?
2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**
   to set up a kingdom, foundations of clay, chalk and gravel, by word of mouth, to drain off the rainwater, pagan, to worship in peace, to stick to sth.
3. **Watch the video about the Roads of Ancient Rome:**
   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XrPe3aOM678
   d) make outlines about their history;
   e) make a list of historic realia and explain them;
   f) write an essay "Roads of Ancient Rome" (400 words).
4. **Choose one of the British roman monuments and prepare a presentation (10-12 slides). The following links can help you:**
   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qnCa4iU5yKU
   https://www.triphistoric.com/explore/articles/roman-sites-in-britain
   https://www.historic-uk.com/HistoryMagazine/DestinationsUK/RomanSites/
   https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Roman_sites_in_Great_Britain

5. **Study the information related to the Romans in Britain and test your knowledge: https://www.historyhit.com/the-best-roman-sites-in-britain/**

Decide if statements are TRUE or FALSE (check your answers: https://learningapps.org/display?v=pomzysdqn20)

1) Fishbourne is ranked as one of the country's finest archaeological sites.
   a) True
   b) False
2) The Roman fort Vindolanda was built after Hadrian's Wall.
   a) True
   b) False
3) The Vindolanda Writing Tablets are the documents, that consist of wafer-thin pieces of paper covered with ink writing.
   a) True
   b) False
4. Londinium was the largest city in Britannia and an important Roman port.
   a) True
   b) False
5. Chester Roman Amphitheatre is now fully uncovered for tourists.
   a) True
   b) False
6. The Antonine Wall stretches 60 kilometres across the centre of Scotland.
   a) True
   b) False
7. Chedworth Roman Villa has 2 bathtubs and some stunning mosaics in bad condition.
   a) True
   b) False
8. Hadrian's Wall was build, using the force of more than 20000 men.
   a) True
   b) False

UNIT 5

Anglo-Saxon culture and society

The visible Anglo-Saxon culture can be seen in the material culture of buildings, dress styles, illuminated texts, and grave goods. Behind the symbolic nature of these cultural emblems, there are strong elements of tribal and lordship ties. The elite declared themselves kings who developed burhs (fortifications or fortified settlements), and identified their roles and peoples in Biblical terms. Above all, as Helena Hamerow has observed, "local and extended kin groups remained…the essential unit of production throughout the Anglo-Saxon period." The effects persist in the 21st century as, according to a study published in March 2015, the genetic makeup of British populations today shows divisions of the tribal political units of the early Anglo-Saxon period.

The ties of loyalty to a lord were to his person, not to his station; there was no real concept of patriotism or loyalty to a cause. This explains why dynasties waxed and waned so quickly; a kingdom was only as strong as its leader-king. There was no underlying administration or bureaucracy to maintain any gains beyond the lifetime of a leader.

The culture of the Anglo-Saxons was especially solidified and cultivated by King Alfred. The major kingdoms had grown by absorbing smaller principalities, and the means by which they did it and the character their kingdoms acquired as a result represent one of the major themes of the Middle Saxon period. A "good" king was a generous king who won the support that would ensure his supremacy over other kingdoms through his wealth. King Alfred's digressions in his translation of Boethius's Consolation of Philosophy provided these observations about the resources that every king needed:

In the case of the king, the resources and tools with which to rule are that he have his land fully manned: he must have praying men, fighting men and working men. You know also that without these tools no king may make his ability known. Another aspect of his resources is that he must have the means of support for his tools, the three classes of men. These, then, are their means of support: land to live on, gifts, weapons, food, ale, clothing and whatever else is necessary for each of the three classes of men.

The first group of King Alfred's three-fold Anglo-Saxon society are praying men—people who work at prayer. Although Christianity dominates the religious history of the Anglo-Saxons, life in the 5th and 6th centuries was dominated by "pagan" religious beliefs with a Scando-Germanic heritage. Almost every poem from before the Norman Conquest, no matter how Christian its theme, is steeped in pagan symbolism, but the integration of pagan beliefs into the new faith goes beyond the literary sources. Anglo-Saxon England found ways to synthesize the religion of the church with the existing "northern" customs and practices. Thus the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons was not just their switching from one practice to another, but making something fresh out of their old inheritance and their new beliefs and learning. Monasticism, and not just the church, was at the center of Anglo-Saxon Christian life. The role of churchmen was analogous with that of the warriors waging heavenly warfare.

The second element of Alfred's society is fighting men. The subject of war and the Anglo-Saxons is a curiously neglected one; however, it is an important element of their society.

The third aspect of Alfred's society is working men. Helena Hamerow suggested that the prevailing model of working life and settlement, particularly for the early period, was one of shifting settlement and building tribal kinship. The mid-Saxon period saw diversification, the development of enclosures, the beginning of the toft system, closer management of livestock, the gradual spread of the mould-board plough, "informally regular plots," and a greater permanence, with further settlement consolidation thereafter foreshadowing post-Conquest villages. The later periods saw a proliferation of "service features," including barns, mills, and latrines, most markedly on high-status sites. Throughout the Anglo-Saxon period, Helena Hamerow suggested: "local and extended kin groups remained…the essential unit of production".

1. **Read the text and answer the questions:**
    1. Why did the dynasties disappear so quickly?
    2. What does it mean: "the land is fully manned"? What kind of people were in great demand in the kingdom?
    3. Did Anglo-Saxons have Christianity or were they pagans?

4. Could a carpenter's child become a monk at those times?

2. Read the information about the Anglo-Saxons and their life.

https://www.britannica.com/topic/Anglo-Saxon
https://public.wsu.edu/~delahoyd/medieval/anglo-saxon.html
http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/ancient/anglo_saxons/
http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/ancient/anglo_saxons/

Then check your knowledge:

1. The Anglo-Saxons were the decedents of three different Germanic peoples – Angles, Saxes and …
   a) Jutes
   b) Gutes
   c) Goths
2. English names of the days of the week originate from …
   a) Titles of Gods: Meatod, Drihten, Frea, …
   b) Names of Gods: Tiw, Woden, Frigga, …
   c) Names of Gods: Luna (Moon), Jove (Jupiter), Saturnus (Saturn)
3. The Anglo-Saxon period lasted for 600 years, from … to ….
   a) 410 – 1066
   b) 430 – 1030
   c) 410 – 1010
4. Most of the information we have about the Anglo-Saxons comes from …
   a) Anglo-Saxon Chronicle
   b) Beowulf
   c) The works of King Alfred
5. Where does the name "Anglo-Saxons" originate from?
   a) Anglo-Saxons called themselves in such a way
   b) Historians decided to call them in such a way
   c) Bishop of Ostia named them so
6. What happened to the Anglo-Saxons in 1066?

a) They started Civil War and ruined their state
b) Norman invasion
c) They became the part of another state with rights of autonomy

7. What language did the Anglo-Saxons speak?
   a) Old English
   b) Old Norse
   c) Old Friesian

Check your answers online: https://learningapps.org/display?v=p7vyzo13k20

3. **Watch the videos and write down the main characteristics of Anglo-Saxon culture.**

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7X6cZrFdQpQ

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GoHhDXomCQ0

   These questions will help you:

   What was Anglo-Saxons social hierarchy? What did each social group do? What were the main professions? How did they interact with other people? What about religion of Anglo-Saxons?

4. **Find the meaning of these Anglo-Saxon words.**

   Cunfeorm, eaxl-gestealle, frumbyrdling, unweder, hleów-feðer

5. **Choose one of the kings given below and make a presentation of 10-12 slides. Use the following links:**

   https://www.bbc.com/

   https://www.bbc.co.uk/bitesize/topics/zxsbcdm/articles/zqrc9j6

   https://www.bbc.co.uk/bitesize/topics/zxsbcdm/articles/z9tdq6f

   Offa

   Alfred the Great

   Edward the Elder

   Edmund I

Eadwig

Edgar the Peaceful

Sweyn

Edmund Ironside

Canute

Ethelred the Unready

Harold Harefoot

Edward the Confessor

Harold Godwinson

UNIT 6

Vikings in Britain: background and legacy

Historians disagree about the origin of the word Viking. In Old Norse the word means a pirate raid, from either vikja (to move swiftly) or vik (an inlet). This captures the essence of the Vikings, fast-moving sailors who used the water as their highway to take them across the northern Atlantic, around the coasts of Europe and up its rivers to trade, raid or settle. In their poetry they call the sea 'the whale road'.

Anglo-Saxon writers called them Danes, Norsemen, Northmen, the Great Army, sea rovers, sea wolves.

From around 860 AD onwards, Vikings stayed, settled and prospered in Britain, becoming part of the mix of people who today make up the British nation. Our names for days of the week come mainly from Norse gods – Tuesday from Tiw or Týr, Wednesday from Woden (Odin), Thursday from Thor and so on. Many of their other words have also become part of English, for example egg, steak, law, die, bread, down, fog, muck, lump and scrawny.

In 793 came the first recorded Viking raid, where 'on the Ides of June the harrying of the heathen destroyed God's church on Lindisfarne, bringing ruin and slaughter' (The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle).

These ruthless pirates continued to make regular raids around the coasts of England, looting treasure and other goods, and capturing people as slaves. Monasteries were often targeted, for their precious silver or gold chalices, plates, bowls and crucifixes.

Gradually, the Viking raiders began to stay, first in winter camps, then settling in land they had seized, mainly in the east and north of England. See The Vikings settle down.

Outside Anglo-Saxon England, to the north of Britain, the Vikings took over and settled Iceland, the Faroes and Orkney, becoming farmers and fishermen, and sometimes going on summer trading or raiding voyages. Orkney became powerful, and from there the Earls of Orkney ruled most of Scotland. To this day, especially on the north-east coast, many Scots still bear Viking names.

To the west of Britain, the Isle of Man became a Viking kingdom. The island still has its Tynwald, or ting-vollr (assembly field), a reminder of Viking rule - see The Viking Thing. In Ireland, the Vikings raided around the coasts and up the rivers. They founded the cities of Dublin, Cork and Limerick as Viking strongholds.

Meanwhile, back in England, the Vikings took over Northumbria, East Anglia and parts of Mercia. In 866 they captured modern York (Viking name: Jorvik) and made it their capital. They continued to press south and west. The kings of Mercia and Wessex resisted as best they could, but with little success until the time of Alfred of Wessex, the only king of England to be called ‘the Great'.

King Alfred and the Danes

King Alfred ruled from 871-899 and after many trials and tribulations (including the famous story of the burning of the cakes!) he defeated the Vikings at the Battle of Edington in 878. After the battle the Viking leader Guthrum converted to Christianity. In 886 Alfred took London from the Vikings and fortified it. The same year he signed a treaty with Guthrum. The treaty partitioned England between Vikings and English. The Viking territory became known as the Danelaw. It comprised the north-west, the north-east and east of England. Here, people would be subject to Danish laws. Alfred became king of the rest.

Alfred's grandson, Athelstan, became the first true King of England. He led an English victory over the Vikings at the Battle of Brunaburh in 937, and his kingdom for the first time included the Danelaw. In 954, Eirik Bloodaxe, the last Viking king of York, was killed and his kingdom was taken over by English earls. See Egils Saga.

Later Viking raids and rulers

However, the Viking raiding did not stop – different Viking bands made regular raiding voyages around the coasts of Britain for over 300 years after 793. In 991, during the reign of Æthelred 'the Unready' ('ill-advised'), Olaf Tryggvason's Viking raiding party defeated the Anglo-Saxon defenders (recorded in the poem The Battle of Maldon), with Æthelred responding by paying 'Danegeld' in an attempt to buy off the Vikings.

So the Vikings were not permanently defeated – England was to have four Viking kings between 1013 and 1042. The greatest of these was King Cnut, who was king of Denmark as well as of England. A Christian, he did not force the English to obey Danish law;

instead he recognised Anglo-Saxon law and customs. He worked to create a north Atlantic empire that united Scandinavia and Britain. Unfortunately, he died at the age of 39, and his sons had short, troubled reigns.

The final Viking invasion of England came in 1066, when Harald Hardrada sailed up the River Humber and marched to Stamford Bridge with his men. His battle banner was called Land-waster. The English king, Harold Godwinson, marched north with his army and defeated Hardrada in a long and bloody battle. The English had repelled the last invasion from Scandinavia.

However, immediately after the battle, King Harold heard that William of Normandy had landed in Kent with yet another invading army. With no time to rest, Harold's army marched swiftly back south to meet this new threat. The exhausted English army fought the Normans at the Battle of Hastings on 14th October, 1066. At the end of a long day's fighting the Normans had won, King Harold was dead, and William was the new king of England.

The irony is that William was of Viking descent: his great-great-great-grandfather Rollo was a Viking who in 911 had invaded Normandy in northern France. His people had become French over time, but in one sense this final successful invasion of England was another Viking one.

1. Find the answers in the text:

1) What does the word “Viking” mean in Old Norse?
2) What countries did the Vikings settle during the Viking Age?
3) What land did the Vikings originally call home?
4) How did the Anglo-Saxon writers call them?
5) Who defeated the Vikings at the Battle of Edington?
6) Which Viking leader agreed the Treaty of Wedmore with King Alfred?
7) Who became the first true King of England?
8) Which King of Wessex was “Great”?
9) Was Wessex conquered by the Vikings?
10) When was the last Viking raid on England?

2. Watch the video about the days of the week in the Old England and answer the questions:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4aEsu3EU88k

1) Where do the names of the days of the week come from?

2) How many days of the week are named after Norse gods?

3) Which the English days of the week are named after the Sun and the Moon?

4) All of the names for the days of the week come from Southern European mythology. True or false?

5) Just one day of the week is named after a female. Which day is that?

6) Who is the god of thunder?

3. Write a paragraph "Who were the Vikings?" (7 - 10 sentences).

4. Watch the video about military clashes between the Vikings and Alfred the Great:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QJYH8KenqZs

The following links can help your answer the questions:

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/historic_figures/alfred_the_great.shtml

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/historic_figures/alfred_the_great-viking-fighter-and-father-of-england

1) make outlines about its history;

2) make a list of historic realia and explain them.

5. Test your knowledge. Decide whether each statement is true or false.

1) The Vikings came from France.

a) True

b) False

2) The Vikings first visited Britain to form communities there.

a) True

b) False

3) The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in England united to fight against the Vikings.

a) True

b) False

4) Some places in the UK, such as Grimsby and Scunthorpe, have “Dane” names.

a) True

b) False

5) Some of the Vikings who settled in England changed their religion.

a) True

b) False

6) The Viking territory became known as the Danelaw.

a) True

b) False

7) Alfred signed a treaty with Guthrum. The treaty divided England between Vikings and English.

a) True

b) False

8) In Ireland, the Vikings raided around the coasts and up the rivers. They founded the cities of Dublin, Cork and Limerick as their strongholds.

a) True

b) False

Check your knowledge online: https://learningapps.org/display?v=pye7t4sin20

UNIT 7

Who Was William the Conqueror?

At the age of eight, William the Conqueror became duke of Normandy and later King of England. Violence plagued his early reign, but with the help of King Henry I of France, William managed to survive the early years. After the Battle of Hastings, in 1066, he was crowned king of England. He never spoke English and was illiterate, but he had more influence on the evolution of the English language then anyone before or since. William ruled England until his death, on September 9, 1087, in Rouen, France.

He was born circa 1028 in Falaise, Normandy, France, William the Conqueror was an illegitimate child of Robert I, duke of Normandy, who died in 1035 while returning from a pilgrimage to Jerusalem.

Although he never spoke English and was illiterate, he had more influence on the evolution of the English language than anyone before or since — adding a slew of French and Latin words to the English dictionary. The introduction of skilled Norman

administrators may be largely responsible for eventually making England the most powerful government in Europe.

Battle for the Throne

King Henry I of France knighted William, still in his teens, in 1042. Taking a new stand on political events, William finally gained firm control of his duchy (although his enemies commonly referred to him as "The Bastard" due to his illegitimate birth). By 1064 he had conquered and won two neighboring provinces — Brittany and Maine. In the meantime, the childless king of England — Edward the Confessor, whose mother was a sister of William's grandfather — promised William succession to the English throne.

Harold Godwin

However, when Edward died in 1066, his brother-in-law and most powerful of the English lords, Harold Godwin, claimed the throne of England for himself (despite an oath he made to William to support his claim). The Witan, a council of English lords that commonly took part in deciding succession, supported Harold. William, angered by the betrayal, decided to invade England and enforce his claim.

William assembled a fleet and an army on the French coast, but due to strong north winds, their advance was delayed for several weeks. In the meantime, the Norwegian army invaded England from the North Sea. Harold, who had been preparing for William's invasion from the south, rapidly moved his army north to defend England from Norway. After defeating the Norwegians, Harold unwisely marched his troops back down to meet William, without a rest.

Battle of Hastings

On October 14, 1066, the two armies met in the famous Battle of Hastings. King Harold and his two brothers were killed in the battle, and since no one of stature remained to raise a new army, William's path to the throne was clear. He was crowned king of England on Christmas Day.

There were several revolts in the next five years, which William used as an excuse to confiscate English land and declare it his personal property. He then distributed the land to his Norman followers, who imposed their unique feudal system. Eventually, Normans replaced the entire Anglo-Saxon aristocracy. William, however, retained most of England's institutions and was intensely interested in learning about his new property. He ordered a detailed census to be made of the population and property of England — which was compiled in The Domesday Book (now an invaluable source of historical information and still in the Public Record Office in London).

Tumultuous Early Years.

At only eight years of age, William became the new duke of Normandy. Violence and corruption plagued his early reign, as the feudal barons fought for control of his fragile dukedom. A few of William's guards died and his teacher was murdered during a period of severe anarchy. With the help of King Henry I of France, William managed to survive the early years.

1. Find the answers in the text:

1) Who won the Battle of Hastings?

2) Who was the leader of the Saxons?

3) What tactics did the Saxons use?

4) How long did the battle take?

5) What year did the Norman Conquest take place?

6) Who was the King of England at the start of the year of the Norman Conquest?

7) What did Harold promise Willam?

2. Watch the video about William the Conquer:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gItfGVaRnZo

a) make a list of historic realia and explain them;

c) write a brief essay “Why is William called the Conquer” (300 words).

