**ЛЕКЦІЙНИЙ КУРС**

**ЛЕКЦІЯ 1**

**Тема: History.**

**План**

**Prehistory. The Roman period (43-410).**

**The Germanic invasions (410-1066).**

**Література**

1. Англо-русский лингвострановедческий словарь. — Американа.
2. Бруннер К. История английского языка.— М., 1956.
3. Сатинова В.Ф. Британия и британцы. – Минск, 2004.
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7. James O`Driscoll. Britain. The country and its people. – Oxford, 1996.
8. Susan Sheerin. Spotlight on Britain. – Oxford, 1995.
9. Alan C. McLean. Profile UK.

**Виклад змісту лекції**

**Prehistory.**

Two thousand years ago there was an Iron Age Celtic Culture throughout the British Isles. It seems that the Celts, who had been arriving from Europe from the eighth century BC onwards, intermingled with the peoples who were already there. We know that religious sites that had been built long before the arrival of the Celts continued to be used in the Celtic period.

For people in Britain today, the chief significance of the prehistoric period (for which no written records exist) is its sense of mystery. This sense finds its focus most easily in the astonishing monumental architecture of this period, the remains of which exist throughout the country. Wiltshire, in south-western England, has two spectacular examples: Silbury Hill, the largest burial mound in Europe, and Stonehenge. Such places have a special importance for anyone interested in the cultural and religious practices of prehistoric Britain. We know very little about these practices, but there are some organizations today (for example, the order of Bards, Ovates and Druids – a small group of eccentric intellectuals and mystics)who base their beliefs on them.

**The Roman period (43 –410).**

The Roman province of Britannia covered most of present-day England and Wales. The Romans imposed their own way of life and culture, making use of the existing Celtic aristocracy to govern and encouraging this ruling class to adopt Roman dress and the Roman language (Latin). The Romans never went to Ireland and exerted an influence, without actually governing there, over only the southern part of Scotland. It was during this time that a Celtic tribe called the Scots and migrated from Ireland to Scotland, Where they became allies of the Picts (another Celtic tribe) and opponents of the Romans. This division of the Celts into those who experienced Roman rule (the Britons in England and Wales) and those who did not (the Gaels in Ireland and Scotland) may help to explain the development of two distinct branches of the Celtic group of languages.

The remarkable thing about the Romans is that, despite their long occupation of Britain, they left very little behind. Too many parts of Europe they bequeathed a system of low and administration which forms the basis of the modern system and a language which developed into the modern Romance family of languages. In Britain, they left neither. Moreover, most of their villas, baths and temples, their impressive network of roads, and the cities they founded, including Londinium (London), were soon destroyed or fell into disrepair. Almost the only lasting reminder of their presence are place-names like Chester Lancaster, which include variants of the Roman word “castra” (a military camp).

**The Germanic invasions (410-1066).**

One reason why Roman Britannia disappeared so quickly is probably that its influence was largely confined to the towns. In the country-side, where most people lived farming methods had remained unchanged and Celtic speech continued to be dominant.

The Roman occupation had been a matter of colonial control rather than large-scale settlement. But, during the fifth century, a number of tribes from the north-western European mainland invaded and settled in large numbers. Two of these tribes were the Angles and the Saxons. These Anglo-Saxons soon had the south-east of the country in their grasp. In the west of the country their advance was temporarily halted by an army of (Celtic) Britons under the command of the legendary King Arthur. Nevertheless, by the end of the sixth century, they and their way of life predominated in nearly all of England and in parts of Southern Scotland. The Celtic Britons were either Saxonized or driven westwards, where their culture and language survived in south-west Scotland, Wales and Cornwall.

The Anglo-Saxons had little use for towns and cities. But they had a great effect on the countryside, where they introduced new farming methods and founded the thousands of self-sufficient villages which formed the basis of English society for the next thousand or so years.

The Anglo-Saxons were pagan when they came to Britain. Christianity spread throughout Britain from different directions during the sixth and seventh centuries. It came directly from Rome when St. Augustine arrived in 597 and established his headquarters at Canterbury in the south-east of England. It had been already introduced into Scotland and northern England from Ireland, which had become Christian more then 150 years earlier. Although Roman Christianity eventually took over the whole of the British Isles, the Celtic model preexisted in Scotland and Ireland for several hundred years. It was less centrally organized, and had less need for a strong monarchy to support it. This partly explains why both secular and religious power in this two countries continued to be both more locally based than it was elsewhere in Britain throughout the medieval period.

Britain experienced another wave of Germanic invasions in the eighth century. These invaders, known as Vikings, Norsemen or Danes, came from Scandinavia. In the ninth century they conquered and settled the extreme north and west of Scotland, and also some coastal regions of Ireland. Their conquest of defeated by King Alfred of the Saxon kingdom of Wessex. This resulted in an agreement which divided England between Wessex, in the south and west, and the `Danelaw’ in the north and east.

However, the cultural differences between Anglo-Saxons and Danes were comparatively and spoke two varieties of the same Germanic tongue (which combined to form the basis of modern English). Moreover, the Danes soon converted to Christianity. These similarities made political unification easier, and by the end of the tenth century England was the Kingdom with a Germanic culture throughout.

Most of modern-day Scotland was also united by this time, at least in name, in a (Celtic) Gaelic kingdom.

**ЛЕКЦІЯ 2**

**Тема: History.**

**План**

**The medieval period (1066-1485).**

**The sixteenth century. The seventeenth century.**

**The eighteenth century. The Modern period.**

**Література**

1. Англо-русский лингвострановедческий словарь. — Американа.
2. Бруннер К. История английского языка.— М., 1956.
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7. James O`Driscoll. Britain. The country and its people. – Oxford, 1996.
8. Susan Sheerin. Spotlight on Britain. – Oxford, 1995.
9. Alan C. McLean. Profile UK.

**Виклад змісту лекції**

**The medieval period (1066-1485).**

The successful Norman invasion of England in 1066 brought Britain into the mainstream of the western European culture. Previously most links had been with Scandinavia. Only in Scotland did this link survive; the western isles (until the 13th century) and the northern islands (until the 15th century) remaining under the control of Scandinavian kings. throughout this period the English kings also ruled over areas of land on the continent and were often at war with the French kings in disputes over ownership.

Unlike the Germanic invasion, the Norman invasion was small-scale. There was no such thing as a Norman village or a Norman area of settlement. Instead, the Norman soldiers who had been part of the invading army was given the ownership of land – and of the people living on it. A strict feudal system was imposed. great nobles, or barons, were responsible directly to the king; lesser lords, each owing a village, were directly responsible to a baron. Under them were the peasants, tied by a strict system of mutual duties and obligations to the local lord, and forbidden to travel without his permission. This peasants were the English-speaking Saxons. The lords and the barons were the French-speaking Normans. This was the beginning of the English class system.

***1066 This date is the most famous date in English history. On 14 October 1066 an invading army from Normandy defeated the English at the battle of Hastings. The battle was close and extremely bloody. At the end of it, most best English soldiers were dead, including their leader, King Harold. As a result of the battle, the Norman leader, Duke William of Normandy, became King of the whole of England (“William the conqueror”). The date is remembered for being the last time when England was successfully invaded.***

The strong system of government which the Normans introduced meant that the Anglo-Norman kingdom was easily the most powerful political force in the British Isles. Not surprisingly of the English monarch gradually extended to other parts of these islands in the next years. By the end of the 13th century, a large part of eastern Ireland was controlled by Anglo-Norman lords in the name of the English king and the whole of Wales was under his direct rule (at which time the custom of naming the monarch’s eldest son the ‘Price of Wales’ began). Scotland managed to remain politically independent in the medieval period, but was obliged to fight occasional wars to do so.

The cultural story of this period is different. Two hundred and fifty years after the Norman Conquest, it was a Germanic language (Middle English) and not the Norman (French) language which had become the dominant one in all classes of society in England. Furthermore, it was the Anglo-Saxon concept of common low, and not Roman low, which formed the basis of the legal system.

Despite English rule, northern and central Wales was never settled in great numbers by Saxon or Norman. As a result the (Celtic Welsh language and culture remained strong. Eisteddfods, national festivals of Welsh songs and poetry, continued throughout the medieval period and still take place today. The Anglo-Norman lords of eastern Ireland remained loyal to the English king but despite laws to the contrary, mostly adopted the Gaelic language and customs.

The political independence of Scotland did not prevent a gradual switch to English language and customs in the lowland (southern) part of the country. First, the Anglo-Saxon element here was strengthened by the arrival of many Saxon aristocrats fleeing the Norman conquest of England. Second, the Celtic kings saw that the adoption of an Anglo-Norman style of government would strengthen royal power. By the end of this period a cultural split had developed between the lowlands, where the way of life and language was similar to that in England, and the highlands, where (Celtic) Gaelic culture and language prevailed – and where, because of the mountainous landscape, the authority of the king was hard to enforce.

It was in this period that Parliament began its gradual evolution into the democratic body which it is today. the word ‘parliament’, which comes from the French word ‘parler’ (to speak), was first used in England in the 13th century to describe an assembly of nobles called together by the king. In 1295 the Model Parliament set the pattern for the future by including elected representatives from urban and rural areas.

**The sixteenth century.**

The power of the English monarch increased in this period. The strength of the great barons had been greatly weakened by the Wars of the Roses. Bubonic plague ( known in England as the Black Death) contributed to the reduction of their power. It killed about a third of the population in its first outbreak in England in the middle of the 14th century and continued to the reappear periodically for another 300 years. The shortage of labour which this caused, which this caused, and the increasing importance of trade in the towns, helped to weaken the traditional ties between feudal lord and peasant.

The Tudor dynasty (1485-1603) established a system of government department, staffed by professionals who depended for their position on the monarch. as a result, the feudal barons were no longer needed for implementing government policy. They were also needed less for making government policy. Parliament was traditionally split into two ‘Houses’. The House of lords consisted of the feudal aristocracy and the leaders of the Church; The House of Commons consisted of representatives from the towns and the less important landowners in rural areas: was now more important for monarchs to get the agreement of the commons for policy-making because that was where the newly powerful merchants and landowners (the people with the money) were represented.

Unlike in much of the rest of Europe, the direct cause of the rise of Protestantism in England was political and personal rather than doctrinal. Henry VIII wanted a divorce which the Pope would not give him. Also, by making himself head of the ‘Church of England’, independent of Rome, all church lands came under his control and a large new source of income. This rejection of the Roman church was a new spirit of patriotic confidence in England. The country had finally lost realistic claim to lands in France, thus becoming more consciously a distinct island nation’. At the same time, increasing European exploration of the Americans and other parts of the world meant that England was closer to the geographical center of western civilization, instead of being, as previously, on the edge of it. It was in the last quarter of this adventurous and optimistic century that Shakespeare began writing his famous plays. It was therefore patriotism as much as religious conviction that had caused Protestantism to become the majority religion in England by the end of the century. It took a form known as Anglicanism, which not so very different from Catholicism in its organization and ritual. But in the lowlands of Scotland it took a more idealistic form. Calvinism, which its strict insistence on simplicity and its dislike of ritual and celebration, become the dominant religion. It is form this date that the stereotype of the dour, thrifty Scots developed. However, the Scottish highlands remained Catholic so further widened the gulf between the tow parts of the nation. Ireland also remained Catholic. There, Protestantism was identified with the English, who at that time were making further attempts to control the whole of the country.

**The seventeenth century.**

When James I became the first English king of the Stuart dynasty, he was already king of Scotland, so the crowns of these tow countries were united. Although their parliament and administrative and judicial systems continued to be separate, their linguistic differences were lessened in this century. The king of Middle English spoken in lowlands Scotland had developed into a written language known as ‘Scots’. However, the Scottish protestant church adopted English rather than Scots bibles. this, and the glamour of the English court where the king now sat, coursed modern English to become the written standard in Scotland as well.

In the 16th century religion and politics became inextricably linked. This link became even more intense in the 17th century. At the beginning of the century, some people tried to kill the king because he wasn’t Catholic enough. By the end of the century, another king had been killed, partly because he seemed too Catholic, and yet another had been forced into exile for the same reason.

This was the action in which, during the century, Parliament established its supremacy over the monarchy in Britain. Anger grew in the country at the way that the Stuart monarchs raised money, especially because they didn’t get the agreement of the House of Commons to do so first. This was against ancient tradition. In addition, ideological Protestantism, especially, Puritanism, had grown in England. Puritans regarded many of the practices of the Anglican Church, and also its structure as immoral. Some of them thought the luxurious lifestyle of the king and his followers was immoral too. They were also fiercely anti-Catholic and suspicious of the apparent sympathy towards Catholicism of the Stuart monarchs.

This conflict led to the Civil War, which ended with complete victory for the parliamentary forces. The king (Charles I) was captured and became the first monarch in Europe to be executed after a formal trial for crimes against his people. The leader of the parliamentary army, Oliver Cromwell, became ‘Lord Protector’ of a republic with a military government which, after he had brutally crushed resistance in Ireland, effectively encompassed the whole of the British Isles.

But when Cromwell died, he, his system of government, and the puritan ethics that went with it (theatres and other forms of amusement had been banned) had become so unpopular that the son of the executed king was asked to return and take the throne. The Anglicans Church was restored. However, the conflict between monarch and Parliament soon re-emerged. The monarch, James II, tried to give full rights to Catholics, and to promote them in his government.

The ‘Glorious Revolution’ (‘glorious’ because it was bloodless) followed, in which Prince William of Orange, ruler of the Netherlands, and his Stuart wife Mary, accepted Parliament’s invitation to become king and queen. In this way it was established that a monarch could rule only with support of Parliament. Parliament immediately drew up a Bill of Rights, which limited some of the powers of the monarch (notably, the power to dismiss judges). It also allowed Dissenters (those who did agree with the practices of Anglicanism) to practice their religion freely. This meant that the Presbyterian Church, to which the majority of the lowland Scottish belonged, was guaranteed its legality. Dissenters were not allowed to hold government posts or be Members of Parliament.

