"Ion Creangă" State Pedagogical University

Jana Grecu
Tatiana Yavuz

BRITISH CIVILIZATION

(Student's Guide)

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Reviewers:
Dodu-Savca C., dr., conf.univ. (ULIM)
Golubovschi O., dr., conf.univ. (UPS “Ion Creangă”)

Autori: Grecu Jana, dr. conf. univ.
Yavuz Tatiana, dr., lector

“British Civilization” is a part of the university curriculum of the English language as the first and second speciality. The book traces the development of the nation from prehistoric times to the present day. It looks at British history not merely in terms of kings, queens and battles, but also emphasizes economic, social and cultural forces and how these affected the everyday lives of people from different sections of society.

The book is intended to be used as a student’s guide for the students specializing in English at University level, for English teachers and for anyone wishing to know more about Britain and the British.

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Unit I
The Early Days of Britain

The Plan:

1. ***Ancient Population***
2. ***The Romans***
3. ***Anglo - Saxon Britain***
4. ***Invasions of the Vikings***
5. ***The England of Alfred the Great***
6. ***Edward the Confessor***
7. ***The Battle of Hastings***

"A generation which ignores history has no past and no future."
(Robert Heinlein)

Great Britain has a long and rich history. The geographical position of the land at ancient times was both a blessing and a problem: on the one hand the insular position protected the country from invasion; and on the other — the lowland facing the continent always invited invasions.

The greatest material monument of the ancient population of the British Isles is Stonehenge on the Salisbury plain, — a monumental stone circle and a memorial of the Stone Age culture. It is about 4000.

The first inhabitants are believed to be hunters of the Old Stone Age who came from Continent, to be followed by new waves of immigrants.

By the end of the Stone Age the Beaker people who were called so after the clay mugs or “beakers” they could make, — were farmers and metal was already being used.

The beginning of the Stone Age (500 - 600 BC) coincided with the arrival of new invaders, mainly from France. They were the Celts. Reputed to be tall, fair and well built, they had artistic skills and were good craftsmen. Their dialects were imposed on the native population: the Gaelic form was spread in Ireland and Scotland, and the Brythonic in England and Wales. It was the Brythonic tribe of the Celts that gave its name to the whole country.

The culture of Celts in the Iron Age was not altogether barbaric. Their priests, the Druids, were skillful in teaching and administration.

But the Romans came with a heavy hand,
And bridged and roaded and ruled the land,…
wrote R. Kipling

The Roman Emperor Julius Caesar carried out two expeditions in 55 and 54 BC, neither of which led to immediate Roman settlement in Britain. Caesar’s summer expeditions were a failure. Almost a century later in 43 AD Emperor Claudius sent his legions over the sea to occupy Britain. The occupation was to last more than three centuries and the Romans saw their mission of civilizing the country. The British were not conquered easily. There was a resistance in Wales and the Romans destroyed the Druids, a class of Celtic priests as their rituals involved human sacrifice.

There was a revolt in East Anglia, where Queen Boadicea (Boudicca) and her daughters in their chariots were fighting against Roman soldiers and were defeated. The Roman occupation was spread mainly over England , while Wales, Scotland and Ireland remained unconquered areas of the Celtic fringe – preserving Celtic culture and traditions.

The Romans were in Great Britain for over 350 years, they were both an occupying army and the rulers. They imposed Pax Romana, — Roman peace — which stopped tribal wars, and protected Britain from the attacks of outsiders – Picts in the North, Saxons from overseas.

London is a Celtic name, but many towns that Romans built along their roads – Lancaster, Winchester, Chichester, etc. have the Latin component "castra" — a camp, a fortified town.

The first centre of the Roman Britain is considered Colchester, a town located in Essex. It was established as capital by Roman emperor Claudius, nearly 2000 years ago. Its name in Latin was Camulodunum. Later London became the centre of Roman rule in Britain, it was walled, the Thames was bridged; and straight paved roads (Roman Roads, — that are as straight as a die) connected London with garrison towns.

Under the Emperor Hadrian in 120 AD a great wall was built across Britain between the Tyne and the Solway to protect the Romans against the attacks of Scots and Picts.

Hadrian's wall was a vast engineering project and is a material monument of the roman times alongside with roads, frescoes and mosaics on the villas and baths (in the city of Bath).

The Romans also brought Christianity to Britain and British Church became a strong institution. The native language absorbed many Latin words at that time.

By the fifth century the Roman Empire was beginning to disintegrate and the Roman legions in Britain had to return back to Rome to defend it from the attacks of the new waves of barbaric invaders. Britain was left to defend and rule itself.

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

The Germanic invaders first arrived in small groups throughout the fifth century but managed to settle and oust the British population to the mountainous parts of the Isle of Great Britain.

The Anglo - Saxons controlled the central part of Britain which was described as England while the romanized Celts fled West taking with them their culture, language and Christianity.

The Anglo - Saxon England was a network of small kingdoms.

The seventh century saw the establishment of seven kingdoms: Essex (East Saxon), Sussex (South Saxons), Wessex (West Saxons), East Anglia (East Angles), Kent, Mersia and Northumbria, and the largest three of them — Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex — dominated the country at different times.

The Anglo-Saxon kings were elected by members of the Council of Chieftains (the Witan) and they ruled with the advice of the councilors, the great men of the kingdom. In time it became the custom to elect a member of the royal family, and the power of the king grew parallel to the size and the strength of his kingdom. In return for the support of his subjects, — who gave him free labor and military service, paid taxes and duties — the King gave them his protection and granted lands.

By the end of the eighth century the British Isles were subjected to one more invasion by nonChristian people from Scandinavia.

…But the Romans left
And the Danes blew in…
That's where your history book begins…

(R. Kipling)

They were called Norsemen or Danes, or the Vikings. The Vikings were brilliant sailors, they had the fastest boats in Europe, that were moving powered by sail. They crossed the Atlantic, and founded a colony in North America 500 years before Columbus. They had repeatedly raided the Eastern Coast of England, and by the middle of the ninth century almost all English Kingdoms were defeated by the Danes. In 870 only Wessex was left to resist the barbaric Danes. At that time the West Saxons got a new young king, his name was Alfred, later he was called Alfred the Great. And no other king has earned this title. Alfred forced the Danes to come to terms – to accept Christianity and live within the frontiers of the Dane law — a large part of Eastern England, while he was master of the South and West of England.

King Alfred was quick to learn from his enemies: he created an efficient army and built a fleet of warships on a Danish pattern, which were known to have defeated Viking invaders at sea more than once. They were forced to go South and settle in Northern France, where their settlement became known as Normandy, the province of the Northmen. The England of King Alfred the Great received a new Code of laws which raised the standards of English society. New churches were built, foreign scholars were brought, schools were founded, King Alfred himself translated a number of books from Latin, including Bede's Historia Ecclesiastica and began the Anglo - Saxon chronicle, a year-by year history of England.

Alfred the Great saved England from the Danish conquest, but in the 10th — 11th centuries the Danes managed to expand their possession in Great Britain and from 1013 to 1042 the Danish royal power triumphed in England. King Canut's empire included Norway, Denmark and England. In 1042 the house of Wessex was restored to power in England, when Edward the Confessor was elected king by the Witan. He was half - Norman, had spent his exile in Normandy, and William the Duke of Normandy was his cousin and a close friend.

Edward the Confessor was a religious monarch and devoted his attention to the construction of churches and most of all to the building of Westminster Abbey.

Edward the Confessor died in 1066 without an obvious heir. And the Witan elected Harold, a Saxon nobleman from the family of the Godwine, the king of England. Harold's right to the English throne was challenged by William the Duke of Normandy who claimed the English Kingdom as his rightful

inheritance which had been allegedly promised to him by the late King Edward the Confessor.

1066 was a crucial year for the Saxon King, and for the history of the English. Harold had to fight against two enemies at the same time. In the South William of Normandy was preparing to land in England, in the North, in Yorkshire, the Danes renewed their attacks against England.

Harold succeeded in defeating the Danes and rushed his armies back to the South to meet William who had landed near Hastings. His men were tired, though they had done so well in the battle against the Danish Vikings. William's army was better armed, better organized and he had cavalry. Had Harold waited and given his army a rest, the outcome of the battle might have been different. But after a hard and long struggle Harold and his brothers were killed in the battle of Hastings and the flower of Saxons nobility lay dead together with them on the battle field.

The Bayeux Tapestry (231 feet long 19 inches wide) tells a complete story of the Norman Conquest of Saxon England in over seventy scenes. In one of the scenes the Latin writing says "Harold the King is dead", and under the inscription stands a man with an arrow in his eye believed to be King Harold.

William captured London and was crowned King of England in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, 1066.

The Norman period in English history had begun.

Some historians argue concerning possible ways of English history, had the Anglo - Saxons defeated William. But History doesn't rely on the Conditional Mood.

All the invasions, raids and conquests were contributing new waves of peoples to be integrated into a newly appearing nation of the English, to understand which we must know its historical roots, studying historical facts.

Questions and Suggested Activities:

1. What were the advantages and disadvantages of Ancient Britain's geographical position?
2. What material monuments of Pre-Celtic culture still exist on the British territory?
3. Investigate the information about Stonehenge and its origin. Report your findings to the class.
4. Explain why the first inhabitants were called "beaker people".
5. Where did the Celts come from? Describe their way of life.
6. Which of the Celtic tribes gave their name to their new home-country?
7. Make a report about religion of ancient Britons: the name of ancient priests, their rituals and sacred plants.
8. In what way did the Romans invade Ancient Britain? How long did they rule?
9. Prove the fact that Britons were not conquered easily by the Romans.
10. Make a report about Queen Boadicea and share it with the class.
11. What were the contributions of Roman civilization to British culture?

12. Investigate the information about Christianity in Ancient Britain. What was the new religion officially called?
13. Did King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table exist and when if they did?
14. Describe the ways of Anglo-Saxon invasion. What states emerged as a result of that invasion?
15. What was the historical role of the Vikings or Danes on the British Isles?
16. Which of the Anglo-Saxon kings deserved the title of "Great"? Why? What were his great accomplishments?
17. In what way was Edward the Confessor responsible for William's claim to the English crown?
18. What is the name of the battle which is a historic turning point for England? Describe it.

Unit II
Medieval Britain

The Plan:

1. ***Early Middle Ages:***
   Feudalism. The Domesday Book. The Plantagenet Kings. Conflicts with the Church and Barons. Richard I. John Lackland. Magna Carta Libertatum
2. ***Later Middle Ages:***
   Simon de Monfort. The Growth of Parliament. The Hundred Years' War. The Black Death. The Peasants' Revolt.
3. ***Late Middle Ages:***
   The War of the Roses (1455-1485)
   William Caxton. Jeoffrey Chaucer. Saint Joan of Arc.

"Those who do not remember the past are condemned to repeat it."

(George Santayana)

Early Middle Ages

The Norman Conquest did have immediate social, political and cultural implications. The new tough foreign aristocracy captured power and lands. By 1100 (12th c.) there were 500 Norman castles in the English countryside. There was a blow against the Church as well; Saxon bishops were either deposed or replaced by Normans. During the 11th and 12th centuries an apparatus of Government of exceptional effectiveness was established.

England was also drawn into close links with the other side of the Channel. But there was a language gap between the

local (Anglo - Saxon) population and the new landowners, of both Church and the Norman Aristocracy.

Latin was a language of monasteries, Norman-French was the language of law and authority. Inflected English, spoken differently in the various regions remained the language of the people.

The brightest evidence of the situation in the country was the Domesday Book (1086), a survey of England's land and people; according to it Norman society still rested on "lordship, secular and spiritual, and the King, wise or foolish, was the lord of lords, with only Lord in Heaven and the Saints above him."