3. Describe the reign of one of the sons of William the Conqueror (5-7 sentences). The following link can help you: https://infopedia.su/8xb2e8.html

4. Choose one of the historic events and prepare a presentation (10-12 slides).

Use the following links:

https://www.wonders-of-the-world.net/Tower-of-London/William-the-Conqueror.php

https://spartacus-educational.com/MEDwilliam1.htm

https://www.thefamouspeople.com/profiles/william-the-conqueror-6446.php

https://www.royal.uk/william-the-conqueror

1) William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy

2) The Domesday Book

3) The death of William the Conqueror

5. Test your knowledge, then check your answers online (https://learningapps.org/display?v=pfbe33puj20):

1) William the Conqueror fought against King Harold to become the king of England.

a) True

b) False

2) The Bayeux Tapestry was made to remember and pay homage to the Battle of Hastings.

a) True

b) False

3) No other country has successfully taken over Britain since the Norman Conquest.

a) True

b) False

4) The life in Britain did not change when William the Conqueror became king.

a) True

b) False

5) William I never spoke English and was illiterate, but he had more influence on the evolution of the English language.

a) True

b) False

6) The childless king of England — Edward the Confessor, whose mother was a sister of William's grandfather — promised William succession to the English throne.

a) True

b) False

7) On January 14, 1066, the two armies met in the famous Battle of Hastings.

a) True

b) False

8) William ruled England until his death, on September 9, 1094, in Rouen, France.

a) True

b) False

9) In Domesday Book there was an invaluable source of historic information.

a) True

b) False

UNIT 8

11 Fascinating Facts About the War of the Roses

1. THE WAR OF THE ROSES STARTED IN 1455 AND LASTED UNTIL APPROXIMATELY 1485.

The War of the Roses wasn't one long, continuous conflict; it was a series of minor wars and civil skirmishes interrupted by long periods that were mostly peaceful, if politically tense (which is why it's frequently referred to as the Wars of the Roses, rather than the singular War). After the opening battle—the First Battle of St. Albans—broke out on May 22, 1455, there wasn't another major showdown until the Battle of Blore Heath erupted four years later. And the years between 1471 and 1483 were a time of relative peace in England. Things did heat back up in 1483, as the Yorkist ruler Richard III began clashing with Henry Tudor, an exiled Lancaster nobleman. Tudor prevailed over his foe at the Battle of Bosworth Field in 1485 and then took the crown as King Henry VII. Two years later, in 1487, the Battle of Stoke Field essentially ended the Yorkist cause, which some consider to be the true end of the War of the Roses.

2. THE WAR OF THE ROSES WAS INITIALLY KNOWN AS “THE COUSINS' WAR”.

The conflicts didn't come to be called the "Wars of the Roses" until long after the actual fighting stopped. Throughout the 15th century, the House of York used white roses as an emblem, and by 1485, the House of Lancaster had become associated with red roses. In the 1560s, a British diplomat discussed "the striving of the two roses." William Shakespeare baked the convenient symbolism into his play, Henry VI, Part I, (which was most likely written in the 1590s). Later, a 1646 pamphlet called the medieval York/Lancaster struggle "The Quarrel of the Warring Roses." Then David Hume's 1762 History of England popularized the term "Wars Between the Two Roses." From labels like these, the now-ubiquitous "War of the Roses" phrase evolved.

3.THE WAR OF THE ROSES WAS CAUSED BY A STRUGGLE BETWEEN A DEPOSED KING HENRY VI AND HIS COUSIN RICHARD, THE DUKE OF YORK.

After England lost virtually all of its French holdings in 1453, King Henry VI suffered a mental breakdown. The Lancastrian monarch seemingly lost his ability to speak, walk unassisted, or even hold up his own head. (What happened is unclear; some suggest that he was stricken by a depressive stupor or catatonic schizophrenia.)

Henry VI clearly wasn't fit to rule, so his cousin Richard, the Duke of York, was appointed Lord Protector and Defender of England in his stead. York's political muscle unraveled when Henry VI recovered on Christmas Day 1454; his desire to regain power set the stage for the First Battle of St. Albans a few months later.

4. AFTER BEING KILLED DURING ONE BATTLE IN THE WAR OF THE ROSES, THE DUKE OF YORK HAD A FAKE CROWN PLACED UPON HIS SEVERED HEAD.

During the May 1455 battle at St. Albans, York met and defeated Henry VI's Royal Army with a superior force of 3000 men. In the aftermath, the king was forced to restore York as England's Lord Protector—but York didn't hold the job for long. After some violent clashes against the supporters of Henry VI's biological son (with whom the Duke was a rival for the throne), York died at the Battle of Wakefield in 1460. As a final insult, his disembodied head

was mounted on Micklegate Bar in the city of York—and decorated with a phony crown made of paper (or possibly reeds).

5. POPE PIUS II TRIED AND FAILED TO EASE POLITICAL TENSIONS DURING THE WAR OF THE ROSES.

The Pope wanted to enlist King Henry VI as an ally in a potential crusade against the Ottomans. Unfortunately for His Holiness, the War of the Roses was keeping Henry plenty busy at the time. So in 1459, Pius II sent clergyman Francesco Coppini to England with instructions to ask for the king's support—and if possible, negotiate peace between Houses York and Lancaster. Instead, Coppini became a Yorkist sympathizer who vocally denounced the Lancastrian cause.

6. EARLY GUNS WERE USED IN SOME BATTLES OF THE WAR OF THE ROSES.

Swords and arrows weren't the only weapons deployed during the War of the Roses. At archaeological sites dating back to the 1461 Battle of Towton (a Yorkist victory), broken pieces of early handheld guns have been recovered. It's suspected that the devices would have blown themselves apart when fired, making them dangerous to wield. Regardless, primitive guns also saw use at the 1485 Battle of Bosworth.

7. AFTER DEFEATING HENRY VI, KING EDWARD IV WAS BETRAYED BY A FORMER ALLY—AND HIS OWN SIBLING.

Edward, one of the sons of the slain Duke of York, deposed Henry VI in 1461 to become King Edward IV. One of the men who helped him do so was Richard Neville, the Earl of Warwick. But the earl soon had a falling out with the new king and, in 1470, Warwick helped put Henry VI back on the throne after teaming up with Queen Margaret of Anjou and George, the Duke of Clarence (who was also Edward IV's brother). The Yorkist king went into exile, but he returned with a vengeance in 1471.

Despite their rocky past, the two brothers reconciled and worked together to overcome the Warwick-led Lancastrian forces at the Battle of Barnet. This victory, and a later triumph

over Queen Margaret's men, enabled King Edward IV to regain the crown. (Sadly, in the end things didn't work out for the Duke of Clarence—he was executed for treason in 1478.)

8. EDWARD IV'S WIFE, ELIZABETH WOODVILLE, TOOK SANCTUARY IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY TWICE TO ESCAPE ENEMIES DURING THE WAR OF THE ROSES.

One reason why Warwick soured on King Edward IV was because he didn't approve of the young ruler's chosen spouse. In 1464, Edward IV married Elizabeth Woodville, a widowed mother of two who was five years his senior (and whose first marriage had been to a Lancastrian knight). From October 1, 1470 to April 11, 1471, during Edward's exile, Elizabeth and her daughters holed themselves up in Westminster Abbey, where they declared sanctuary. During her stay, she gave birth to a son, Edward V. Elizabeth would return to the Abbey for another prolonged stay that began in 1483. Edward IV had died earlier that year, and by taking sanctuary in the Abbey once again, Elizabeth was now looking to protect herself and her children from a man she deeply mistrusted: the late king's younger brother, Richard, the Duke of Gloucester.

9. TWO YOUNG PRINCES DISAPPEARED DURING THE WAR OF THE ROSES.

In the wake of King Edward IV's death, the Duke of Gloucester—who'd been a high-ranking Yorkist commander at the Battle of Tewkesbury—was named Protector of England. Then on July 6, 1483, he was crowned as King Richard III. His claim to the throne was not uncontested: Edward IV had two sons, aged 12 and 9, who were staying in the Tower of London at the time. No one knows what happened to the boys; they were last seen alive in the summer of 1483. King Richard III is frequently accused of having the boys murdered, though some suspect that they were killed by another ambitious royal, Henry Tudor. It's also possible that the boys fled.

10. HENRY TUDOR ENDED THE WAR OF THE ROSES THROUGH MARRIAGE.

After his forces defeated Richard III's at the Battle of Bosworth in 1485, Henry Tudor was crowned Henry VII—some say at the exact spot where Richard III was killed.

After he was officially crowned, Henry VII wed Elizabeth of York, King Edward IV's daughter, in 1486.

This marriage is part of the reason Houses Lancaster and York are synonymous with roses today, though both used many non-floral emblems (loyalists of Queen Margaret of Anjou, wife of King Henry VI, identified themselves by wearing swan badges, for example, and Yorkist Richard III made a white boar his personal logo). After his marriage to Elizabeth of York, Henry VII was able to portray himself as the grand unifier of two enemy houses. To symbolize this, he introduced a new emblem: A white flower with red trim called the "Tudor Rose."

11. RICHARD III'S BODY WAS FOUND UNDER A PARKING LOT IN 2012.

Richard III was not destined to rest in peace. In the centuries following the Battle of Bosworth, the dead king's body went missing. In 2012, an archaeological team rediscovered the former king's remains beneath a parking lot in Leicester, England. DNA testing helped confirm their identity. Richard III's well-documented scoliosis was clearly visible in the spinal column, and it was concluded that he had died of a blow to the skull. The much-maligned ruler was given a ceremonious reburial at Leicester Cathedral in 2015.

1. **Find the answers in the text:**
   1) Was War of the Roses one long conflict? When did it begin?
   2) What was the reason for war?
   3) What did Pope Pius plan and fail to do?
   4) Who betrayed Edward IV after he defeated Henry VI?
   5) What happened to Edward's IV sons during the War of the Roses?

2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**
   civil skirmish, to give a ceremonious reburial, a claim to the throne, to suffer a mental breakdown, to prevail over one's foe, ally in a potential crusade, to regain the crown.

3. **Match the participants of the War of the Roses with their descriptions:**

1) Edward IV	succeeded in ending the Wars of the Roses between the houses of Lancaster and York and founded the Tudor dynasty.
2) Margaret of Anjou	After Edward's death, dislike of her and her court facilitated the usurpation of power by Richard Plantagenet, duke of Gloucester.
3) Richard III	is called "the Kingmaker," in reference to his role as arbiter of royal power during the first half of the Wars of the Roses (1455–85).
4) Henry VI	king of England from 1461 until October 1470 and again from April 1471 until his death in 1483. He was a leading participant in the Yorkist-Lancastrian conflict known as the Wars of the Roses.
5) Elizabeth Woodville	a leader of the Lancastrians in the Wars of the Roses; strong-willed and ambitious.
6) Richard Neville	a pious recluse whose incapacity for government was one of the causes of the Wars of the Roses.
7) Henry VII	For almost 500 years after his death, he was generally depicted as the worst and most wicked of kings, is frequently accused of having the two princes murdered.

4. **Choose one prominent personality mentioned in task 3 and prepare a presentation of 10-12 slides.**

5. **Check your knowledge of the War of the Roses:**
   https://www.tolearnenglish.com/exercises/exercise-english-2/exercise-english-51555.php
   https://www.ducksters.com/history/middle_ages/wars_of_the_roses_questions.php

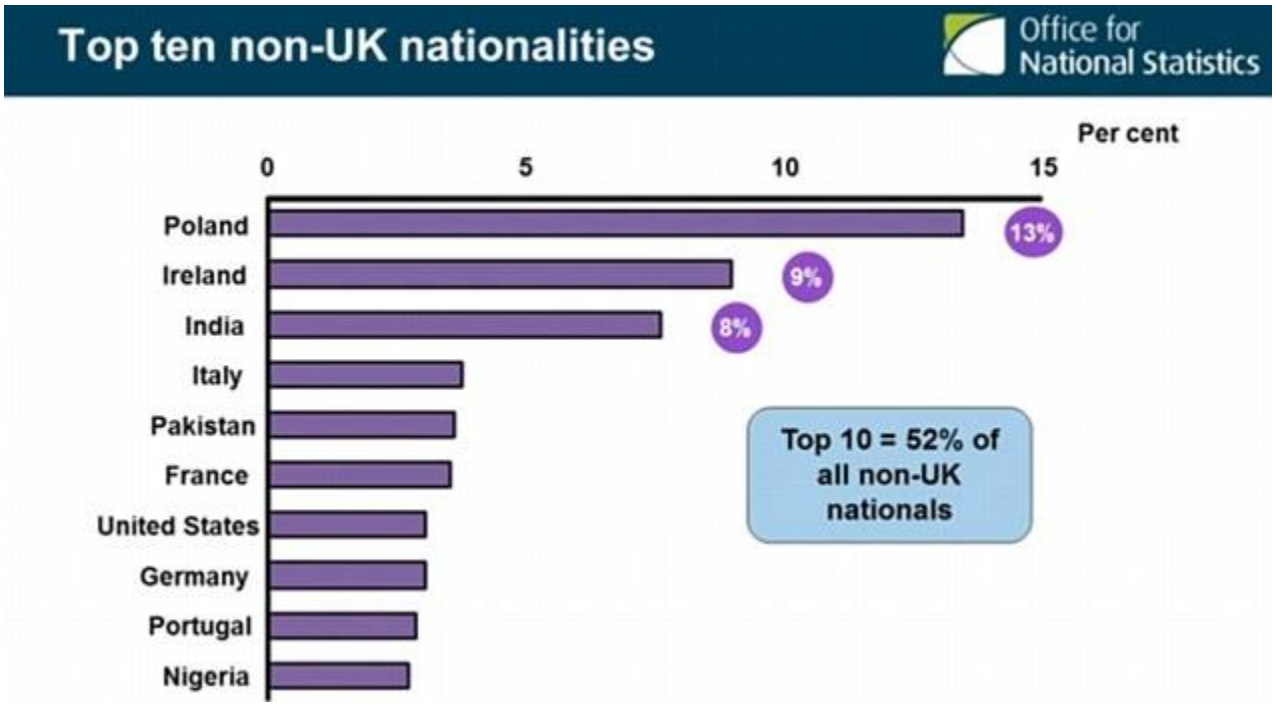
Module 2. Regional and social dialect of the English language.

Socio-cultural life of Great Britain.

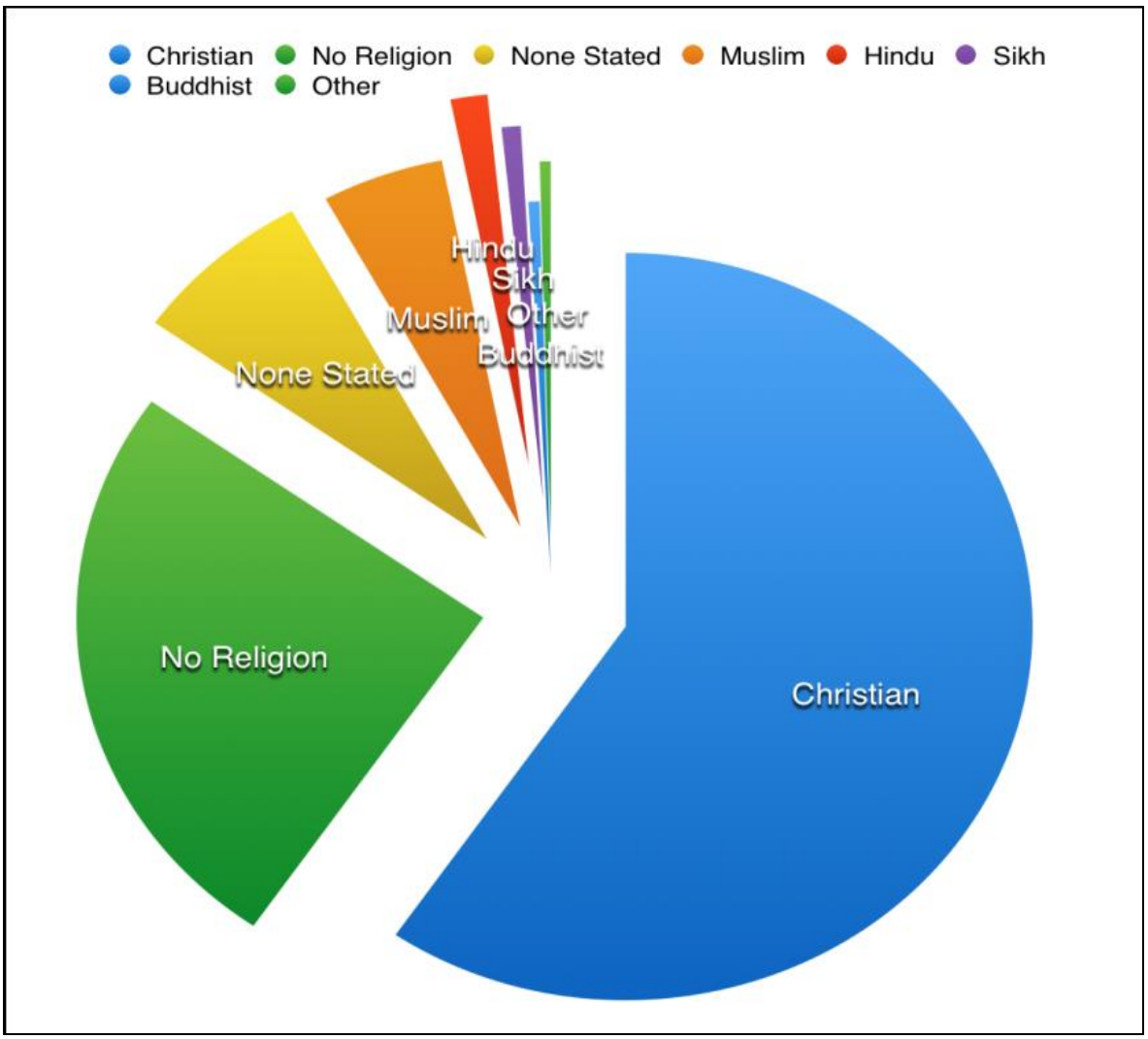
UNIT 9

Population of Great Britain

Great Britain is the fourth most populous country in Europe. People of English origin constitute about 50% of the nation's inhabitants. The Scots make up 8%, and there are smaller groups of Welsh (about 4.5%) and Irish (2.7%). Great Britain's population has shown increasing ethnic diversity since the 1970s, when people from the West Indies, India, Pakistan, Africa, and China began immigrating; in the 21st century these groups accounted for more than 10% of the population. There is also a significant number of Poles, who arrived after Poland joined the European Union. English is the universal language of Great Britain. In addition, about a quarter of the inhabitants of Wales speak Welsh and there are about 60,000 of the Scots, which speak Gaelic in Scotland.



The Church of England, also called the Anglican Church, is the officially established church in England (it was disestablished in Wales in 1914); the monarch is its supreme governor. The Presbyterian Church of Scotland is legally established in Scotland. There is complete religious freedom throughout Great Britain. By far the greatest number of Britons (some 27 million) is Anglicans, followed by Roman Catholics and other Christians. Muslims are the next biggest religious group and have grown in the last decade. There are also smaller minorities of Hindus, Jews, and Buddhists.



Who are the British people?

Britain is somehow difficult country to understand. For tourists, British life, traditions and customs are weird. What is life like for ordinary people in Britain? How are things changing during the last decades?

British people live in the UK. They are people who live in England, Scotland, Wales or Northern Ireland. British people can also be either the English, the Scots, the Welsh, or the Irish (from Northern Ireland only).

The British are said to be reserved in manners, dress and speech. They are famous for their politeness, self-discipline and especially for their sense of humor. British people have a strong sense of humor, which sometimes can be hard for foreigners to understand.

- *What is the longest word in the English language? – "Smiles". Because there is a mile between its first and last letters!*
- *What's the definition of a pessimist? – A pessimist is a well-informed optimist.*
- *Do you have any grandchildren? – No, all my children are just ordinary.*

Britain is a country of mixed cultures. London has the largest non-white population of any European city and over 250 languages are spoken there. Therefore not all British people are White or Christians.

Ethnic identity: the native British national (“ethnic”) loyalties can be strong among the people in Britain whose ancestors were not English. For some people living in England who call themselves the Scots, the Welsh or the Irish, this loyalty is little more than a matter of emotional attachment.