James II, meanwhile, had fled to Ireland. But the Catholic Irish Army he gathered there , was defeated. Lows were then passed forbidding Catholics to vote or even own lands.

**The eighteenth century.**

Politically, this century was stable. Monarch and Parliament got on quite well together. One reason for this was that the monarch’s favorite politicians, through the royal power of patronage (the ability to give people jobs), were able to control the election and voting habits of a large number of Members of Parliament (MPs) in the House of Commons.

Within Parliament the division of the previous century, through far less bitter than before, were echoed in the formation of tow opposed loose collections of allies. One group, the Whigs, were the political ‘descendants’ of the parliamentarians. They supported the Protestant values of hard work and thrift, were sympathetic to Dissenters and believed in government by monarch and aristocracy together. The other group, the Nories, had a greater respect for idea of the monarchy and the importance of the Anglican church. the tow terms, Whig and Tory, had in fact first been used in the late 1670s and allegiance to one side or the other was more often the result of regional loyalty than of political beliefs. This could be said, however, to be the beginning of the party system in Britain.

The modern system of an annual budget drawn up by the monarch’s Treasury officials for the approval of Parliament was established during this century. So, too, was the habit of the monarch appointing one principal, or ‘Prime’, minister from the ranks of Parliament to head his government.

At the beginning of the century, by agreement, the Scottish Parliament joined with the English and Welsh Parliament at Westminster in London. However, Scotland retained its own system of law, more similar to continental European systems than to that in England. It does so to this day.

The only part of Britain to change radically as a result of political forces in this century was the highlands area of Scotland. This area twice supported failed attempts to put a (Catholic) Stuart monarch back on the throne by force. After the second attempt, many inhabitants of the highlands were killed or sent away from Britain and the wearing of highland dress (the tartan kilt) was banned. The Celtic way of life was effectively destroyed.

It was cultural change that was most marked in this century. Britain gradually expanded its empire in the Americans, along the West African coast and in India. The increased trade which resulted from the links with this new markets was one factor which led to the Industrial Revolution. The many technical innovations in the areas of manufacturing and transport during this period were also important contributing factors.

In England, the growth of the industrial mode of production, together with advances in agriculture, caused the greatest upheaval in the pattern of everyday life since the Anglo-Saxon invasions. Areas of common land, which had been available for use by everybody in a village for the grazing of animals since Anglo-Saxon times, disappeared as landowners in corporate them into their increasingly large and more efficient farms. Hundreds of thousands of people moved from rural areas into new towns and cities. Most of these new towns and cities were in the north of England, where the row materials for industry were available. In this way, the North became the industrial heartland of the country. The right conditions for industrialization also existed in lowland Scotland and south Wales.

In the south of England, London came to dominate, not as an industrial center but as a business and trading center. By the end of the century, it had a population close to a million.

Despite all the urban development, social power and prestige rested on the possession of land in the countryside.

**The nineteenth century.**

Not long before this century began, Britain had lost its most important American colonies in a war of independence. When the century began, the country was locked in a war with France, during which an invasion by a France army was a real possibility. Soon after the end of the century, Britain controlled the biggest empire the world had ever seen.

One section of this empire was Ireland. During this century it was, in fact, the part of the UK itself, and it was during this century that the British culture and way of life came to predominate in Ireland. By the end of the century, colonization was seen as the matter of destiny. There was an enormous increase in wealth during the century, so that Britain became the world’s foremost economic power. This, with long years of political stability unequalled to anywhere else in Europe, gave the British a sense of supreme confidence, (even arrogance), about their culture and civilization. The British came to see themselves as having a duty to spread this culture and civilization around the world. Being the rulers of an empire was therefore a matter of moral obligation. It was, in fact, known as ‘the white man burden’.

There were great changes in social structure. Most people now lived in towns and cities. They no longer depended on country landowners for their living but rather on the owners of industries. These factory owners held the real power in the country, along with the new and growing middle class of trades people. As they established a set of values which emphasized hard work, thrift, religious observance, family life, absolute honesty in public life and extreme respectability in sexual matters. This is the set of values which we now call Victorian.

Britain was gradually turning into something resembling a modern state. There were not only political reforms, but also reforms which recognized some human rights. Slavery and the laws against people on the basis of religion were abolished and laws were made to protect workers from some if the worst forms of exploitation resulting from the industrial mode of production. Public services such as the police force were set up.

Despite the reforms, the nature of the new industrial society forced many people to live and work in very unpleasant conditions. Writers and intellectuals of this period either protested against the horrors of this new style of life (as Dickens did) or simply ignored it. Many, especially the Romantic poets, praised the beauties of the country side the simplicity of country life. This was a new development. But form this tine on, most British people developed a sentimental attachment to the idea of the countryside.

**The twentieth century.**

By the beginning of this century, Britain was no longer the world’s richest country. The first twenty years of the century were a period of extremism in Britain. The Suffragettes, women demanding the right to vote, were prepared both to damage property and to die for their beliefs; the problem of Ulster in the North of Ireland led to a situation in which some sections of the army appeared ready to disobey the government; and the government’s introduction of new types and levels of taxation was opposed so absolutely by the House of Lords that even Parliament, the foundation of the political system, seemed to have future in its tradition form. By the end of the First World War, tow of these issues had been resolved to most people’s satisfaction (the Irish problem remained) and the rather un-British climate of extremism died out.

The significant changes that have taken place in this century are dealt with else – where. From the beginning of this century the urban working class finally began to make its voice heard. In Parliament, the Labour party gradually replaced the Liberals (the ‘descendants’ of the Whigs) as main opposition to the Conservatives (the ‘descendants’ of the Tories’). Trade unions managed to organize themselves. In 1926, they were powerful enough to hold a General Strike, and from 1930s until the 1980s the Trade Union Congress was probably the single most powerful political force outside the institution of government and Parliament.

**ЛЕКЦІЯ 3**

**Тема: Identity**

**План**

**Ethnic identity: the native British.**

**The family. Geographical identity.**

**Class division. Men and women.**

**Religious and political identity.**

**Identity in Northern Ireland.**

**Being British.**

**Література**

1. Англо-русский лингвострановедческий словарь. — Американа.
2. Бруннер К. История английского языка.— М., 1956.
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**Виклад змісту лекції**

**Ethnic identity.**

National (‘ethnic’) loyalties can be strong enough among people in Britain whose ancestors were not English. For some people living in England who call themselves Scottish, Welsh or Irish, this loyalty 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. **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.

Scottish Gaelic is a sense of cultural identity in modern times, felt only by a few tens of the thousands of people in some of the western isles of **Scotland.** These people speak Scottish Gaelic (Which they call ‘Gaelic’) as a first language.

The people of **Wales** do not have as many reminders of their Welshness in everyday life. The organization of public life is identical to that in England. A large minority of the people in Wales do not consider themselves especially Welsh at all. There is one single highly important *symbol of Welsh identity* – the Welsh language. Everybody in Wales can speak English, but it isn’t everybody’s first language. For about 20% of the population the mother tongue is Welsh. For this people Welsh identity means more than just living in the region known as Wales. Thanks to the campaigns, the language receives a lot of public support. All children learn it at school, there are many local newspapers in Wales, there is s Welsh television channel and nearly all public notices and signs are written in both Welsh and English.

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 Scottish, 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 situation for the several million people in Britain whose family roots lie in the **Caribbean** or in south **Asia** or elsewhere in the world is different. For them, ethnic identity is more than a question of deciding which sports team to support. Non – whites (about 6% of the total British population) cannot, as advertise their ethnic identity and when not to.

Most **non-whites,** although themselves born in Britain, have parents who were born outside it. The great wave of immigration from the Caribbean and south Asia took place between 1950 and 1965. The immigrants, especially those from south Asia, brought with them different languages, different religions and everyday habits and attitudes that were sometimes radically different from traditional British ones. As they usually married among themselves, these habits and customs have (to some extent) been preserved. For some young people brought up in Britain, this mixed cultural background can create problems. They cannot avoid these experiences, which make up part of their identity.

As well as this ‘given’ identity, non – white people in Britain often take pride in their cultural roots. This pride seems to be increasing as their cultural practices, their everyday habits and attitudes. Most of the country’s non – whites are British citizens. Pride can increase as a defensive reaction to racial discrimination. There is quite a lot of this in Britain. There are tens of thousands of racial motivated attacks on people every year, including one or two murders. All in all, racism is not as common as it is in many other parts of Europe.

**The family.**

In comparison with most other places in the world, family identity is rather weak in Britain, especially in England. The family unit is still the basic living arrangement for most people. But in Britain this definitely means the nuclear family. There is a little sense of extended family identity, except among some racial minorities. This is reflected in the size and composition of households. It is unusual for adults of different generations within the family to live together. The average number of people living in each household in Britain is lower than in most other European countries. The population of elderly people living along is similarly high.

Significant family events such as weddings, births and funerals are not automatically accompanied by large gatherings of people. It is still common to appoint people to certain roles on such occasions, such as ‘best man’ at a wedding, or godmother and godfather when a child is born. But for most people these appointments are of sentimental significance only. They do not imply lifelong responsibility. In fact, family gatherings of any kind beyond the household unit are rare. For most people, they are confined to the Christmas period.

Even the stereotyped nuclear family of father, mother and children is becoming less common. Britain has a higher rate of divorce than anywhere else in Europe except Denmark and the proportion of children born outside marriage has risen dramatically and is also one of the highest. (for about a third of all births). However, these trends do not necessarily mean that the nuclear family is disappearing. Divorces have increased, but the majority of marriages in Britain (about 55%) do not break down.

**Geographical identity.**

A sense of identity based on place of birth is, like family identity, not very common or strong in most parts of Britain. A sense of identity with a larger geographical area is a bit stronger. Nearly everybody has spoken accent that identifies them as coming from a particular large city or region. In some cases there is quite a strong sense of identification. Liverpool liars (from Liverpool), Geordies (from the Newcastle area) and Cockneys (from London) are often proud to be known by these names. In other cases, identity is associated with a county. These are the most ancient divisions in England. Yorkshire, in the north of England, is a notable example. Another is Cornwall, in the south-west corner of England. Even today, some Cornish people still talk about ‘going to England’ when they cross the county border – a testament to its ethnic Celtic history.

Many English people see themselves as either ‘northerners’ or ‘southerners’. The fact that the south is on the whole richer than the north, and the domination of the media by the affairs of London and the south-east, leads to resentment ion the north. This reinforces the pride in their northern roots felt by many northerners, who, stereotypically, see themselves as tougher, more honest and warmer-hearted than the soft, hypocritical and unfriendly southerners. To people in the south, the stereotypical northerner (who is usually male) is rather ignorant and uncultured and interested only in sport and beer-drinking.

**Class.**

Historians say that the class system has survived in Britain because of its flexibility. It has always been possible to buy or marry or even work your way up, so that your children belong to a higher social class then you do. As a result, the class system has never been swept away by a revolution.

People in modern Britain are very conscious of class differences. They regard it as difficult to become friends with somebody from a different class. This filling has little to do with conscious loyalty, and nothing to do with a positive belief in class system itself. Most people say they do not approve of class division. It results from the fact that the different classes have different sets of attitudes and daily habits.

An interesting feature of the class structure in Britain is that it is not just, or mainly, relative wealth or the appearance of it which determines someone’s class. Of course, wealth is part of it – if you become wealthy, you can provide the conditions to enable your children to belong to a higher class than you do. But it is not always possible to guess the class to which a person belongs by looking at his or her clothes, car or bank balance. The most obvious and immediate sign is speech. The English grammar and vocabulary which is used in public speaking, radio and TV news broadcasts is known as ‘standard British English’. The most prestigious accent in Britain is known as ‘Received Pronunciation’ (RP). It is the combination of standard English spoken with an RP accent that is usually meant when people talk about ‘Oxford English’ or the ‘Queens English’. But a person whose accent shows that he or she is working class is not prohibited from most high-status jobs for that reason along. None of the five last Prime Ministers went to “elitist school for upper class children”, while almost every previous Prime Minister in history did.

A stereotyped view of British people on class division is that they detach upper class, middle, lower that is very close to middle class and working class. In general, the different class mix more readily and easily with each other then they used to. There has been a great increase in the number of people from working-class origins who are house owners and who do traditionally middle-class jobs.

**Men and women.**

British people invest about the same amount of their identity in their gender as people in other parts of northern Europe do. Society no longer endorses differences in the public and social roles of men and women, at it is illegal to discriminate on the basis of sex. On the other hand, people still expect a large number of differences in everybody behavior and domestic roles.

In terms of everyday habits, British society expects a difference between the sexes than most other European societies do. For example, it is still far more acceptable for a man to look untidy and scruffy than it is for a woman; and it is still far more acceptable for a woman to display emotions and be more friendly than it is for a man to do so.

As far as roles concerned, most people assume that a family’s financial situation is not just the responsibility of the man. On the other hand, they would still normally complement the woman; not the man, on a beautifully decorated or well-kept house. Everyday care of children is still seen as mainly woman’s responsibility. Although almost as many women have jobs as men, nearly half of the jobs done by women are part-time. Men certainly take a more active domestic role than they did forty years ago. The distinction between the expected roles and behavior of the two sexes is found in the lower and upper classes. The distinction is far less among the middle classes.

At the public level there are contradictions. Britain was one of the first European countries to have a woman Prime Minister and a woman chairperson of debate in Parliament. In the early 90s women formed only a tiny fraction of the total number of MP’s (about 5%), only one out of 5 lowers in Britain was a woman, less than one in ten accountants was a woman and there was only one female consultant brain surgeon in the whole country. Nearly every institution in the country has opened it doors to women now. One of the last to do so was the Anglican Church, which after much debate, decided in favor of the ordination of women priests in 1993. There are few institutions which still don’t accept female members (the Oxford and Cambridge club in London).