Historians have introduced into their interpretation of Norman and other European lordship the term "feudalism", first employed during the 12th century. The term was used in both narrow and broad sense. Narrowly it was related to military (knightly) service as a condition of tenure of land. Broadly it was related to the tenure of land itself, obligation and dependence, as expressed in the term "vassalage". The first relationship focuses on warfare in an age of violence, the second on the use as well as the tenure of land in an age when land was the key to society.

All land in the country belonged to the Crown. The king was the greatest landowner in the country and he gave away the land to the great landowners who were his tenants – in - chief (barons). The barons held their land as a gift, in return for specified services to the Crown. When barons parceled out their land, they also required knightly services from their tenants.

During the reign of William I 170 barons had in their service about 4000 knights who were distinguishable as a social group.

The two social groups were opposed to "the poor men": lords themselves cultivated only a third or two fifths of the arable land in use. The rest was cultivated by various kinds of "peasants" (a controversial term not in use at that time) : villeins (41%), cottagers (32%), free holders (14%) and serfs (10%) - the group with no land at all. At the time of the Domesday Book, the basic distinction was, however, that all men were either free (free holders) or serfs.

In the 13th century King John Lackland (1199 - 1216) replaced military service of his tenants-in-chief by payments, known as "shield money".

In rural England lords lived in manors which in their own estates. The peasants, free holders and others lived in villages and hamlets.

The Domesday Book was designed for fiscal purposes to increase and protect the king's revenue.

The full implications of the social, political and cultural changes following the Norman Conquest took time to work themselves out. They were: a political unification of the country and the centralization of government — a strong royal government, feudal interdependence; the supreme power of the King over all his vassals; the establishment of the feudal hierarchy, a further development of the relationship between the king and the barons, sometimes stormy, sometimes cohesive, an emergence of English common law (from precedent to precedent), the making of Parliament.

The latter two were the most obvious phenomena if we investigate (consider) the historical events chronologically and examine the sequence the of monarchs:

William I The Conqueror (1066 - 1087) (the Norman Dynasty) died as a result of falling from his horse in a battle in France, was succeeded by his two sons, one after the other.

William II (1087 - 1100) was cruel but a brave soldier, little loved and little missed when he died.

Henry I (1100 - 1135) was scholarly and well educated. His daughter was married to the German Emperor Henry V, and later upon his death to Geophrey of Anjou; the son of Geophrey of Anjou (Angevin) became the first Plantagenet.

Henry II (1154 - 1189) was friendly Thomas Becket, a humble clerk, who was appointed the archbishop of Canterbury. Henry misjudged this man who considered his first loyalty to be the Church and not the King.

The conflict ended in the murder of Thomas Becket in his own cathedral by the King's servants. Becket was canonized (St. Thomas); his shrine became a place of pilgrimage for the whole of Europe, for the cures effected there, until it was destroyed by Henry VIII in 1538. So the King of the House of Plantagenet was the first to have a conflict with the Church and he physically destroyed the opposition.

His wife Eleanor took a lively interest in politics. Somewhat too lively at times, for she abetted (helped and supported) her sons when they rebelled against their father, she was, as a result, imprisoned.

Henry II's reign was one of constitutional progress and territorial expansion.

Richard I the Lion-Heart (1189 - 1199).

King Richard may have had the heart of a lion but England saw all too little of him. He was called a romantic sportsman and spent most of his life in Crusades in the Holy Land.

He used England's money to finance his crusades and other adventures, but he was not very lucky-returning from his successful mission, he was captured, and was kept imprisoned in Austria, awaiting the payment of a huge ransom.

He returned to England to stop his younger brother John from usurping the throne, soon after, he rushed to fight King Philip of France who had supported John. Philip was defeated but Richard was killed in a siege of a castle.

His wife who never set foot in England, left no children. So, John (Lackland) (1199 - 1216), the youngest son of King Henry II, continued the dynasty's rule.

King John Lackland was the most unpopular king: he lost most of his French possessions; he broke his father's heart with his misbehavior, he rebelled against his brother, quarreled with the Pope, etc. The list of stupidities and misdemeanuors was endless but he did one good thing (or was forced to do it). In 1215 the barons made him seal the Magna Carta, which, though it limited the prerogative of the Crown and extended the powers of the Barons, has since become the foundation stone of an Englishman's liberty.

The pressure on the pocket is more quickly felt than the pressure on the mind — that is why John Lackland was forced by his barons to seal the Magna Carta Libertatum (the Great Charter of 1215). Pressed by the demands of war, he had

imposed taxes that irritated many of his most powerful subjects. The Magna Carta is a document that dealt with privileges claimed by Norman barons. It was to become part of the English constitutional inheritance, because the baronial claims for liberties were in time translated into the universal language of freedom and justice. It was the beginning of limiting the prerogatives of the Crown.

During the struggle for the Great Charter (Magna Carta) the legions of barons openly opposed the King — disobeyed him, did not pay taxes, raised an army of knights, enjoyed support of townsmen (London supported them), the King was forced to seal the Charter.

It's important to point out that by limiting the King's power, Magna Carta restricted arbitrary actions of barons towards knights and proclaimed the power of law over the free people of the country.

King John was succeeded by his son Henry III (1216 - 1272). He was not as bad as his father but he was continually short of money and extravagant by nature.

Henry III faced a further development of baronial ambitions and protests. They accused the King of violating their rights and liberties. After a very bad harvest in 1257 Henry III demanded a third of all English property. This aroused a new baronial riot. The barons finally came armed to the Parliament at Oxford and drew up "provisions" — "Oxford Provisions" and additional "Westminster provisions" — to protect the knights from barons which gave all the power in the country to barons. The King and his son did not want to become puppets; and as a result a military conflict developed.

The country was divided into supporters and enemies of the King and a Civil war broke out.

The army of barons was headed (led) by Earl Simon de Monfort and was at first successful in capturing the King's fortresses and castles. They were greeted by townsmen and students of Oxford and church bells.

In 1264 Earl Simon took the King prisoner; in 1265 — Parliament was summoned with "commons" represented in it — two knights from a shire and two merchants from a town.

Prince Edward, Henry's son and heir, (late to succeed Henry as Edward I) rescued Henry. King Henry III managed to defeat Simon de Monfort and killed him in a battle and secured his Crown and his rule.

The 1295 Parliament was called Model Parliament, though it assured a continuity of the 1265 Parliament of Simon de Monfort.

The commons were summoned by the King's Writ to some of the Parliaments (one in eight before 1284; one in three — in the later years of Edward the I's reign, one of which was the so — called Model Parliament of 1295).

The "Oxford Provisions" were not observed by Kings. So, in the 12th and 13th centuries, relationships between the king and the barons, and the making of Parliament were the main historical phenomena of that period.

During the reign of Edward I (1272 - 1307) there were not only lords, bishops and great abbots present in Parliament, but there were also "commons". This demonstrated the growing wealth and importance of townsmen and knights of the shire not only in the local communities but also in the whole country.

Economics and politics were very closely connected, and the King's main goal in summoning Parliament was to raise money from the population through taxes — 1/10th from people in towns, 1/15th from the people in the country.

Social relations in the country were undergoing changes in the 13th century. Enforced labour services by villeins were giving way to wage labour, and villeins commuted their labor - dues by paying money to the lord instead. Then the pattern changed: the lords again required labor services. But a lot of villeins were freed, and some of the freed were able, energetic or lucky enough to buy land and prosper as Yoemen.

The 13th century was a period of substantial economic activity. Wheat was shipped overseas, but the country's wealth was coming from the exports of wool. Later on, when the wool began to be made into cloth in England, rather than exported as raw material, it stimulated the growth of industry. In the 13th and 14th centuries England was far behind Flanders in the production of cloth but there was enough development.

Questions and Suggested Activities:

1. What were the peculiar traits of the Normal Rule in England? Find out additional information about this period.
2. Explain the meaning of the term "feudalism" in relation to Norman England. Describe the basic principles of it.
3. Why was the "Domesday book" written?

4. Make a report about the political, social, economic and cultural consequences of the Norman Conquest. Share your information with the class.
5. When was the first conflict of the King with the Church? What were the reasons of it?
6. Try to describe the relations in the family of Henry II.
7. Make a report about the Royal House of Normandy and share your information with the class.
8. Investigate the information about the Plantagenet dynasty. Report it to the class.
9. What do you know about King Richard I the Lion-Heart? Give arguments to prove his bravery.
10. When was the first attempt to limit the power of the King? Explain the reasons. When did it take place and what kind of document appeared as a result?
11. When did the British Parliament appear and how did it develop in the Middle Ages?
12. Investigate the information about economic and social relations in the Early Middle Ages in England. Report it to the class.

Later Middle Ages

Edward I (1272 - 1307) was determined to strengthen his royal authority and his Kingdom. To do that he asserted his rule in all territories on the British Isles, especially in Wales and Scotland. He succeeded in imposing English rule on Wales: his son , who was born in a Welsh castle and "could spell not a word of English" at that time, later, in 1301 was created the

Prince of Wales and ruler of the principality. Since that time the eldest son of the English monarch has been given that title.

Relationships between England and Scotland were similar to those between England and Wales, but the Scots had a greater degree of independence. Edward I had made several military raids to the Northern kingdom, seized the national treasure-the Stone of Destiny from the Scone Abbey (1296) but had failed to subdue the Scots. Edward I who had been called "the Hammer of Scots" died not far the border of Scotland during his last abortive campaign to defeat the Scots.

The rule of his son, Edward II (1307 - 1327) is traditionally characterized as a great failure of the hereditary principles of Monarchy: Edward II had no talent to be a King, but he was the eldest son and succeeded his father. He angered the barons by his foolishness, his extravagance, favorites and military defeats. His reign was a troubled one and he was deposed and forced to abdicate by the barons, assisted by his wife. He died, probably murdered and was succeeded by his son, Edward III (1327 - 1377).

Edward III is recognized by historians as a passionate fighter, who was fond of tournaments, chivalry and battles. He instituted the Order of the Garter and cultivated the spirit of chivalry at his court. He pursued a sensible policy of tolerance with barons, thus securing their loyalty. His commercial policies facilitated the development of wool trade and rise of prosperity. But the warrior king was eager to lead his knights in battles, so Scotland was his first rather hard prey as he had failed to subjugate it, though having taken its King David prisoner to England. The dynastic accident helped Edward III to

start the Hundred Years' War (1338 - 1453) which was carried during the reigns of five English Kings.

Edward declared his claim to the French throne, as his mother had been the sister of Charles IV, king of France, who left no male heir when he died in 1338. This was a respectable enough reason fro the war to return the lost English lands in France. The results of the first stage of the war were not as successful as the English had expected them to be. But several victories were won at sea (1340 at Sluys), and in the field — Gascony was recaptured, at Crecy the English archers made the King of France flee from the Battle field, Calais after a long siege surrendered in the face of starvation. King Edward's eldest son, — Edward, the Black Prince, a warrior of a high reputation, in 1356 won a victory at Poitiers. In 1348 the outbreak of plague, "the Black death" dealt a terrible blow at the people of Europe and England. It was a terrible disaster, more than 1/3 of the English population died.

The economy and trade of England suffered and the social unrest was spreading due to the results of the economic, social, political and military status. Violence was sparked off by yet another poll tax of 1381. People revolted against the tax — collectors and judges, in the south and south — east of England. The rebels, led by Wat Tyler and John Ball, a clergyman, marched to London, captured the Tower with the help of Londoners, killed the archbishop of Canterbury and the Lord Chancellor. John Ball was a radical opponent of the Church-lords and supported the ideas of John Wycliffe, the first reformer of the Church (1330 - 1384). He preached ideas of

social justice: “When Adam delved and Eve Span who was then the gentleman?”