For people living in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, the way that ethnic identity commonly expresses itself varies. People in Scotland have constant reminders of their distinctiveness. First, several important aspects of public life are organized separately and differently, from the rest of Britain — notably, education, law and religion.

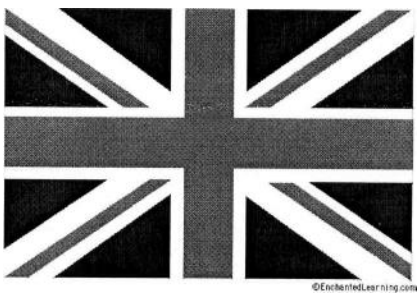
Second, the Scottish way of speaking English is very distinctive. A modern form of the dialect known as "Scots" is spoken in everyday life by most of the working classes in the

lowlands. It has many features, which are different from other forms of English and cannot usually be understood by people who are not Scottish. Third, there are many symbols of Scottishness, which are well-known throughout Britain. The people of Wales do not have as many reminders of their Welshness in everyday life. The organization of public life is similar to that in England. A large minority of the people in Wales probably do not consider themselves to be especially Welsh at all. In the nineteenth century large numbers of Scottish, Irish and English people went to find work there, and today many English people still make their homes in Wales or have holiday houses there.

However, there is one single highly-important symbol of Welsh identity — the Welsh language. Everybody in Wales can speak English, but it is not everybody's first language. For about 20% of the population (that's more than half a million people), the mother-language is Welsh. In comparison to the other small minority languages of Europe, Welsh shows signs of continued vitality. Thanks to successive campaigns, the language receives a lot of public support. The question of identity in Northern Ireland is a complex issue.

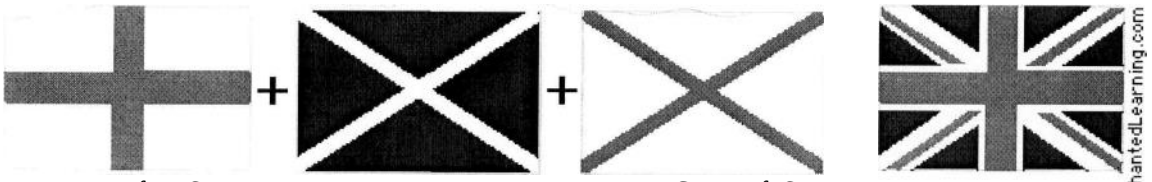
As for English identity, most people who describe themselves as English usually make no distinction in their minds between "English" and "British". There is plenty of evidence of this. For example, at international football or rugby matches, when the players stand to attention to hear their national anthems, the Scots, Irish and Welsh have their own songs, while the English one is just "God Save the Queen" — the same as the British national anthem.

The Flag of the United Kingdom



The flag of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is sometimes called the Union Jack. This red, white, and blue flag was first used in 1801.

The flag of the UK is a combination of the flags of England (the cross of St. George), Scotland (the cross of St. Andrew), and Ireland (the cross of St. Patrick).



Cross of St. George (England) | Cross of St. Andrew (Scotland) | Cross of St. Patrick (Ireland) | Union Jack (United Kingdom)

British Coat of Arms

1. National Flags

The flag of England. The St George's Cross is a red cross on a white background. It is the national flag of England.

It is believed to have been adopted for the uniform of English soldiers during the Crusades of the eleventh, twelfth and thirteenth centuries. From about 1277 it officially became the national flag of England.

After the union of England with Scotland a combined British flag was created in 1606, initially for maritime display; however, the flag of England (as opposed to the United Kingdom) remains St George's Cross, and continues to be used when showing allegiance to England alone. Nowadays this is primarily done at events such as international football and rugby union competitions.

Saint George is the patron saint of England and various other countries and regions. The St George Cross is also the symbol of Milan, Genoa, Bologna, and used, for example, in the flag of the city of Barcelona in Spain, and it appears on the flag of Georgia. The flag of St George is also the rank flag of an Admiral in the Royal Navy, and civilian craft are forbidden to fly it.

Proportions The flag consists of a red cross on a white field with the cross having a width of 1/5 of the height of the flag. The flag proportion is 5:3.

The flag of England was incorporated into what is now the Union Flag.

When the Kingdom of England and the Kingdom of Scotland were united in a personal union under James, the Cross of Saint George was combined with the Cross of St. Andrew (representing Scotland) to form the original Union Flag (or "Union Jack"). This flag later became the national flag of the Kingdom of Great Britain, and was combined with the flag of St. Patrick (representing Ireland) in 1801, producing the Union Flag of the United Kingdom.

Flag of Scotland The Saltire, the flag of Scotland, is a white saltire with an official "Pantone 300" coloured Held.

The flag of Scotland features a white saltire, a crux decussata (X-shaped cross) representing the cross of the Christian martyr Saint Andrew, the patron

saint of Scotland, on a blue field. It is named the Saltire or the Saint Andrew's Cross.

The flag of Scotland is one of the oldest flags in the world, traditionally dating back to the 9th century, and is the oldest national flag still in modern use.

At various times colours as light as sky blue or as dark as dark navy blue have been used (a selection apparently motivated by which colour of blue dye was available at the time). Recent versions, however, have largely converged on the official recommendation of Pantone 300.

The flag proportion is not fixed, but is generally taken as 5:3 or 3:2, the former being preferred. The cross should have a width of 1/5 (i.e., 20%) of the height of the flag side.

The flag of Northern Ireland. Northern Ireland has not had its own unique government sanctioned flag since 1972, when its government was prorogued. Due to the division of the population along religious and political lines, a wide variety of flags can be seen flying from lampposts and private houses across Northern Ireland.

The flag of Wales. The national flag of Wales is The Red Dragon (Welsh: Y Ddraig Goch). It consists of a red dragon, passant, on a green and white field. As with any heraldic charge, the exact representation of the dragon is not standardised and many different interpretations exist.

The flag was granted official status in 1959, but the red dragon itself has been associated with Wales for centuries; indeed, the flag is sometimes claimed to be the oldest national flag still in use, though the origin of the adoption of the dragon symbol is now lost in history and myth. A plausible theory is that the Romans brought the emblem to what is now Wales during their occupation of Britain in the form of the Draco standards borne by the Roman cavalry, but it could be even older. The green and white stripes of the flag were additions by the House of Tudor, the Welsh dynasty that held the English throne from 1485 to 1603. Green and white are also the colours of the leek, another national emblem of Wales.

The oldest recorded use of the dragon to symbolise Wales is from the Historia Brittonum, written around 830, but it is popularly supposed to have been the battle standard of Arthur and other ancient Celtic leaders. It is particularly associated in Welsh poetry with Cadwaladr king of Gwynedd from c.655 to 682.

Many legends are associated with the Welsh dragon. The most famous is the prophecy of Myrddin (or Merlin) of a long fight between a red dragon and a white dragon. According to the prophecy, the white dragon would at first dominate but eventually the red dragon would win, this eventual victory and recapturing of Lloegr would be, according to Welsh legend, brought about by Y Mab Darogan. This is believed to represent the conflict in the 5th and 6th centuries between the British Celts (who later became the Welsh) and the invading Saxons.

The Welsh Flag is the only flag of the constituent countries of the UK not to be used in the Union Jack. Wales had no explicit recognition in the flag because Wales had been annexed by Edward I of England in 1282, and since the Laws in Wales Acts 1535-1542 was considered to be a part of the Kingdom of England. There have since been proposals to include the Dragon or the flag of Saint David (itself a cross) on the Union Jack but these have never met with much support.

The Union Flag. The flag of the UK, known as the Union Jack, is made up of three crosses. The upright red cross on a white ground is the cross of St. George, the patron saint of England. The white diagonal cross on a blue ground is the cross of St. Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland. St. Andrew's cross was joined to the English Flag after Scotland was joined to England and Wales in 1606. The red diagonal cross on a white ground is the cross of St. Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland. The Irish flag was added after Ireland was joined to the Union of England, Scotland and Wales in 1801. Wales is not represented in the Union Flag because when the first version of the flag appeared Wales was already united with England. The national flag of Wales is a red dragon on a field of white and green. It dates from the fifteenth century.

Name of the flag. The first use of the name 'Union' appears in 1625. There are various theories as to how it became known as the 'Union Jack', but most of

the evidence points to the name being derived from the use of the word 'jack' as a diminutive. This word was in use before 1600 to describe a small flag flown from the small mast mounted on the bowsprit, and by 1627 it appears that a small version of the Union flag was commonly flown in this position. For some years it was called just 'the Jack', or 'Jack flag', or 'the King's Jack', but by 1674, while formally referred to as 'His Majesty's Jack', it was commonly called the Union Jack, and this was officially acknowledged.

In the 18th century the small mast on the bowsprit was replaced by staysails on the stays between the bowsprit and the foremast. By this time the Ensign had become the principal naval distinguishing flag, so it became the practice to fly the Union Jack only in harbour, on a specially rigged staff in the bows of the ships, the jackstaff. It should thus be noted that the jack flag had existed for over a hundred and fifty years before the jack staff came into being, and its name was related to its size rather than to the position in which it was flown.

It is often stated that the Union Flag should only be described as the Union Jack when flown in the bows of a warship, but this is a relatively recent idea. From early in its life the Admiralty itself frequently referred to the flag as the Union Jack, whatever its use, and in 1902 an Admiralty Circular announced that Their Lordships had decided that either name could be used officially. Such use was given parliamentary approval in 1908 when it was stated that "the Union Jack should be regarded as the National flag".

2. The Royal Coat-of-Arms.

Since 1837 the royal coat-of- arms has depicted a shield with the three English lions, the Scottish lions and the Irish harp, surrounded by the Ribbon of the Order of the Garter with its motto: "Evil be to him who evil thinks". The shield is supported by an English lion and the Scottish unicorn; standing on a field with the emblems of England. Scotland and Ireland, below this is the royal motto "God and my right".

Royal coat of arms of the United Kingdom

The Royal Coat of Arms of the United Kingdom is the official coat of arms of the British monarch, currently Queen Elizabeth II. These arms are used by the Queen in her official capacity as monarch, and are officially known as her Arms of Dominion. Variants of the Royal Arms are used by other members of the Royal Family; and by the British Government in connection with the administration and government of the country. In Scotland, the Queen has a separate version of the Royal Arms, a variant of which is used by the Scottish Executive.

Features The shield is quartered, depicting in the first and fourth quarters the three lions passant guardant of England; in the second, the rampant lion and double tressure fleury-counter-fleury of Scotland; and in the third, a harp for Ireland.

The crest is a lion statant guardant wearing the imperial crown, itself on another representation of that crown.

The dexter supporter is a likewise crowned lion, symbolizing England; the sinister, a unicorn, symbolising Scotland. According to legend a free unicorn was considered a very dangerous beast; therefore the British heraldic unicorn is chained.

The coat features both the motto of British monarchs *Dieu et mon droit* (God and my right) and the motto of the Order of the Garter, *Honi soit qui mal y pense* (Shamed be he who thinks ill of it) on a representation of the Garter behind the shield.

3. The British National Anthem

The National Anthem is God Save the Queen. The British National Anthem originated in a patriotic song first performed in 1745. It became known as the National Anthem from the beginning of the nineteenth century.

On official occasions, only the first verse is usually sung, as follows:

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.

An additional verse is occasionally sung:

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

The British National Anthem represents the whole of the UK. However, Wales and Scotland have other songs which they sing, especially when playing against England in sport matches.

Wales - Hen Wlad Fy Nhadau (Land Of My Fathers)

Scotland - Flower of Scotland and Scotland the Brave

England too has its own song or songs. William Blake's *Jerusalem* and *Swing Low, Sweet Chariot* are often sung. Another popular song is *Land of Hope and Glory*, which was sung at the first England match of the 2006 Six Nations.

The full version of the National Anthem is:

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 Queen!

4. Not in this land alone,
But be God's mercies known,
From shore to shore!
Lord make the nations see,
That men should brothers be,

And form one family,
The wide world over.
5. From every latent foe,
From the assassins blow,
God save the Queen!
O'er her thine arm extend,
For Britain's sake defend,
Our mother, prince, and friend,
God save the Queen!
6. Lord grant that Marshal Wade
May by thy mighty aid
Victory bring.
May he sedition hush,
And like a torrent rush,
Rebellious Scots to crush.
God save the Queen!

The Anthem of Wales

The Welsh National Anthem is *Land of my Fathers* (Hen Wlad Fy Nhadau). It was written by Evan James in 1856.

Land of my Fathers

The land of my fathers is dear unto me,
Old land where the minstrels are honoured and free:
Its warring defenders, so gallant and brave,
For freedom their life's blood they gave.
Land, Land, true am I to my Land,
While seas secure this land so pure,
O may our old language endure

The Anthem of Scotland

Flower of Scotland is played at rugby and football games. However, athletes celebrate medals with *Scotland the Brave*.

The song *Flower of Scotland* refers to the victory of the Scots, led by Robert the Bruce, over the English, under Edward II, at Bannockburn in 1314.

Flower of Scotland

(Written by Roy Williamson of folk group The Corries in the 1960.)

O Flower of Scotland,
When will we see

Your like again,
That fought and died for,
Your wee bit Hill and Glen,
And stood against him,
Proud Edward's army,
And sent him homeward,
Tae think again.
The hills are bare now,
And autumn leaves
lie thick and still,
O'er land that is lost now,
Which those so dearly held,
That stood against him,
Proud Edward's Army,
And sent him homeward,
Tae think again.
Those days are past now,
And in the past
they must remain,
But we can still rise now,
And be the nation again,
That stood against him,
Proud Edward's Army,
And sent him homeward,
Tae think again.
0 Flower of Scotland,
When will we see your like again,
That fought and died for,
Your wee bit Hill and Glen,
And stood against him,
Proud Edward's Army,
And sent him homeward,
Tae think again.

4. The National Symbols.

The red rose is the national emblem of England. It is connected with the history of the country. The Wars of the Roses were the wars between the representatives of two contending Houses struggling for the English throne - the Lancastrians and Yorkists. The red rose was the emblem of the Lancastrians, the white rose was that of the Yorkists. The rivalry between the Roses ended by the marriage of Henry VII, the Lancastrian, with Princess Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV, the Yorkist. Since those times the red rose has become the national emblem of England.

The thistle is the national emblem of Scotland. There is a curious legend that in ancient times the Norsemen once landed somewhere on the east coast of Scotland with the intention of settling in the country. The Scots assembled to protect their land and took their station behind the river Tay. As they arrived late in the day, weary and tired after a long march, they pitched the camp and rested, not expecting the enemy before the next day. The Norsemen, however, were near. They crossed the river and wanted to take the Scots by surprise and slaughter them in their sleep. They took off their shoes so as to make the least noise possible. But one of the Norsemen stepped on a thistle and screamed. The alarm was given in the Scots' camp. And for the timely and unexpected help from the thistle, the Scots took it as their national emblem.

Welshmen all over the world celebrate St. David's day by wearing either **leeks or daffodils**. The link between the leek and St. David is the belief that he is supposed to have lived for several years on bread and wild leeks. The daffodil is also associated with St. David’s Day, due to the belief that it flowers on that day.

What the red rose is to Englishmen and the leek to the Welsh, the little **shamrock** is to the Irish. A popular notion is that when preaching the doctrine of the Trinity to the pagan Irish St. Patrick used the shamrock, a small white clover bearing three leaves on the stem as an illustration of the mystery.

5. History of the name

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is an insular country situated on the British Isles, lying off the north-west coast of the continent of Europe. The British Isles are composed of about 4000 islands of different size. The largest of the British Isles is Great Britain which contains England, Wales and Scotland. The second largest island of the British Isles is Ireland. It is shared by two separate and independent states. The lager part of Ireland is the Republic of Ireland, an independent state with its capital in Dublin. Northern Ireland, which occupies north-eastern part of the island, remains a part of the United Kingdom with London as its capital.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is a highly centralized and unitary state — the country which has acquired this official name since 1922. The United Kingdom is an entity of more than 300 years old — the state which emerged from the union of the ancient separate kingdoms of England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland.

The formation of the United Kingdom took centuries and involved a lot of armed struggle and blood shedding. The union of England with Wales dates from 1301, when Edward I's son was announced the first Prince of Wales. But only in 1485 a Welsh Prince Henry Tudor became King (Henry VII) of England.
And it was his son Henry VIII who formally incorporated Wales in 1535 (the first Act of Union).

The union of England and Scotland dates from 1603 when King of Scotland James VI inherited the crown of England after the death of childless Elizabeth I. "Great Britain" was first officially used in 1604 when James I was proclaimed "King of Great Britain". Though England and Scotland were ruled by the same monarch they remained separate kingdoms with their own parliaments. Scotland and England joined in the Act of Union in 1707, their parliaments also being united. Since then the country and the island on which it is situated has been known as Great Britain or, officially, the United Kingdom of Great Britain.

Ireland used to be Britain's oldest colony, its conquering started as early as the 12th century. In 1155 King Henry II of England was made King of all Ireland by the

Pope of Rome. Though hard resistance never ceased and numerous revolts and rebellions were up and down from time to time, Irish legislature and parliament were abolished by the Act of Union in 1801. In the same year a new national flag — Union Jack — was established and the country's official name became the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. A new wave of national liberation movement in Ireland inspired by the October Revolution in Russia was quite a successful one. And in 1921-26 Irish counties withdrew from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland forming the Irish Free State (renamed to the Republic of Ireland in !949). Only 6 northern counties remained under British control thus giving addition to the official name of the country and making it the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Though that is the official name of the country it is often unofficially called the UK, Great Britain, Britain or England, as the largest part of Great Britain. It is sometimes also referred to by its old and romantic name — Albion.

1. Find the answers in the text:

1) What languages are spoken in Britain?
2) What are the biggest religious groups in Britain?
3) What are the most prominent features of the British character?
4) What was the country's official name in 1801?
5) What does the British flag consist of?

2. Use dictionaries to explain the following:

nation's inhabitants, populous, ethnic diversity, significant number, reserved in manners, , dress and speech, bowsprit, staysails, foremast, inherited the crown, thistle.

3. Watch the video about the population in Great Britain:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vMCaXvKKq_o

a) write down the causes of the population growth;
b) make a list of historic realia and explain them;

c) write an essay “The population of Great Britain” (400 words).

4. Choose one of the symbols of Britain, Scotland, Wales and Ireland and prepare a presentation (8-10 slides). The following links can help you:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_symbols_of_Wales

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_symbols_of_Scotland

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_symbols_of_England

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_symbols_of_Ireland,_the_Republic_of_Ireland_and_Northern_Ireland

5. Study the information related to demography of the United Kingdom and test your knowledge:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Demography_of_the_United_Kingdom

Decide if the statements are TRUE or FALSE

1. The first Census in 1801 revealed that the population of Great Britain was 10.5 million.

a) True

b) False

2. 2018 Population growth rate was 0.9%.

a) True

b) False

3. The United Kingdom's de facto official language is English which is spoken as a first language by 70% of the population.

a) True

b) False

4. After English, Polish was the second most common language given in the United Kingdom census 2011.

a) True

b) False

5. The majority of children are educated in private-sector schools.

a) True

b) False

6. The UK has some of the top universities in the world with Cambridge, Oxford and Imperial College ranked amongst the top 10 in the 2014–15 Times Higher Education World University Rankings.

a) True

b) False

7. The most recent UK Office for National Statistics' population estimates for mid-2016 suggest the median age of the UK population was 58 years.

a) True

b) False

8. The UK Office for National Statistics suggests that the UK population will continue to age.

a) True

b) False

Check your answers online:

https://learningapps.org/display?v=p33dqnav520

UNIT 10

The origins of Scouse

by Paul Coslett

Where does the Scouse accent come from? Is it always changing, and why does it even differ across the city and between people? How come we can't learn to talk proper?