**Religious and political identity.**

In comparison with some European countries, except Northern Ireland, neither religion nor politics is an important part of the people`s social identity in modern Britain. This is because they go together in any significant way.

Of course, there are many people who regard themselves as belonging to this or that church or party. Some people among the minority who are regular churchgoers and the very small minority who are active members of political parties feel this sense of belonging strongly and deeply. It may form a very important part of their own idea of themselves as individuals. But even for these people it plays little part in determining other aspects of their lives such as where they work, which trade union they belong to, who their friends are. For the vast majority of parents in the country, the religion or voting habits of their future son-in-law’s or daughter-in-law’s family are of only passing interest and rarely the major cause of objection to the proposed marriage.

**Identity in Northern Ireland.**

Northern Ireland is a polarized society where most people are born into, and stay in, one or other of two communities for the whole of their lives.

On one side of the divide are people whose ancestors came from lowland or England. They are self-consciously Protestant and want Northern Ireland to remain in the UK. On the other side are people whose ancestors were native Irish. They are self-consciously Catholic and would like Northern Ireland become part of the Irish Republic.

Although the two communities live side-by-side, their lives are almost segregated. They live in different housing estates, listen to different radio and television programs, register with different doctors and read different newspapers. Their children go to a different schools, so that those who go on to university often find themselves mixing with the people from the ‘other’ community for the first time in their lives.

In this atmosphere, marrying a number of the other community is traditionally regarded with horror, and has sometimes even resulted in the deaths of the Romeo’s and Juliet’s concerned (as punishment for the ‘betrayal’ of their people). The extremes of these hard-line attitudes are gradually softening. It also should be noted that they apply to a much lesser extent among the middle-classes.

**Being British.**

Perhaps because of the long tradition of a clear separation between the individual and the state, British people, although many of them feel proud to be British, are not normally actively patriotic. They often feel uncomfortable if, in conversation with somebody from another country, that person refers to ‘you’ where ‘you’ means Britain or British government. They are individualistic and do not like to feel that they are personally representing their country.

It is in this climate of opinion that the dramatic increase in support for the government during the Falklands / Malvinas War in 1982 must be interrupted for the British people to be actively patriotic. Many of them felt that here, for once, Britain was doing something right and doing it effectively.

The modern British are not really chauvinistic. Open hostility to people from other countries is very rare. If there is any chauvinism at all, it expresses itself through ignorance. Most British people know remarkably little about British people and who lives there. The popular image Europe seems to be that it is something to do with French.

The British continue to be very bad about learning other people’s languages. Fluency in any European language other than English is regarded as exotic. But there is nothing defensive about this attitude. The British do not refuse to speak other languages. They are just lazy.

**ЛЕКЦІЯ 4**

**Тема: Political life.**

**План**

**The public attitude to politics.**

**The style of democracy.**

**The constitution.**

**The style of politics.**

**The party system.**

**The modern situation**

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**The public attitude to the politics.**

Politicians in Britain do not have a good reputation. To describe someone who is not professional politician as ‘a politician’ is to criticize him or her. It is not that people hate their politicians. They just regard them with a high degree of suspicion. They do not expect them to be corrupt or to use their position to amass personal wealth, but they do expect them to be dishonest. People are not really shocked when the government is caught lying. On the other hand, they would be very shocked indeed if it was discovered that the government was doing anything actually illegal.

The lack of enthusiasm for politicians may be seen in the fact that more than half of the adults in Britain do not know the name of their local Member of Parliament (MP), and quite a high proportion do not even know the names of the important government ministers or leaders of the major political parties.

There has been no real possibility of a revolution or even for a radical change in the style of government for almost tow centuries. This stability is now generally taken for granted. Most people rarely see any reason to become passionate about politics and nobody regard it as a ‘dangerous’ topic of conversation. Three-quarters of the adults are interested enough in politics to vote at national elections, even though voting is not compulsory. There is a general feeling of confidence in the stability and workability of the system.

“Yes, Prime Minister” is just one of many programs devoted to political satire. Moreover, criticism is typically not about particular policies but is directed at the attitudes of politicians, their dishonesty and disloyalty, and the general style of political life.

In Britain it is generally accepted that politics is a dirty business, a necessary evil. They see themselves as being politicians out of a sense of public duty.

**The style of democracy.**

The British are said to have a high respect for the low. Although they may not have much respect for the present institutions of the law, this reputation is mire or less true with respect to the principle of law. Of course, lots of crimes are committed, as in any other country, but there is little systematic law-breaking by large section of population.

However, while ‘the law’ as a concept is respected, The British are unenthusiastic about making new laws. In many aspects of life the country has comparatively few rules and regulations. This lack of regulation works both ways. Just as there are comparatively few rules telling the individual what he or she must or must not do, so there are comparatively few rules telling the government what it can or cannot do. Tow unique aspects of British life will make this clear.

**First**, Britain is one of the very few European countries whose citizen do not have identity cards. Before the 1970s, when tourism to foreign countries became popular (and so the holding of passports became more common), most people in the country went through life without ever owning a document whose purpose was identify them. British people are not obliged to carry identification with them. You do not even have to have your driving license with you in your car. If the police ask to see it, you have 24 hours to take it to them.

**Second**, and on the other hand, Britain is also the only country in Western Europe without a Freedom of Information Act. There is no law which obliges a government authority or agency to show you what information it has collected about you. In fact, it goes further than that. There is a law (called the Official Secrets Act) which obliges many government employees not to tell anyone about the details of their work. These law aspects are characteristic of the relationship in Britain between the individual and the state.

The duties of the individual towards the state are confined to not breaking the law and paying taxes. There is no national service (military or otherwise); people are not obliged to vote at elections if they can’t be bothered; people do not have to register their change of address with any government authority when they move house.

But in Britain this democracy involved less participation by ordinary citizens in governing and law- making than it does in many other countries. In Britain democracy has never meant that the people have a hand in the running of the country; rather it means that the people choose who is to govern the country, and then let them get on with it. (There has only been one countrywide referendum in British history in 1975, on whether the country should stay in the European Community.

**The Constitution.**

Britain is a constitutional monarchy. That means it is the country governed by a king or queen who accepts the advice of a parliament. It is also a parliamentary democracy. That is, it is a country whose government is controlled by a parliament which has been elected by the people. In other words, the basic system is not so different from anywhere else in Europe. The highest positions in the government are filled by members of the directly elected parliament. In Britain, as in many European countries, the official head of state, whether a monarch (as in Belgium, the Netherlands and Denmark) or a president (as in Germany, Italy and Greece) has real power.

There are features of the British system of government which make it different from that in other countries. The most notable of these is the question of the constitution. Britain is almost along among modern states in that it does not have ‘a constitution’ at all. Of course, there are rules, regulations, principles procedures for the running of the country – all the things that political scientists and legal experts study and which are known collectively as ‘ the constitution’. But there is no single document, and nobody can refer to ‘article 6’ or ‘the first amendment’ or anything like that, because nothing like that exists.

Instead the principles and procedures by which the country is governed and from which people’s rights are derided come from a number of different sources. They have been built up, bit by bit, over the centuries. Some of them are written down in laws agreed by Parliament, some of them have been spoken and then written down (Judgements made in a court) and some of them have never been written down at all. For example, there is no written law in Britain that says anything about who can be the Prime Minister or what the powers of the Prime Minister are. Similarly, there is no single written document which asserts people’s rights. Some rights which are commonly accepted in modern democracies (the rights not to be discriminated against on the basis of sex or race) have been recognized by Parliament through legislation; but others (… of religion or political views) have not. Nevertheless, it is understood that these rights are also part of the specific British ‘constitution’.

**The style of politics.**

Despite recent changes such as televising of parliament, political life in Britain is still influenced by the traditional British respect for privacy and love of secrecy. It is also comparatively informal. In both Parliament and government there is a tendency for important decisions to be taken, not at official public meetings, but at lunch, or over drinks, or in chance encounters in the corridors of power. It used to be said that the House of Commons was the most exclusive club in London. There are many features of Parliament which cause its members (MP’s) to feel special and to feel a special sense of belonging with each other. First, constitutional theory says that Parliament has absolute control over its own affairs and is, in fact, the highest power in the land. Second, there are the ancient traditions of procedure. Many of these serve to remind MP’s of a time when the main division in politics was not between different parties, but between Parliament itself and the monarch.

These features, together with the long years of political stability, have led to a habit of co-operation among politicians of different parties.

**The party system.**

Britain is normally described as having a ‘law-party system’. This is because, since 1945, one of the tow big parties has controlled the government and members of these tow parties occupied more than 90% of all of the seats in the House of Commons. But this is not a modern phenomenon. Basically the same situation existed throughout the 19th century, except the Liberals, rather then the Labour, were one of the tow big parties. The Labour party was formed at the beginning of this century and within about 30years had replaced the Liberals in this role.

One reason for the existence of this situation is the electoral system. The other is the nature of the origin of British political parties. Britain is unlike most other countries in that its parties were first formed inside Parliament. During the 18th century MPs tended to divide themselves into tow camps, those who usually supported the government of the time and those who usually did not. During the 19th century it gradually became the habit that the party which did not control the government presented itself as an alternative government. This idea of an alternative government received legal recognition. the leader of the second biggest party in the House of Commons receives the title ‘Leader of Her Majesty’s Opposition’ and even gets a salary to prove the importance of this role. He or she chooses a ‘shadow cabinet’, thereby presenting the image of a team ready to fill the shoes of the government at a moment’s notice.

As a result of these origins, neither party existed to look after the interests of particular group. It is very difficult for smaller parties to challenge the dominance of the bigger ones. If any of them seem to have some good ideas, these ideas tend to be adopted by one of the three biggest parties, who all try to appeal t as large a section of the population as possible.

The fact that the party system originated inside Parliament has other consequences. First, parties do not, as they do in many countries, extend into every area of public and social life in the country. Another consequence is that it is usually a party’s MPs who have the most control over party policy and the biggest influence on the choice of party leader. This does not mean that the parties are undemocratic. Their members who are not MPs can have an effect or policy in a number of ways. First, they can make their views known at the annual party conference. In the case of the three main parties, this takes place in the autumn and lasts about a week. Second, the local party has the power to decide who is going to be the party’s candidate for MP in its area at the next election. Party policies are always presented as potential government policies, and a party’s leading MPs are always presented as potential ministers. Party conferences are always televised. As a result they sometimes tend to show the public a dynamic and unified party.

**The modern situation.**

During the last forty or so years, the traditional confidence in the British political system has weakened. In 1950, Britain, despite the hardship of the Second World War, could claim to be the richest and most stable large country in Europe. Its people seemed to know what they wanted and what they believed in. They seemed to be sure of themselves.

Britain now is one of the poorest large countries in Europe, the policies of its governments have pulled in different several directions, and its people are very pessimistic about the future. It is quite possible that some of the distinctive characteristics of British public life will change. The matter of identity cards is one area of possible change. The British have always been rather proud of not having them. This has been seen as proof of the British dedication to the rights of the individual. It has also helped to give British people a feeling of being different.

Another possibility is that Britain will finally get a written constitution. An unwritten constitution works well in a society where everybody belongs to the same culture. But in common with most other European countries today, Britain is now multicultural. This means that some sections of the society can sometimes hold radically different ideas about behavior in political and public life, about people’s rights and obligations.

**ПРАКТИЧНІ ЗАНЯТТЯ**

***Практичне заняття 1.***

**Тема: Scotland.**

**Питання до опрацювання:**

People and country. Geography and cities.

Scotland`s history. Famous men of Literature and science.

Scottish national traditions.

*Шотландія. Країна і люди.*

*Історія Шотландії. Відомі діячі науки і*

*мистецтва. Шотландські національні традиції.*

**Мета заняття:** ознайомити студентів з історією, географією, культурою Шотландії.

**Ключові слова:** Scotland, tartan, sporran, kilt, Scots, invasion, Celtic culture, the Highlands, the Midland Valley and the Southern Uplands.

**Завдання до практичного заняття:**

* опрацюйте запропонований матеріал щодо теми практичного заняття;
* проаналізуйте історико-політичні, економічні та кульурні шляхи

розвитку Шотландії;

* сформулюйте основні фактори, які зумовлюють подальший розвиток країни;
* підготуйте повідомлення про видатних діячів науки і мистецтва

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**PRESENTATION**

*Scotland*



Flag of Scotland



Royal Arms of Scotland

Scotland (*Alba* in Gaelic) is a nation in northwest Europe and a constituent country of the United Kingdom. It occupies the northern third of the island of Great Britain and shares a land border to the south with England and is bounded by the North Sea on the east and the Atlantic Ocean on the west. Its capital city is Edinburgh. It is frequently referred to as "the best *small* country in the world".

The Kingdom of Scotland was united in 843, by King Kenneth I of Scotland, and is thus one of the oldest still-existing countries in the world. Scotland existed as an independent state until 1 May 1707, when the 1707 Act of Union merged Scotland with the Kingdom of England to create the Kingdom of Great Britain.

*The flag of Scotland* - the Saltire - is thought to be the oldest national flag still in use. The patron saint of Scotland is Saint Andrew, and Saint Andrew's Day is the 30 November. There are currently attempts to create an additional national holiday on this day.

*Royal motto:* Nemo me impune lacessit (Latin: No one provokes me with impunity, and Scots: Wha daur meddle wi me)

All Scotish Members of Parliament take their seats at the Houses of Parliament in London. Prime Minister of Scotland is John Major.

Inventors, Scottish by birth or residence, have played prominent parts in such important inventions and discoveries as Watt's steam engine, Macleod with insulin, McAdam's macadam roads, Thomson and Dunlop with the pneumatic tyre, Bell's telephone.

Scots was officially recognized as a *"regional or minority language"* under the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages, ratified by the United Kingdom in 2001, but it still lacks the level of state support given to English and Gaelic.