The Peasants’ Revolt made far reaching demands: a charter of liberties, the end of all lordship except the King’s, the end of serfdom, return of church land to people, etc.

The young King Richard II met the Kentismen face–to-face at Smithsfield. Wat Tyler was pronouncing their demands which were unacceptable to feudalism.

The King appeared to agree but during the negotiations Wat Tyler was treacherously killed and his head, set up on a spear, was shown to the rebels to persuade them to retreat from London and disband. Shocked and morally destroyed they obeyed only to be physically tortured and executed, John Ball was hanged. The punitive actions continued long into autumn. The Great Peasants’ Revolt was defeated. But the rulings class had been badly frightened and unpopular Poll Tax withdrawn.

Through a primitive faith in the King (a kindly king) senior lords prevented the peasants from any attempts to establish their power. But the rebellion undermined the strength and rule of the feudal class and as a consequence few barons dared to refuse the peasants attempts to buy freedom. Actually, peasant dependence in Britain disappeared by the 15th century and the Wat Tyler rebellion was instrumental in that.

King Richard II (1377 - 1399) after considerable civil struggle, eventually wrested the power from Parliament and the barons. He seems to have pursued a policy of revenge and high-handed despotism.

He brought Duke John of Lancaster’s son Henry to England, but Henry gained enough support to take King

Richard prisoner and cause him to abdicate in his favour. The House of Lancaster's Henry IV (1399 - 1413), Henry V (1413 - 1422), Henry VI (1422 - 1461) — were followed by the kings of the York family — two Edwards: Edward IV and Edward V, and Richard III, a hunch back, a cruel monster, deformed in body, mind and soul (according to the Tudor historians).

There is a statement, that King Richard II was the last king from the House of Plantagenets -he was deposed and dethroned by the House of Lancaster. But it is to be stressed, that the two new royal branches were related to the Plantagenets, were the derivatives of the mains stem.

The 13th century was described by historians as a Plantagenet spring after a grim Norman winter. It was the century of the new gothic style in architecture, of Salisbury Cathedral, foundation of universities, the development of the Common Law & the Parliament, and the emergence of English as the language of the nation. The symbol of this spring can be seen in the lyrics "Sumer is icumen in". But the following two centuries were filled with wars, discord and discontent.

The 14th century brought the disasters of the Hundred Years War (1337 - 1453), the Peasant's Revolt 1381, the extermination of the population by the Black death (1348 - 1349) and punitive execution of the participants, with positive achievements in literature (Geoffrey Chaucer completes the Canterbury Tales (1393)), - architecture, - and further strengthening of the English language.

The 15th century saw the continuation of the struggle for the crown and the establishment of the Lancaster dynasty in the person of Henry IV, King of England (1399 - 1414).

Questions and Suggested Activities:

1. How did Edward I manage to impose English rule in Wales?
2. Prepare for oral presentation on the topic "Edward I and the Stone of Destiny".
3. What were the English relations with Scotland in the reign of Edward I?
4. Compare the reigns of Edward I and Edward II. What is the difference?
5. Describe the military and territorial ambitions of Edward III. Give the dates of his rule.
6. What do you know about the Hundred Years' War? What was the end of the War?
7. Make a report about the "Black Death" and its consequences. Share your findings with the class.
8. Investigate the information about the Great Peasants' Revolt and report it to the class.
9. What were the reasons of social unrest in England in the last quarter of the 14th century?
10. Why is the destiny of the last Plantagenet King Richard III considered tragic?
11. Give a concise characteristic of the 14th century. Why was it called "the Century of Disasters"?

The Lancaster Kings continued campaigns in France in the Hundred Years' War: Henry V (1413 - 1422) was successful in his expeditions in France, Henry VI though having been crowned to Britain and France, lost those French lands and probably Saint Joan of Arc helped the French. Henry VI's reign ended in (1422 - 1461) confusion, deposition and a cruel war - the Wars of the Roses (1455 - 1485), a term coined by Sir Walter Scott.

During the Wars of the Roses, great men attached lesser men to their service by lip indentures; the Duke of Lancaster had pointed the way in the late fourteenth century. When he indentured a large number of knights and esquires, most of them were retained for life in his service and in war and peace. Such bastard feudalism as this has been called, was quite different from feudalism. The retainer was not a vassal, who owed loyalty to his lord and was linked to him through ties of mutual obligations. The retainer's lord was his patron, and he was his follower, wearing his livery and being maintained by him.

The Wars of the Roses began when in 1399 barons of the North supported the Lancaster who had a red rose in their crest. The barons of the South supported the Yorks whose crest was decorated by a white rose. The bloody struggle for the crown and rule practically lasted for about 30 years (1455 -1485) with some breaks, it was a merciless annihilation of the old aristocracy with rights and claims to become rulers, and its

romantic name the War of the Roses only emphasizes the ruthlessness by a degree of contrast.

Finally, the two dynasties had been destroyed, and a distant relative of the Lancaster family-Henry Tudor married Elisabeth of York in 1485 (the two roses united) and Henry Tudor was crowned Henry VII of England (1485 - 1509).

The 15th century with its baronial wars though putting brakes on the development of the economy could not stop the progress of productive forces released by the disintegration of dependent feudal relations in agriculture.

The 15th century saw a development of woolen textile manufacture, steel making developed (South Wales, Birmingham and Sheffield), trade development facilitated the growth of the Navy and shipbuilding.

The formation of the common national language manifested itself in fiction and Geoffrey Chaucer (1340 - 1400) works (Canterbury Tales) and in geographical, commercial, etc. books. William Caxton (1477) brought a printing press and started book printing in England.

Since the middle of the 15th century the English language became the one working language in the whole of England.

The 15th century saw a development of folklore - ballads of Robin Hood's were dramatized on the village commons; singing and other musical arts, dramatic arts, portrait painting left wonderful examples for us to admire.

So, in the 15th century for all the conflicts, the forces of progress were breaking through, laying foundations for destroying feudalism, for developing capitalism an formation of the English national, economy.

Questions and Suggested Activities:

1. Describe the role of Joan of Arc in the Hundred Years' War. Why was she called "the Saint"?
2. What was the reason of the War of Roses? Was it a romantic event?
3. Investigate the information about the Royal House of Lancaster and share it with the class.
4. What do you know about the York Kings? Whose interests did they support?
5. Make a fact book about the War of the Roses and present your information to the class.
6. What industrial progress was achieved in the 15th century?
7. Investigate the information about William Caxton and report it to the class.
8. Point out the great cultural achievements of that age. Share your findings with the class.
9. Prepare for the presentation "Geoffrey Chaucer – the last poet of the Middle Ages".
10. Give a short general outline of the main political, economic and cultural events in the Middle Ages in Britain.
11. Compare England's Middle Ages to Middle Ages of the European countries. Note similarities and differences.

Unit III
The Tudor Age (1485 - 1603)

The Plan:

1. ***The New Dynasty***
2. ***The English Reformation***
3. ***Henry VIII and his Heirs***
4. ***The Golden Age of Elizabeth***
5. ***Mary Queen of Scots***
6. ***Renaissance***
7. ***William Shakespeare***

"History is who we are and why we are the way we are."
(David McCullough)

The end of the Wars of the Roses, the victory of Henry Tudor at Bosworth field and his marriage with Princess Elizabeth, heiress of the House of York (1485) were the events that symbolized the end of the Middle Ages in Britain. The years of 1485 is traditionally considered the watershed and the beginning of the Tudor Age.

In historical development the rule of the Tudors (1485 - 1603) with their absolute power in the long run contributed to the strengthening of its role in international affairs.

The 16th century was the age of a growing absolutism of monarchy and centralization of the state; these phenomena facilitated the development and foundation of new capitalist relations in production.

The English type of absolute monarchy was shaped by Henry VII, who was opposed to the power of old barons. He

ordered that the old castles should be destroyed (pulled down) and the feudal baronial armies should be disbanded. He was very rich with the confiscated wealth of his defeated rivals. He was strong enough to prevent any revival of armed strength of any group of nobles, and he enjoyed support of merchants and small landowners who had all suffered from the civil war.

These two groups, linked by a common interest in the wool trade not yet powerful enough to claim the political power were to fight for in the 17th century. They were strong enough to be useful allies of the Tudor kings and queens. Their support enabled the Tudors to become despotic rulers, while at first playing a progressive historic role. But their reign was abundant in various controversial arbitrary developments.

The financial policy of Henry VII filled the Treasure and strengthened the throne and the church position, improved the contacts with Rome. The King skillfully steered through the complexities of European politics. His eldest son was married to the Spanish princess Catherine of Aragon, and his daughter Margaret to King James IV of Scotland. His son Henry VIII (1509 - 1547) whose court was glamorous with royal games, balls and entertainments, development of culture, was among other things - a wasteful monarch, on his death his treasure was practically empty. Henry VIII's despotism was fatal for the country's progressive minds and terrible for his family.

The king invited to court outstanding people — humanists of the Renaissance period :

Thomas More - "A man for all seasons" — a play and a film with Paul Scolfield in the title role, the greatest thinker and the founder of the Utopic Socialism (1478-1535). In 1516 he wrote

a book about Utopia - the best government structure on the Island of Utopia and was invited and appointed Chancellor. But Thomas More dared to contradict the King and was beheaded. That was the destiny of many a Chancellor which made the post the most dangerous in the country.

One could compare the fate of the Chancellors only with the destiny of the King's spouses, the Queens. The plural of the noun is explained by the fact of Henry VIII's record number of wives, their fate is "humorously" described by some school teachers with the following rhyme:

divorced, beheaded, died,
divorced, beheaded, survived.

Catherine of Argon was divorced by Henry VIII against the will of the Pope and that caused a break up with the Holy See. The declaration of Henry VIII in 1531 that he now was Head of the Church, was an English way of Reformation, so the Reformation in England was conducted from above by the King.

His second wife was Anne Boleyn (1532 - 1536). She gave birth to a baby - girl (her daughter was Princess Elizabeth) that caused the disappointment of the King. No one could foresee the triumph of Elizabeth I. He disposed of Anne accusing her of unfaithfulness, and she was beheaded. But two days before she died, her marriage was dissolved. Henry was a bachelor once more and Anne's decapitated body was buried without ceremony in the Tower of London. Ten days later the King was married again. His third wife was Jane Seymour. She died in 1537 soon after giving birth to a son and heir - Prince Edward, (to become later Edward VI) a sickly child who died of

consumption in 1553 aged 15 years. Henry VIII died in 1547 and his wife Catherine Parr survived him.

Henry VIII had a powerful adviser and a skilful minister Cardinal Thomas Wolsey, who was very rich and ambitious. But for all his efforts he failed to get the King a divorce from his first wife Catherine of Aragon as the Pope did not want to anger Spain and France, two Catholic powers.

Henry was outraged with his minister and the Pope. The Power of the Catholic Church in England was out of his authority and he wanted to control it for material and personal reasons. Though at the initial stages of the Reformation in Europe Henry VIII had not approved of the ideas of Martin Luther and was awarded by the Pope with the title Fidei Defensor, — Defender of the Faith. The letters "F. D." are still to be found on every British coin.

The opposition to the Pope as a political prince but not the religious leader was growing in England and Henry VIII started his own Reformation. Thomas Cromwell was his faithful reformer.

In 1531 Henry was elected the Head of the Church of England by the English bishops and in 1534 the Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy declaring him the Supreme Head of the Church of England. His Chancellor Sir Thomas More refused to recognize the Act and that cost him his life-he was charged with high treason and executed in the Tower.

With the help of his new Chancellor Thomas Cromwell Henry VIII ordered to suppress the monasteries, he captured the wealth of the monasteries that had been dissolved and destroyed. The lands of the monasteries were either sold or given to the

new supporters who turned out to be enthusiastic Protestants all of a sudden. Within a few years an enormous wealth went into the empty treasury of the King.