A Scouse accent is instantly recognisable, marking out the speaker's origin in the same way that a Geordie or Cockney is immediately obvious. But where did the accent come from and what does the future hold as society becomes more and more homogenized? Will there even be Scouse accent in fifty years time?

Dockers had their own language

Speaking with a Scouse accent is a fairly recent trend, up until the mid 19th century Liverpudlians spoke pretty much the same as their Lancastrian neighbours, and traces of the warm Lancashire sound can still be heard in the accent of older residents. The Scouse accent like much else in the city owes its roots to Liverpool's position as a port. The melting pot created by the influx of people from far and wide was the foundation of the distinctive Scouse sound.

The major influence comes from the influx of Irish and Welsh into the city. The mixing of these different accents and dialects, joining with words and sayings picked up from global maritime arrivals, all fused together to create the unique Scouse sound. Every tide brought ashore a new imported verb and many stuck becoming part of everyday language.

Lennon and McCartney

However, Scouse is not king across all of Merseyside, St Helens residents have their own distinctive way of speaking, as do people in Widnes, while Southport and parts of Wirral have more refined versions of Scouse. But Scouse also reaches far and wide, down into parts of Cheshire and as far out as North Wales. Closer to home, areas of Liverpool have their own impenetrable language ‘backslang’ a linguistic ploy that splits words, rendering them incomprehensible to the uninitiated. When Dutch police tapped the phone of Liverpool drug baron Curtis Warren, officers from Merseyside Police conversant in backslang were called in to help translate the recorded phone conversations.

Like every city and locality Merseysiders have their own sayings, those printable include; thisavvy for this afternoon and hozzy for hospital. Almost like a theme park Liverpool has developed its own sense of self, baffling and confusing to the outsider. Being described as able to wind the Liver clock implies a degree of height greater than most. Police are the bizzies, while building site security is provided by the cocky watchman. Local landmarks take on their own designations, decipherable only to natives, the Metropolitan Cathedral is Paddy’s Wigwam, the Mersey Tunnel, the Mousehole, while the ornate Vines pub is simply The Big House.

Maritime arrivals added to the accent

The dockland working environment created its own tongue of sayings and nicknames, even the Overhead Railway serving the port had a nom de plume, The Dockers Umbrella. Football is in many ways the heartbeat of Liverpool and unsurprisingly numerous players have been given nicknames, from Everton's Gordon 'Mae' West to Liverpool's Barney Rubble (Alan Kennedy) and Crazy Horse (Emlyn Hughes). Anfield's Kopites in a similar way to the dockers, created their own sayings, many expressed in song.

The Scouse dialect is still developing, teenagers speak very differently to their grandparents, in part taking bits of Estuary English prevalent on television and radio, and in some ways mimicking the Brookside sound. Across the city various takes on Scouse can be heard, even Liverpool's most famous group spoke differing versions of their native tongue, Ringo's Dingle accent at odds with Paul and George's suburban Scouse and John's sharp nasal tones. Even foreign footballers aren't averse to picking up the local way of speaking, Danish midfielder Jan Molby being a perfect example.

1. **Answer the following questions:**

1) Where can the Scouse accent be heard?
2) What does the Scouse accent owe its roots to?
3) What does the phrase "able to wind the Liver clock" mean in the Scouse dialect?
4) What were the major influences on the Spouse dialect and accent?
5) What famous people speak the Scouse dialect?

2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**

homogenized, influx, fused, nasal tones, impenetrable, ploy, incomprehensible, tap, baffling, averse, Ringo's accent.

3. **Watch the presentation:**

file:///C:/учеба/Практика/scouse-101209040507-phpapp01.pdf **and the video:** https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=R_C4PDSfQJA**.**

Now write down the peculiarities of the Scouse dialect in terms of:

- pronunciation

- the most common words and phrases.

4. Find the English equivalents of the following Scouse words:

Thisavvy, hozzy, bizzies, dead chuffed, cakehole, scran, sunnies, Baltic.

5. Test your knowledge:

Decide if each of the statement is TRUE or FALSE

1) The Scouse is spoken in Liverpool

a) True

b) False

2) “Bizzies” means businessmen in the Scouse

a) True

b) False

3) The use of “me” instead of “my” is usual for the Scouse

a) True

b) False

4) The Scouse dialect is still developing, teenagers speak very differently to their grandparents.

   a) True

   b) False

5) “Thisavvy” means “this evening” in Scouse.

   a) True

   b) False

6) Backslang was invented in the 1830's by butchers and street vendors in Liverpool in order to talk about their clients and sell off low quality products without letting the customers taking notice about it.
   a) True
   b) False

Check your answers online: https://learningapps.org/display?v=pfsgf2b6t20

Now check how well you understand the Scouse dialect:

https://www.liverpoolecho.co.uk/news/nostalgia/quiz-things-scouse-nan-would-10585379

https://siliconhell.com/quiz-scouse-dialect-just-scousers-saying/

UNIT 11

Revealed: Why the Brummie accent is loved everywhere but Britain (and five other things you didn't know about British accents)

- The Birmingham accent sounds positively mellifluous to non-Britons
- Brummie and Geordie are also the most difficult dialects to learn
- Britain has more accents per square mile than any other country
- All of us have more than one accent and change it to please other people

By DAVID CRYSTAL and BEN CRYSTAL

It might come as a surprise to those struggling to comprehend accents from Glasgow, Newcastle or parts of London but the Birmingham accent really is the hardest one to get your tongue around.

But, say authors and language experts David and Ben Crystal, there are some bonuses in being from Birmingham.

While the accent might not be the most popular at home, it sounds positively mellifluous to those hailing from foreign climes.

Now the pair have penned a book in which they decode the mysteries of the British accent - and some of it is nothing short of eye-opening...

Baffling: The stars of BBC drama Peaky Blinders needed extra help to master the tricky Birmingham accent

Some accents are harder to imitate than others, and the Brummie accent is one of the hardest - but with some strong competition from Geordie.

Of course, difficulty is relative. It depends where you're coming from. A five-year-old growing up in Birmingham will have mastered the accent with no trouble at all.

But if you compare it to Received Pronunciation - the British prestige accent used by the Queen, and the traditional voice of the BBC - it's easy to see why Brummie is felt to be tricky.

When you notice a regional accent, what you're chiefly noticing are the way people pronounce their long vowels (in words like see, saw, and sue) and diphthongs (in words like say, so, sow, soy, and sigh).

Popular abroad: Birmingham accents like Ozzy Osbourne's are loved by non-Britons

Appreciated: Those who boast the mellifluous tones of Cat Deeley will find a warm welcome in the US and elsewhere

Appreciated: As Ozzy Osbourne and Cat Deeley have found, the Brummie accent gets a big welcome abroad

English has quite a few of these, and the more an accent sounds them differently from the way you speak, the more difficulty you'll have in 'picking up' that accent.

Some accents will be very close to your own, so you would have only a few features to learn. But Birmingham and Geordie are two that - compared with Received Pronunciation - have lots of really noticeable differences, such as these three:

- The diphthong in words like float has a much more open onset, so that it sounds more like RP flout.
- The diphthong in words like nice begins with a back and rounded quality, so that it sounds like ‘noice’.

- The diphthong in words like loud begins with a front and higher quality, so that it sounds more like ‘le-ood’.

No wonder actress Helen McCrory looked for help while working on the first series of Peaky Blinders, asking a Birmingham-born actress for guidance about her accent.

1. Read the article and do “true or false” test.

1) Birmingham accent is easy to imitate by foreigners but British find it very difficult.
   a) True
   b) False
2) Birmingham accent is faster than RP.
   a) True
   b) False
3) Ozzy Osbourne has a Birmingham accent.
   a) True

b) False

4) The stars of BBC drama Peaky Blinders had serious difficulties while imitating Birmingham accent.
   a) True
   b) False
5) The diphthong in words like ‘nice’ begins with a back and rounded quality and consonant sound after it is voiced, so that it sounds like “noise”.
   a) True
   b) False
6) The main difference between Birmingham accent and RP is the way how Brummie-speaking people pronounce sonorants.
   a) True
   b) False
7) Helen McCrory looked for help while working on the first series of Peaky Blinders, asking a Birmingham-born actress for guidance about her accent.
   a) True
   b) False

Check your answers online:

https://learningapps.org/display?v=pgtbw5wk520

2. **Watch the video and write out the examples of Brummie mentioned in it.**
   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZXtFPAzZ9KI

3. **Use the given links to compare Birmingham accent with Cockney. Fill in the table below.**
   https://grammar.yourdictionary.com/slang/brummie-vs-cockney.html\
   https://www.quora.com/What-are-some-of-the-differences-between-Brummie-and-Cockney-the-English-dialects-spoken-in-England
   http://berieke.tripod.com/id1.html

	Brummie	Cockney
Place	West Midlands	East Enders

People who spoke it		
Intonation		
Pronunciation of ‘h’ at the word		
‘Oi’ sound		
Feature		

4. **Use the link below and try to read the part from Harry Potter with Birmingham accent. Record your piece of reading:**

   http://berieke.tripod.com/id1.html

5. **Prepare a short speech (3-4 sentences) to illustrate the Brummie accent. Record your speech. You can use the video from task 2 and the links given below. Make a list of Brummie words and phrases you have used in your speech.**

   https://owlcation.com/humanities/A-Guide-to-the-Brummie-Accent-and-Slang
   http://www.antimoon.com/forum/2003/2650.htm
   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Z9L6P-WMKKw
   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2IGckWsXvJ8

UNIT 12

COCKNEY DIALECT

by Adam Jacot de Boinod

Cockney, dialect of the English language traditionally spoken by working-class Londoners. Cockney is also often used to refer to anyone from London—in particular, from its East End.

The word Cockney has had a pejorative connotation, originally deriving from cokenay, or cokeney, a late Middle English word of the 14th century that meant, literally, "cocks' egg" (i.e., a small or defective egg, imagined to come from a rooster—which, of course, cannot produce eggs). That negative sense gave rise to Cockney's being used to mean "milksop" or "cockered child" (a pampered or spoiled child). The word was later applied to a town resident who was regarded as either affected or puny.

To most outsiders a Cockney is anyone from London, though contemporary natives of London, especially from its East End, use the word with pride. In its geographical and cultural senses, Cockney is best defined as a person born within hearing distance of the church bells of St. Mary-le-Bow, Cheapside, in the City of London. It has been estimated that, prior to the noise of traffic, the sound of the Bow Bells reached about 6 miles (10 km) to the east, 5 miles (8 km) to the north, 4 miles (6 km) to the west, and 3 miles (5 km) to the south. The vast majority of the hospitals of London's East End fall within that jurisdiction.

Cockney as a dialect is most notable for its argot, or coded language, which was born out of ingenious rhyming slang. There are as many as 150 terms that are recognized instantly by any rhyming slang user. For example, the phrase use your loaf—meaning "use your head"—is derived from the rhyming phrase loaf of bread. That phrase is just one part of London's rhyming slang tradition that can be traced to the East End. That tradition is thought to have started in the mid-19th century as code by which either criminals confused the police or salesmen compared notes with each other beyond the understanding of their customers.

The manner in which Cockney rhyming slang is created may be best explained through examples. “I’m going upstairs” becomes I’m going up the apples in Cockney. Apples is part of the phrase apples and pears, which rhymes with stairs; and pears is then dropped. In this example, a word is replaced with a phrase that ends in a rhyming word, and that rhyming word is then dropped (along with, in apples and pears, the and). Likewise, “wig” becomes syrup (from syrup of figs) and “wife” becomes trouble (from trouble and strife).

Omission of the rhyming word is not a consistent feature of Cockney, though. Other, more-straightforward favourites that are recognizable outside the Cockney community and have been adopted into the general lexicon of English slang are the use of the Boat Race for “face,” Adam and Eve for “believe,” tea leaf for “thief,” mince pies for “eyes,” nanny goat for “coat,” plate of meat for “street,” daisy roots for “boots,” cream crackered for “knackered,” china plate for “mate,” brown bread for “dead,” bubble bath for “laugh,” bread and honey for “money,” brass bands for “hands,” whistle and flute for “suit,” septic tank for “Yank” (i.e., Yankee, or an American), and currant bun for “sun” and, with a more recent extension, “The Sun” (a British newspaper).

Less known are expressions whose meaning is less straightforward, such as borrow and beg for “egg” (a term that enjoyed renewed life during food rationing of World War II), army and navy for “gravy” (of which there was much at meals in both forces), and didn’t ought as a way to refer to port wine (derived from women who said, when asked to “have another,” that they “didn’t ought”). Light and dark took the place of “park,” an oblique reference to a past directive by the London County Council that a bell be sounded and the gates locked in parks at dusk. Lion’s lair came to stand for “chair,” in reference to the danger of disrupting a father’s afternoon nap in his easy chair. Likewise, bottle and stopper originated via the word copper (a policeman), with bottle meaning “to enclose” and a stopper referring to someone who prevents another person from doing something.

1. **Find the answers in the article:**

1) Is Cockney really used to refer to anyone from London—in particular, from its East End?
2) Is omission of the rhyming word a consistent feature of Cockney?
3) What is the origin of "bottle and stopper"?
4) Can you illustrate the manner in which Cockney rhyming slang is created?
5) How many terms are recognized instantly by any rhyming slang user?

2. **Translate into ordinary English the following rhyming slang words:**

Adam and Eve –

Alan Whickers –

apples and pears –

Artful Dodger –

Ascot Races –

Aunt Joanna –

Baked Bean –

Baker's Dozen –

Dicky Dirt –

Dinky Doos –

dog and bone –

Roast Pork –

Rosy Lee –

tables and chairs –

tea leaf –

Tom and Dick –

3. **Do a research on the origin of rhymed Cockney slang and write an essay (500 words) on this subject.**
4. **Watch the following videos:**

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1WvIwkL8oLc

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7_FtnOTLkSs

Now make a list of Cockney accent phonetic peculiarities.

5. **Test your knowledge of Cockney dialect and its speakers' life:**
   https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/quiz/2012/mar/29/cockney-rhyming-slang-quiz
   https://www.educationquizzes.com/specialist/london/cockney-life/

UNIT 13

Yorkshire Dialect

by Ellen Castelow

Did you know that August 1st is Yorkshire Day? To celebrate, we thought we'd share some great Yorkshire words and phrases with you.

Much of the Yorkshire dialect has its roots in Old English and Old Norse, and is called Broad Yorkshire or Tyke. Rather confusingly, someone born and bred in Yorkshire is also called a tyke.

Examples of the Yorkshire dialect can be found in literary works such as 'Wuthering Heights' by Emil

y Bronte and Charles Dickens' novel 'Nicholas Nickleby'. The reader will notice that in Broad Yorkshire, **'ye'**, '**thee**' and '**thou**' are used instead of 'you' and the word 'the' is shortened to **t'**.

Many people not from God's Own County will consider the Yorkshire dialect as, shall we say, a little *lugubrious*. Indeed the words do seem to lend themselves to a Les Dawson-style of delivery.

Owt and Nowt

Two words used a lot in Yorkshire, meaning something and nothing. They are traditionally pronounced to rhyme with 'oat' rather than 'out', for example '**Yah gooid fur nowt**' (you're good for nothing). The old Yorkshire expression, "**If there's owt for nowt, I'll be there with a barrow**" would seem to bear out the impression that some people have of Yorkshire people, that they are careful, or tight, with their money. As the 'Yorkshireman's Motto' goes:

'Ear all, see all, say nowt;
Eat all, sup all, pay nowt;

And if ivver tha does owt fer nowt –
Allus do it fer thissen.

(Hear all, see all, say nothing; eat all, drink all, pay nothing, and if ever you do something for nothing, always do it for yourself).

'Appen - this word will be very familiar to fans of "Emmerdale", as a favourite utterance by most of the characters in the early days of the soap, in particular Amos Brealry and Annie Sugden. It means 'perhaps' or 'possibly' and is often preceded by '**Aye**'(yes) as in '**Aye, 'appen**'. Other useful Yorkshire phrases include '**Appen that's it**' (that's possibly true) and '**Appen as not an maybe**' (you're probably right).

'Eee by gum. No, this isn't just gibberish, it does actually mean something, although there is no direct translation. It means something like 'Gosh!', 'Cor', 'Oh my God' or 'By gum'.

Nah then. This is often heard when friends greet each other and is used like a casual 'hello' or 'hi'. Another way to say hello in Yorkshire would be '**Eh up**'.

Middlin', Nobbut Middlin', Fair t' Middlin' Again, these are expressions with no exact translation. Often heard in response to the question '**Ow do**' (How are you), 'middlin' or 'fair t'middlin' would mean 'I'm ok'. 'Nobbut middlin' means less than middlin', so more like 'just alright'. Middlin' is not to be confused with **middin** which refers to a muck heap, rubbish heap or even the outside loo!

So for example: Nah then,'ow do? – Nobbut middlin'.

Now you're fluent in Yorkshire!

1. **Find the answers in the text:**
   1) What are the roots of the Yorkshire dialect?
   2) How do the Brits call someone who was born and bred in Yorkshire?
   3) What literary works can you find the examples of the Yorkshire dialect in?
   4) What do the words "owt" and "nowt" mean? How are they pronounced?

5) What is a favourite utterance of Emmerdale's characters? What does it mean?

2. **Watch the video and read the article about the Yorkshire dialect words (you may use other useful resources), and compile a vocabulary of at least 15 entries**:

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LGfCGmEWx8E

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gw0SijQQf5w

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uMWy6N7CdCQ

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6NdeoFrqvzE

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vSYyiPmnnMg

   http://www.yorkshiredialectsociety.org.uk/word-recognition/

3. **Study the most prominent features of the Yorkshire accent and make a comparative table of them and RP:**

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=THsSizqiSKs

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vB-7HCwmHTk

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2Qx_2I9QBaA

4. **Find information about the origin of the Yorkshire dialect and write an essay of 500 words on this topic.**

5. **Check your knowledge of the Yorkshire dialect:**

   https://metro.co.uk/2019/08/01/yorkshire-day-quiz-how-many-of-these-yorkshire-phrases-do-you-know-10498861/

   https://www.buzzfeed.com/danieldalton/by-eck

UNIT 14

BURNS NIGHT 2020: WHEN IS IT, HOW IS IT CELEBRATED AND WHAT MAKES UP THE TRADITIONAL SUPPER?

The poet, a tremendous source of inspiration to the founders of Liberalism and Socialism, penned more than 550 well-known verses and songs before he died at just 37

Maya Oppenheim

Burns Night might readily conjure up images of revellers washing down forkfuls of peppery haggis with wee drams of scotch but the historical origins of the festivities are often taken for granted.

The Burns Supper is a celebration of the life and enduring legacy of the great Scottish poet Robert Burns. While it was first organised by his close friends and family as a memorial dinner, the night has since morphed into a country-wide event, cheering Scotland's distinctive culture and heritage.