Since Scotland remains part of the United Kingdom, *God Save the Queen* legally is the national anthem. At sporting events over the years, the role of the nation's anthem has been filled by various patriotic songs, including *Flower of Scotland, Scotland the Brave* and *Scots Wha Hae.* In the 1990s, one of the country's leading tabloid newspapers conducted a poll to determine which song should be classed as Scotland's anthem. *Flower of Scotland* won and is now used as the de facto national anthem at international sporting events, although there are those who still consider the other songs as having equal validity. Shared with England, Wales and Northern Ireland.

Scotland is divided into three main regions; the Highlands, the Midland Valley and the Southern Uplands. The cities of Edinburgh, Glasgow and Dundee together with numerous towns, most of the population and the majority of Scotland's industry is located within the Midland Valley. This broad valley averages 50 miles across and runs WSW to ENE across the centre of the country. It is geologically distinct from the surrounding regions, being composed of Devonian Old Red Sandstone, peppered with ancient volcanoes, as against the older sedimentary rocks forming the Southern Uplands or the ancient metamorphic melange, comprising the Highlands to the north.

Scotland includes 787 islands, of which most belong to groups known as the Hebrides, Orkney and Shetland. Only 62 exceed three square miles in area. Of 26 rivers flowing directly into the sea. The Rivers Clyde, Forth and Tay open into significant estuaries and support three of the major cities of Scotland (Glasgow, Edinburgh and Dundee respectively).

Scotland is well known for its mountainous and beautiful scenery. Much of the upland within the UK is contained within the borders of Scotland, along with the highest peaks. Scotland is also noted for its lochs (this name is generally used for lakes in Scotland). Much of the west coast of the country is intersected by Sea Lochs, the longest of which, Loch Fyne, penetrates more than 40 miles inland. Notable fresh-water lochs include Loch Ness.

***Практичне заняття 2.***

**Тема: Wales.**

**Питання до опрацювання:**

History.

Government and Politics of Wales.

Local government. Subdivisions of Wales.

Economy of Wales.Demographics. Welsh Language.

Geography and Industry. Welsh culture. Sports.

Welsh symbols.

*Уельс. Історія. Уряд і політика країни.*

*Місцева влада. Адміністративний розподіл.*

*Економічні відносини. Географія та промисловість. Країна і люди. Кельтська мова. Видатні уельсці. Етнічна та фізична географія країна. Культура і символіка.*

**Мета заняття:** ознайомити студентів з історією, географією, культурою Уельсу.

**Ключові слова:** Welsh language, Roman occupation, Viking aggression, National Assembly, primary legislation, immigration.

**Завдання до практичного заняття:**

* опрацюйте запропонований матеріал щодо теми практичного заняття;
* проаналізуйте історико-політичні, економічні та кульурні шляхи розвитку Уельса;
* сформулюйте основні фактори, які зумовлюють подальший розвиток країни;

- визначте спільні риси у кельтській та англійській мовах;

* підготуйте повідомлення про видатних діячів науки і мистецтва

Уельсу.

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**PRESENTATION**

*History of Wales*

*Colonization*

The first documented history was recorded during the Roman occupation of Britain. At that time the area of modern Wales was divided into many tribes, of which the Silures in the south-east and the Ordovices in the central and north-west areas were the largest and most powerful. The Romans were also busy in northern Wales, and the mediaeval Welsh tale Breuddwyd Macsen Wledig (dream of Macsen Wledig) claims that Magnus Maximus (Macsen Wledig), one of the last western Roman Emperors, married Elen or Helen, the daughter of a Welsh chieftain from Segontium, present-day Caernarfon. It was in the 4th century during the Roman occupation that Christianity was introduced to Wales. After the Roman withdrawal from Britain in 410, much of the lowlands were overrun by various Germanic tribes.

Following the successful examples of Cornwall in 722 and Brittany in 865, the Britons of Wales made their peace with the Vikings and asked the Norsemen to help the Britons fight the Anglo-Saxons of Mercia to prevent an Anglo-Saxon conquest of Wales. In 878 AD the Britons of Wales unified with the Vikings of Denmark to destroy an Anglo-Saxon army of Mercians. Like Cornwall in 722, this decisive defeating of the Saxons gave Wales some decades of peace from Anglo-Saxon attack. In 1063, the Welsh prince Gruffydd ap Llywelyn made an alliance with Norwegian Vikings against Mercia which, as in 878 AD was successful, and the Saxons of Mercia defeated. As with Cornwall and Brittany, Viking aggression towards the Saxons/Franks ended any chance of the Anglo-Saxons/Franks conquering their Celtic neighbours.

The southern and eastern lands lost to English settlement became known in Welsh as Lloegyr (Modern Welsh Lloegr). The Germanic tribes who now dominated these lands were invariably called Saeson, meaning "Saxons". The Anglo-Saxons, in turn, labelled the Romano-British as Walha, meaning 'foreigner' or 'stranger'. The Welsh continued to call themselves Brythoniaid (Brythons or Britons) well into the Middle Ages, though the first use of Cymru and y Cymry is found as early as 633 in the Gododdin of Aneirin. In Armes Prydain, written in about 930, the words Cymry and Cymro are used as often as 15 times. It was not until about the 12th century however, that Cymry began to overtake Brythoniaid in their writings.

Although the English conquest of Wales took place under the 1284 Statute of Rhuddlan, a formal Union did not occur until 1536, shortly after which Welsh law, which continued to be used in Wales after the conquest, was fully replaced by English law under the Laws in Wales Acts 1535-1542.

*Government and Politics of Wales*

The head of state in Wales, a constituent part of the United Kingdom, is the British monarch, currently Queen Elizabeth II (since 1952). Executive power is vested in the Queen, and exercised by Her Majesty's Government at Westminster, with some powers devolved to the Welsh Assembly Government in Cardiff. The United Kingdom Parliament retains responsibility for passing primary legislation in Wales, but since the Government of Wales Act 2006 came into effect in 2007, the National Assembly for Wales can request powers to pass primary legislation as Assembly Measures on specific issues. The National Assembly is not a sovereign authority, and the UK Parliament could, in theory, overrule or even abolish it at any time.

The National Assembly was first established in 1998 under the Government of Wales Act. There are 60 members of the Assembly, known as "Assembly Members (AM)". Forty of the AMs are elected under the First Past the Post system, with the other 20 elected via the Additional Member System via regional lists in 5 different regions. The largest party elects the First Minister of Wales, who acts as the head of government. The Welsh Assembly Government is the executive arm, and the Assembly has delegated most of its powers to the Assembly Government. The new Assembly Building designed by Lord Rogers was opened by The Queen on St David's Day (1 March) 2006.

*Subdivisions of Wales*

The traditional counties of Wales have changed over the years. For the purposes of local government, Wales was divided into 22 council areas in 1996. These "unitary authorities" are responsible for the provision of all local government services. There are five cities in Wales: Bangor, Cardiff (the capital), Newport, St David's and Swansea.

*Law*

England fully annexed Wales under the Laws in Wales Act 1535, in the reign of King Henry VIII. Prior to that Welsh Law had survived de facto after the conquest up to the 15th century in areas remote from direct English control. The Wales and Berwick Act 1746 provided that all laws that applied to England would automatically apply to Wales (and Berwick-upon-Tweed, a town located on the Anglo-Scottish border) unless the law explicitly stated otherwise. This act, with regard to Wales, was repealed in 1967. However, Wales and England, as part of a single legal entity, share the same legal system — except for a few changes to accommodate the autonomy recently afforded to Wales. In this sense, English law is the law of Wales. English law is regarded as a common law system, with no major codification of the law, and legal precedents are binding as opposed to persuasive.

The court system is headed by the House of Lords which is the highest court of appeal in the land for criminal and civil cases (although this is due to be replaced by a Supreme Court of the United Kingdom). The Supreme Court of Judicature of England and Wales is the highest court of first instance as well as an appellate court. The three divisions are the Court of Appeal; the High Court of Justice and the Crown Court. Minor cases are heard by the Magistrates' Courts or the County Court.

Since devolution in 2006, the Welsh Assembly has had the authority to draft and approve some laws outside of the UK Parliamentary system to meet the specific needs of Wales.

*Economy of Wales*

Parts of Wales have been heavily industrialized since the 18th century and the early Industrial Revolution. Coal, copper, iron, silver, lead, and gold have been extensively mined in Wales, and slate has been quarried. By the second half of the 19th century, mining and metallurgy had come to dominate the Welsh economy, transforming the landscape and society in the industrial districts of south and north-east Wales.

From the middle of the nineteenth century until the mid 1980s, the mining and export of coal was a major part of the Welsh economy. Cardiff was once the largest coal exporting port in the world and, for a few years before World War One, handled a greater tonnage of cargo than either London or Liverpool.

From the early 1970s, the Welsh economy faced massive restructuring with large numbers of jobs in traditional heavy industry disappearing and being replaced eventually by new ones in light industry and in services. Over this period Wales was successful in attracting an above average share of foreign direct investment (FDI) in the UK. However, much of the new industry has essentially been of a 'branch factory' type, often routine assembly employing low skilled workers.

*English language and Welsh language*

The Welsh Language Act 1993 and the Government of Wales Act 1998 provide that the Welsh and English languages be treated on a basis of equality. However, even English has only de facto official status in the UK and this has led political groups like Plaid Cymru to question whether such legislation is sufficient to ensure the survival of the Welsh language.

English is spoken by almost all people in Wales and is therefore the de facto main language. However, northern and western Wales retain many areas where Welsh is spoken as a first language by the majority of the population and English is learnt as a second language. 21.7% of the Welsh population is able to speak or read Welsh to some degree (based on the 2001 census), although only 16% claim to be able to speak, read and write it, which may be related to the stark differences between colloquial and literary Welsh. According to a language survey conducted in 2004, a larger proportion that 21.7% claim to have some knowledge of the language. Today there are very few truly monoglot Welsh speakers, other than small children, but individuals still exist who may be considered less than fluent in English and rarely speak it. There were still many monoglots as recently as the middle of the 20th century. Road signs in Wales are generally in both English and Welsh; where place names differ in the two languages, both versions are used (e.g. "Cardiff" and "Caerdydd").

During the 20th century a number of small communities of speakers of languages other than English or Welsh, such as Bengali or Cantonese, have established themselves in Wales as a result of immigration. This phenomenon is almost exclusive to urban Wales. The Italian Government funds the teaching of Italian to Welsh residents of Italian ancestry. These other languages do not have legal equality with English and Welsh, although public services may produce information leaflets in minority ethnic languages where there is a specific need, as happens elsewhere in the United Kingdom.

Code-switching is common in all parts of Wales, and the result is known by various names, such as "Wenglish" or (in Caernarfon) "Cofi".

***Практичне заняття 3.***

**Тема:** England.

**Питання до опрацювання:**

History. Mediaeval England. Early Modern period.

Government of England.

Politics of England. English law.

Geographical and administrative division of the country.

Culture. Sports. English language and History of the English language. National symbols of England.

*Англія. Історія. Середньовіччя.*

*Англійський уряд. Політика Англії. Закон.*

*Географічний та адміністративний розподіл країни.*

*Культура. Спорт. Історія англійської мови.*

*Національна символіка Англії.*

**Мета заняття:** ознайомити студентів з історією, географією, культурою Англії.

**Ключові слова:** Mediaeval England, Celtic culture, migrants, inhabitants, kingdoms, political unification, Norman Conquest, plague.

**Завдання до практичного заняття:**

* опрацюйте запропонований матеріал щодо теми практичного заняття;
* проаналізуйте історико-політичні, економічні та кульурні шляхи розвитку англійського суспільства;
* сформулюйте основні фактори, які зумовлюють подальший розвиток країни;

- визначте спільні риси адміністративного розподілу Англії та інших країн Великобританії;

* підготуйте повідомлення про видатних діячів науки і мистецтва

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**PRESENTATION**

*History of England*

Bones and flint tools found in Norfolk and Suffolk show that Homo erectus lived in what is now England about 700,000 years ago. At this time, England was joined to mainland Europe by a large land bridge. The current position of the English Channel was a large river flowing westwards and fed by tributaries that would later become the Thames and the Seine. This area was greatly depopulated during the period of the last major ice age, as were other regions of the British Isles.

In the subsequent decolonization, after the thawing of the ice, genetic research shows that present-day England was the last area of the British Isles to be repopulated, about 13,000 years ago. The migrants arriving during this period contrast with the other of the inhabitants of the British Isles, coming across lands from the south east of Europe, whereas earlier arriving inhabitants came north along a coastal route from Iberia. These migrants would later adopt the Celtic culture that came to dominate much of Western Europe.

By AD 43, the time of the main Roman invasion, Britain had already been the target of frequent invasions, planned and actual, by forces of the Roman Republic and Roman Empire. It was first invaded by the Roman dictator Julius Caesar in 55 BC, but it was conquered more fully by the Emperor Claudius in 43 AD. Like other regions on the edge of the empire, Britain had long enjoyed trading links with the Romans, and their economic and cultural influence was a significant part of the British late pre-Roman Iron Age, especially in the south. With the fall of the Roman Empire 400 years later, the Romans left the Province of Brittania, much of which later came to be known as England.

*Mediaeval England*

The History of Anglo-Saxon England covers the history of early medieval England from the end of Roman Britain and the establishment of Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in the 5th century until the Conquest by the Normans in 1066. Fragmentary knowledge of Anglo-Saxon England in the 5th and 6th centuries comes from the British writer Gildas (6th century) the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle (a history of the English people begun in the 9th century), saints' lives, poetry, archaeological findings, and place-name studies. The dominant themes of the seventh to tenth centuries were the spread of Christianity and the political unification of England. Christianity is thought to have come from three directions—from Rome to the south, and Scotland and Ireland to the north and west. From about 500 AD, it is believed England was divided into seven petty kingdoms, known as the Heptarchy: Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex, Kent, Sussex, and Wessex. The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms tended to coalesce by means of warfare. As early as the time of Ethelbert of Kent, one king could be recognized as Bretwalda ("Lord of Britain").