In 1536 he managed to unite Wales with England, as the Welsh nobility were showing interest in the support of their representative on the English throne. It was the first Act of Union in the history of Britain.

His beloved wife Jane Seymour left him the long-waited-for heir Prince Edward. Mary and Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate. He wanted to achieve a betrothal of his son with the future Mary Queen of Scots who was born when Edward was 5 years old. The Scots refused the wooing of the English King as they could see through his far-reaching plans and sent Mary to France. On her return she became Queen of Scots (1561 - 1567).

Henry died in 1547. Though he was a gross and selfish tyrant he left his country more united and more confident than before, and his reign was glorified by the Utopian vision of More, drawing of Holbein, poetry and music of the Tudor court and other claims to greatness.

Henry VIII had destroyed the power of the Pope in England, but he didn't change the religious doctrine. He appointed Protestants as guardians of the young Edward VI (1547 - 1553) and they carried out the religious reformation .

After the death of Edward VI there was a highly unstable situation in the country. In his will which contradicted his father's bequest, King Edward VI disinherited his sisters and proclaimed Lady Jane Grey the Queen of England (1553). Jane Grey ruled only for nine days. But the people opposed her reign

and supported the claim of Mary, the daughter of Catherine of Aragon.

Queen Mary I was determined to return England back to the Pope, as she was a fanatic Roman Catholic. She failed to understand the English hostility to Catholic Spain, and her marriage to Philip of Spain, son of the Emperor Charles V, was her own idea, celebrated in July 1554 despite the pleas of privy councilors and Parliament. Parliament had to accept Philip as King of England for Mary's lifetime; moreover, his rights in England were to expire if Mary died childless, which proved to be the case. Her marriage was very unpopular and caused several uprising simultaneously. She crushed the rebels and pursued an aggressive policy against protestants: more than 300 people were executed in the worst traditions of the Inquisition-burned them. That is why she earned the nickname Bloody Mary.

During the reign of Bloody Mary France was the traditional enemy and England was little than better than a Province of Spain. Being the wife of Philip II she got England to be drawn into a war with France and Calais, the last English possession on the continent, was lost in 1558.

Her reign and life were a political and a personal disaster. When Mary died in November 1558, deserted, unhappy and hated by many, people in the streets of London danced and drank to the health of the new queen.

Elizabeth I, Queen of England and Ireland, daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn, succeeded her half-sister to the great delight of the people.

Princess Elizabeth after her mother's execution was declared illegitimate; she spent her childhood in loneliness, and only sometimes enjoyed the company of her brother Edward, encouraged by her step mother Catherine Parr.

Elizabeth was a well educated, remarkable woman, who had endured the hardships of her youth and succeeded to a dangerous heritage. The country was surrounded by powerful enemies: Spain possessed the Netherlands and France controlled Scotland, where the French mother of the 16 year old Mary Queen of Scots was Regent. To all the true Catholics Elizabeth still remained illegitimate, but Mary Stuart, the great granddaughter of Henry VII Tudor by his daughter Margaret was supported in her claim to the English throne as the rightful Queen of England.

Yet Elizabeth was equal to the situation. She had the Tudor courage and combined an almost masculine intelligence with an altogether feminine intuition, which enabled her to understand her people and select the right advisers.

Her first steps were to restore the moderate Protestantism of her father: the Anglican service was reintroduced, and 39 articles, formulating the established doctrine of the Church, the Symbol of the Faith.

Specific differences in the development of the Reformation in England and Scotland didn't prevent the Scottish Presbyterians and the Church of England from cooperation in the conflict and struggle against the Catholics, both in England and Scotland.

The Scottish merchants supported their own variant of Calvinism, the Presbyterianism - a cheaper church founded on

democratic principles of elected preachers and community chiefs. They denied the right of one man (the Pope, the King, or the bishops) to the Supremacy in Church.

The Presbyterian Church helped to secure the Independence of Scotland in their struggle against catholic France.

The policy of Elizabeth was one of compromise and settlement. In foreign affairs she continued the work of Henry VII encouraging the expansion of the English merchants. Spain was the greatest trade rival and enemy as it dominated both Europe and the New World. The Spanish Catholic kings plotted against Elizabeth in their desire to substitute Mary for Elizabeth as Queen and resented the first English efforts in the exploration of the New World. Elizabeth was a competent diplomat and maintained the balance of power in Europe. But she helped Dutch Protestants who rebelled against Philip II of Spain and allowed them to use English harbors. English ships were attacking Spanish ships as those were returning from America. The English captains — the "sea dogs" tried to appear private adventures — John Hawkins, Francis Drake and Martin Frobisher, but they shared their plunder with their beloved Queen. Philip was outraged and began to build up his naval forces to conquer England.

In 1587 Francis Drake attacked the fleet in the Spanish harbors of Cadiz and destroyed a great number of ships. And that was the last straw in this undeclared war.

1587 was the most dramatic year for Elizabeth. Mary Queen of Scots was forced to abdicate in Scotland in 1567 and having left her baby son James VI of Scotland, had to flee from

Scottish calvinists in 1568 and throw herself on Elizabeth's mercy. The Queen of England had no alternative but to keep her in close custody. Mary's presence in England provoked rebellions and plots to depose Elizabeth. The Spanish ambassador was involved in a plot to murder Elizabeth and expelled from the country. Then Mary herself was implicated into a similar conspiracy. The Parliament demanded her death; and Elizabeth had to agree, and in 1587 Mary Queen of Scots was executed. But Elizabeth blamed her death on her officials.

Mary's death and Drake's raid on Cadiz both took place in 1587. The next year was to be fateful for England.

In August 1588 the Armada, the Great Spanish fleet, was in the Channel preparing to launch a full-scale invasion.

Elizabeth was at the head of her nation. She went to the Camp of her troops to encourage and inspire them with such words: "Let tyrants fear. I have always so behaved myself that, under God, I have placed my chiefess strength and goodwill in the loyal hearts and goodwill of my subjects... I know I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a King, and of a King of England too".

The Spanish attempted invasion began in July, 1588. The heavy galleons of Philip's great Armada were rather awkward against the quick English ships.

The "Invincible Armada" was defeated by the English ships and the storm in the English Channel. Scattered by the winds, many of its ships were sunk or wrecked on the rocky coasts of Scotland and Ireland. It was a glorious moment for England, and Elizabeth was heroine of the hour. But that was

not the end of the war with Spain. Peace was made only after the death of Elizabeth.

James VI of Scotland, the son of Mary Stuart, didn't support Spain as he had been given to understand that his right to the English throne would be honoured.

Ireland was another battlefield of Spain in the struggle against England and Elizabeth. It was only subdued by the time of her death. The best lands were captured by English landowners.

England had economic problems: inflation and unemployment. Enclosures of farm lands and wars, it produced armies of beggars and thieves, and they roamed about the country in misery and crime. The government passed the Elizabethan Poor Law in 1601. It aimed at putting an end to beggars of all kinds, the poor were put into workhouses.

In the 16th century the economic growth was getting faster, though still limited by feudal relations. Trade and Industry were growing. The Royal Exchange was founded in 1571, East India Company-in 1600.

Education was further developing. Many Grammar schools were founded in the 16th century. New foundations like Harrow and Rugby admitted clever boys as well as rich ones, and could rightly be called "public schools".

Elizabeth gave her name to the historical period, her reign (1558-1603) was described as "the Golden Age of Elizabeth", the most colourful and splendid in English history. She was the embodiment of everything English, and the English had found themselves as a nation.

The power of Spain was challenged on the seas and finally broken by the defeat of the Armada. Elizabeth saw the foundation of the British Empire and the flowering of the Renaissance in England. The works of Christopher Marlowe, Edmunds Spenser and William Shakespeare were the foundation of the English literary and dramatic heritage. Spenser's the Shepheards Calendar (1579) was a landmark in the history of English poetry, his masterpiece was *The Faerie Queene* (1589, 1596) which mirrored in allegories the age of his glorious sovereign the Queen, and her kingdom in Fairy-land.

In the last decade of Elizabeth's reign Shakespeare wrote about 20 plays, from *Henry VI* to *Hamlet.*

The English Renaissance has reached the greatest height in the field of theatrical Art. The Shakespeare's (drama) plays, his humanism and deeply popular realism were on the one hand produced on the basis of outstanding theatrical achievements of the period; on the other hand Shakespeare's drama made the English theatre an important contribution, achievement of the world culture treasure.

The 16th century was the century of the further consolidation of bourgeois relations. During the Elizabethan age the ideals of Renaissance embraced a broad spectrum of the population, including the merchants and citizens.

The philosophical ideas of the period were to serve the further evolution and even the revolutionary changes that came later.

Francis Bacon (1561-1626) was the founder of English materialism and applicator of pragmatic sciences.

Literature, Art and Drama were playing an important role. In 1576 — the first theatre appeared. Public theatres were attended by aristocrats and Elizabeth I.

The 16th century was the age of transition from the medieval twilight to a more progressive age.

Questions and Suggested Activities:

1. Who were the first and the last monarchs of the Tudor dynasty? Give a concise characteristic of the Tudor Monarchs.
2. Compare the reigns of Henry VII and Henry VIII. What is the difference?
3. What title was Henry VIII awarded by the Pope?
4. Investigate the information about Henry VIII's wives and share it with the class.
5. What was the aim of the Reformation in England?
6. Describe the traits of the foreign policy of the Tudors. Analyze them.
7. Explain the causes of the events: defeat of the Spanish fleet – the invincible Armada, the foundation and consolidation of the English colonial system, the conflict between Mary Queen of Scots and Elizabeth.
8. What threat was posed by Mary Queen of Scots to the rule of Elizabeth?
9. Why was the reign of Elizabeth I called "Golden Age"? Give the reasons.
10. Describe the English Renaissance and name the most prominent representatives of it?

11. Make a report about the Arts in the Elizabethan Era and present it to the class.
12. Give a short outline of the main political, economic and cultural events of the Tudor period.

Unit IV
The Stuarts and the Struggle of the Parliament Against the Crown

The Plan:

1. ***The Stuart Kings and their Conflicts with the Parliament***
2. ***The Civil War and the New Model Army***
3. ***Religious Disagreements in the Country***
4. ***Oliver Cromwell and the Commonwealth***
5. ***The Restoration of Monarchy***
6. ***The Glorious Revolution***
7. ***Two Protestant Monarchs***
8. ***Revolution in Scientific Thinking***

"History gives answers only to those who know how to ask questions."
(Hajo Holborn)

The ideology of the rising classes in England at the beginning of the 17th century was Puritanism, it was a form of democratic religion similar to the Calvinist views: denying the supremacy of a men over religious faith, demanding a direct contact with God without any mediators, without anyone between Man and God, thus denying Church as an unnecessary institution. It was a challenge to the Church of England and the Monarch as its head, to the absolute Monarchy altogether.

The Puritan ideology was also a challenge to the cultural achievements of Renaissance-the religious doctrines rejected theatre, entertainment, pleasure, they preached and practiced austerity, asceticism, adoption of puritan values against idleness.

There were different varieties of puritan ideology and groups of people — the extremists, like independents (1581), insisting on complete independence of their communities, and moderates, who believed in cooperation with monarchy.

The new forces, the developing bourgeoisie began to actively oppose the absolute monarchy, particularly using the Parliament. In 1601 the Parliament made the first declaration of protest, disapproving of the Queen's sell out and distribution of licences.

Those first seeds of discord were to grow up strong and dangerous during the reign of the Stuarts: James I and Charles I.

James VI King of Scots — born in 1566, crowned King of Scots in 1567, became James I (1603 -1625) of England.