People celebrate the evening in their homes or in restaurants with traditional Scottish fare, folk music and renditions of Burns's poetry.

Who was Robert Burns? The poet, also popularly known as Rabbie Burns, penned more than 550 poems and songs before his death in 1796.

A massive source of inspiration to the founders of Liberalism and Socialism, the 18th-century writer is known for his astute social commentary and focus on all things political. Scotland's national poet is considered a revolutionary figure, both in his homeland and beyond.

His funeral was held on the same day his son Maxwell was born. Burns's body was later transferred from a churchyard grave to a mausoleum in Dumfries, where his wife Jean Armour was also laid to rest after her death in 1834.

When is Burns Night? Burns Night falls on 25 January every year. The date was chosen to coincide with the poet's birthday, who was born on 25 January 1759.

The first Burns supper hosted by the Burns Club was held on 29 January 1802, on what was thought to be Burns' birthday.

However, the following year the discovery of parish records revealed that the late poet's birthday was actually four days prior.

How is it celebrated?

The main attraction of Burns Night is the Burns Supper. This traditionally involves participants donning tartan, listening to bagpipes, crooning Auld Lang Syne – also sung at New Year's Eve – and reciting the great writer's songs and poems. Burns Night celebrations commonly incorporate the Saltire, the national flag of Scotland. While the first Burns Supper was first held way back in 1801 and new rituals have since been appended, the crux of the celebration remains unchanged and revolves around paying tribute to Burns in whatever way feels most fitting.

What's in the traditional dinner?

The jewel in the crown of any Burns Supper is always haggis. For the uninitiated, haggis is a savoury pudding containing sheep's heart, liver and lungs, which is minced with onion, oatmeal, suet, stock and a selection of spices. It is traditionally bound in the animal's stomach.

Burns describes haggis as the "great chieftain o' the puddin-'race" and a traditional Burns Night kicks off with a host reading his "Address to a Haggis". Haggis is served with the classic side of mashed neeps and tatties (swedes and potatoes). The food is, of course, accompanied by the finest domestic whisky.

Vegetarians and pescetarians – or those who want to try something a little different – can choose haggis made without meat. Also popular is seafood dishes like Cullen Skink soup, made from smoked haddock.

There's more to Scottish Culture than kilts & bagpipes. As a nation we are proud people. We love being Scottish, we can glorify failure, we never give up, and we don't take ourselves too seriously. That last sentence almost sums us up, but not quite.

With our remarkable bloody and colourful history, and our diverse culture, is it really any wonder we have an inbred sense of identity? This is in spite of the fact that we are part of the United Kingdom and not an independent country as such.

The Union of the Crowns took place in 1603, with James VI of Scotland becoming James I of England, and the Act of Union on 1st May 1707, united both parliaments, creating the Kingdom of Britain, and effectively ending Scotland's independence.

So, considering that we are no longer a separate sovereign state, and with no independent membership of the United Nations or the European Union, what is it exactly that constitutes our sense of identity? Well, we have our own legal system, and our own education system which is different from that of England and Wales.

We have our own banking system, and our rail network is managed independently from the rest of the UK. The country also hosts many of its own national sporting competitions, and enjoys independent representation at some major international sporting events like the FIFA World Cup, the Rugby World Cup and Commonwealth Games. Following devolution, a new Scottish Parliament was elected in 1999, with our own Secretary of State becoming a part of the UK Cabinet.

Confused enough? So am I, let's continue ……

This small country is the northernmost part of the UK, surrounded on three sides by water and having just one land border with England, which runs between the Rivers Tweed (east) and Solway Firth (west). We have around 787 islands, mostly groups which form the Hebrides, the Orkney and the Shetland Islands.

We are well known for our beautiful mountainous scenery and lochs (lakes). Although seemingly tranquil at times, Scotland is a vibrant, exciting country, and home to a wide range of cultures and traditions, not to mention our bloody, and colourful history.

With around 3000 castles, 3000 golf courses, a fabulous collection of museums and galleries, plus a vast range of activities and events, our Scottish culture provides something for people of all ages and interests to explore.

Scottish national dress is the kilt, a wrap around of four yards of tartan with box pleats. Men wear the kilt and sporran, tartan hose, jacket and bonnet, and a sgian dhubh (black knife) tucked in the hose.

Kilt & Bagpipes

Rarely seen apart from weddings, Burns' Suppers, other special occasions, and more remote parts of the country, tartan has been associated with clans, but nowadays there are many new tartan designs that have no clan connection whatsoever.

The use of the word "Scotch" referring to all things Scottish was commonplace outwith the country in bygone days, however, the modern use of the term describes only Scottish products, usually food or drink. It's worth remembering not to refer to us as "Scotch". We might be offended. We are "Scots" and our nationality is "Scottish" ☺

Our biggest export is Scotch whisky, well known throughout the world. However in Scotland you will not hear anyone order a "Scotch". In keeping with Scottish culture, a whisky will be asked for by brand name, or "a whisky", "a half", "a dram", or "a nip", depending on which part of the country you're in. A "glass" is a double measure.

Our "other national drink" is Irn Bru, (pronounced Iron Brew) a soft drink which many swear by as a hangover cure. It's very gassy, and it sure tingles the taste buds. There are some things you must sample when in Scotland, and this is one of them.

Food you must try is Porridge, a dish of boiled oatmeal, usually eaten at breakfast. Porridge should be flavoured with salt during cooking, but some people have been known to use sugar, which is enough to put the wind up the kilt of true Scotsmen.

If you visit, you should also try the Haggis, a wonderful delicacy usually served with potatoes & turnip. Now don't pay too much attention to the ingredients, they'll put you off, but if you insist, you can find out how it's cooked by looking at Scottish Recipes.

Haggis, neeps and tatties (turnip & potatoes) is the traditional fare that is served on ‘Burns Night’ in honour of the birth date of our national poet, Robert Burns, on 25th January. Burns Nights are celebrated not only in Scotland, but all over the world, where there are Scottish connections.

But there is so much more to Scottish culture than Kilts, Bagpipes, Haggis and Whisky.

The Saltire Saint Andrew’s day (our patron saint), is celebrated on the 30th November. Read the interesting story of how The Saltire (St Andrew’s Cross) became our national flag. Our national emblem is the Thistle.

There are three officially recognised languages: English, Scots and Scottish Gaelic, although the 2001 UK Census showed that there are only 58,652 Gaelic speakers, out of a population of 5,062,011. You’re most likely to hear Gaelic spoken in the western isles. Mind you, Scotland has a language all of its own, when you consider some of the old Scottish sayings. It’s worth getting to grips with them, the ones that are not so old, and some of our Scottish slang words. One of our slang words is ‘fitba’ meaning football. As a nation we are passionate about our football. See the Fitba Daft page.

This small country has made a significant contribution to the world of creativity and entertainment, and many Scots became famous in the field of invention such as:

Music in Scotland offers something for all tastes, ranging from traditional Celtic music to modern jazz, opera, rock and popular music, and Glasgow boasts Fantastic Nightlife to match any city in Europe. The city also offers some of the best shopping to be found anywhere, and with a superb range of free entry museums, Glasgow has become a magnet for tourists the world over, as has Edinburgh, the capital.

Scottish theatre has been transformed from its old music hall days to a broad spectrum of drama, comedy and dance. Some of our major festivals, although still very much promoting Scottish culture, have a more international look, especially the great Edinburgh Military Tattoo and the equally good Edinburgh Fringe Festival,

offering a true cosmopolitan flavour. You can sample true Scottish culture and traditions with the fabulous Highland Games, held all over the country during the summer months.

If you're in Scotland late December, then make a point of staying for the famous Edinburgh Hogmanay Party, the worlds' biggest New Year bash. You're guaranteed a smashing time, but be careful not to get 'Blootered' (meaning can be found on the old Scottish Sayings page). Visit us and sample our Scottish culture, our colourful history, our lochs, mountains, and warm hospitality. So please do pay us a visit, if you can.

1. **Find the answers in the text:**
   1) Who was Robert Burns?
   2) When is Burn's Night?
   3) How is it celebrated?
   4) What's in the traditional dinner?
   5) What is "other national drink" in Scotland?
   6) What has Scottish theatre been transformed from?
2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**

   Auld Lang Syne, tartan, haggis, neeps and tatties, Cullen Skink soup, fitba, loch.
3. **Read about Scottish words, sayings and slang:**

   https://scotlandwelcomesyou.com/scottish-sayings/
   1) Compile a vocabulary of Scottish words;
   2) Explain the meaning of the Scottish sayings;
   3) Find neutral equivalents of the Scottish slang words.
4. **Study the following links about R. Burns and write a short essay of 150 words about his life.**

   https://www.visitscotland.com/blog/culture/robert-burns-interesting-facts/

   https://www.macsadventure.com/walking-holidays/18-things-to-know-about-robert-burns/

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=S4U2iaNN0s

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Jg58Qu4iwic

5. **Test your knowledge of Scotland's national poet:** https://www.dailyrecord.co.uk/scotland-now/burns-night-quiz-test-your-9675959

UNIT 15

WELSH CHRISTMAS TRADITIONS

Throughout the world, Christmas and New Year celebrations are a favourite time of the year, not least in Wales, including:

Plygain – Christmas Carols between 3am and 6am

Noson Gyflaith – Toffee making evening

Holly Beating

Mari Lwyd – A Grey Mare brings good luck

Wassail – Drinking hot mulled cider

Hunting the Wren

Calennig – Trick or Treat, Welsh style

Cwm Gwaun (near Fishguard) - New Year celebrations on 13th January each year!

Celebration Days Welsh History. In the Welsh village of Cwm Gwaun (the Gwaun valley), near Fishguard in Wales, locals are keeping old traditions alive by celebrating the New Year, known as Hen Galan and Calennig, 13 days after everyone else. Back in the 1700s, the people of Cwm Gwaun used the Julian calendar and still do. New Years Eve is on 13th January!!!

PLYGAIN

Plygain in rural North and Mid Wales dates back to the Catholic period, when early morning Plygain services were held on Christmas day. It is one of the oldest Welsh Christmas traditions and the earliest recording of a Plygain service is from the 13th century. Services would stop at first light when everyone would then go home and celebrate Christmas. After the service, a day of feasting and drinking would begin.

This unique form of unaccompanied carol-singing, characterised by close harmony and originally sung by small groups of men, is still very much a living tradition, and has indeed seen somewhat of a revival amongst the younger generation. New singers and parties have emerged, and new services have been

established in various parts of the country, where the older carols can be heard alongside new original carols composed in the traditional mode.

The Plygain tradition still lives on in many areas of Wales and often plays a role in the Cadw Christmas events calendar at sites such as Tintern Abbey and St. David's Bishop's Palace and also with Welsh Societies in London.

NOSON GYFLAITH (TOFFEE EVENING)

In order to stay awake until it was time to go to church, one activity that was traditionally practiced was toffee making, a Noson Gyflaith meaning a Toffee Evening. A Noson Gyflaith was often part of the Plygain services and involved an evening of toffee making. Rural farms and other homes would invite friends and family round and the evening would consist of games, storytelling and of course, toffee making. Some places in Wales still have this tradition and in some historic venues around the country tourists are able to make their own toffee and join in on this sweet tradition.

GWYL SAN STEFFAN (ST. STEPHENS DAY; BOXING DAY)

Boxing Day (26th December), St Steffan's Day, was celebrated in a unique way in Wales and included the tradition of "holly-beating" or "holming." Bizarrely, young men and boys would gather holly branches and then beat the arms of young females with those prickly branches until they bled. In some areas it was the legs that were beaten. In others, it was the custom for the last person to get out of bed in the morning to be beaten with holly branches. This strange and cruel custom died out before the end of the 19th century.

MARI LWYD - GREY HORSE (MARE)

Mari Lwyd means "grey mare" and is a pre-Christian tradition thought to bring good luck in the New Year. The horse figure is made and adorned with ornamental ears and eyes. It would also be further decorated with coloured ribbons, bells and paper. It would then be paraded around the town. The party would challenge different houses to a battle of wits (known as pwnco).

After this battle, the Mari Lwyd party would be invited into the house for refreshments.

WASSAIL - HOT MULLED CIDER

This is a tradition that was a fundamental part of all Christmas festivities. As mulled wine is drunk today, drinking from the wassail bowl would have been part of any Welsh Christmas.

Wassail is a hot mulled cider that is typically drunk around Christmas and was originally intended to toast and hope for a good harvest of cider apples the following year. Although the wassail bowl has been a tradition in Wales for many years, its origins derived from the Anglo-Saxon "Waes Hael!", meaning to be or to become healthy.

WREN DAY

In 19th century Wales, groups of men would go out ‘Hunting the Wren’. Once captured, the tiny bird would be caged in a wooden box and carried door-to-door for all to see. Wren Day, Day of the Wren or Hunt the Wren Day was celebrated in Wales between the 6th and 12th January. While it is no longer celebrated, it is really interesting to discover the old Welsh customs and how “Hunting the Wren” was executed.

The Wren procession involved a group of men, carrying a small wren in a wooden cage door-to-door through the town. People in the houses would then pay to see the wren. These crowds were sometimes called wrenboys.

Why a wren? It could be that a wren was chosen because of its connection with royalty and prestige.

CALENNIG

According to old Welsh traditions, the children go from door to door singing and are given ‘Calennig’ in return, sweets or money or both!. Calennig is a Welsh word which is translated literally as "the first day of the month" but it also means a New Year celebration or a New Year gift. In Cwm Gwaun, Pembrokeshire, this celebration takes place on 13th January each year and not on the 1st.

1. **Find the answers in the text:**

1) What do traditional Christmas celebration include in Wales?

2) What is Plygain tradition?
3) What does Toffee evening consist of?
4) Why is “holly-beating” a cruel tradition?
5) Do you know a pre-Christian tradition which is thought to bring good luck in the New Year?
6) What does the Wren procession involve?
7) How is the word “Calennig” translated?

2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**

wrenboys, Plygain service, Catholic period, toffee, wassail, to die out (about a tradition), Christmas carols, holming.

3. **Make up a list of Welsh “Christmas traditions” words and their English equivalents** (consult a dictionary if necessary).
4. **Write an essay of 400 words “Welsh Christmas traditions”. Use the following links:**

   https://www.historic-uk.com/HistoryUK/HistoryofWales/Welsh-Christmas-Traditions/

   https://www.wales.com/about/culture/welsh-christmas-traditions

   https://www.lakecountryhouse.co.uk/blog/post/welsh-christmas-traditions-you-didnt-know-about

   https://www.dailypost.co.uk/whats-on/arts-culture-news/8-welsh-christmas-traditions-you-10601976
5. **Watch the video lesson “Welsh culture: facts and traditions” (you may read its transcript if necessary), then do a quiz “Welsh culture”:**

   video:https://study.com/academy/lesson/welsh-culture-facts-traditions.html

   transcript:https://study.com/academy/lesson/welsh-culture-facts-traditions.html#transcriptHeader

   quiz: https://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz54250638ab8.html

UNIT 16

Pancake Day

Pancake Day, or Shrove Tuesday, is the traditional feast day before the start of Lent on Ash Wednesday. Lent – the 40 days leading up to Easter – was traditionally a time of fasting and on Shrove Tuesday, Anglo-Saxon Christians went to confession and were "shriven" (absolved from their sins). A bell would be rung to call people to confession. This came to be called the "Pancake Bell" and is still rung today.

Shrove Tuesday always falls 47 days before Easter Sunday, so the date varies from year to year and falls between February 3 and March 9. In 2019 Shrove Tuesday will fall on March 5th.

Shrove Tuesday was the last opportunity to use up eggs and fats before embarking on the Lenten fast and pancakes are the perfect way of using up these ingredients.

A pancake is a thin, flat cake, made of batter and fried in a frying pan. A traditional English pancake is very thin and is served immediately. Golden syrup or lemon juice and caster sugar are the usual toppings for pancakes.

The pancake has a very long history and featured in cookery books as far back as 1439. The tradition of tossing or flipping them is almost as old: "And every man and maide doe take their turne, and tosse their Pancakes up for feare they burne." (Pasquil's Palin, 1619).

The ingredients for pancakes can be seen to symbolise four points of significance at this time of year:

Eggs ~ Creation

Flour ~ The staff of life

Salt ~ Wholesomeness

Milk ~ Purity

To make 8 or so pancakes you will need 8oz plain flour, 2 large eggs, 1 pint milk, salt. Mix all together and whisk well. Leave to stand for 30 minutes. Heat a little oil in a frying pan, pour in enough batter to cover the base of the pan and let it

cook until the base of the pancake has browned. Then shake the pan to loosen the pancake and flip the pancake over to brown the other side.

In the UK, pancake races form an important part of the Shrove Tuesday celebrations – an opportunity for large numbers of people, often in fancy dress, to race down streets tossing pancakes. The object of the race is to get to the finishing line first, carrying a frying pan with a cooked pancake in it and flipping the pancake as you run.

The most famous pancake race takes place at Olney in Buckinghamshire. According to tradition, in 1445 a woman of Olney heard the shriving bell while she was making pancakes and ran to the church in her apron, still clutching her frying pan. The Olney pancake race is now world famous. Competitors have to be local housewives and they must wear an apron and a hat or scarf.

Olney Pancake Race

Each contestant has a frying pan containing a hot pancake. She must toss it three times during the race. The first woman to complete the course and arrive at the church, serve her pancake to the bellringer and be kissed by him, is the winner.

At Westminster School in London, the annual Pancake Grease is held. A verger from Westminster Abbeyleads a procession of boys into the playground where the

school cook tosses a huge pancake over a five-metre high bar. The boys then race to grab a portion of the pancake and the one who ends up with the largest piece receives a cash bonus from the Dean.

In Scarborough, Yorkshire, on Shrove Tuesday, everyone assembles on the promenade to skip. Long ropes are stretched across the road and there maybe be ten or more people skipping on one rope. The origins of this custom is not known but skipping was once a magical game, associated with the sowing and spouting of seeds which may have been played on barrows (burial mounds) during the Middle Ages.

Many towns throughout England used to hold traditional Shrove Tuesday football ("Mob Football") gamesdating back as far back as the 12th century. The practice mostly died out with the passing of the 1835 Highways Act which banned the playing of football on public highways, but a number of towns have managed to maintain the tradition to the present day including Alnwick in Northumberland, Ashbourne in Derbyshire (called the Royal Shrovetide Football Match), Atherstone in Warwickshire, Sedgefield (called the Ball Game) in County Durham, and St Columb Major (called Hurling the Silver Ball) in Cornwall.

1. **Find the answers in the text:**
   1) When does Lent usually start? What does it symbolize?
   2) What did Anglo-Saxon Christians do on Shrove Tuesday?
   3) What is a traditional English pancake?
   4) What do the pancake ingredients symbolize?
   5) What do you know about Olney Pancake Race?
2. **Use etymological dictionaries to find out the etymology of the following**:

   Ash Wednesday, Shrove Tuesday, Easter, Pancake day, Pancake Bell, Lenten fast, Pancake Grease.
3. **Watch the videos about British Easter traditions and symbols:**

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MQz2mF3jDMc&list=RDUWtMkskB2Qg&index=5

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UWtMkskB2Qg&list=RDUWtMkskB2Qg&start_radio=1&t=97

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fSH45it7xyM

a) make a list of Easter symbols and what they symbolize;
b) make a comparative table of British and Ukrainian Easter traditions and symbols: similarities and differences.