Originally, England (or "Englaland") was a geographical term to describe the part of Britain occupied by the Anglo-Saxons, rather than a name of an individual nation-state. It became politically united through the expansion of the kingdom of Wessex, whose king Athelstan brought the whole of England under one ruler for the first time in 927, although unification did not become permanent until 954, when Edred defeated Eric Bloodaxe and became King of England.

In 1016, England was conquered by the Danish king Canute the Great and became the centre of government for his short-lived empire. With the accession of Edward the Confessor, heir of the native English dynasty, in 1042, England once again became a separate kingdom. Its ties and nature, however, were forever changed following the Norman Conquest in 1066.

The next few hundred years saw England as a major part of expanding and dwindling empires based in France, with the "Kings of England" using England as a source of troops to enlarge their personal holdings in France for many years (Hundred Years' War); in fact the English crown did not relinquish its last foothold on mainland France until Calais was lost, in 1558, during the reign of Mary Tudor (the Channel Islands are still crown dependencies, though not part of the UK).

In the 13th century Wales (the remaining Romano-Celts) was brought under the control of English monarchs through conquest. This was formalized in the Statute of Rhuddlan in 1284 and Wales was legally annexed to the Kingdom of England by the Laws in Wales Acts 1535–1542. Wales shared a legal identity with England as the joint entity originally called England and later England and Wales.

An epidemic of catastrophic proportions, the Black Death first reached England in the summer of 1348. The Black Death is estimated to have killed between a third and two-thirds of Europe's population. England alone lost as much as 70% of its population, which passed from seven million to two million in 1400. The plague repeatedly returned to haunt England throughout the 14th to 17th centuries. The Great Plague of London in 1665–1666 was the last plague outbreak.

*Early Modern period.*

During the English Reformation in the 16th century, the external authority of the Roman Catholic Church in England was abolished and replaced with Acts of Royal Supremacy and the establishment of the Church of England ("Anglican Church") under the Supreme Governance of the English monarch. This occurred during the reign of Henry VIII. The English Reformation differed from its European counterparts in that its roots were more political than theological.

The period known as the English Civil War (1642-1651) saw political machinations and armed conflicts between supporters of the Long Parliament (Roundheads) and of King Charles I (Royalists) in 1642 to 1645 and 1648 to 1649, followed by conflict between supporters of the Rump Parliament and of King Charles II in 1649 to 1651. The War ended with the Parliamentary victory at the Battle of Worcester on 3 September 1651. It had led to the trial and execution of Charles I, the exile of his son Charles II, the replacement of the English monarchy with the Commonwealth of England (1649–1653) and personal rule by Oliver Cromwell during the Protectorate (1653–1659).

After Cromwell's death in 1659, a brief return to Commonwealth rule was attempted before Parliament invited Charles II to return to England in 1660 and restore the monarchy. During the interregnum, the Church of England's monopoly on Christian worship in England came to an end and the Protestant Ascendancy consolidated in Ireland.

Although embattled for centuries, the Kingdom of England and Kingdom of Scotland had been drawing increasingly together since the Protestant Reformation of the 16th century and in 1603, with the Scottish king James VI accession to the English crown, the two countries became linked by a personal union, being ruled by the same Stuart dynasty. Following a number of attempts to unite the Kingdoms, a Treaty of Union was agreed on 22 July 1706 by representatives of the English and Scottish parliaments.

After the Union, England (including Wales) retained its separate legal identity since the continuance of the separate Scottish legal system was enshrined in the Articles of the Treaty of Union. Wales was already part of the Kingdom of England but the Wales and Berwick Act 1746 made explicit that laws passed for England were automatically applicable to Wales. The Wales and Berwick Act 1746 also referred to the formerly Scottish burgh of Berwick-upon-Tweed. The border town changed hands several times and was last conquered by England in 1482, but was not officially incorporated into England. Contention about whether Berwick was in England or Scotland was ended by the union of the two in 1707. Berwick remains within the English legal system and so is regarded today as part of England (though there has been some suggestion in Scotland that Berwick should be invited to 'return to the fold').

*Government of England*

There has not been a Government of England since 1707, when the Acts of Union 1707, putting into effect the terms of the Treaty of Union that had been agreed the previous year, joined the Kingdom of England with the Kingdom of Scotland to form the united Kingdom of Great Britain.[30] Prior to this, England was ruled by a monarch and the Parliament of England. However, following the establishment of devolved government for Scotland and Wales in 1999, England was left as the only country within the United Kingdom still governed in all matters by the UK government and the UK parliament in London.

Since Westminster is the UK parliament but also legislates on matters that affect England alone, devolution of national matters to parliament/assemblies in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland has refocused attention on the anomaly called the West Lothian question.

*Politics of England*

A total of 529 of the current 646 MPs in the House of Commons represent English constituencies, which will rise to 533 out of 650 at the next general election.

At the 2005 General Election, the Conservative Party won more votes than any other single party, with 35.7% of the vote. However, Labour won a majority of England's MPs, having 284 MPs elected, on the basis of just 35.4% of the popular vote with the Conservative Party winning just 194 MPs. The Liberal Democrats were the third party winning 47 MPs with 22.5% of the vote, and the only other MPs elected were one for Respect and a Kidderminster Hospital campaigner.

*Administrative divisions of England and Counties of England*

The upper-tier subdivisions of England are the nine Regions of England or European Union government office regions. A London referendum in 1998 on the question of having a directly elected assembly and directly elected mayor produced a large majority in favour and it was intended that other regions would also be given their own elected regional assemblies. However, a rejection by a referendum in 2004 of a proposed assembly in the North East region stopped this idea in its tracks. During the campaign, a common criticism of the proposals was that England did not need "another tier of bureaucracy". On the other hand, many said that the proposals were not decentralizing enough, and amounted not to devolution but to little more than local government reorganization with no real power or additional resources being transferred from central government to the regions as they would not even gain the limited powers of the Welsh Assembly let alone the tax-varying and legislative powers of the Scottish Parliament.

Below the regional level, London consists of 32 London boroughs and the rest of England has either county councils and district councils or unitary authorities. At the lowest level, much of England is divided into parishes though parishes are prohibited from existing in Greater London.

***Практичне заняття 4.***

### Тема: Northern Ireland.

**Питання до опрацювання:**

### Geography. History.

Government of Northern Ireland. Local Government.

Political parties. Land and Resources. Population. Political Divisions. Culture. Economy. *Північна Ірландія. Історія і географія країни.* *Уряд Північної Ірландії. Місцевий уряд.* *Політичні партії. Населення країни.* *Культура. Економіка Північної Ірландії.*

**Мета заняття:** ознайомити студентів з історією, географією, культурою Північної Ірландії.

**Ключові слова:** Northern Ireland, IRA, division, violence, terror, terrorism, Ulster, borough, reign, ancient province.

**Завдання до практичного заняття:**

* опрацюйте запропонований матеріал щодо теми практичного заняття;
* проаналізуйте історико-політичні, економічні та кульурні шляхи розвитку ірландского суспільства;
* сформулюйте основні фактори, які зумовлюють подальший розвиток Північної Ірландії;
* визначте спільні риси політичного устрою Північної Ірландії та

Великобританії;

* сформулюйте власну оцінку терористським організаціям Північної Ірландії, діяльності ІРА;
* підготуйте повідомлення про видатних діячів науки і мистецтва

Ірландії.

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**РRESENTATION**

|  |
| --- |
| Status: Part of United Kingdom  First Minister: (suspended Oct. 14, 2002)  Area: 5,452 sq mi (14,121 sq km)  Population (1998 est.): 1,688,600  Capital and largest city (2003 est.): Belfast, 484,800 (metro. area), 246,200 (city proper)  Monetary unit: British pound sterling (£)  Language: English  [Religions:](http://www.infoplease.com/cgi-bin/id/A0855613) Presbyterian, Church of Ireland, Roman Catholic, Methodist.  [Major sources and definitions](http://www.infoplease.com/countryprofilenotes.html) |

### *Geography*

Northern Ireland is composed of 26 districts, derived from the boroughs of Belfast and Londonderry and the counties of Antrim, Armagh, Down, Fermanagh, Londonderry, and Tyrone. Together they are commonly called Ulster, though the territory does not include the entire ancient province of Ulster. It is slightly larger than Connecticut.

### *History*

Ulster was part of Catholic Ireland until the reign of Elizabeth I (1558–1603) when, after suppressing three Irish rebellions, the Crown confiscated lands in Ireland and settled the Scots Presbyterians in Ulster. Another rebellion in 1641–1651, brutally crushed by Oliver Cromwell, resulted in the settlement of Anglican Englishmen in Ulster. Subsequent political policy favoring Protestants and disadvantaging Catholics encouraged further Protestant settlement in Northern Ireland.

Northern Ireland did not separate from the South until William Gladstone presented, in 1886, his proposal for home rule in Ireland. The Protestants in the North feared domination by the Catholic majority. Industry, moreover, was concentrated in the North and dependent on the British market. When World War I began, civil war threatened between the regions. Northern Ireland, however, did not become a political entity until the six counties accepted the Home Rule Bill of 1920. This set up a semiautonomous Parliament in Belfast and a Crown-appointed governor advised by a cabinet of the prime minister and 8 ministers, as well as a 12-member representation in the House of Commons in London.

When the Republic of Ireland gained sovereignty in 1922, relations improved between North and South, although the Irish Republican Army (IRA), outlawed in recent years, continued the struggle to end the partition of Ireland. In 1966–1969, rioting and street fighting between Protestants and Catholics occurred in Londonderry, fomented by extremist nationalist Protestants, who feared the Catholics might attain a local majority, and by Catholics demonstrating for civil rights. These confrontations became known as “the Troubles.”

The religious communities, Catholic and Protestant, became hostile armed camps. British troops were brought in to separate them, but themselves became a target of Catholics, particularly by the IRA, which by this time had turned into a full-fledged terrorist movement. The goal of the IRA was to eject the British and unify Northern Ireland with the Irish Republic to the south. The Protestants remained tenaciously loyal to the United Kingdom, and various Protestant terrorist organizations pursued the Unionist cause through violence. Various attempts at representational government and power-sharing foundered during the 1970s, and both sides were further polarized. Direct rule from London and the presence of British troops failed to stop the violence.

In 1997, Northern Ireland made a significant step in the direction of stemming sectarian strife. The first formal peace talks began on Oct. 6 with representatives of eight major Northern Irish political parties participating, a feat that in itself required three years of negotiations. Two smaller Protestant parties, including hard-liner Ian Paisley's Democratic Unionists, boycotted the talks.

For the first time, Sinn Fein, the political wing of the IRA, won two seats in the British Parliament, which went to Sinn Fein president Gerry Adams and second-in-command, Martin McGuinness. Although the election strengthened the IRA's political legitimacy, it was the IRA's resumption of the 17-month cease-fire, which had collapsed in Feb. 1996, that gained them a place at the negotiating table.

A landmark settlement, the Good Friday Agreement of April 10, 1998, came after 19 months of intensive negotiations that involved 8 of the 10 Northern Irish political parties. The accord called for Protestants to share political power with the minority Catholics, and it gave the Republic of Ireland a voice in Northern Irish affairs.

### *Government*

Northern Ireland is an integral part of the United Kingdom (it has 12 representatives in the British House of Commons), but under the terms of the Government of Ireland Act in 1920, it had a semiautonomous government. In 1972, however, after three years of sectarian violence between Protestants and Catholics that resulted in more than 400 dead and thousands injured, Britain suspended the Ulster Parliament. The Ulster counties were governed directly from London after an attempt to return certain powers to an elected assembly in Belfast.

As a result of the Good Friday Agreement of 1998, a new coalition government was formed on Dec. 2, 1999, with the British government formally transferring governing power to the Northern Irish Parliament. David Trimble, Protestant leader of the Ulster Unionist Party (UUP) and winner of the 1998 Nobel Peace Prize, became first minister. The government has been suspended four times since then; it has remained suspened since Oct. 14, 2002.

***Практичне заняття 5.***

**Тема:** London.

**Питання до опрацювання:**

History of London and Etymology of London.

Geography. Governance. Economy and Status.

Architecture. Parks and Gardens.

Society and culture. Sport in London.

*Історія та етимологія Лондону. Географія.*

*Адміністративна влада. Економіка та статус столиці. Архітектура. Лондонські парки.*

*Суспільство і культура. Спорт у Лондоні.*

**Мета заняття:** ознайомити студентів з історією, географією, архитектурою столиці Великобританії - Лондона.

**Ключові слова:** etymology, derivation, governance, status, capital, conrol, invasion, battle, county, council.

**Завдання до практичного заняття:**

* опрацюйте запропонований матеріал щодо теми практичного заняття;
* проаналізуйте історико-політичні, економічні та кульурні шляхи розвитку столиці англійського суспільства;
* сформулюйте основні фактори, які зумовлюють статус Лондона як столиці Великобританії;
* підготуйте повідомлення про визначні пам`ятки культури і архітектури Лондона.

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**PRESENTATION**

*History of London and Etymology of London*

The etymology of London remains a mystery. The earliest etymological explanation can be attributed to Geoffrey of Monmouth in Historia Regum Britanniae. The name is described as originating from King Lud, who had allegedly taken over the city and named it Kaerlud. This was slurred into Kaerludein and finally London. Many other theories have been advanced over the centuries, most of them deriving the name from Welsh or British, and occasionally from Anglo-Saxon or even Hebrew.

In 1998, Richard Coates, a linguistics professor, criticized these suggestions, and proposed that the name derives from the pre-Celtic \*plowonida, which roughly means "a river too wide to ford". He suggested that the Thames running through London was given this name, and the inhabitants added the suffix -on or -onjon to their settlement. Proto-Indo-European \*p was regularly lost in proto-Celtic, and through linguistic change, the name developed from Plowonidonjon to Lundonjon, then contracted to Lundein or Lundyn, Latinised to Londinium, and finally borrowed by the Anglo-Saxons as Lundene.