On the death of Queen Elizabeth I in 1603 he became the senior representative of the Tudor dynasty, being the great — grandson of Margaret, the eldest daughter of Henry VII.

The Stuart Kings were less successful than the Tudor Monarchs.

In person King James was not a figure of great majesty; he was, in fact, small, awkward, and had an impediment in his speech. Possessed of a high opinion of his own wisdom he finely believed that Kings were divinely ordained to rule, and that their royal prerogative was unquestionable. So it was hardly surprising that he quarreled violently and often with his Parliament; the Commons were disappointed, and the Puritans were more so, for James would have none of them, he preferred the Catholics, but the latter ruined their Cause in their famous but abortive Gunpowder Plot.

On November 5th in the year 1605 the famous Gunpowder Plot was perpetrated as a protest against the sharp enforcement of the anti — Catholic laws of King James I. The anniversary of this cabal is celebrated each year in England and is called Guy Fawkes Day in memory of the chief character in the drama. This fellow Fawkes took a house adjoining the Houses of Parliament in London, tunneled through to the cellar, and concealed a nice fat charge of gunpowder in the coal bin. Unfortunately for the leader, one of the conspirators warned a certain Lord by letter to stay away from a meeting at the House on the day set for the explosion. This led to the discovery of the plot and Guy Fawkes was tortured and hanged. On this day it is customary in England to dress up like Americans do on Halloween, and to carry an effigy of Fawkes through the street and then to burn it.

"Remember, Remember,
the 5th of November,
The Gunpowder Treason
and Plot." - goes a well-known rhyme.

The King was noted for persecuting witches and writing books, principally about the divine rights of Kings. James was closely connected with the international catholic reactionary powers.

The first Stuarts had faced the alternative: either to give up absolute power and cooperate with new gentlemen and bourgeoisie or to support reactionary noblemen. They preferred to struggle against the puritans, representatives of new revolutionary ideology.

James I, and later his son Charles I were extravagant and wasteful.

Charles I Stuart (1625 - 1649) was in a constant conflict with Parliament.

The Parliament, when convened, refused to give the King financial support, and Charles I ruled for 11 years without Parliament (1629 - 1640). That Period of Personal Government, during which the King did not receive the usual financial aid and had to raise money as best as he could: pawned Crown Jewels, gave out honors, etc.; came to an end when he became involved in a war with Scotland for which he couldn't pay.

The King (Charles I) was forced to convene a meeting of the Great Council and later to call a Parliament. And he had to concede to this Parliament almost all that it ached, so badly he was in need of money. Later his attempts to go back on his word and revoke his concessions and his refusal to hand over to Parliament control of the Army brought about the Civil War which his policy and that of his father had made inevitable.

The battles of the Civil War, fought as three military campaigns took place not in London, but in the counties. The King's standard was first raised at Nottingham in 1642 and, when he could not get to London, Oxford became his temporary capital, with 70 peers and 170Membres of Parliament close at hand. Oxford fell in 1646, by which time Charles had already surrendered; he passed into the hands of the victorious New Model Army (22,000 strong after 1645), which went on to take possession of London and install their commander Sir Thomas Fairfax as Governor of the Tower. His second-in-command was Oliver Cromwell, a farmer in the past and a great military

leader who had organized the New Model Army. Charles I was captured by the Scots who handed him over to the Parliamentarians. He escaped and made agreements with the Scots who were later defeated by the Parliamentarian Army (1648). The English Army demanded the death of the King.

Charles I was brought to trial for High Treason, his supporters were not allowed to be present. He was sentenced to death, "and in a hushed silence on a cold January morning the King of England met his death with a courage and dignity that commanded respect". He was beheaded in Whitehall on the 30 of January 1649. The House of Lords was abolished, some famous Royalists were captured and beheaded.

A Council of State was created to govern the Country, which consisted of forty one members. The House of Commons reshuffled its members, and expelled those who had opposed the King's death.

But the troubles were not easy to stop. There was mutiny in the Army, a rebellion in Ireland, the Scots declared the son of the executed King — their King (1651) Charles II.

Oliver Cromwell ruthlessly crushed the Irish, checked the Scots, and established his authority in the Army and in the country. Admiral Blake defeated the Dutch and made England again the mistress of the seas.

In 1653 Oliver Cromwell together with the New Model officers expelled the Rump (the Remnants of the Parliament) and established a military dictatorship. On December 16th in Westminster Oliver Cromwell publicly accepted the title of Lord Protector of a United Commonwealth of England,

Scotland, Ireland and the colonies. He didn't dare to take up the title of King, as there was opposition to that in the Army.

All in all, in four years of Struggle, around 100,000 Englishmen were killed. Feelings ran high and extraordinary radical opinions were expressed both during and after the Civil War. There was a confrontation of political and religious views within the ranks of the revolutionary forces. Presbyterians had become conservative and royalist. Independents, who were represented in the New Model Army, were split.

The more extreme republicans in the New Model Army, the Levellers, as they were called, had a Manifest of their own, called the Agreement of the People, and they rallied together to defend the right of common people, they demanded the abolition of titles, and legal, political, etc.; equality in everything but property (John Lilbern).

The Diggers, a far smaller and still more radical group, opposed the private ownership of Property altogether and struggled "to set the land free" they insisted, that "the poorest man hath as true a title and just right to the land as the richest man".

The language of radicalism which burst out between 1640 and 1645 alarmed conservatives of all kinds.

Oliver Cromwell himself was a reluctant republican anxious to preserve "the ranks and orders of men-whereby England hath been known for hundreds of years: a nobleman, a gentleman, a yeoman".

However, it was the Nobility and Gentry who eventually profited from the Civil War and the Interregnum between 1649, the year of Charles's execution and 1660, the year of the

Restoration of Monarchy. The Diggers failed in their ventures and the Levellers were suppressed in 1649 after they rebelled against Cromwell and other army leaders. The Commonwealth, with Cromwell as Lord Protector, the period when England was a republic, is also described as Interregnum.

From 1655 England was divided not only into parishes, where the justices of the peace remained, but into districts, each with a soldier, Major — General exercising authority in the name of "godliness and virtue".

The army was maintained by taxes imposed on the Royalists. From December 1653 until his death in September 1658, Oliver Cromwell ruled England and Scotland, he imposed temporarily a single government on England and Scotland.

In the country and in the towns the new regime closed alehouses and theatres, banned race-meetings as well as cock — fights, severely punished those people found guilty of immorality or swearing and suppressed such superstitious practices like dancing round the Mary Pole or celebrating Christmas.

Oliver Cromwell was a unique blend of country gentleman and professional soldier, of religious radical and social conservative. He was at once the source of stability and the ultimate source of instability. With his death the republic collapsed as his son and successor Richard lacked his qualities and was deposed 6 months after the beginning of his rule.

The generals began to fight for power, general G. Monk's influence brought about the dissolution of the Long Parliament and the new convention Parliament voted to recall Charles II and restore the Monarchy in Britain.

Charles II landed in England in May 1660 and was enthusiastically greeted and welcomed by the people. He declared a "liberty of conscience" and demanded the punishment of his father's murderers. He was crowned in 1661, his minister were mainly old Royalists who had served him during his exile.

The Puritan Republic had been a joyless country, and the Restoration of Monarchy brought back the gaiety of life: theatres were reopened, new dramatists wrote cynical plays to entertain the corrupt court. It was also the restoration of Parliament, House of Lords, Anglican Church and Cavalier gentry (noblemen) with their old privileges and intolerance.

But the Commonwealth was dissolved. Charles II was the king of England and Ireland but all these countries now had their own Parliament again.

Charles II was more French than English. He did his best to secure toleration for Catholics in England and also to escape the control of Parliament. The Parliament and the Protestants wanted to keep their leading position.

The first years of the Restoration saw action of revenge on Cromwell's dead body. Acts against the Puritans passed by the Parliament of Cavaliers and the appearance of Milton's "Paradise Lost " in which the author tried "to justify the ways of God to men"; New Amsterdam was captured from the Dutch and renamed New York, after the King's brother, James, Duke of York (later James II).

The Great Plague of 1665 and the Great Fire of London in 1666 were the calamities that brought a lot of suffering to the English people.

In the 1650s outstanding scientists gathered at Oxford and founded the first great learned society in England, "the Royal Society", whose patron was the King. They were dedicated to the advance of knowledge in every subject and their society attracted many talented minds: Christopher Wren, the great designer, known later as the rebuilder of London after the great Fire, John Locke, the political philosopher, the father of the Modern science of chemistry. One more name stands out about others-that of Isaac Newton. His greatest discoveries include the spectrum and the basic law of the universe-the law of gravity.

Charles II governed the country through the inner Council, or Cabal, which consisted of five men, two of them were Catholics and the other three were supported religious toleration. As a result Charles issued a Declaration of Indulgence granting toleration to all - including Catholics. In their rejection of that Declaration the Parliament adopted the Test Act (1673) forbidding all Catholics to hold office for the Crown. It was also directed against James the Duke of York, the heir to the throne.

The Opposition to the King became organized into a party with a majority in the newly elected Parliament. They managed to pass the Habeas Corpus Act (1679), which provide a protection of human rights of the new bourgeoisie. This Act, originally adopted against the arbitrary actions of Charles II, has proved to the be an essential milestone in the legal system of Great Britain.

Newly coined nicknames became applicable to the opposing groups in the political struggle: the opposition to the

King which demanded a further curbing of the Monarch's prerogatives, was nicknamed "The Whigs" by their opponents in Parliament. These opponents supported the Catholic views of the King and the King himself; and they in their turn were also nicknamed as "the Tories" by the first group. It was another term of abuse originated for condemning the Irish Catholics who were fighting against the Protestant army of Cromwell. These two parties, the Whigs and the Tories became the basis of Britain's two - party parliament system of government.

James II became the King of England after his brother's death in 1685. He had two daughters —Mary and Ann — from his first Protestant wife, and they were firm Protestants. Mary was married to her first cousin, William of Orange, a Dutch prince and a militant Protestant.

When the Catholic second wife of James II gave birth to a baby son, the English Parliament and the Protestant bourgeoisie were alarmed by the prospect of Catholic succession of Monarchs. Tories, Whigs and Anglicans began to look for a Protestant rescue. They invited William of Orange to invade Britain . The forces of William landed in England and that decided the issue: James and his family fled away from the country. The Parliament decided that James II had lost his right to the Crown.

Mary and William began to reign jointly; moreover, the Parliament decided that William would rule on in the event of Mary's prior death.

The political events of 1688 were called "the Glorious Revolution" as they had realized the bourgeois theories of the nature of government (John Locke (1632-1704)) and the

demands that the powers of the King should be restricted and that the Parliament should be overall power in the state.

Though some historians insist on calling it a coup d'etat of the ruling classes, the changes are recognized as a historic turning point in the conception and practice of government. In point of fact it can be justly regarded as a "glorious compromise" between the new bourgeoisie and the old feudal institutions like the Monarchy, the House of Lords, etc, but also in imposing new bourgeois parliamentary privileges and relations. The Parliament secured its superiority by adopting the Bill of Rights in 1689 and the Monarchs — William III and Mary II accepted the conditions advanced by the Parliament: the legislative and executive power of the Monarchs was limited. The Bills passed by the Parliament were to be subjected to the Royal Assent, but the Monarch could not refuse to sign them. The Monarch could not impose taxes; the Army could be kept only with the Parliament's permission.

In 1701 the Parliament passed the Act of Settlement that secured Protestant succession to the throne of England and Ireland, outlawing any Catholic Pretenders. The Act stipulated that if William and Mary had no children, the Crown should pass to Mary's sister Anne. And if Anne died childless too, the Crown should pass to Sophia Electress of Hannover, the granddaughter of James I Stuart, or her Protestant descendant. The Act of Settlement is of major Constitutional importance, it has remained in force ever since.