4. **Find the information about one of the following British Easter traditions:** *The Nutter's Dance, Egg Jarping, Bottle Kicking, Maundy Money* (http://www.bbcamerica.com/anglophenia/2014/04/five-british-easter-traditions-will-surprise-americans), **and prepare a presentation.**
5. **Check your knowledge of British Pancake Day and Shrove Tuesday traditions:**

https://learnenglishteens.britishcouncil.org/uk-now/read-uk/pancake-day

https://learnenglishteens.britishcouncil.org/magazine/life-around-world/shrove-tuesday

UNIT 17

BATH FESTIVALS

The Bath International Music Festival began in 1948, though music festivals were held in Bath in the 19th century. The roots go back still further: Queen Elizabeth I came to hear choristers at Bath Abbey in 1668. Alas we know nothing of the musical or literary interests of King Bladud, said to be founder of Bath in 863 BC.

The first fifty years of the festival story is chronicled in Tim Bullamore's book 'Fifty Festivals' (out of print), for example the key roles of Yehudi Menuhin, Rudolf Nureyev and Francis Bacon – and behind the scenes the permanent struggle to make ends meet, artistic tantrums, and the bogus but bedevilling dichotomy between 'elitist' and 'popular'. Few now recall first hand the 1961 orgy in the Roman baths.

The Bath Literature Festival began in 1995 and has grown to up to 150 events, showcasing the leading writers, thinkers, journalists and poets of the day. In 2007 Bath Festivals acquired the rights to the Bath Children's Literature Festival and this year marked the most successful such festival ever.

Throughout our history the participation of young and not so young people – who, for whatever reason, may not have been introduced to the joys of splendid music and literature – has been central to our purpose. That will continue with renewed vigour.

In May 2017, we launched a new multi-arts festival for the city – The Bath Festival, building on the heritage of the literature and music festivals. This new flagship festival had music and literature at the heart – classical, jazz, world and folk music alongside contemporary fiction, intelligent debate, science, history, politics and poetry – but embraced blends of the two as well as other arts. We have grown the number of world-class events we can bring to Bath and built our position as a leading arts organisation in the region.

The artistic directors of The Bath Festival are Alex Clark, David Jones and James Waters. Alex is an editor and literary journalist who frequently writes for The Guardian, The Observer and The Times Literary Supplement. She regularly chairs

literary events and has also been on the judging panel for the Booker Prize. David Jones and James Waters are both leading figures in the music industry and experts in their own musical fields. They initially joined Bath Festivals in 2015 becoming Artistic Directors of the International Music Festival in 2016.

Bath's biggest night of free music, Party in the City, will continue, with over 2,000 people taking to stages across the city and 20,000 in attendance. We will enhance the 6000 year round learning and participation opportunities for young people.

Bath Children's Literature Festival

Bath Children's Literature Festival was established in 2007 by Bath-based children's publishing professionals John and Gill McLay, who continue as festival co-artistic directors.

This is the largest dedicated children's book festival in Europe, and presents over 110 public, ticketed events and an extensive programme of events in schools.

The Festival regularly attracts some of the biggest children's authors and illustrators from the UK and internationally. Past contributors have included: David Walliams, Jacqueline Wilson, Michael Morpurgo, Anthony Horowitz, Lauren Child, Shirley Hughes, Julia Donaldson, Michael Rosen, Terry Deary, Cornelia Funke, Eoin Colfer, Darren Shan, Neil Gaiman, Anthony Browne, Francesca Simon and Malorie Blackman.

The main task of the festival is simple: to entertain children, and to enthuse them about reading. We aim to create a friendly, family atmosphere in which young book fans can come along to Festival events and meet their favourite authors and book characters. Events regularly feature much humour and book readings, as well as craft activities, quizzes and games. Signing queues after some events are legendary and can last up to three hours for the biggest names.

1. **Find the answers in the text:**
   1) When were the first music festivals held in Britain?
   2) Who is considered to be a founder of Bath?

3) What Bath festivals do you know?
4) What new festival did the art directors of Bath launch in May 2017?
5) What is the main task of Bath Children's Literature Festival?

2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**

   in attendance, contributor, to feature (about an event), signing queue, an extensive programme, judging panel (for), the roots go back, to enthuse sb. about reading.

3. **Read the information about other British festivals:**

   https://www.shakespearescelebrations.com/discover-more/shakespeares-birthday-celebrations-history/

   https://www.cft.org.uk/about-us/history

   https://www.historic-uk.com/HistoryUK/HistoryofWales/The-National-Eisteddfod-of-Wales/

   https://www.edinburghfestivalcity.com/the-city/history-of-the-festivals

   Choose one festival and prepare a presentation of 10-12 slides.

4. **Watch the videos about the most popular festivals in Great Britain:**

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=k4TAl5NZJM8

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SXvQ3XzxB-4

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bzYrU7EHhLI

   Now write an essay of 500 words about British festivals.

5. **Check your knowledge of British festival:**

   https://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz3594072924d10.html

   https://www.proprofs.com/quiz-school/story.php?title=unusual-british-festivals

UNIT 18

FAIRS IN THE UK

One of the most famous fairs in England is Widecombe Fair. In literature, the name appears in one of the most well-known English rhymes: Widdecombe Fair. The fair is held in Devon annually and is possibly all the more popular because of the song Widdicombe Fair, a short extract goes...

Tom Pearce, Tom Pearce, lend me your grey mare,
All along, down along, out along lee,
For I want to go to Widdicombe Fair,
Wi' Bill Brewer, Jan Stewer, Peter Gurney, Peter Davy, Dan'l Whiddon, Harry Hawk, old Uncle Tom Cobbley and all, Old Uncle Tom Cobbley and all.

The rhyme dates from before 1850, and church records show that Cobbley, Stuer, Davy and Hawke shared the same place of birth at Crediton parish and were very likely friends. Peter Gurney was also most probably a friend and the rhyme tells the story of an old mare of Tom Pearce going with these friends to the fair and Pearce anxiously awaiting her return, but never to see her again. The old mare returns as a ghost 'rattling bones'. The only significance attached to the rhyme is that Cobley was a wealthy man who was not quite sure who should inherit his fortune and only after many drafting of the will eventually made up his mind and then lived to be 96 years old!

Another famous fair is Scarborough Fair, made famous by the song from Simon and Garfunkel. In the late Middle Ages the seaside town of Scarborough was an important venue for tradesmen from all over England. It hosted a huge 45-day trading event, which started on August 15. It was an exceptionally long time even in those times. Merchants visited from all over England, and even as far away as Norway, Denmark, the Baltic states and the Byzantine Empire, bringing wine, silk, jewellery, lace, glass, silver, gold, iron, timber, furs, amber, spices and dried fruits and taking back with them woollen cloth and leather, grain, foodstuffs and many craft goods. Minstrels, jugglers, dancers, and fortune-tellers came to entertain the people. It was granted a charter by King Henry III on 22 January 1253, stating "The

Burgesses and their heirs forever may have a yearly fair in the Borough, to continue from the Feast of the Assumption of the Blessed Virgin Mary until the Feast of St Michael next following. Unfortunatley the traditional "Scarborough Fair" no longer exists, it petered out in around 1788 when it ceased to have any real commercial importance, but a number of low-key celebrations take place every September to mark the original event.

The word fair comes from the Latin feria, a holiday. Some fairs were fairly specialized events with traders dealing in wool, leather or cloth; other fairs would have a dazzling array of goods. The famous Scarborough Fair (also imortalised in song) originated in 1253 when Henry III granted Scarborough the privilege of holding a 45-day fair, from August 15 to September 29. Traders from many parts of Europe came to this place.

In the 19th century, the distinction arose between a market which is held once or twice a week for selling goods and a fair which is an event largely for pleasure rather than commerce. However, there is also a distinction between fairs themselves. Many fairs can trace their origins back to charters, thus confirming that they were established for commerce. Single commodity fairs were common and the Goose Fair in Nottingham would be a place for selling more than 20,000 geese; the Dish Fair in York would specialize in the sale of small domestic ware; the Timmer Market in Aberdeen, Scotland was originally devoted to the sale of small wooden objects. One type of fair important in England from the Middle Ages up to the 19th C was the hiring fair or mop fair, which grew up to control the movement of labour after the Black Death had decimated the working population and undermined the old manorial system which had kept workers in their place for life. Labourers who wished to hire out their services for the coming year attended the nearest market town with their instruments (serving girls brought their mops!) These hiring fairs ended in the mid 19th because of changing labour laws. However, mop fairs still exist as very popular annual pleasure fairs in several English towns, notably Stratford-upon-Avon, Tewskebury and Warwick.

Other fairs, which were for pleasure, had their origins in festivals of the Christian Church and perhaps even in pagan festivals which the Church took over. These fairs called wakes were parish celebrations held on the anniversary of the parish church or on the feast day of their patron saint and originally lasted three days - the day before, the day of and the day after the feast day. The people who would gather were a ready-made market. St. Giles Fair in Oxford is probably the largest of the wake fairs still surviving. It is a great pleasure fair which began as a parish festivity, grew to a market fair by the reign of Elizabeth I selling cloth, crockery, iron and agricultural produce and today, once again focuses on its original purpose of providing fun and entertainment.

Many of the agricultural shows held today have their origins in these fairs and there are hundreds of fairs all over the UK at this time of year. Contact a local Tourist Information Office for information on fairs and shows.

1. **Find the answers in the article:**
   1) What is one of the most famous fairs in England? Where did it take place?
   2) What made Scarborough Fair so famous? What do you know about its history?
   3) What are the main distinctions between markets and fairs? Between fairs themselves?
   4) What is the origin of hiring fairs and mop fairs?
   5) What is the origin of fairs for pleasure?
2. **Find out the etymology of the word "fair".**
3. **Study the information about Widdecombe Fair, Scarborough Fair, their history and the folk songs.**
   http://www.bbc.co.uk/devon/community_life/features/widecombe_fair.shtml
   https://www.liveabout.com/scarborough-fair-traditional-simon-and-garfunkel-1322515
   https://bethtrissel.wordpress.com/2011/01/23/are-you-going-to-scarborough-fair/

Prepare a presentation about one of the above-mentioned fairs.

4. **Read the lyrics of Scarborough Fair song and Widdecombe Fair song:**

Scarborough Fair

Are you going to Scarborough Fair?
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme;
Remember me to one who lives there,
For once she was a true lover of mine.
Tell her to make me a cambric shirt,
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme;
Without a seam or needlework,
Then she shall be a true lover of mine.
Tell her to wash it in yonder well,
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme;
Where never spring water or rain ever fell,
And she shall be a true lover of mine.
Tell her to dry it on yonder thorn,
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme;
Which never bore blossom since Adam was born,
Then she shall be a true lover of mine.
Now he has asked me questions three,
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme;
I hope he'll answer as many for me
Before he shall be a true lover of mine.
Tell him to buy me an acre of land,
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme;
Between the salt water and the sea sand,
Then he shall be a true lover of mine.
Tell him to plough it with a ram's horn,
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme;
And sow it all over with one pepper corn,

And he shall be a true lover of mine.
Tell him to sheer't with a sickle of leather,
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme;
And bind it up with a peacock feather.
And he shall be a true lover of mine.
Tell him to thrash it on yonder wall,
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme,
And never let one corn of it fall,
Then he shall be a true lover of mine.
When he has done and finished his work.
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme:
Oh, tell him to come and he'll have his shirt,
And he shall be a true lover of mine.

Widdecombe Fair

Tom Pearce, Tom Pearce, lend me your grey mare
All along, down along, out along lee.
For I want to go down to Widecombe Fair
Wi' Bill Brewer, Jan Stewer, Peter Gurney,
Peter Davy, Dan'l Whiddon, Harry Hawk,
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
And when shall I see again my old grey mare?
All along, down along, out along lee.
By Friday soon or Saturday noon
Wi' Bill Brewer, Jan Stewer, Peter Gurney,
Peter Davy, Dan'l Whiddon, Harry Hawk,
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all

So they harnessed and bridled the old grey mare
All along, down along, out along, lee.
And off they drove to Widecombe fair,
Wi' Bill Brewer, Jan Stewer, Peter Gurney,
Peter Davy, Dan'l Whiddon, Harry Hawk,
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all.
Then Friday came and Saturday soon
All along, down along, out along lee.
Tom Pearce's old mare hath not trotted home
Wi' Bill Brewer, Jan Stewer, Peter Gurney,
Peter Davy, Dan'l Whiddon, Harry Hawk,
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
So Tom Pearce he got up to the top of the hill,
All along, down along, out along lee.
And he sees his old mare a-making her will,
Wi' Bill Brewer, Jan Stewer, Peter Gurney,
Peter Davy, Dan'l Whiddon, Harry Hawk,
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
Tom Pearce's old mare, her took sick and died
All along, down along, out along lee.
And Tom he sat down on a stone and he cried
Wi' Bill Brewer, Jan Stewer, Peter Gurney,
Peter Davy, Dan'l Whiddon, Harry Hawk,
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
But this isn't the end of this shocking affair,

All along, down along, out along lee.
Nor though they be dead, of the horrid career
Of Bill Brewer, Jan Stewer, Peter Gurney,
Peter Davy, Dan'l Whiddon, Harry Hawk,
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
When the wind whistles cold on the moor of a night,
All along, down along, out along lee.
Tom Pearce's old mare doth appear ghastly white
Wi' Bill Brewer, Jan Stewer, Peter Gurney,
Peter Davy, Dan'l Whiddon, Harry Hawk,
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
And all the long night be heard skirling and groans,
All along, down along, out along lee.
From Tom Pearce's old mare and her rattling bones
And from Bill Brewer, Jan Stewer, Peter Gurney,
Peter Davy, Dan'l Whiddon, Harry Hawk,
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all
Old Uncle Tom Cobley and all

Now retell the content of these songs: record an audio file.

5. **Check your knowledge of fairs in the UK:**
   1) Widecombe Fair is still held every Semtember.
      a) True
      b) False
   2) 1) Widecombe Fair is always on the second Saturday in September.
      a) True
      b) False
   3) Tom Cobely is a fiction character.
      a) True

b) False

4) The annual event is organised by a team of village residents who work for months to prepare everything.
   a) True
   b) False
5) Scarborough Fair hosted a huge 45-day trading event, which started on August 15.
   a) True
   b) False
6) Mop fairs does not exist any more as annual pleasure fairs.
   a) True
   b) False
7) In the 18th century, the distinction arose between a market which is held once or twice a week for selling goods and a fair which is an event largely for pleasure rather than commerce.
   a) True
   b) False
8) Scarborough Fair petered out in around 1788 when it ceased to have any real commercial importance.
   a) True
   b) False

UNIT 19

London's Ceremonies And Traditions

Trooping The Colour

Trooping the Colour (11 Jun) began in the 17th century under King Charles II. After George II became king in 1760, parades marked his birthday. Today, 1,000 officers, 200 horses and 200 musicians from the Household Division parade from Buckingham Palace to Horse Guards Parade on the Queen's official birthday in June. The event concludes with a flypast by the Royal Air Force.

Ceremony Of The Keys

What's it about? This 35-minute ritual, where the gates of the Tower of London are locked, has taken place every night for 700 years at exactly 9.53pm. A yeoman warder, carrying a lantern and the Queen's keys, locks the gate and the Middle and Byward towers. Guards salute the keys as they pass. The sentry challenges the warder by asking: 'Halt, who comes there?' When the warder says he has the keys, he is allowed to pass. The event is free, but often gets booked up months in advance.

Want more? Visit the Tower of London, home to the Crown Jewels, which dates back to 1066. Built by William the Conqueror, it has seen many figures pass through its gates (and often not back out again). Anne Boleyn, Henry VIII's wife, was beheaded here; Elizabeth I was imprisoned in the tower; and Guy Fawkes was tortured after his failed Gunpowder Plot.

State Opening Of Parliament

This tradition began in the 1500s, although the current ceremony dates from 1852. The State Opening happens on the first day of a new parliamentary session or after a general election (the next one is on 18 May). The Queen leads a procession from Buckingham Palace to Westminster. Then Black Rod, an official, summons the Commons. The doors are shut in his face to symbolise the Commons' independence from the monarchy, and Black Rod strikes the door three times before it is opened.

The Houses of Parliament stands proudly by the Thames. Many people – including Londoners – don't realise that they can go inside the building into rooms that include the Commons Chamber, where MPs debate, and Westminster Hall, where Nelson Mandela addressed Parliament. You can also take a tour, which you can combine with afternoon tea, or watch a debate.

Changing The Guard

Troops from the Household Division have guarded the monarch since 1660. When one regiment replaces another, this daily ritual is known as Changing the Guard. When the guard at Buckingham Palace is changed, part of the Old Guard marches from St James's Palace on The Mall to Buckingham Palace at 11.15am and returns at 12.05pm.

Want more? Visit The Guards Museum, which contains artefacts and information relating to the five regiments of Foot Guards: the Grenadier, Coldstream, Scots, Irish and Welsh Guards. Don't miss the shop with its toy soldiers.

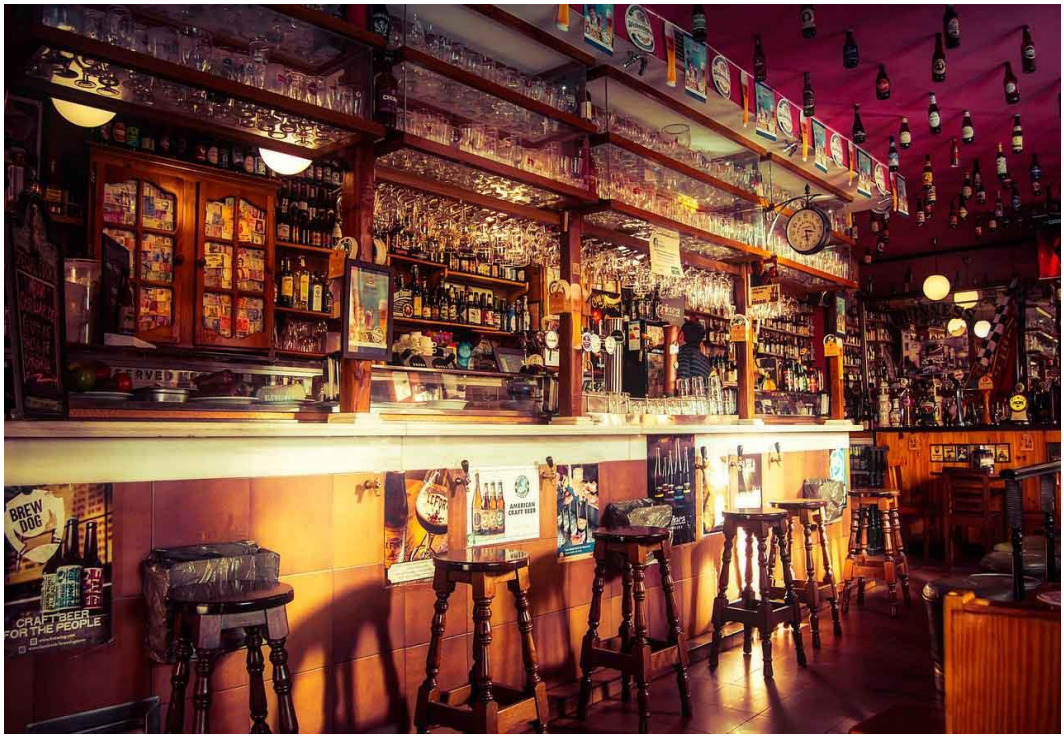
1. **Find the answers in the text:**
   1) What is Trooping the Colour?
   2) What is Ceremony of The Keys about?
   3) When and where the State Opening happen?
   4) What is a common route of the changing Guard?
   5) Where should you go in London if you want to get to know more about above-mentioned ceremonies?
2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**

   Foot Guard, the Grenadiers, royal colour, regimental colour, the "Blues", "The Tins", steel cuirasses, long guard, Beefeaters, the Chief Warder, to command the sentry, "the Last Post".
3. **Choose one of the ceremonies**: "Changing the Guard", "Trooping the Colour", "Mounting the Guard", "The Ceremony of the Keys", "State opening", and prepare a presentation (use words and phrases from task 2).