Although there is evidence of scattered Brythonic settlements in the area, the first major settlement was founded by the Romans in AD 43 as Londinium, following the Roman conquest of Britain. This Londinium lasted for just seventeen years. Around 61, the Iceni tribe led by Queen Boudica stormed this first London, burning it to the ground. The next, heavily-planned incarnation of the city prospered and superseded Colchester as the capital of the Roman province of Britannia in 100. At its height in the 2nd century, Roman London had a population of around 60,000.

By the 600s, the Anglo-Saxons had created a new settlement called Lundenwic approximately 1,000 yards (0.91 km) upstream from the old Roman city, around what is now Covent Garden. It is likely that there was a harbour at the mouth of the River Fleet for fishing and trading, and this trading grew until the city was overcome by the Vikings and forced to relocate the city back to the location of the Roman Londinium to use its walls for protection. Viking attacks continued to increase around the rest of South East England, until 886 when Alfred the Great recaptured London and made peace with the Danish leader, Guthrum. The original Saxon city of Lundenwic became Ealdwic ("old city"), a name surviving to the present day as Aldwych, which is in the modern City of Westminster.

In a retaliatory attack, Ethelred's army achieved victory by pulling down London Bridge with the Danish garrison on top, and English control was re-established. Canute took control of the English throne in 1017, controlling the city and country until 1042, When his death resulted in a reversion to Saxon control under his pious stepson Edward the Confessor, who re-founded Westminster Abbey and the adjacent Palace of Westminster. By this time, London had become the largest and most prosperous city in England, although the official seat of government was still at Winchester.

Following a victory at the Battle of Hastings, William the Conqueror, the then Duke of Normandy, was crowned King of England in the newly-finished Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day 1066. William granted the citizens of London special privileges, while building a castle in the south-east corner of the city to keep them under control. This castle was expanded by later kings and is now known as the Tower of London, serving first as a royal residence and later as a prison.

In 1097, William II began the building of Westminster Hall, close by the abbey of the same name. The hall became the basis of a new Palace of Westminster, the prime royal residence throughout the Middle Ages.

Westminster became the seat of the royal court and government (persisting until the present day), while its distinct neighbour, the City of London, was a centre of trade and commerce and flourished under its own unique administration, the Corporation of London. London grew in wealth and population during the Middle Ages. In 1100 its population was around 18,000; by 1300 it had grown to nearly 100,000. However disaster struck during the Black Death in the mid-14th century, when London lost nearly a third of its population. Apart from the invasion of London during the Peasants' Revolt in 1381, London remained relatively untouched by the various civil wars during the Middle Ages, such as the first and second Barons' Wars and the Wars of the Roses.

After the successful defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588, political stability in England allowed London to grow further. In 1603, James VI of Scotland came to the throne of England, essentially uniting the two countries. His enactment of harsh anti-Catholic laws made him unpopular, and an assassination attempt was made on 5 November 1605—the well-known Gunpowder Plot.

The Great Fire of London destroyed many parts of the city in 1666.

Plague caused extensive problems for London in the early 17th century, culminating in the Great Plague in 1665–1666. This was the last major outbreak in England, possibly thanks to the disastrous fire of 1666. The Great Fire of London broke out in the original City and quickly swept through London's wooden buildings, destroying large swathes of the city. A first hand narrative of both plague and fire was provided by Sir Samuel Pepys. Rebuilding took over ten years, largely under direction of a Commission appointed by King Charles II and chaired by Sir Christopher Wren.

Following London's growth in the 18th century, it became the world's largest city from about 1831 to 1925. Rising traffic congestion on city centre roads led to the creation of the world's first metro system—the London Underground—in 1863, driving further expansion and urbanization.

An eco revival from the 1980s onwards re-established London's position as a pre-eminent international centre. However, as the seat of government and the most important city in the UK, it has been subjected to bouts of terrorism. Provisional Irish Republican Army bombers sought to pressure the government into negotiations over Northern Ireland, frequently disrupting city activities with bomb threats—some of which were carried out—until their 1997 cease-fire. More recently, a series of coordinated bomb attacks were carried out by Islamic extremist suicide bombers on the public transport network on 7 July 2005—just 24 hours after London was awarded the 2012 Summer Olympics.

***Практичне заняття 6.***

**Тема:** Monarchy.

**Питання до опрацювання:**

The Appearance of the Monarchy.

The Role of the Monarch.

The Future of the Monarchy.

The Royal Family.

*Виникнення монархії.*

*Роль монарха у британському суспільстві.*

*Майбутнє монархії.*

*Королівська родина.*

**Мета заняття:** ознайомити студентів з історією виникнення монархії у Великобританії; визначити роль монархії у британському суспільстві та світі та майбутнє монархічного правління.

**Завдання до практичного заняття:**

* опрацюйте запропонований матеріал щодо теми практичного заняття;
* проаналізуйте історико-політичні шляхи розвитку монархії англійського суспільства;
* сформулюйте основні фактори, які зумовлюють статус монарха у Великобританії;
* підготуйте повідомлення про членів королівської родини.

**Ключові слова:** monarchy, Royal Family, crown, `subjects`.

**Literature:**

1. Англо-русский лингвострановедческий словарь. — Американа.
2. Бруннер К. История английского языка.— М., 1956.
3. Сатинова В.Ф. Британия и британцы. – Минск, 2004.
4. Усова Г.С. История Англии. – Санкт-Петербург, 1999.
5. Голицынский Ю.Б. Страноведение Великобритании. – Санкт-Петербург, 2001.
6. Голицынский Ю.Б. Традиции Великобритании. – Санкт-Петербург, 2002.
7. James O`Driscoll. Britain. The country and its people. – Oxford, 1996.
8. Susan Sheerin. Spotlight on Britain. – Oxford, 1995.
9. Alan C. McLean. Profile UK.

**PRACTICE**

**THE MONARCHY.**

**THE APPEARANCE.**

1. *Find the answers in the text.*

1/What is the position of the monarch in Britain?

2/What does the Queen speak about in her every year speech?

3/Could the Queen choose you Prime Minister of Britain?

4/What does it mean "the Crown"for British people?

II. *Give the definition of the words:*

'subjects';

'servants of the Crown';

'citizens'.

III. *Make it sure are these statements true or false.*

l. The Queen has almost absolute power.

2. In Britain people are described as 'citizens'.

3. Nothing that Parliament has decided can become law until the Queen has agreed to it.

4. The Queen is above the Parliament.

IV. **THE ROLE OF THE MONARCH.**

1. Describe three roles of the monarch, which are offered by political and legal experts.

**THE VALUE AND THE FUTURE OF THE MONARCHY.**

1. *Answer the questions or find the answers in the text.*

I/Why is the monarchy very popular with the majority of the British people?

2/What does the monarchy give British people?

3/Is there any debates about the existence of the monarchy in Great Britain?

4/Is the Royal Family a model of Christian family life?

5/The attitude of the British people towards their Royal Family has changed over the last quarter of the 20th century. In what way has it changed, and what demonstrates that there has been a change? Why do you think this has happened?

***Практичне заняття 7.***

**Тема: Education**.

**Питання до опрацювання:**

Historical Background.

Organization and Style of Education.

School Life and Public Exams.

Higher Education. Universities in Britain.

*Організація та стиль освіти.*

*Система державної освіти у Великобританії.*

*Середня освіта.*

*Система вищої освіти.Університети.*

**Мета заняття:** ознайомити студентів з системою середньої та вищої освіти у Великобританії; визначити основні шляхи розвитку освіти у Великобританії.

**Завдання до практичного заняття:**

* опрацюйте запропонований матеріал щодо теми практичного заняття;
* проаналізуйте основні шляхи розвитку системи освіти у Великобританії;
* сформулюйте основні фактори, які впливають на організацію та стиль системи освіти у Великобританії;
* підготуйте повідомлення про університети Великобританії.

**Ключові слова:** education, public exams, style of education, programme of learning, decentralization, curriculum, nursery education, `eleven plus`.

**Literature:**

1. Англо-русский лингвострановедческий словарь. — Американа.
2. Бруннер К. История английского языка.— М., 1956.
3. Сатинова В.Ф. Британия и британцы. – Минск, 2004.
4. Усова Г.С. История Англии. – Санкт-Петербург, 1999.
5. Голицынский Ю.Б. Страноведение Великобритании. – Санкт-Петербург, 2001.
6. Голицынский Ю.Б. Традиции Великобритании. – Санкт-Петербург, 2002.
7. James O`Driscoll. Britain. The country and its people. – Oxford, 1996.
8. Susan Sheerin. Spotlight on Britain. – Oxford, 1995.
9. Alan C. McLean. Profile UK.

**PRACTICE**

**EDUCATION.**

**HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.**

1. *Answer the questions or find the answers in the text.*

I/What are the basic features of the British educational system?

2/What was the aim of education in 19th century?

3/Describe the public school system. What are the most famous public schools? 4/What change influenced greatly on British educational system?

**ORGANIZATION AND STYLE OF EDUCATION. RECENT DEVELOPMENTS.**

II.*Make it sure are these statsments true or false.*

1. Education in Britain is managed by one government department-the Department for Education and Employment.

2. Central government prescribes a detailed programme of learning.

3. A school is its own community.

4. Universities financed by the Queen and Parliament.

III. *Pick out the approaches on different aspects of the educational system in Britain from the text.*

IV. Give the definitions to the following:

1)1965; 2)'eleven plus'; 3)1960s; 4)1980s; 5)"decentralization"; 6)'the three Rs'.

**SCHOOL LIFE AND PUBLIC EXAMS.**

I. *Continue the idea, given in the beginning of the sentence, by your own.*

1. There is no countrywide system of nursery.......

2. Nearly all schools work a five-day week,........

3. Methods of teaching vary,..........

4. At the ages of 7 and 11, children have to .......

5. The older children get,........

6. The organization of the exams........./first, second, third/.

**EDUCATION BEYOND 16. UNIVERSITIES IN BRITAIN.**

1. *Speak about educational opportunities for people at the age of 16.*

2. *How do universities select students?*

*3. Describe types of universities in Britain.*

**ORGANIZATION OF STATE EDUCATION IN BRITAIN**

The responsibility for education is distributed between central government, local education authorities (LEAs) and the governing bodies of the schools.

Nursery education is voluntary. Some LEAs provide nursery education, or have reception classes in primary schools which last from 9p.m. to 3p.m. There are some private sector nursery schools, which parents pay for.

**SECONDARY EDUCATION**

About 5% of pupils go to independent (private) schools. Of the remainder, the vast majority (90%) attend comprehensive schools. These began in the 1950s, and admit children without reference to ability or aptitude. The children represent a total social cross-section, and all the subjects are available. In a very few areas, children are selected according to levels of academic attainment, and depending on their results in an exam (the 11 plus), go either to a grammar school, which runs academic courses for selected pupils aged 11-18, or to a secondary modern, which offers a more general education for pupils up to 16, although they can stay on if they wish.

**EXAMS**

The exams that pupils take used to be as follows: GCE (General Certificate of Education) O Level (Ordinary), taken at 16 in a number of subjects (average 6). CSE (Certificate of Secondary Education), also taken at 16, but easier than O Level. GCE A Level (Advanced), taken at 18 in fewer subjects (usually 1-4).

In 1988, O Levels and CSEs were phased out and replaced with GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education), taken at 16. These are more practical, with less emphasis on retaining facts and more on the application of them. Assessment is continuous, which at least 20% of coursework counting towards the final grade. A Levels continue unchanged.

**CURRICULUM**

The curriculum is decided by the LEAs and the school governing body, although the government is moving towards national criteria for syllabuses. Schools must provide teaching in English, mathematics, science, religious education, humanities, some practical and some aesthetic activity. Most pupils learn a foreign language.

**AFTER 16**

About 50% of children continue their education after 16, some in schools, others in colleges of further education and technical colleges. For entrance to a university, pupils need at least two A Levels, but usually universities ask for three. About 5% of children go to university. Courses usually last for three years, at the end of which students are awarded a degree (Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science). Postgraduate degrees are MA (Master of Arts), MSc (Master of Science) and PhD (Doctor of Philosophy).

Polytechnics offer academic subjects and training for practical jobs, which result in either a degree, a certificate or a diploma. They have close links with commerce and industry. Students receive grants for higher education from the LEAs, which are not repaid. The size of the grant depends on the student`s or th parents` means. Student loans may be introduced shortly and may eventually replace grants.

**САМОСТІЙНА РОБОТА**

**SELF-SUFFICIENT WORK**

**ADDITIONAL PRESENTATION**

**A GUIDE TO BRITISH POLITICAL PARTIES**

**CONSERVATIVE PARTY**

***-History***: developed from the group of MP`s known as the Tories in the

early nineteenth century and still often known informally by

that name.

***-Traditional outlook***: right of centre; stands for hierarchical authority and

minimal government interference in the economy;

likes to reduce income tax; gives high priority to national

defence and internal law and order.

***-Since 1979***: aggressive reform of education, welfare, housing and many

other public services designed to increase consumer-choice

or introduce `market economics` into their operation.

***-Organization***: leader has relatively great degree of freedom to direct

policy.

***-Leader from 1996***: John Major.

***-Voters***: the richer section of society, plus a large minority of the working

classes.

***-Money***: mostly donations from business people.

**LABOUR PARTY**

-***History:*** formed at the beginning of the twentieth century from an alliance

of trade unionists and intellectuals. First government in 1923.

***-Traditional outlook:*** left of centre; stands for equality, for the weaker people

in society and for more government involvement in the

economy; more concerned to provide full social services

than to keep income tax low.

***-Since 1979:*** opposition to Conservative reforms, although has accepted

many of these by now; recently, emphasis on community ethics

and looser links with trade unions.