Praising the "Glorious Revolution" as "great and bloodless", historians have to admit, however, that it was bloodless only in England.

In Ireland there was a blood bath of war between the Protestants of Londonderry and the Catholic Irish Parliament. King William III landed in Ireland with the British, Dutch, Danish and Huguenot troops and defeated the Irish and French army of James II in the Battle of the River Boyne (1691).

James left Ireland for France and never returned to any of his kingdoms. The defeat in this Battle crushed the Irish hopes for independence, the Irish Catholics lost all the rights.

In Scotland William was recognized in the Lowlands. But in the Highlands a revolt rose and the loyalty of the Highland chiefs was bought with a large sum of money.

The French and Jacobite gazettes condemned the King's Government as cruel and barbarous.

The "Glorious", "bloodless" revolution was a political readjustment of the government in the interests of the ruling classes, but it did not involve the majority of the population.

William of Orange used the strength of England in the interests of his native country - Holland in the wars against France. "King William's War" (as the English called it) prevented another threat of invasion of Britain, but it didn't bring peace to Europe.

The seventeenth century was the age of the Stuarts - their rise in 1603, their tragedy and defeat from 1648-1660, their restoration in 1660, their constant struggle against the Parliament which resulted in their forced compromise and the victory of the Parliament, the victory of the new ruling classes.

The Civil war and the United Commonwealth, the rule of Oliver Cromwell as the Lord Protector and the leader of Independents and Puritans were the events in the middle of the

century and are described as the Interregnum. It was a highly dramatic and tragic period of British history.

The economy of Britain by the end of the century was developing freely, new economic institutions like the Bank of Britain (1695) were founded. Trade and colonies were flourishing. The East India Company was the greatest corporation in the country. The religious struggle and conflicts gave freedom to all Protestants.

After the Great Plague and the Great Fire of London came the efforts of Sir Christopher Wren and the achievements of science made by I. Newton and other members of the Royal Society.

By the end of the century Britain was becoming a prosperous country.

Questions and Suggested Activities:

1. Why did the Stuarts inherit the British Crown? Who was the first King of the Stuart Dynasty?
2. Explain the reasons of the conflict between the first Stuarts and the British Parliament? Analyze them.
3. How did the Civil war develop and end?
4. Investigate the information about Oliver Cromwell and report it to the class.
5. What social groups supported Oliver Cromwell?
6. Describe the traits of Republic or Commonwealth created by Oliver Cromwell.
7. What was the policy of the United Commonwealth in Europe and in the world?
8. Give reasons for the Reformation of Monarchy in Britain

9. When did the first political parties appear in Britain and how? Describe them.
10. What were the Acts of the Parliament directed against the Kings and how did they develop the social situation in Britain?
11. Make a report about Glorious Revolution in Britain and share it with the class.
12. Describe the events of 1665 and 1666 in London. How did they influence the way of life in the country?
13. Investigate the information about Revolution in Scientific Thinking in the XVII century and report it to the class.

Unit V
The 18th century - of Wealth, Industrial Revolution and Power

The Plan:

A. ***1. War for Spanish Succession***
2. The Union with Scotland (1707)
3. The Hanoverian Dynasty
4. Robert Walpole and William Pitt "the Elder"
5. Bonny Prince Charlie
6. George III, "the Patriot King"
7. Boston Tea Party
8. The Declaration of Independence in America
9. Adam Smith "The Wealth of Nations"

B. ***1. Industrial Revolution (James Watt, J. Wedgwood)***
2. Admiral Horatio Nelson, the Battle of Trafalgar (1805)
3. The Battle of Waterloo — the Duke of Wellington
4. Literature: Wordsworth, Coleridge, Byron, Shelly, Keats
5. Painting: Turner, Constable

"If you want to understand today you have to search yesterday."
(Pearl S. Buck)

The end of the 17th century and the start of the new century, were the periods of wars in Europe. Britain was involved into the Nine Years War (1688 - 1697) and the War for Spanish Succession (1702 - 1713). France had become a permanent enemy, and the grand strategy of Britain was to stop the French expansionist policies: to struggle against the French

competition in trade, and also to interfere in the affairs of the Spanish Empire.

The Whigs in the British Parliament supported the interventionist foreign policy of William III of Orange and his favorite general - John Churchill who was already the Duke of Marlborough. After the death of Mary and William they were succeeded by Anne (1702 - 1714). Marlborough was the commander of the Army and was successfully fighting against the French attempts to place a French prince on the Spanish throne. The British wanted to place an Austrian prince on the throne of Spain, and that was their goal in the War of Spanish Succession. The British troops led by the Duke of Marlborough delt a staggering blow at the combined forces of France and Bavaria near a little Austrian town of Blenheim (1704). A few days before that an English fleet took Gibraltar.

That was a great triumph in Britain, Queen Anne presented Marlborough with a royal manor of Woodstock where Blenheim Palace was built at her expense.

The Whigs were actively preparing the Union with Scotland to prevent Jacobite interference. And in 1707 the Scottish Parliament voted itself out of existence and together with the British Parliament adopted the Act of the Union with Scotland.

The new British flag united the flags of England and Scotland combining the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew. Scotland retained its legal system and the established Church and also gained free trade with England.

England, Scotland and Wales were united and became Great Britain. The Tories opposed the military actions of their successful opponents, the Whigs.

The Duchess of Marlborough, who had been very friendly and close to Queen Anne, was replaced by a lady, supporting the Tories. They came to power in 1712 and began negotiating peace with France. The Treaty of Utrecht was signed in 1713 according to which the Crowns of France and Spain were never to be united; Britain gained many advantages - new territories, such as Gibraltar, Minorca, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, and the right to sell slaves to the Spanish colonies. Great Britain had become a great European power.

Queen Anne was the last Stuart monarch, she died in 1714; and according to the Act of Settlement, she was succeeded by Protestants of Hanoverian Dynasty. George I (1714 - 1727) was an elderly and unprepossessing German who could speak no English.

The consequences were that the Wings surrounding the King were handed over many of the royal prerogatives and their leader became the Chairman of the King's Council. That was the beginning of the Cabinet system of Government in Great Britain, with a Prime Minister presiding over the Cabinet.

The Whig domination lasted for half a century. It was troubled by the Jacobite Rebellion in 1715 and by the growing National Debt. It had been created to help to pay for war, and by 1713 it had risen to £54 million. In 1717 one of the Whig ministers Robert Walpole (later known as the first Prime Minister) introduced "the sinking fund" to be used to paying off the Debt from the taxes.

The South Sea Company, founded in 1711 to trade in slaves, offered to take over a large part of the debt which was followed by a great rise of the value of its shares. “The South sea bubble” burst up in 1720, collapsed like a pitched bubble and ruined many investors.

Robert Walpole was called to remedy the financial situation in the country. In 1721 he became the first Prime Minister and an outstanding statesman. The main objectives of his policy were peace and prosperity.

His motto was “let the sleeping dogs lie”. He had been in office for twenty years and stabilized the financial situation with the help of taxes imposed on goods sold within the country. The taxes on tea and coffee were a success, but the taxes on wine and tobacco arouse protests of his opponents and people in the country.

When George II became king (1727 - 1760), he continued his father’s policy and relied upon R. Walpole as Prime Minister. But the opponents from the Tories were attacking Walpole, especially the young talented politician W. Pitt (the Elder), - and much against his will, the Prime Minister was forced to start a war against Spain. But he didn’t direct it properly in the opinion of his Parliamentary critics, and had to resign. But he continued to have an influence on George II. Sir Robert Walpole became a very rich man, had a rich collection of paintings which was sold by his grandson to Catherine the Great of Russia.

1745 was the year of another Jacobite attempt to restore the Stuarts. James, the Old Pretender, had been recognized by the Scottish opposition as James III, toasts had been drunk “for

the King beyond the sea", but James was passive and didn't undertake any steps. His son and the grandson of James II, Charles Edward or the Young Pretender, landed in Scotland together with his seven followers. They were enthusiastically greeted by the Highlanders, who revolted in support of this romantic handsome young man and called him Bonny Prince Charlie. The Jacobite rebels captured Edinburgh the capital of Scotland but failed to withstand the attacks of the regular English army, they were defeated at the Cullodon Moor and scattered. Charles Edward escaped back to France. The Highlanders were subjected to cruel punishments and repressions. The old clan system was destroyed, it was forbidden to wear a kilt or to play bagpipes. Leaders were executed; many Highland families left the country. The Highlanders were brought under the control of the central Government.

The most important opponents of sir R. Walpole was William Pitt "the Elder", later Lord Chatham who was determined to strengthen the economic power of Britain and to defeat France in the trade competition overseas. He agreed with Daniel Defoe the author of Robinson Crusoe, who had written in 1728 "Trade is the wealth of the world, trade makes the difference between rich and poor, between one nation and another".

When Lord Chatham became the secretary of state he directed British efforts at destroying French trade and driving the French from North America; that policy culminated in the capture of Quebec, Montreal and other triumphs of the "Year of Victory" (1759). In India the British became the master of

Bengal. India became the "jewel of the Crown" of Britain's foreign possessions. In 1760 George II was succeeded by his grandson George III (1760 - 1820). He was the first Hanoverian to be born in Britain. He declared himself Patriot King and was determined to take a more active part in the government of the country. His Government, his Cabinet included the Tories who were described as King's Friends.

William Pitt, the Elder, had resigned as his new military plans did not find an understanding of the young King, who wanted to make peace with France (1763) and other European countries.

Meanwhile there were deteriorations in the relations with North American colonies. The colonists objected to the taxation from Westminster declaring their demands - "No taxation without representation". The King's new minister Lord North didn't stop George III from mismanaging the affairs in North American colonies.

The Boston Tea Party in 1773 was the protest against the Stamps for tea taxes, when the colonists threw the East India Company's tea into the harbor. The Parliament undertook repressions though the opposition of Wings was against this disastrous policy.

There were military conflicts near Lexington and Concord near Boston. The Congress of the United Colonies at Philadelphia elected George Washington, of Virginia commander of their armed forces (1775). A year later, on the 4 of July, 1776, the Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence.

The English army was defeated in the battle of Saratoga and was forced to surrender. The war of Independence was won by the American forces supported by the French and when the Peace treaty was signed in 1782 in Paris, thirteen North American colonies transformed themselves into the United States of America with George Washington as their first President.

The defeat of Britain in North America ended the period of George III's personal rule. The new Tories were his only hope, and in 1783 the King invited William Pitt, the younger, Lord Chatham's twenty-four year old son to form a Cabinet.

The reign of George III was the period of the great activity of the Literary Club, headed by the literary and linguistic dictator Dr. S. Johnson among whose members were Sir Joshua Reynolds, Goldsmith, Burke, Fox, Gainsborough, Sheridan and Adam Smith. The book by Adam Smith "The Wealth of Nations" appeared in the year of the Declaration of Independence; in it the great economist presented the first classical system of economic activities of people. James Watt in 1782 improved the steam engines and his inventions made possible the Industrial Revolution.

The Industrial Revolution was a new breakthrough in the economic and social development of Great Britain. It was a British way of bourgeois development, in contrast to the French Revolution. Chronologically its beginning is referred to the middle of the 18th century; and the first achievements were in the production of agricultural products due to the new farming techniques.

Mechanical inventions facilitated the unprecedented growth of iron and coal production. By 1800 Britain were producing four times as much coal as it had done in 1700 and eight times as much iron. John Wilkinson was making iron bridges, an iron chapel, iron boats. James Watt made a steam engine in 1769. In 1764 a spinning machine was invented that could do the work of several people. The machines for spinning and weaving revolutionized the cloth making industry and transformed it from a cottage industry into factory industry which was run and controlled by factory owners. Cotton textiles played the leading part in Britain's economic expansion.