4. **Find out when traditional ceremonies in London take place and make up a calendar of London traditional ceremonies for the current year.**
5. **Check your knowledge of London and its traditional ceremonies:**
   https://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz595296d3540.html
   https://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz2769241fb4528.html

UNIT 20

What is British pub culture?



Pub culture is an integral part of British life, especially student life. Pubs are a place to go to socialise, relax and have a drink. It is something you should experience if you want to learn about Brits and our culture, even if you don't drink alcohol.

Going to pubs is fun. However, having said that there are some social rules attached to visiting the pub and knowing them will make your experience more enjoyable.

If you're not a drinker or you're the designated driver, then you can easily order a soft drink! If you're a drinker, then the usual order at a pub consists of lager, ale, bitter and spirits. A request for lager, ale or bitter will usually get you a whole pint unless you specify you want half!

It is unlikely pubs will be able to serve you fancy cocktails. This is something that you would normally get in a bar.

Pub culture is a big part of British culture. British pubs often serve a wide range of beer.

In almost all pubs you need to order your drink at the bar, so don't wait around for someone to take your order from your table. The only exception to this is when you go to a "gastro pub", aka a posh pub, for a meal. Then you will get table service.

Pubs are busy at peak times such as after work and the weekends. It's advisable to edge your way to the front of the queue but strictly NO pushing in. You will not be popular. Once at the front, get the attention of the bar staff by having your money ready. They will most likely say "what will it be" or "what are you having" and you give them your order.

In some pubs they will ask if you want to start a tab, which means do you want to leave your debit or credit card behind the bar. In exchange they will give you a card with a number. Each time you place an order the staff will ask for that number and at the end they will present the bill to you.

Do you leave a tip?

You don't normally tip bar staff in the UK. If you want to say thanks, then offer to buy them a drink. They can then choose to accept the drink or take the value of the drink in the form of a tip.

Which pub is the right one for you?

You will find that many pubs are the hub for their local community, which means they are a great way to meet people. Some are also known for a certain thing, such as a venue for a certain genre of music or their quiz night. There are pubs that are known for being a place where people gather to watch a certain sport or support a certain football team. It's best to check out the vibe because it can be an uncomfortable experience if you support one team and everyone else is supporting the opposition.

You will also find certain pubs are known as a hangout for certain nationalities, such as "Aussies (Australians) and "Kiwis" (New Zealanders).

One of the great things about the pub culture in the UK is that you can strike up a conversation with a stranger and even make new friends. It might be a passing comment about the weather or the football scores. It could also be something weightier, such as something in the news or about politics. Whatever the topic is,

join in! It's fun! You may even get a drink bought for you, but remember to return the gesture.

What does 'buying a round' mean?

If you are with a group of friends and you are drinking, then 'getting your round' is an essential part of pub culture. If there's a designated driver, they normally get their drinks paid for, as they don't get to drink alcohol or at least not as much as everyone else. And the golden rule is to not leave the pub when it's your round!

Why do Brits say "cheers" before they start their drink?

Holding up your drink and clinking your glass against everyone else's whilst making eye contact and saying "cheers" is a must before you start drinking. The custom is about acknowledging friendships and the fact that you are all gathered to have a nice time.

The art of carrying drinks back to the table.

If it is your round and you are in a big group, then it is common to ask someone to help you bring back the drinks without spilling them.

One tactic you can use to help you get the drinks back to the table without spillages is to shout out "mind your backs" as you negotiate your way back to the table. It may not always work but you will find people tend to make way for you to pass through.

Popular snacks eaten in pubs

These days most pubs serve hot and cold food. Some pubs known as gastro pubs sell restaurant quality food. However, the traditional snacks eaten in pubs are crisps and nuts.

The social code is if you are feeling a bit peckish you'll ask people in your group what flavour of crisps they like. You then share the snacks by ripping the bag open so the crisps are piled on the torn foil.

A pub is unlike a restaurant – you have to go up to the bar to place your order. The signal to show that you are ready to order is holding your money in your hand, so that it is visible to the person behind the bar. Once you have placed your order

you will be given a table number that you place on your table. The food will then be bought to the table.

What does it mean when the bar staff ring the bell?

Last orders are usually around 10.30pm or 11pm on a Sunday. Bar staff will ring the bell to signal it's time to place your last orders. They will then ring it again to signal the bar is closing. No more orders can be placed after the second bell.

1. **Find the answers in the article:**
   1) What are pubs for the Brits and their culture?
   2) What do pubs serve?
   3) How do the Brits order drinks in pubs?
   4) Is it normal to start a conversation with a stranger in a pub?
   5) What does "buying a round" mean?
   6) How to order food in a traditional pub?
2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**
   licensing hours, public bar, saloon bar, dart-board, to have a good eye, undeniable institution, to adopt a white hart, personal badge, a pint of bitter, heraldic origin, random location.
3. **a) read the article "How did British pubs get their names?"**:
   https://britishheritage.com/british-pubs-names

   b) get acquainted with the most popular names:

   1. Red Lion
   2. The Crown
   3. Royal Oak
   4. White Hart
   5. The Swan
   6. The Plough
   7. White Horse
   8. New Inn
   9. The Ship
   10. King's Head

c) choose one of the name from the list above and prepare a presentation about its origin and history (use phrases from task 2).

4. Watch video "Top 10 Movie Pubs You Can Actually Visit" and do the following tasks:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ux5-gQbxXPE

1) Write down the movies mentioned in the video;
2) Write down the pubs mentioned in the video;
3) What names were changed in the movies? What are real names of these pubs?
4) What episodes show fights in the pubs? Write down the movies and the names of the pubs.
5) What episode shows a celebration? Write down the movie and the name of the pub.
6) Which of the pubs serves whisky and gin in a real life?
7) What episodes show the customers playing games in the pub? Write down the movie and the names of the pubs.
8) What is the name of the pub located in a Scottish village? Which movie was shot there?
9) Can you write down one movie and one pub that have the same names?
10) Which of the pubs was initially described in a novel?

**Optional: you may choose to record a video blog with answers instead of writing them down.*

5.Check your knowledge of British pubs and their traditions:

https://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz584106b28b8.html

https://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz14518910a0e60.html

UNIT 21

HISTORY OF THE FILM INDUSTRY IN THE UK

Let's take a look at a brief history of the film industry in the UK. Film and cinema as an entertainment began as an industry in the 19th century in the UK, the US and France. The very first moving picture was shot by Louis Le Prince in 1888.

The following year, that picture was developed on celluloid film by William Friese Greene in London's Hyde Park and he patented the process in 1890. Later, Birt Acres and Robert W. Paul built and operated the first working 35mm camera and in 1895, they produced the very first British film, a movie entitled "Incident at Closely Cottage".

In fact, by 1910, British films had taken over about 15% of the US market. However, this early success waned quickly as American films took over with high budget films that were well marketed and by 1914, the British films' share of the local market dwindled from half to less than 10%.

But while local film production was fading, cinema going became more and more popular as a pastime in the UK and investments in cinemas went up.

The government was quick to recognize this as a source of revenue and it included cinemas, along with music halls and theaters, in the Entertainment Tax in 1916. The tax rates were reduced after WWII and then eventually abolished by 1960.

British film production went on a record low by 1925 with less than 40 feature films being produced in a year, compared to more than 150 annually in 1920.

American films have taken over the local market and the government eventually realized the value of the film industry to the country's economy, creating the Cinematograph Films Act 1927. The act aimed to protect the British market from domination of American films by setting quotas for locally made films.

The 1930th saw a boom in the industry, as local films were protected in the local market and were able to compete with American films without a need for dubbing, unlike French and German films. London Film Productions rose to become the most successful film production company in the UK.

This stretch of success came to a sudden halt in the late 1930's, when companies trying to expand quickly had to declare bankruptcy. In 1936, film production was at its peak at just a little less than 200 films produced that year, and the number fell by two-thirds in the following four years.

The government again set out to give a helping hand to the industry, setting up a committee in 1936 to work on studying what assistance is needed by the film industry.

The committee, led by Lord Moyne, recommended that financial institutions should be encouraged to provide the funds for film productions, and to extend the quotas for ten more years.

The Cinematographic Films Act 1938 provided resolutions to encourage films with bigger budgets to compete better with films from abroad, and US film companies to make their films in the UK. Warner Bros and 20th Century Fox already had facilities in the UK, and MGM put up a subsidiary that produced successful films.

While the industry was still in recession when WWII began, it saw another boom after the war. The number of cinema goers increased, even though the number of film studios decreased, with numbers going from 19 million weekly in 1938 to 30 million in 1945.

The years following the war saw a boom in film production in the UK to over 120 films in 1950. It was also in the 1940's that J. Arthur Rank built his film company that rose to compete with Hollywood film studios in terms of size and scope.

The Rank Organization was the largest film distributor in the UK between 1941 and 1947, financing about half of the British films and controlling more than 600 cinemas, and even securing a 25% stake in Universal Film Studios.

1. Find the answers in the text:

1) When did film and cinema as an entertainment begin as an industry?
2) Who produced the very first British film?

3) Why did the 1930th see a boom in the film industry?
4) What did the Cinematographic Films Act 1938 provide?
5) What did Arthur Rank build in the 1940th?

2. Use dictionaries to explain the following:

to develop a picture, to take over a market, dubbing, to put up a subsidiary, to have facilities, to be in recession, to compete in terms of smth., film distributor.

3. Watch one of the latest British movies and write a review according to the draft and a given sample.

Draft of the review:

1) Start with a compelling fact or opinion on the movie. You want to get the reader hooked immediately. This sentence needs to give them a feel for your review and the movie -- is it good, great, terrible, or just okay? -- and keep them reading. Some ideas include:

- Comparison to Relevant Event or Movie: "Every day, our leaders, politicians, and pundits call for "revenge"-- against ISIS, against rival sports teams, against other political parties. But few of them understand the cold, destructive, and ultimately hallow thrill of revenge as well as the characters of Blue Ruin."
- Review in a nutshell "Despite a compelling lead performance by Tom Hanks and a great soundtrack, Forrest Gump never gets out of the shadow of its weak plot and questionable premise."
- Context or Background Information: "Boyhood might be the first movie made where knowing how it was produced -- slowly, over 12 years, with the same actors -- is just as crucial as the movie itself."

2) Give a clear, well-established opinion early on. Don't leave the reader guessing whether you like the movie or not. Let them know early on, so that you can spend the rest of the time "proving" your rating.[2]

- Using stars, a score out of 10 or 100, or the simple thumbs-up and thumbs-down is a quick way to give your thoughts. You then write about why you chose that rating.
- Great Movie: "is the rare movie that succeeds on almost every level, where each character, scene, costume, and joke firing on all cylinders to make a film worth repeated viewings."
- Bad Movie: "It doesn't matter how much you enjoy kung-fu and karate films: with 47 Ronin, you're better off saving your money, your popcorn, and time."
- Okay Movie: "I loved the wildly uneven Interstellar far more than I should have, but that doesn't mean it is perfect. Ultimately, the utter awe and spectacle of space swept me through the admittedly heavy-handed plotting and dialogue".

3) Move beyond the obvious plot analysis. Plot is just one piece of a movie, and shouldn't dictate your entire review. Some movies don't have great or compelling plots, but that doesn't mean the movie itself is bad. Other things to focus on include:

- Cinematography: "Her is a world drenched in color, using bright, soft reds and oranges alongside calming whites and grays that both build, and slowly strip away, the feelings of love between the protagonists. Every frame feels like a painting worth sitting in."
- Tone: "Despite the insane loneliness and high stakes of being stuck alone on Mars, The Martian's witty script keeps humor and excitement alive in every scene. Space may be dangerous and scary, but the joy of scientific discovery is intoxicating."
- Music and Sound: "No Country For Old Men's bold decision to skip music entirely pays off in spades. The eerie silence of the desert, punctuated by the brief spells of violent, up-close-and-personal sound effects of hunter and hunted, keeps you constantly on the edge of your seat."

- Acting: "While he's fantastic whenever he's on the move, using his cool stoicism to counteract the rampaging bus, Keanu Reeves can't quite match his costar in the quiet moments of Speed, which falter under his expressionless gaze".

4) Bring your review full-circle in the ending. Give the review some closure, usually by trying back to your opening fact. Remember, people read reviews to decide whether or not they should watch a movie. End on a sentence that tells them.

- Great: "In the end, even the characters of Blue Ruin know how pointless their feud is. But revenge, much like every taut minute of this thriller, is far too addictive to give up until the bitter end.""
- Bad: "Much like the oft-mentioned "box of chocolates", Forest Gump has a couple of good little morsels. But most of the scenes, too sweet by half, should have been in the trash long before this movie was put out."
- Okay: "Without the novel, even revolutionary concept, Boyhood may not be a great movie. It might not even be "good." But the power the film finds in the beauty of passing time and little, inconsequential moments -- moments that could only be captured over 12 years of shooting -- make Linklater's latest an essential film for anyone interested in the art of film".

10 Questions to Ask Before Writing a Movie Review

1) Is this film part of a franchise? How does it suit the series?
2) Is the plot based on a novel, fantasy, or real-life events?
3) Did the writer manage to create a clear and captivating plot?
4) Is the rhythm of the movie dynamic or smooth? Are there too many needless details?
5) What is the target audience of the film? Is it G-rated, R-rated, or unrated?
6) Do movies on the same theme/topic that are worth mentioning in your review exist?

7) What sorts of shots does the cameraman use in the film? How do these techniques affect the overall impression?
8) Does the movie have an exclusively entertaining character or touch on serious issues?
9) Was the casting successful? Did all actors manage to portray their characters?
10) What is the general atmosphere of the movie? Is it tense / joyful / obscure?

The Dark Knight Rises (2012)

Cast: Christian Bale, Tom Hardy, Anne Hathaway, and Joseph Gordon-Levitt

Director: Christopher Nolan

Synopsis: Christian Bale stars as both the classic caped crusader and his billionaire alter-ego, Bruce Wayne. In this third installment of Christopher Nolan's Batman films, Bruce Wayne no longer feels that the City of Gotham needs a hero and goes on a secluded hiatus. However, when a new villain, Bane (Tom Hardy), threatens Gotham City, Wayne dons his cape and mask once more.

Review: Christopher Nolan brings yet another adrenaline-filled, comic-inspired movie to the big screen. We see all sorts of familiar faces this time around, but the audience is introduced to a few new characters as well. When crisis threatens Gotham City, Bruce Wayne jumps back into the Batmobile to fight crime. Batman is joined on his quest by an eager orphaned cop (Joseph Gordon-Levitt), a seductive cat burglar (Anne Hathaway), and a violent masked villain (Tom Hardy).

This film served as great entertainment with its colorful cast and numerous plot twists. Nolan used actors that had either appeared in previous Batman films or in his blockbuster hit Inception, and all of them shone in their respective roles: Tom Hardy was almost unrecognizable in his Bane costume, while Joseph Gordon-Levitt and Marion Cotillard were both excellent—and

obviously comfortable with Nolan's directing style and the film's dramatic tone.

The one actor that gave this reviewer pause was Anne Hathaway as Selina Kyle. She has historically been typecast as the girl next door, so it was a shock to watch her steal and fight her way through the City of Gotham. After a few scenes, however, we were convinced that the casting decisions was a good one, as Hathaway portrayed the darker Catwoman role brilliantly.

True to Nolan's style, at 164 minutes, this film is fairly long. There were a few times when the movie felt a bit drawn out, but the gorgeous action scenes and impressive dialogue really held the audience's attention and kept them on the edge of their seats. However, the timeline was a bit unclear at times. For a number of scenes, it was hard to tell whether it had been days or months or years that had passed since the last time a given character had been on screen.

Despite the films minor shortcomings, The Dark Knight Rises is exciting, creative, and dark—and well worth a few hours of your time.

4. Read about top 10 British Oscar winners:

https://roobla.com/movies/21615/top-10-british-oscar-winners/

Choose one of the winners and prepare a presentation(10-12 slides) about this film star.

5. Check your knowledge of the English movie:

https://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz3863182c39398.html

https://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz2612561de94c8.html

https://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz764638c3710.html

UNIT 22

We spoke to the new generation of British playwrights who will dominate

By Sarah Bradbury

John Steinbeck wrote in “Once There Was a War”: “The theatre is the only institution in the world which has been dying for 4,000 years and has never succumbed. It requires tough and devoted people to keep it alive.”

The UK has long been celebrated for its rich heritage of creative talent and a vibrant, enduring theatre scene. But where budget cuts are running deep across government spending, the arts are proving an easy target. The cost of living crisis touching many people, not just creatives, is a huge challenge for playwriting, often a lengthy and time-consuming process. And whether or not we consider the theatre a dying art form, at the very least, competition for audience’s leisure time, hard-earned cash and imaginations is as intense as ever. As new playwright Liam Borrett, who had success with “This Is Living last year”, puts it: “People can watch The Crown on Netflix from bed for £8.99 a month, so you have to create something interesting enough to drag them out mid-winter for three hours at a cost of £30 or £40.”

Many theatres and foundations run schemes and initiatives – such as the biennial Bruntwood Prize, now open for 2017 submissions – to support as many new playwrights, in and out of London, to write and experiment as possible.

Bruntwood prize 2019 nominees

Yet it remains risky for a building to put on a new play rather than a tried and tested classic, and increasingly artistic directors will shape their seasons through commissions for specific writers, rather than see what lands on their doorstep. So who are the next generation of “tough and devoted”, working to keep theatre alive in our age of austerity and ever-accessible digital entertainment? And how are they faring?

Alex MacKeith’s debut School Play has just opened at Southwark Playhouse. For 25-year-old MacKeith, there ought to be a platform for young playwrights as a means of engagement with current issues or dramatically presenting characters who have not been represented on stage before, a deeply important exercise for citizens who operate in society, “Increasingly we need to cultivate our sympathies for other people,” he says.

Having been part of a dynamic theatrical scene at university, it was his idea for School Play – about the realities of the school system in the UK, borne of his own personal experience as a tutor in a primary school – that he kept coming back to. Describing the naturalistic piece as “inventive reportage rather than pure invention”, the “shape-shifting beast” needed many iterations to keep up to date with frequent changes in policy. “It’s not a polemic on the education system,” he says.

“Neither am I presenting an alternative. It simply asks questions, which is what plays should do.”