***-Organization:*** in theory, policies have to be approved by annual conference;

in practice, leader has more power than this implies.

***-Leader from 1996:*** Tony Blair.

***-Voters:*** working class, plus a small middle-class intelligentsia.

***-Money:*** more than half from trade unions.

**LIBERAL DEMOCRATIC PARTY**

***-History:*** formed in the late 1980s from a union of the Liberals, who developed

from the Whigs of the early nineteenth century and the Social

Democrats ( a breakaway group of Labour politicians ).

***-Policies:*** regarded as in the centre or slightly left of centre; has always been

strongly in favour of the EU; places more emphasis on the

environment than other parties; believes in giving greater powers

to local government and in reform of the electoral system.

***-Leader from 1996:*** Paddy Ashdown.

***-Voters:*** from all classes, but more from the middle class.

***-Money:*** private donations.

**NATIONALIST PARTIES**

Both Plaid Cymru (`party of Wales` in the Welsh language ) and the SNP

( Scottish National Party ) fight for devolution of governmental powers.

Plaid Cymru emphasizes Welsh cultural autonomy as much as political

autonomy. The SNP, on the other hand, supports a separate Scottish

Parliament with powers to raise its own taxes, and is willing to consider

total independence from the UK. Both parties have usually had a few MPs

in the second half of the twentieth century, but well under half of the total

number of MPs from their respective countries.

**PARTIES IN NORTHERN IRELAND**

The names of the parties often change, but they mostly represent either

the Protestant or the Catholic communities. There is one large comparatively

moderate party on each side and one or more other parties of more

extremist views on each side. There is one party which asks for support

from both communities - the Alliance party.

**OTHER PARTIES**

There are numerous very small parties, such as the Green Party, which

is supported by environmentalists. There is a small party which was formerly

the Communist party, and a number of other left-wing parties, and also

an extreme right-wing party which is fairly openly racist. It was previously

called the National Front but since the 1980s has been called the British

National Party (BNP ). At the time of writing, none of these parties had won

a single seat in Parliament in the second half of the twentieth century.

In 1993, however, the BNP briefly won a seat on a local council.

# History of the English Language

* [***Indo-European and Germanic Influences***](http://www.wordorigins.org/histeng.htm#indo#indo)
* [***Old English (500-1100 AD)***](http://www.wordorigins.org/histeng.htm#oldeng#oldeng)
* [***The Norman Conquest and Middle English (1100-1500)***](http://www.wordorigins.org/histeng.htm#norman#norman)
* [***Early-Modern English (1500-1800)***](http://www.wordorigins.org/histeng.htm#early#early)
* [***Late-Modern English (1800-Present)***](http://www.wordorigins.org/histeng.htm#late#late)
* [***American English***](http://www.wordorigins.org/histeng.htm#amer#amer)
* [***A Chronology of the English Language***](http://www.wordorigins.org/histeng.htm#chron#chron)

## Indo-European and Germanic Influences

English is a member of the Indo-European family of languages. This broad family includes most of the European languages spoken today. The Indo-European family includes several major branches:

* Latin and the modern Romance languages;
* The Germanic languages;
* The Indo-Iranian languages, including Hindi and Sanskrit;
* The Slavic languages;
* The Baltic languages of Latvian and Lithuanian (but not Estonian);
* The Celtic languages; and
* Greek.

The influence of the original Indo-European language, designated proto-Indo-European, can be seen today, even though no written record of it exists. The word for *father*, for example, is *vater* in German, *pater* in Latin, and *pitr* in Sanskrit. These words are all cognates, similar words in different languages that share the same root.

Of these branches of the Indo-European family, two are, for our purposes of studying the development of English, of paramount importance, the Germanic and the Romance (called that because the Romance languages derive from Latin, the language of ancient Rome, not because of any bodice-ripping literary genre). English is in the Germanic group of languages. This group began as a common language in the Elbe river region about 3,000 years ago. Around the second century BC, this Common Germanic language split into three distinct sub-groups:

* East Germanic was spoken by peoples who migrated back to southeastern Europe. No East Germanic language is spoken today, and the only written East Germanic language that survives is Gothic.
* North Germanic evolved into the modern Scandinavian languages of Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic (but not Finnish, which is related to Estonian and is not an Indo-European language).
* West Germanic is the ancestor of modern German, Dutch, Flemish, Frisian, and English.

## Old English (500-1100 AD)

West Germanic invaders from Jutland and southern Denmark: the Angles (whose name is the source of the words England and English), Saxons, and Jutes, began populating the British Isles in the fifth and sixth centuries AD. They spoke a mutually intelligible language, similar to modern Frisian--the language of northeastern region of the Netherlands--that is called Old English. Four major dialects of Old English emerged, Northumbrian in the north of England, Mercian in the Midlands, West Saxon in the south and west, and Kentish in the Southeast.

These invaders pushed the original, Celtic-speaking inhabitants out of what is now England into Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, and Ireland, leaving behind a few Celtic words. These Celtic languages survive today in Gaelic languages of Scotland and Ireland and in Welsh. Cornish, unfortunately, is now a dead language. (The last native Cornish speaker, Dolly Pentreath, died in 1777 in the town of Mousehole, Cornwall.) Also influencing English at this time were the Vikings. Norse invasions, beginning around 850, brought many North Germanic words into the language, particularly in the north of England. Some examples are *dream*, which had meant 'joy' until the Vikings imparted its current meaning on it from the Scandinavian cognate *draumr*, and *skirt*, which continues to live alongside its native English cognate *shirt*.

The majority of words in modern English come from foreign, not Old English roots. In fact, only about one sixth of the known Old English words have descendants surviving today. But this is deceptive; Old English is much more important than these statistics would indicate. About half of the most commonly used words in modern English have Old English roots. Words like *be*, *water*, and *strong*, for example, derive from Old English roots.

Old English, whose best known surviving example is the poem *Beowulf*, lasted until about 1100. This last date is rather arbitrary, but most scholars choose it because it is shortly after the most important event in the development of the English language, the Norman Conquest.

## The Norman Conquest and Middle English (1100-1500)

William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy, invaded and conquered England and the Anglo-Saxons in 1066 AD. (The Bayeux Tapestry, details of which form the navigation buttons on this site, is perhaps the most famous graphical depiction of the Norman Conquest.) The new overlords spoke a dialect of Old French known as Anglo-Norman. The Normans were also of Germanic stock ("Norman" comes from "Norseman") and Anglo-Norman was a French dialect that had considerable Germanic influences in addition to the basic Latin roots.

Prior to the Norman Conquest, Latin had been only a minor influence on the English language, mainly through vestiges of the Roman occupation and from the conversion of Britain to Christianity in the seventh century (ecclesiastical terms such as *priest*, *vicar*, and *mass* came into the language this way), but now there was a wholesale infusion of Romance (Anglo-Norman) words.

The influence of the Normans can be illustrated by looking at two words, beef and cow. *Beef*, commonly eaten by the aristocracy, derives from the Anglo-Norman, while the Anglo-Saxon commoners, who tended the cattle, retained the Germanic *cow*. Many legal terms, such as *indict*, *jury*, and *verdict* have Anglo-Norman roots because the Normans ran the courts. This split, where words commonly used by the aristocracy have Romantic roots and words frequently used by the Anglo-Saxon commoners have Germanic roots, can be seen in many instances.

Sometimes French words replaced Old English words; *crime* replaced *firen* and *uncle* replaced *eam*. Other times, French and Old English components combined to form a new word, as the French *gentle* and the Germanic *man* formed *gentleman*. Other times, two different words with roughly the same meaning survive into modern English. Thus we have the Germanic *doom* and the French *judgment*, or *wish* and *desire*.

It is useful to compare various versions of a familiar text to see the differences between Old, Middle, and Modern English. Take for instance this Old English example:

*Fæder ure þuþe eart on heofonum   
si þin nama gehalgod tobecume þin rice gewurþe þin willa on eorðan swa swa on heofonum   
urne gedæghwamlican hlaf syle us to dæg   
and forgyf us ure gyltas swa swa we forgyfað urum gyltendum   
and ne gelæd þu us on costnunge ac alys us of yfele soþlice.*

Rendered in Middle English (Wyclif, 1384), the same text is recognizable to the modern eye:

*Oure fadir þat art in heuenes halwid be þi name;   
þi reume or kyngdom come to be. Be þi wille don in herþe as it is dounin heuene.   
yeue to us today oure eche dayes bred.   
And foryeue to us oure dettis þat is oure synnys as we foryeuen to oure dettouris þat is to men þat han synned in us.   
And lede us not into temptacion but delyuere us from euyl.*

Finally, in Early Modern English (King James Version, 1611) the same text is completely intelligible:

*Our father which art in heauen, hallowed be thy name.   
Thy kingdom come. Thy will be done in earth as it is in heauen.   
Giue us this day our daily bread.   
And forgiue us our debts as we forgiue our debters.   
And lead us not into temptation, but deliuer us from euill. Amen.*

In 1204 AD, King John lost the province of Normandy to the King of France. This began a process where the Norman nobles of England became increasingly estranged from their French cousins. England became the chief concern of the nobility, rather than their estates in France, and consequently the nobility adopted a modified English as their native tongue. About 150 years later, the Black Death (1349-50) killed about one third of the English population. The laboring and merchant classes grew in economic and social importance, and along with them English increased in importance compared to Anglo-Norman.

This mixture of the two languages came to be known as Middle English. The most famous example of Middle English is Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*. Unlike Old English, Middle English can be read, albeit with difficulty, by modern English-speaking people.

By 1362, the linguistic division between the nobility and the commoners was largely over. In that year, the Statute of Pleading was adopted, which made English the language of the courts and it began to be used in Parliament.

The Middle English period came to a close around 1500 AD with the rise of Modern English.

## Early Modern English (1500-1800)

The next wave of innovation in English came with the Renaissance. The revival of classical scholarship brought many classical Latin and Greek words into the Language. These borrowings were deliberate and many bemoaned the adoption of these "inkhorn" terms, but many survive to this day. Shakespeare's character Holofernes in *Loves Labor Lost* is a satire of an overenthusiastic schoolmaster who is too fond of Latinisms.

Many students having difficulty understanding Shakespeare would be surprised to learn that he wrote in modern English. But, as can be seen in the earlier example of the Lord's Prayer, Elizabethan English has much more in common with our language today than it does with the language of Chaucer. Many familiar words and phrases were coined or first recorded by Shakespeare, some 2,000 words and countless catch-phrases are his. Newcomers to Shakespeare are often shocked at the number of cliches contained in his plays, until they realize that he coined them and they became cliches afterwards. "One fell swoop," "vanish into thin air," and "flesh and blood" are all Shakespeare's. Words he bequeathed to the language include "critical," "leapfrog," "majestic," "dwindle," and "pedant."

Two other major factors influenced the language and served to separate Middle and Modern English. The first was the Great Vowel Shift. This was a change in pronunciation that began around 1400. While modern English speakers can read Chaucer with some difficulty, Chaucer's pronunciation would have been completely unintelligible to the modern ear. Shakespeare, on the other hand, would be accented, but understandable. Long vowel sounds began to be made higher in the mouth and the letter "e" at the end of words became silent. Chaucer's *Lyf* (pronounced "leef") became the modern *life*. In Middle English *name* was pronounced "nam-a," *five* was pronounced "feef," and *down* was pronounced "doon." In linguistic terms, the shift was rather sudden, the major changes occurring within a century. The shift is still not over, however, vowel sounds are still shortening although the change has become considerably more gradual.

The last major factor in the development of Modern English was the advent of the printing press. William Caxton brought the printing press to England in 1476. Books became cheaper and as a result, literacy became more common. Publishing for the masses became a profitable enterprise, and works in English, as opposed to Latin, became more common. Finally, the printing press brought standardization to English. The dialect of London, where most publishing houses were located, became the standard. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the first English dictionary was published in 1604.

## Late-Modern English (1800-Present)

The principal distinction between early- and late-modern English is vocabulary. Pronunciation, grammar, and spelling are largely the same, but Late-Modern English has many more words. These words are the result of two historical factors. The first is the Industrial Revolution and the rise of the technological society. This necessitated new words for things and ideas that had not previously existed. The second was the British Empire. At its height, Britain ruled one quarter of the earth's surface, and English adopted many foreign words and made them its own.

The industrial and scientific revolutions created a need for neologisms to describe the new creations and discoveries. For this, English relied heavily on Latin and Greek. Words like *oxygen*, *protein*, *nuclear*, and *vaccine* did not exist in the classical languages, but they were created from Latin and Greek roots. Such neologisms were not exclusively created from classical roots though, English roots were used for such terms as *horsepower*, *airplane*, and *typewriter*.

This burst of neologisms continues today, perhaps most visible in the field of electronics and computers. *Byte*, *cyber-*, *bios, hard-drive*, and *microchip* are good examples.

Also, the rise of the British Empire and the growth of global trade served not only to introduce English to the world, but to introduce words into English. Hindi, and the other languages of the Indian subcontinent, provided many words, such as *pundit, shampoo, pajamas*, and *juggernaut*. Virtually every language on Earth has contributed to the development of English, from Finnish (*sauna*) and Japanese (*tycoon*) to the vast contributions of French and Latin.

The British Empire was a maritime empire, and the influence of nautical terms on the English language has been great. Words and phrases like *three sheets to the wind* and *scuttlebutt* have their origins onboard ships.

Finally, the 20th century saw two world wars, and the military influence on the language during the latter half of this century has been great. Before the Great War, military service for English-speaking persons was rare; both Britain and the United States maintained small, volunteer militaries. Military slang existed, but with the exception of nautical terms, rarely influenced standard English. During the mid-20th century, however, virtually all British and American men served in the military. Military slang entered the language like never before. *Blockbuster, nose dive, camouflage, radar, roadblock, spearhead*, and *landing strip* are all military terms that made their way into standard English.