Britain was importing raw cotton from its colonies and exporting the finished cotton cloth to sell in Europe and in the colonies as well. Manchester became the centre of the cotton textile industry. The Industrial Revolution involved a revolution in transport. Man-made canals together with rivers linked the main ports of England, roads were improved and a service of post coaches was started in 1784.

The end of the 18th century was the period of social disintegration — the wealth of the few was growing while the misery and poverty of the majority of people were increasing equally rapidly. Deprived of the means of production workers had lived in slums and worked long hours for very low wages in factories and mines. The country was splitting into two nations — the rich and the poor.There were many reasons for discontent in Britain, but the Revolution in France in 1789 was first welcomed in England by liberals, but as it was becoming ferocious and bloody, the British ruling classes were frightened that similar events might happen in Britain. The Book by E.

Burke “Reflections on the Revolution in France” was a serious warning of the dangers of radicalism. The Government took tough measures against the working class movement and organisations that were appearing: mass meetings were forbidden, associations of workers were declared illegal.

Pitt had been Prime Minister after 1784 almost all his life. But the King (George III) was an old sick man, who was not always in his right mind, so the position of the P M was extremely important. Pitt was determined to maintain peace, but Revolutionary France declared war in 1793. The British troops were defeated in the Netherlands and the French West India, and the situation became more dangerous when a New French general appeared on the political scene - Napoleon.

The British were rescued by their Navy. The commander of the British fleet, Admiral Horatio Nelson won brilliant victories over the French navy, near the coast of Egypt, at Copenhagen and near Spain. At the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805 Nelson destroyed the French - Spanish fleet, but was killed by a sniper. He became one of Britain’s greatest national heroes. His words to the English fleet before the battle of Trafalgar “England expects that every man will do his duty ”are preserved in the memory of the nation as a historic example of patriotic duty in the time of danger.

The greatest general of the British army in the actions against Napoleon became the Duke of Wellington (Sir Arthur Wellesley 1769 - 1852).

After the disastrous invasion of Russia (1812) Napoleon was defeated by the European coalition in the Battle of Nations at Leipzig (1813), was imprisoned on the isle of Elba escaped

from it to reappear in Paris again. The last battle was fought in Belgium at a small place called Waterloo (1815). The British army led by Wellington and the Prussian army under Marshal Bluher defeated Napoleon, he had to abdicate and was sent to St. Helena in the South Atlantic and died there.

The Congress of the European Powers held at Vienna made peace and Britain emerged from the "Napoleonic Wars" a great empire: to Canada, Australia and most of India she added Cape Colony (South Africa), Ceylon and Guinea as well as a number of small provinces.

But this newly enlarged great power was suffering from internal problems: political and economic reforms had been long overdue, the years of the war had been a period of repressions, and the position of the workers and the poor had deteriorated.

The first political measure of the Government was a Corn Law prohibiting the import of cheap foreign grain. It was followed by riots and more repressions; some demonstrators were killed in the "Massacre of Peterloo" in Manchester. The people had their progressive champions who criticized the established institutions and created "new settlement of the greatest happiness of the greatest number". Robert Owen, the philanthropic factory owner and a theorist of utopian socialism, who influenced the development of the working class movements — cooperative retail societies and trade unionism was one of them.

The social and political changes in the world involved a revolution in the Arts. A brilliant galaxy of writers and poets looked for inspiration to nature, to emotions and to the spirit of freedom. Lyrical Ballads of Wordsworth and Coleridge were

published in 1798. The works of Byron, Shelly and Keats were romantic and emotional. Jane Austen was not carried away by the Romantic Movement and in her domestic miniatures described the adventures of young lovers in the English country houses.

Painting was equal to the achievements of poetry. Landscape painting produced two great but very different geniuses - Turner and Constable.

The old King (George III, 1760 - 1820), blind, insane, died in 1820 and was succeeded by little respected George IV (1820 - 1830) who had been Prince Regent for the last nine years of his father's life (1811 - 1820).

Questions and Suggested Activities

1. What were the English gains in the war for Spanish Succession?
2. When did the United Kingdom of Great Britain appear and how?
3. Make a report about the first Prime Minister of Britain and share the information with the class.
4. In what way was George III different from his father and grandfather in his attitude to the government of the country?
5. Speak of the reasons and the outcome of the War of Independence in North America.
6. In what way is it traditional to compare the French Bourgeois Revolution and the Industrial Revolution in Britain?
7. What branches of industry were progressing immensely in the Industrial Revolution?

8. What social situation was developing due to the Industrial Revolution in Britain in the middle of the XVII century?
9. What were the military developments in the Napoleonic Wars against France?
10. Describe the victories of Anti Napoleonic coalition. What military heroes glorified Great Britain?
11. What territorial advantages did Great Britain gain out of the Vienna Congress?
12. What were the internal problems of Britain at that time?
13. What were the revolutionary changes in Arts? Describe them
14. Prepare an oral presentation on the topic *Romanticism in English Literature*. Identify similarities and differences in English and European Romanticism.

Unit VI
The 19th century - the Victorian Age of the British Empire

The Plan:

1. ***R. Peel, "Peelers or Bobbies"***
2. ***Stephenson's "Rocket"***
3. ***Queen Victoria (1837 - 1901)***
4. ***Great English novelists***
5. ***People's Charters. Chartism***
6. ***The Crimean War (1854 - 1856). Victorian politicians and their policies***
7. ***The Education Act, 1870***
8. ***Britain and Ireland***

"History is a vast early warning system."
(Norman Cousins)

In the 19th century the post - Napoleonic wars period of reaction was being gradually reformed and more liberal ministers were included in the Government, more progressive policies and laws were adopted. Under ultra - conservatory Wellington, who became Prime Minister in 1828, some reforms were introduced: R. Peel, the Home Secretary, created an efficient police force, and the policemen were called peelers or bobbies.

The Catholic Emancipation Act was a forced decision that split the Tory party and brought the Whigs to power in 1830. The Whigs were determined to reform the Parliament and the parliamentary franchise, which had not changed since the

reign of Elizabeth I. The electoral franchise and distribution of seats in Parliament were in a mess. Different parts of the country were represented in an uneven and unjust way. The country of Cornwall where the population was less than the population of Manchester or Birmingham elected 44 men to the House of Commons, but neither of these big industrial cities elected a single MP. The voting was not secret, the whole system was corrupt and unrepresentative.

The confusion at Westminster reflected the situation in the country. There were outbreaks of machine breaking and riots: people exploited at the factories by factory owners and left unemployed by machines replacing them, were outraged; they smashed machines blaming Ned Ludd for it and bearing his name - Luddites, wearing masks and damaging the factories.

The Parliament Reform came together with railways. The Manchester and Liverpool Railway was opened by the Duke of Wellington in 1830. George Stephenson built a locomotive - “the Rocket”, which reached a maximum speed of forty eight kilometers per hour.

The Industrial Revolution was going on strengthened by social reforms that were obviously lagging behind.

The reformed Parliament passed a number of progressive acts, due to Lord Shaftesbury the first effective Factory Act was passed, limiting the hours worked by children in cotton factories to nine, prohibiting their employment under nine years of age, and appointing inspectors to see that the decision were enforced.

The state assumed also some responsibility for the poor. According to the Poor Law all the able bodied poor were to go

to the workhouses where the conditions were terrible. It was described by Ch. Dickens in his novel “Oliver Twist”. The working classes were infuriated by the injustice and inhumanity of the Poor Law and demanded more radical reforms.

In 1838 the first petition was drawn up by leaders of first association of workers, which was called the People’s Charter. It included six main demands for changes: the vote for all males, parliamentary constituencies of equal size, voting by secret ballot, a salary for MPs, no property qualifications for MPs, annual Parliaments. All these reforms seemed revolutionary at that time.

The Chartist movement was supported by the working people, but it had its ups and downs. The first Charter was rejected by Parliament in 1839, which was followed by protests of the working people and repressions by the Government. The Chartist leaders were arrested; the Movement was also rejected by Parliament in 1842.

The revival of Chartism in 1848 coincided with the Revolution in Europe and with nationalist demands of the Irish, but the third petition having been rejected, Chartism began to decline and grew into the cooperative and trade unionist movements.

The Parliamentary struggles of the Tories and the Whigs, the working classes struggle for social rights and a better life, were all developing against the background of a drastic change in the Monarchy. The only daughter of the Hanoverian Duke of Kent turned out to be the only heiress to the British throne, and after the death of her uncle William (William IV 1830 - 1837) 18 year old Victoria became Queen (1837 - 1901). Her first

Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, taught the young Queen the duties of the constitutional monarch. The accession of Queen Victoria came at a difficult time: the Whigs lost their popularity and the majority in the House of Commons; the Hungry Thirties passed into the Hungry Forties, and the alternative to the Whigs polices was the new Conservative Party, created by R. Peel. Peel's financial reforms brought revival to the country (1844), and legislation to protect factory and mine workers improved their conditions, but the disaster came with the poor harvests in Britain and Ireland. Famine in Ireland (1845) convinced Peel that the Corn Laws should be repealed (in 1846). It was the greatest victory of the free trader. But it destroyed the Tory Party and R. Peel was forced to resign.

The reforms brought cheaper food and exports from "the workshop of the world". And the Whigs inherited the benefits of Peel's reforms.

Queen Victoria's Prime Minister followed one another due to the Political developments in Parliament: Lord Melbourne (1835 - 1841), Sir R. Peel, Lord John Russel, Earl of Derby, Earl of Aberdeen, Viscount Palmerstone, Benjamin Disraeli, W. E. Gladstone, Earl of Rosebery, Marquess of Salisbury.

In 1840 Victoria married her cousin of Saxe - Coburg of Gotha. The marriage was happy, and the Royal family became a model for moral standards in high society as well as for the middle classes.

Prince Albert became deeply interested in the British affairs, both foreign and home. He was the initiator of a great display of Victorian glory and progress in the country - the

Great Exhibition of 1851. This international exhibition was quite a new idea, and Albert had to overcome a lot of opposition. The Exhibition building was an enormous glass-and-iron structure - the Crystal Palace in Hyde Park, it had on display machinery and products from Britain, the Empire and other countries.

"The Crystal Palace" was the symbol of technological progress. The new poet - laureate Tennyson wrote an ode to it. All the Victorian writers, poets and painters glorified England's culture. Tennyson and Browning dominated the poetry. Charles Dickens in his novels "David Copperfield", "Oliver Twist", "Nicolas Nickleby" exposed the social evils of the time. Thackeray exposed the middle class hypocrisy in his "Vanity Fair". It was a great age for novels. Women writers — the Bronte sisters, Mrs Gaskell — flourished as never before.

Thomas Hardy and Henry James were "Victorian" novelists too. The English drama was brilliantly represented by Irish talents: Oscar Wilde wrote his brilliantly entertaining comedies, Bernard Shaw's plays were more serious but extremely witty.

Painters of the group called the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood expressed the great Victorians nostalgia for the Middle Ages.

Victorian science was to become greatly influential on the developments in the Modern Time. These three men: K. Marx (1818-1883) - the founder of Communism, Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) - the founder of psycho-analysis and Ch. Darvin - the founder of the modern theory of biological evolution - shocked the world.

Encouraged by Prince Albert, the Queen came into conflict with Palmerston. In 1854 the Crimean War broke out - when Britain and France declared war on Russia in support of Turkey. Prince Albert had supported the policy of preventing the war while Palmerston was given the Parliamentary support as the only Prime Minister capable of winning the war, and the Queen was compelled to accept him as Prime Minister in 1855. Palmerston became the symbol of British superiority in everything: in fights, in trade, in politics.