Katherine Soper, 2015 Bruntwood Prize winner, lauds such programmes for providing the feedback many aspiring writers, sending out work to theatres like unanswered “messages in a bottle”, crave. The 25-year-old feels a fetishisation of the young in theatre can be reductive and damaging at times, particularly if a writer gets feted for greatness on the basis of an early work when they might not have had a chance to hone their craft away from critical eyes. Yet in the current political climate, the voice of the upcoming generation – overwhelmingly for Bremain and opposed to Trump – does need to be heard.

With Wish List, currently on at the Royal Court, she did not set out to create a politically charged play; only when she started developing her story about the moralisation of work did she realise it was something she felt strongly about. For Soper, entertainment should not be pejorative: less about trite comparisons or a blunt tool for political statement it’s “about plugging into visceral things, the kinds of fears and emotions people are experiencing at a certain moment in time. When a new or canonical play engages with that, it will resonate.”

Playwright Chloe Todd Fordham, 30, praises initiatives and schemes for championing her writing but also admits facing a reality check in how difficult it is to write once making it onto the Royal Court’s writing programme. Through studying an MA and writing with Theatre 503, she developed Sound of Silence, which received a Bruntwood Judges’ Award in 2015. A bold and ambitious play, she is still working to see it staged, highlighting the often unseen slow burn of taking a play from its first writing to production. She says: “It’s a combination of being patient and staying confident in the value of what you have to say. Not giving up.”

Scottish writer Stef Smith, 29, who had her London debut with Human Animals at the Royal Court last year and is developing Girl in the Machine for Scotland’s new writing theatre Traverse, is loathe to use the term “the regions”, but notes the different “ecosystems” surrounding making work not always visible through a pervasive London-centric lens. While the UK capital may hold more

opportunities, the concentration of the theatre community in cities such as Edinburgh can afford closer connections and a nurturing environment for new writers.

Alexander Zeldin, 31, who saw success with Beyond Caring last year and whose play Love is currently transferring from London to Birmingham, is pushing a new, more process-driven approach to theatre. He sees a shift toward more forms of writing and collaborative writing, involving actors heavily in developing his characters. His theatre is firmly rooted in concrete communities: "It's important a play makes sense to people and is not removed in some literary bubble – that can happen in our theatre culture," he says. He is now preparing to take Beyond Caring to Chicago's Lookingglass theatre with David Schwimmer, exploring the play's theme of zero-hour contracts with African-American and Latino workers in the US.

The threat to theatre's longevity is not a new one. And perhaps the challenge is, as ever, to keep seeking new edges in old tales, bringing fresh stories to the stage and cultivating new audiences by engaging with contemporary issues and a new generation of theatre goers through schools, young people and presenting theatre as something that is not exclusive. Netflix has its attractions, as does the cinema. But there is something idiosyncratic about the collective live experience of theatre, particularly in the close quarters of fringe venues. As MacKeith says: "Once made accessible and non intimidating, the form does a lot of the work in keeping people engaged as it is so unique. In fact, it's addictive."

1. **Find the answers in the text:**
    1) What is a huge challenge for playwriting nowadays?
    2) What is the main task of biennial Bruntwood Prize?
    3) What contribution did Alex MacKeith make to the development of modern British theatre?
    4) Who won 2015 Bruntwood Prize? What do know about the winner?
    5) What is Alexander Zeldin's new process-driven approach to theatre?
    6) Do you agree with John Steinbeck who wrote in "Once There Was a War": "The theatre is the only institution in the world which has been dying for

4,000 years and has never succumbed. It requires tough and devoted people to keep it alive".

2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**

time-consuming process, to keep seeking new edges in old tales, to drag sb. out, to provide the feedback, a nurturing environment, to engage with contemporary issues, literary bubble.

3. **Study the information about Globe Theatre, watch the video, and write a short essay of 200-250 words "Globe theatre: the past and the present":**

https://www.britannica.com/topic/Globe-Theatre/Rebuilding-the-Globe

https://www.shakespearesglobe.com/

4. **Read about the winners of Olivier awards:**

   https://officiallondontheatre.com/olivier-awards

   Choose one winner from any nomination and prepare a presentation (10-12 slides).

5. **a) Watch the presentation "Basic theatre terms":**

   https://www.tes.com/lessons/JNAjxvtrvLFcyQ/basic-theater-background

   b) Study the theatre terms glossary entries "Beginners", "Costume / wardrobe", "Jobs in theatre industry":

   http://www.theatrecrafts.com/pages/home/topics/jobs/glossary/

   c) Check your knowledge: quiz "Technical theatre": https://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz22427719adee0.html

   quiz "Oh, what a night!":

   https://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz34048526fa760.html

UNIT 23

Adele: The full story

by Will Gompertz

In little more than eight years, Adele has come from nowhere to establish herself as one of the world's biggest entertainment brands, right up there with Grand Theft Auto, Star Wars, FIFA 2016, and Call of Duty. The proof was in the prizes on Wednesday night, when she walked away with a record-equalling four Brit Awards. Her success is a remarkable achievement - all the more impressive given that she is operating in a market that has roughly halved in size over the past decade.

It is a feat for which she has been been lauded, applauded and awarded across the globe. And called a "freak", by Tim Ingham, the respected music journalist who runs the website Music Business Worldwide. She is not normal, he told me. At least, in terms of her achievements: "Breaking album sales records in 2016 is in and of itself a miracle." That is a sentiment echoed by a high-ranking music exec who preferred not to be named. He called Adele "an anomaly", "label-proof", and a beacon "of hope for the industry".

She is neither star-struck by Townshend's presence nor impressed by Fuller's overbearing style. She goes along with the banter enough to ensure she doesn't appear rude or arrogant, but makes it obvious she thinks the conversation is a bit silly. She comes across as an independently minded, matter-of-fact alpha-female who is comfortable in her own skin.

She has since been variously described as fun, gobby, bolshie, and loud - a big personality who (and this comes up less frequently) is not one to suffer fools. I have heard that a lot. Not publicly though. "Off the record" was a standard refrain used by industry-types when speaking to me about her. They were worried about upsetting the singer, which is not surprising. She is a powerful individual who can make people nervous. My guess is that has always been the case. Adele Adkins is a force to be reckoned with. As is her voice.

Notwithstanding the technical mishaps of her recent Grammy performance where she described her singing as "pitchy", there is no doubt she is blessed with a remarkable voice. Hearing it live is something else. I remember being in the O2 Arena in London one afternoon back in 2012. I was on my own save for seven or eight events staff preparing tables for that night's Brit Awards. I was standing at the end of the runway stage when Adele walked on from the wings with three or four backing singers, tapped a microphone, signalled to the sound desk, and let rip with Rolling in the Deep.

There are many artists - Nina Simone comes to mind - who can communicate love and loss with staggering authenticity in songs written by others. Not so much Adele. With the exception of her version of Bob Dylan's Make You Feel My Love, she is much, much better when performing her own songs, where her investment in the narrative is palpable and persuasive.

Her approach to writing typically involves her hand taking direct instruction from her broken heart - sometimes in the form of a "drunk diary" - and then, more often than not, being honed with an established lyricist such as Eg White, Paul Epworth, or Ryan Tedder. The idea is to make them as "personal as possible", according to Dan Wilson, co-writer of Someone Like You.

Frank honesty is her trademark, her shtick. It's her default public persona on stage and off - the whole what-you-see-is-what-you-get thing, complete with cackles, vulgarities, and informal chattiness. It's charming, in the same way as being polite to your friend's parents is charming. In reality there is absolutely nothing easygoing or flippant about the way Adele controls her public image. Her "brand" is micro-managed with the same meticulous professionalism she brings to her music. In the fame game you have a choice - manipulate or be manipulated. She has chosen the former.

"When Twitter first came out, I was drunk-tweeting and nearly put my foot in quite a few times. So my management decided that you have to go through two people, and then it has to be signed off by someone." (BBC, 2015)

"I don't make music for eyes, I make music for ears." (Rolling Stone, 2011)

"I get so nervous on stage I can't help but talk. I try. I try telling my brain: stop sending words to the mouth. But I get nervous and turn into my grandma." (Observer, 2011)

"I love a bit of drama. That's a bad thing. I can flip really quickly." (US Vogue, 2012)

When stories started to leak out about her in the press a few years ago, her suspicious mind turned towards members of her inner circle. She devised a mischievous plan to test the loyalty of her subjects and flush out the treacherous. She instigated a series of private tete a tetes with individuals in her court into which she would drop a juicy piece of bespoke insider information. With the trap thus laid, she would sit back and wait to see which, if any, of her planted tidbits found their way into the public domain. If and when they did - and they did - the culprit(s) would be swiftly excommunicated ("I get rid of them"), a process she described as "quite fun".

It did the trick. The leaks dried up. The frighteners had been put on. But the message hadn't reached Wales, where her estranged father Mark Evans was living. He gave chapter and verse to the Sun in 2011, with further quotes appearing in the Daily Mail. He told how he met Adele's mother, Penny Adkins, in a North London pub in 1987 when he was in his mid-20s and she was a teenage art student. They

moved in together, she soon fell pregnant, and Adele Laurie Blue Adkins was born on 5 May 1988.

He didn't hang around. He went back to Wales, worked as a plumber and became an alcoholic. Penny moved to South London with their daughter and worked as a masseuse, furniture maker and office administrator. He speculated that Adele's music was "rooted in the very dark places she went through as a young girl", citing his departure and the death of his father, to whom he said his daughter was very close. He hoped that after years of separation from Adele they could patch things up. Adele's response to her dad's tabloid tales was unequivocal: "He's f***ing blown it. He'll never hear from me again… If I ever see him I will spit in his face."

Her father said it was he who imbued his daughter with a love of music. She talks about her mother listening to Jeff Buckley and taking her to gigs - The Beautiful South when she was three years old, The Cure a couple of years later. By the age of 10 she was making her own choices, with The Spice Girls her No 1: "It was a huge moment in my life when they came out. It was girl power. It was five ordinary girls who did so well and just got out. I was like, I want to get out."

She did. She left her comprehensive school in Balham, where she said there was a depressing lack of ambition, and went to the Brit School - Amy Winehouse's alma mater. She met her best friend Laura Dockrill (now an author and performance poet), about whom she wrote the song My Same (they had a big falling-out, then made up. Adele says she likes to create drama).

When she was at school scribbling down lyrics and coming up with melodies Adele was having fun. Now she wasn't. She felt under pressure. Professional people had invested time and money and belief in her, and she had writer's block. Months passed. She wasn't ready. Then she met a "horrible boy". He broke her heart. Bingo. A month or two later she was climbing into the back of Pete Townshend's trailer…

She had her style nailed from the start - sit or stand and sing. No fuss. No bother. But then, she says she doesn't have rhythm, so dancing is out. Nor is she the athletic type with a Florence-like inclination to prance around the stage. There's not

a band to interact with or Rihanna-style body to flaunt. She's just an ordinary girl with an extraordinary voice. So, er… flaunt that.

Which is what she has done, to great effect. She is perfectly imperfect. The ordinary girl thing works for her melancholic love songs - a universal theme to which the entire globe can relate. Her whole style seems so relaxed, so nonchalant. She can afford it to be. She has people covering her back.

Adele has built her very own A-Team - a formidable, mostly male, collection of world-class producers and managers, who keep her show on the road; a band of pipers paid to call her tune. Which is what you would expect given her position as the 21st Century's best-selling recording artist. More surprising, perhaps, is that her core crew has been with her from the very beginning. Which tells you something about Adele's story - it is largely about judgement not luck. She calls it right so often you'd have her pick your Lottery numbers.

There's Carl Fysh at Purple PR (who also looks after Beyonce, one of Adele's celebrity fans) managing her profile and avoiding the multiple elephant traps that are scattered across today's complex media landscape. And the aforementioned Richard Russell at XL, a creative collaborator who had the contacts and musical sensitivity to draft in the right talent to help her where and when she needed it, hiring producers of the calibre of Mark Ronson, Jim Abbiss, Brian Burton, and perhaps most notably, Rick Rubin, the celebrated, Svengali-like American co-founder of Def Jam Records. These were all good choices made by a savvy teenage Adele. But her best pick has to be Jonathan Dickins, her manager.

1. **Find the answers in the article:**
    1) Why did Tim Ingham call Adele “a freak”?
    2) What qualities do different mass media ascribe to Adele?
    3) What does Will Gompertz (the author of the article) write about Adele’s voice?
    4) What did Adele do to stop leaking out of stories about her private life?
    5) What facts of Adele’s childhood have you got to know from this article?

2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**

   to be star-struck, to break album-sale records, to be one's trademark, to flush out the treacherous, to imbue someone with sth., to scribble down lyrics, to prance around the stage, keep one's show on the road.

3. **Choose one of Adele's songs and prepare its presentation of 10-12 slides** (its video clip and lyrics may be of help).
4. **Write an essay of 500 words: "Modern British music: the main trends".**
5. **Check your knowledge of British music: The Big British Music Quiz**

   https://www.pure.com/uk/blog/february-2018/the-big-british-music-quiz

UNIT 24

The legal system of England and Wales

The law is one of the most traditional areas of national life. Its main virtue is its independence from the system of government and as such, a safeguard of civil liberties. Its main vice lies in its resistance to reform and the maintenance of its own privileges which may be contrary to public interests.

The legal system for England and Wales (there are separate ones for Scotland and Northern Ireland) does not have a criminal or civil code, but is founded upon two basic elements: Acts of Parliament or statute law, and common law which is the outcome of past decisions and practices based upon custom and reason. Common law has slowly built up since Anglo-Saxon times one thousand years ago, while Parliament has been enacting statutes since the thirteenth century. Generally speaking, almost all criminal law is now set out in Acts of Parliament, while the greater part of civil law still depends upon common law, the weight and guidance of previous similar decisions.

Common law is a collection of practices used to solve disputes and deal with offenders over the centuries. Slowly the collection grew bigger, acquiring bits and pieces rather as a snowball accumulates gravel and bits of grass in its course. It was not and is not a tidy system. As society became more complex, it was obvious that all sorts of legislation were needed to cope with developments, changes, huge alteration to social structure. So Parliament began to enact laws – dealing with every aspect of life: finances; homes; working practices; personal relationships; education; obligations in war-time; travel rights; taxes, and so on. The legislative program grows each year larger. For example, in 1990, 46 Public Acts became law, together with nearly 2700 regulations.

A great deal of emphasis is put on the concept of "precedent". If, for example, someone is sued by another citizen demanding his rights (because, say, he has not been paid money owing to him, or because he thinks he has been poisoned in the defendant's restaurant) the judge in the court cannot decide what to do on the basis

of what seems fair and full of common sense. He has to follow decisions made by previous judges according to the law as interpreted on that previous occasion. In fact, the judge does not “decide” what to do; he “interprets the law according to precedent”. Maybe the contestants in the case will both feel angry, but he will say he has no choice.

What happens to individuals accused of crime? There are 2 main types of court, magistrates’ courts (or courts of first instance) which deal with about 95% of criminal cases and minor offences, and Crown Courts for more serious offences. All criminal cases above the level of magistrates’ courts are held before a jury.

Magistrates are volunteers who work at other jobs and sit in the courts for, for example, two days a week. Often they have a good idea of what ‘real life’ is like, and, by sitting in groups of three and discussing each case together, they can work out an appropriate kind of punishment and explain to the offender (if he or she is an offender) exactly what the sentence means, in language that ordinary people can understand.

In the higher courts, where judges preside and special lawyers discuss the case, justice is associated with wigs, strange clothes and bewildering rituals. Despite the fact that rules are based on common law, the atmosphere of a High Court has nothing in common with it. In Britain they do not have an `examining magistrate` as in most European countries, who is supposed to try to find out what actually happened. There is an adversary system – one lawyer for and one against the accused person; whoever puts the best case, `wins`. Sometimes the accused man standing in the court thinks that the case as debated between these lawyers has nothing to do with him or his experience.

In British law, a man is presumed innocent until he is found guilty. The accused man has one other protection: the jury. The jury consists of twelve ordinary citizens who have to decide, having heard the evidence, whether he is guilty or not.

The most common type of law court in England and Wales is the magistrates' court. There are 700 magistrates' courts and about 30,000 magistrates.

More serious criminal cases then go to the Crown Court which has 90 branches in different towns and cities. Civil cases (for example, divorce or bankruptcy cases) are dealt with in County courts.

Appeals are heard by higher courts. For example, appeals from magistrates' courts are heard in the Crown Court, unless they are appeals on points of law. The highest court of appeal in England and Wales is the House of Lords. Scotland has its own High Court in Edinburgh which hears all appeals from Scottish courts. Certain cases may be referred to the European Court of Justice in Luxembourg. In addition individuals have made the British Government change its practices in a number of areas as a result of petitions to the European Court of Human Rights.

The legal system also includes juvenile courts which deal with offenders under seventeen and coroners' courts which investigate violent, sudden or unnatural deaths. There are administrative tribunals which make quick, cheap and fair decisions with much less formality. Tribunals deal with professional standards, disputes between individuals and disputes between individuals and government departments (for example, over taxation).

1. **Find the answers in the text:**
   1) What are two basic elements of the legal system in England and Wales?
   2) What is Common Law?
   3) Why is the concept of “precedent” so important in the English legal system?
   4) What type of court is common in England and Wales?
   5) What is the difference between Magistrates and Crown Courts?
   6) What type of courts deals with appeals? With offenders under 17?
2. **Use dictionaries to explain the following:**

   criminal code, civil code, Public Act, Act of Parliament, Magistrate, County Court, juvenile court, administrative tribunal.

3. **Watch two videos about the work of Crown Courts and Magistrates in England. Make a list of differences in their work. Prepare a presentation (10-12 slides).**
   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cTXitPXuOQU
   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fCybrBaKj8s
4. **Read the article from "Mirror" about 10 crimes that shook Britain:**
   https://www.mirror.co.uk/news/uk-news/10-crimes-that-shook-britain-817163
   1) Choose one of the crimes and find more information about it;
   2) Write an essay of at least 350 words about the crime you have chosen.
5. **Check your knowledge of legal system in England and Wales:**
   https://global.oup.com/uk/orc/law/els/wilson_directions2e/01student/selftest/ch10/
   https://global.oup.com/uk/orc/law/els/wilson_directions2e/01student/selftest/ch08/
   https://global.oup.com/uk/orc/law/els/wilson_directions2e/01student/selftest/ch09/

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22. http://www.britannia.com/history/

23. http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/british/launch_tl_british.shtml

24. https://www.britannica.com/place/United-Kingdom

25. http://www.scotland.org/about-scotland/scottish-history

26. http://www.wales.com/about-wales/history-ancestry

27. http://www.historyonthenet.com/chronology/timelinenorthernireland.htm

28. https://infopedia.su/18x21c9.html

Video resources

29. Digging for Britain. Prehistory (BBC documentaries). Mode of access: https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/b00tkz4j

30. Digging for Britain. The Romans. (BBC documentaries). Mode of access: https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/b00tj7rp

31. Digging for Britain. The Celts. Anglo-Saxons. (BBC documentaries). Mode of access: https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/b00tnpy8

32. Digging for Britain. The Tudors. Mode of access: https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/b00tr87r

33. History documentary. The Vikings: who were they. Mode of access: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GkJy1b4q3WU

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42. The Queen. Mode of access: https://www.imdb.com/title/tt0436697/?ref_=nv_sr_1
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