## American English

Also significant beginning around 1600 AD was the English colonization of North America and the subsequent creation of a distinct American dialect. Some pronunciations and usages "froze" when they reached the American shore. In certain respects, American English is closer to the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Some "Americanisms" that the British decry are actually originally British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost at home (e.g., *fall* as a synonym for autumn, *trash* for rubbish, *frame-up* which was reintroduced to Britain through Hollywood gangster movies, and *loan* as a verb instead of lend).

The American dialect also served as the route of introduction for many native American words into the English language. Most often, these were place names like *Mississippi, Roanoke*, and *Iowa*. Indian-sounding names like *Idaho* were sometimes created that had no native-American roots. But, names for other things besides places were also common. *Raccoon, tomato, canoe, barbecue, savanna,* and *hickory* have native American roots, although in many cases the original Indian words were mangled almost beyond recognition.

Spanish has also been great influence on American English. *Armadillo, mustang, canyon, ranch, stampede,* and *vigilante* are all examples of Spanish words that made their way into English through the settlement of the American West.

To a lesser extent French, mainly via Louisiana, and West African, through the importation of slaves, words have influenced American English. *Armoire, bayou, and jambalaya* came into the language via New Orleans. *Goober, gumbo,* and *tote* are West African borrowings first used in America by slaves.

## A Chronology of the English Language

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 55 BCE | Roman invasion of Britain under Julius Caesar |
| 43 CE | Roman invasion and occupation under Emperor Claudius. Beginning of Roman rule of Britain |
| 436 | Roman withdrawal from Britain complete |
| 449 | Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain begins |
| 450-480 | Earliest Old English inscriptions date from this period |
| 597 | St. Augustine arrives in Britain. Beginning of Christian conversion of the Anglo-Saxons |
| 731 | The Venerable Bede publishes *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People* in Latin |
| 792 | Viking raids and settlements begin |
| 865 | The Danes occupy Northumbria |
| 871 | Alfred becomes king of Wessex. He has Latin works translated into English and begins practice of English prose. *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* is begun |
| 911 | Charles II of France grants Normandy to the Viking chief Hrolf the Ganger. The beginning of Norman French |
| c.1000 | The oldest surviving manuscript of *Beowulf* dates from this period |
| 1066 | The Norman conquest |
| c.1150 | The oldest surviving manuscripts in Middle English date from this period |
| 1171 | Henry II conquers Ireland |
| 1204 | King John loses the province of Normandy to France |
| 1348 | English replaces Latin as the medium of instruction in schools, other than Oxford and Cambridge which retain Latin |
| 1349-50 | The Black Death kills one third of the British population |
| 1362 | The Statute of Pleading replaces French with English as the language of law. Records continue to be kept in Latin. English is used in Parliament for the first time |
| 1384 | Wyclif publishes his English translation of the Bible |
| c.1388 | Chaucer begins *The Canterbury Tales* |
| c.1400 | The Great Vowel Shift begins |
| 1476 | William Caxton establishes the first English printing press |
| 1485 | Caxton publishes Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur* |
| 1492 | Columbus discovers the New World |
| 1525 | William Tyndale translates the New Testament |
| 1536 | The first Act of Union unites England and Wales |
| 1549 | First version of *The Book of Common Prayer* |
| 1564 | Shakespeare born |
| 1603 | Union of the English and Scottish crowns under James the I (VI of Scotland) |
| 1604 | Robert Cawdrey publishes the first English dictionary, *Table Alphabeticall* |
| 1607 | Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in the New World, established |
| 1611 | The Authorized, or King James Version, of the Bible is published |
| 1616 | Death of Shakespeare |
| 1623 | Shakespeare's First Folio is published |
| 1666 | The Great Fire of London. End of The Great Plague |
| 1702 | Publication of the first daily, English-language newspaper, *The Daily Courant*, in London |
| 1755 | Samuel Johnson publishes his dictionary |
| 1770 | Cook discovers Australia |
| 1776 | Thomas Jefferson writes the Declaration of Independence |
| 1782 | Washington defeats Cornwallis at Yorktown. Britain abandons the American colonies |
| 1788 | British penal colony established in Australia |
| 1803 | Act of Union unites Britain and Ireland |
| 1828 | Noah Webster publishes his dictionary |
| 1851 | Herman Melville publishes *Moby Dick* |
| 1922 | British Broadcasting Corporation founded |
| 1928 | The *Oxford English Dictionary* is published |

**Перелік питань для підсумкового контролю із дисципліни «Англійська лінгвокультурологія»**

**Форма контролю – залік**

1. Speak about recent changes in the composition of the House of Lords.

2. What do you think about the Shadow Cabinet functions?

3. What do you know about the discovery of America?

4. What aims did Spain, England and France pursue colonizing North America?

5. Which organ is most powerful in the government system of the UK and why?

6. Decode the phrase “The Queen reigns but does not rule”.

7. Say what you know about early settlers in North America.

8. What do you know about “The Lost Colony”? What is your guess about its tragedy?

9. Enumerate members of the Royal Family. Say what you know about each of them.

10. What royal prerogatives do you know? Comment on them.

11. What do you know about “New Albion”?

12. Describe the first British colony in North America.

13. Give the names of the most prominent inventors in the period of the Industrial Revolution. What was their contribution to science and technology of the period?

14. What were the leading industries within the period of the Revolution?

15. Enumerate the names of North America explorers.

16. Why some of the islands in the Atlantic Ocean are termed as “West Indies”?

17. Look through the booklet about Oxford University and give tabloid information concerning this institution of higher education.

18. Explain what further education is.

19. Comment on the names: “Hispanics”, “Yankee”, “Thanksgiving Day”.

20. Comment on the origin of the names: “Maryland”, “Pennsylvania”, “New Plymouth”, “Virginia”, “Jamestown”, “Baltimore”.

21. When was it that the country got the name “Great Britain”? What is behind this name?

22. Say what you know about Ulster.

23. Enumerate US sea-ports. Comment on their importance in the economic life of the nation.

24. What event took place in one of the sea-ports during the American Revolution? Describe it.

25. Comment on the public schools motto: “Learn to obey and to rule”.

26. What do you think is the difference between the independent and private schools?

27. What do you know about the first and the sixteenth US presidents?

28. Which of the US presidents held his office longer than the others? What constitutional amendment was adopted in this connection?

29. Give the names of the UK Prime Ministers heading the Conservative Party. Say what you know about them.

30. Which of the UK political parties is the youngest? What do you know about this party?

31. Explain what “legging exercises” are.

32. Give the names of the most prominent US presidents. Say what you know about them.

33. What were the prerequisites of the rise of the British Empire?

34. What were the reasons for the decline of the British Empire?

35. What kinds of the US mass media do you know? Describe them.

36. What does the term “bipartisan” mean?

37. Look through the English pupils’ exercise-books and voice your opinion of the teacher’s comment in them.

38. Explain the difference between the terms “GCE” and “CSE”.

39. What functions are performed by the Congressional committees?

40. What do you know about the presidential election in the USA?

41. Can you name some UK universities which were founded before 1900, and some founded since 1950?

42. Read the text of the Declaration of Independence and comment on it.

43. Comment on the most important amendments to the US Constitution.

44. What are the most prestigious universities in England, Scotland and Wales?

45. Comment on the terms “tutor”, “form teacher”.

46. Read the US Constitution and comment on its clauses.

47. Say what you know about the authors of the US Constitution.

48. How many sections are there in the government of Great Britain?

49. Who becomes the prime minister of the UK?

50. What was the difference between the Northern and the Southern colonies in terms of economy?

51. What was the reason for slavery in the south of North America?

52. What political parties of the UK do you know?

53. When does one party form the government?

54. What is the state of Washington famous for, agriculturally speaking?

55. Explain why the state of Utah is nicknamed as “The Mormon State”.

56. What can you say about lowland Britain and highland Britain?

57. What is the highest peak in the Highlands of Scotland?

58. Say what you know about the South-East economic region.

59. Which states are referred to as “The Cotton Belt”?

60. What does the term “college” mean in the UK system of education?

61. Analyze the scheme of the English students’ account on teaching practice and say what you think of it.

62. Describe the economy of Mountains and Deserts.

63. Which of the states are nicknamed as “Silver State”, “Gold State”, “Beef State” and why?

64. What categories of British citizens were prohibited to take part in the election to the House of Commons?

65. Who are the leaders of the most influential political parties in the UK now?

66. What do you know about the Great Plains economic region?

67. Say what you know about industries in Detroit, Pittsburg and Denver.

68. What type of state-maintained school would you choose for your child if you were a British citizen? Motivate your answer.

69. Comment on the meaning of the terms “public” and “private” in the UK school system.

70. Which of the seven economic regions is famous for fruit growing and why?

71. What are the main trends in the development of the US farming?

72. Which of the anti royal groups was more progressive than the others? Give your reasons.

73. Say what you know about the economy of the Central Basin.

74. Which of the states needed irrigation and why?

75. Say what you know about modern trends in American music.

76. What do you know about Hong-Kong as Britain’s former colony?

77. Say what you know about the “Muscovy Company”.

78. What do you know about the aims and content of US secondary school education?

79. Say what you know about the Ivy League Universities.

80. When was the English Parliament divided into the House of Commons and the House of Lords?

81. How did the Great Charter limit the power of the king?

82. What is the difference between Broadway and Off-Broadway theatres?

83. What was the reason of the conflict between King Charles I and the Parliament?

84. Were the English people satisfied with the results of the Bourgeois Revolution?

85. Say what you know about two-year and four-year colleges in the USA.

86. What degrees and ranks do you know in the US system of higher education?

87. Why did Britain become the first industrial country in the world in the period between 1760s and 1850s?

88. What important inventions were made in the period between 1760s and 1850s?

89. What economic region does New England belong to? Enumerate the states New England is composed of.

90. Which of the US economic regions is termed the “Melting Pot” and why?

91. What do you know about the aims and content of US secondary school education?

92. Say what you know about the Ivy League Universities.

**Зразок підсумкової контрольної роботи (тесту)**

1. In Britain the Conservative Party is often called the Tory Party.

a) true;

b) false.

2. Fill in the gap:

Oliver Cromwell became Lord … of the Commonwealth and ruled over the country by the advice of the Council.

3. Several islands off the British coast are also part of the United Kingdom, although the Channel Islands and … are not.

a) the Isle of Wight;

b) the Isles of Scilly;

c) the Isle of Man;

d) the Shetlands.

4. Religion was only a minor motive in the migration of colonists to America.

a) true;

b) false.

5. Fill in the gap:

Boston was punished for the Tea Party by British laws known in America as the … .

6. Which of the following colonies suffered least from conflicts with the Native Americans?

a) Pennsylvania;

b) Massachusetts;

c) Virginia;

d) South Carolina.

7. The centre of Britain’s national newspapers in London is called Wall Street.

a) true;

b) false.

8. Fill in the gap:

The present Royal Family of the United Kingdom belongs to a ruling dynasty called “the House of …”.

9. The … power is realized by the Prime Minister and his Cabinet.

a) legislative;

b) executive;

c) judicial.

10. The early German immigrants settled largely in the Southern Colonies.

a) true;

b) false.

11. The colonists protested most strongly against the Stamp Act because … .

a) it taxed newspapers and political pamphlets;

b) they believed the revenue was not needed;

c) it required a host of British officials for enforcement;

d) they were not represented in Parliament.

12. In Britain the Prime Minister chooses about 20 Members of Parliament of … to become Cabinet Ministers.

a) his or her party;

b) all parties;

c) opposite party;

d) two main parties.

13. – How can people be admitted to the Open University? – … .

a) Through competitive system;

b) They take entrance exams;

c) On the basis of “first came, first served”.

14. The strongest religious influence in America has been that of the Puritans.

a) true;

b) false.

15. The principal author of the Declaration of Independence was … .

a) John Locke;

b) Patrick Henry;

c) James Madison;

d) Thomas Jefferson.

**КРИТЕРІЇ ОЦІНЮВАННЯ ЗНАНЬ СТУДЕНТІВ ІЗ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ «АНГЛІЙСЬКА ЛІНГВОКУЛЬТУРОЛОГІЯ»**

1. **Відмінно.** Відповідь повна, вичерпна, насичена термінологією з курсу; визначається точністю, послідовністю і логічністю; відповідає мовним нормам. У ході відповіді студент розкриває питання, передбачені для самостійного опрацювання, наводить приклади на підтвердження теоретичного матеріалу.
2. **Добре.** Відповідь повна, вичерпна, насичена термінологією з курсу; визначається точністю, послідовністю і логічністю; однак трапляються незначні мовленнєві огріхи. У ході відповіді студент розкриває питання, передбачені для самостійного опрацювання, проте не завжди наводить приклади на підтвердження теоретичного матеріалу.
3. **Задовільно.** Відповідь змістовна, однак неповна, репліки недостатньо вдалі, оскільки не враховують належним чином використання термінологічної лексики; порушується послідовність і логічність викладу думок; надається перевага невербальній комунікації; трапляються суттєві мовленнєві огріхи.
4. **Незадовільно.** Студент бере участь в обговоренні теоретичних питань практичного заняття, проте, відповіді є недостатніми за обсягом (до 5-6 реплік), елементарними за змістом, зі значною кількістю помилок різного роду.

**Розподіл балів із дисципліни**

1. Відповіді на практичних заняттях – 1-100 б.
2. Виконання контрольної модульної роботи – 30-90 б.
3. Підготовка повідомлення – 20 б. (2 повідомлення).
4. Самостійна робота студента – 10-90 б.

**Розподіл балів для КМР**

1. ***І рівень*** – ознайомчо-орієнтаційний (15 балів).

2. ***ІІ рівень*** – понятійно-аналітичний (30 б.).

3. ***ІІІ рівень*** – понятійно-синтетичний (45 б).

Загальна кількість балів за виконання контрольної роботи – 30-90 балів.

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