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

In India the British policies aroused a revolt in 1857, it was known as the Indian Mutiny; and developed into a national movement against foreign rule. There was much violence on both sides. The British brutally punished the defeated rebels, which caused a feeling of animosity that later grew into the Indian Independence movement of the twentieth century.

Queen Victoria suffered a great personal tragedy in 1861 - Prince Consort Albert died of typhoid - and the Queen went into deep mourning, withdrew from public duties and lived in isolation for a decade. Her last thirty - five years of reign were a period of struggle between the new Liberal Party led by W. E.

Gladstone and the Conservatives who were headed after Palmerston by Benjamin Disraeli.

On the great issues which dominated British politics in the last quarter of the 19th century - the extension of the Parliamentary franchise, the limitation of the Power of the House of Lords, social reform, Home Rule for Ireland and the new aggressive imperialist policy abroad - Queen Victoria strongly sympathized with Conservatives and disapproved of Gladstone and Liberals.

B. Disraeli became Prime Minister in 1868 and first held the office for only nine months, but he managed to establish very close relationship with the Queen and further developed it during his second term of office (1874 - 1880). B. Disraeli pleased the Queen greatly by persuading Parliament to agree to grant her the title of Empress of India.

The contest of Disraeli and Gladstone was in full swing, and the two-party system had been already firmly established.

Jingoism (the word for extreme, flag waving patriotism) was encouraged by B. Disraeli, but it was condemned by his rival, the Liberal Leader, William Gladstone.

The Empire, which Great Britain had gained by the middle of the 19th century, was the result of the greatest power that Britain possessed through its command of trade, finance and manufacturing. The colonies were united by English law and by trade, the forms of governing administration varied. The whole population was growing due to the emigration from the British Isles: throughout the 18th, 19th centuries poor and disadvantaged people sought a new and a better life in the colonies. In 1850 New Zealand became the responsibility of the

Crown. The population of Australia was expanding rapidly. There were four self-governing colonies: New South Wales, South of Australia, Victoria and Queensland. By the end of the century the Empire was spreading over the continents of Africa, Asia, North America, South America, Australia. The sun did not set on the Empire. The colonial office became a large and important ministry. Imperialism had become popular with the middle classes. The patriots of jingoism sounded more and more aggressive: Cecil Rhodes (the founder of Rhodesia) spoke about the British as a race superior to their colonials. The actions of the imperialists were no less dishonorable: a chain of "small colonial wars" was caused by the aggression of the British Imperialism. But the Anglo - Boer War proved to be an unsuccessful surprise to the British people and the proof of a certain weakness of the Empire (1880 - 1881, 1899 - 1902).

There was the Irish Problem: the Irish MP's in Parliament demanded Home Rule for Ireland, and Irish extremists committed terrorist actions. Gladstone supported the idea of Home Rule for Ireland - which meant the restoration of the Parliament, that they had lost by the Union with England in 1801 and the control of the Irish local internal affairs. Gladstone's own Liberal Party voted against the Home Rule Bill. The Liberal Party was split and broken. It's role as one of the two major parties in the country was over. The Liberals were to be replaced by the forthcoming Labour Party in the constant struggle against the conservatives.

Due to the Industrial Revolution and the strength of the Empire Great Britain was still the greatest power of the world in the last 30 years of the 19th century. Symbolic of its

greatness and the expansion of the Empire were the jubilees of Queen Victoria (1887 and 1897), celebrated with great pageantry and enthusiasm of the crowds.

The nations of the New World and a strengthened Europe were becoming industrial rivals of Britain. The European countries were partitioning the African continent, and Britain succeeded in adding great African possessions to her Empire: Nigeria. Kenya. Uganda, New Zealand and Rhodesia; the Sudan was jointly administered by Britain and Egypt.

The United States since the end of the Civil War (1862 - 1865) had progressed greatly and rapidly, supplied the free - trade England with its food products and were developing into a great power.

The role of the United Kingdom at the end of the Victorian Era, at the end of the 19th century was highly important, jingoistic (shovinistic) imperialism and the financial strength spread over the world through the export of capital by the banks of the City, strongly influenced the internal development of the country. Anglo-Saxon shovinism and superiority complex in the upper spheres and the trade unionism, emigration to the colonies and Dominions, political parties struggle for power were the consequences.

Meanwhile the conflicts and contradictions among the European countries were bringing the world to the brink of the World War, which was destined to bring about great changes in the British role in the world.

Questions and Suggested Activities:

1. Why is the 19th century called the Victorian Age in Britain?
2. What reforms were introduced by the Whigs and how did they influence the situation in the country in the 30th of the 19th century?
3. Speak about the repeated attempts of the people to introduce more radical reforms? Describe the programme and the demands of the movement.
4. Investigate the information about Queen Victoria and report it to the class.
5. What were the political affiliations of the numerous Prime Ministers of the century?
6. Discuss the role of Prince Albert in British Affairs.
7. What were the greatest cultural achievements of the Victorian Age?
8. Why did the British start the Crimean War and who became the heroic figure of the War?
9. Describe the policy of Britain in India.
10. Compare the policies of B. Disraeli and Gladstone. Explain the term *jingoism*.
11. How did the overseas possessions of Britain expand? What was the situation in the British Empire?
12. Give a short outline of the role and status of Great Britain in the world at the end of the 19th century.
13. Make a report about Queen Victoria's heritage for the Modern World and share it with the class.

Unit VII
Britain of the 20th century – World Wars I and II

The Plan:

1. ***World War I***
2. ***The Great Depression***
3. ***The General Strike***
4. ***The Partitioning of Ireland***
5. ***World War II***
6. ***King George VI, Windsor (1936-1952)***
7. ***The Battle of Britain (1940)***
8. ***The D-Day (June, 1944)***
9. ***The Welfare State***
10. ***The End of the British Empire***
11. ***The Commonwealth, Britain and Europe***
12. ***M. Thatcher, T. Blair***
13. ***Multicultural Britain***

"We are not makers of history. We are made by history."
(Martin Luther King)

Entering the 20th century the United Kingdom was the greatest power in the world. The British Empire covered one quarter of the globe land surface and included a quarter of the mankind, its population being scattered all over the world continents. The UK was competing with economic and political potential of the USA and Germany.

The German militarists had become a dangerous challenge and great threat to European security. In 1914, supporting Tsarist Russia and Republican France and committed to protect

Belgium, the UK declared war on Germany. The Great War lasted for 4 years. The British Expeditionary Force fighting in France suffered heavy losses. The young people of the European countries fought and died in the trenches at the fronts. Britain lost about a million soldiers, and other two million were wounded. The course of the War and the development of the world history was changed by the Revolution in Russia and the entry of the USA into the European World War. Germany was forced to sign an Armistice. It was a humiliating peace treaty for the Germans as they had lost part of their territory and all their colonies. The heavy reparations imposed on Germany politically bankrupted the country and this developed an atmosphere of social discontent and encouraged nationalist and revanchist movements.

To Great Britain the war had been a tremendous shock: a shadow of grief hung over all sections of society. The generation of injured, gassed, shell - shocked blinded men who had come back from the trenches of the western front could never get adapted to the changed conditions in the post-war Britain.

The War had been directed by a Coalition Government, though the Prime Ministers were Liberal leaders. In peace time the pre-war problems came to the top — especially in Ireland. The demands of Irish nationalists-members of the Sinn Fein ("We Ourselves") organization had hardened. Before the War they had been promised Home Rule, then in 1916 there had been an uprising in Dublin (the Easter Rebellion) which was brutally crushed by the English army, and its leaders were executed according to the laws of wartime. The Sinn Fein

extremists were not stopped by the defeat, however, they fought for an independent republic against the pro-government Royal Irish Constabulary (RIC) and ex-servicemen "Black and Tans" called this because of their khaki- uniforms and black belts.

The government of Lloyd George was forced to agree to a compromise and a partition of Ireland which was ratified by the Anglo - Irish Treaty in 1921-1922. According to it, 26 counties in Southern Ireland out of 32 in the whole country became the Irish Free State while the others in Ulster remained under British control and constituted the Province of Northern Ireland. The two parts of the partitioned Ireland had their respective Parliaments - the Dail in Dublin and the Stormont in Belfast.

The official name of the UK changed into the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The economic situation in Britain was extremely complicated as a great depression was spreading all over the industrial world; the unemployment was high, the housing shortage was bad, the industrial relations created serious social conflicts. The worst position was that of coal - miners — their employers cut their wages, lengthened their working hours, and the coal - miners went on strike in April 1926. On May 1926, the Trades Union Congress called for the General Strike which lasted nine days. The solidarity of workers was an impressive demonstration of support for the miners cause. But there were strikebreaking actions of the middle class volunteers and university students who kept essential services moving during the strike.

The industrial problems in the country did not disappear but were aggravated by the growth of unemployment during the

international economic crisis of 1929 - 1933. The decline in the traditional British industries — coal - mining, steel manufacture, textiles, shipbuilding increased industrial stagnation and social decay in the country.

The social and political developments of the 20th century made a great impact on the changes in the lifestyle, involving women into playing a more active role in society. In 1928, all women over twenty-one gained the right to vote. World War I inspired poets and writers.

James Joyce, David Herbert Lawrence were a new branch in literature different from the classics — Thomas Hardy, Rudyard Kipling, Arnold Bennet. They didn't have much in common with the Bloomsbury school headed by Virginia Woolf either.

English classical traditions in music were revived by Sir Edward Elgar.

Entertainment became big business — football matches, the cinema, the radio were increasingly popular and a relief from the dull life.

In 1936 the death of George V. Windsor, the grandson of Queen Victoria, was followed by the abdication of Edward VIII, (previously the Prince of Wales), and George VI, the second son, succeeded his father.

In 1937 Neville Chamberlain replaced Stanley Baldwin as Prime Minister and had to face the growing aggressiveness of Hitler's Germany, Italy and Japan which were occupying territories and countries in Europe and Asia. Neville Chamberlain failed to achieve any positive results in the

negotiations with Hitler in Munich and returned to Britain in triumph declaring that it was to be "peace with honour".

This policy of appeasement of the aggressor was denounced by national critics headed by Winston Churchill as dishonourable. British industries were recovering, as the country was rearming.

Hitler seized Chechoslovakia, and on September 1st his troops invaded Poland. On 3 September Britain and France were at war with Germany. In May 1940 Winston Churchill became Prime Minister of the coalition government which included Labour leaders Clement Attlee and Ernest Bevin.

The British Expeditionary Force was driven out of Europe, escaping from the French port of Dunkirk in a fleet of small boats, and the British Isles were in danger of invasion. W. Churchill gave the country a new spirited political leadership and his words in the House of Commons that he had nothing to offer "but blood, toil, tears and sweat" encouraged and inspired the people in their stand against the threat of invasion. Between July and September 1940, Britain stood alone resisting the attacks of the German air force.

The Luftwaffe launched waves of blitz attacks on London, Coventry, Plymouth, Liverpool, Hull, Swansea, but the British pilots with the help of the Poles, Czechs, Belgians and French, who flew for Britain, won the Battle of Britain (1940).

The World War II acquired a really world character when Hitler invaded the USSR, and the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor made the USA declare war on the aggressors.

The Russian triumph at Stalingrad and the British victory at El Alamein in 1942 were the turning points in World War II.

On June 6th, (the D - Day), 1944 the Allied forces landed in Normandy, France (Operation Overlord), thus opening the Second Front in Europe. On 8 May, 1945 Germany unconditionally surrendered, though the war with Japan was not yet over. The Americans dropped two atom bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki and Japan capitulated.

The Potsdam Conference of the victorious Allied Powers leaders solved the future of the defeated Germany. But Winston Churchill was not present at the Conference as his political party (the Conservatives) had been defeated in the General Election in June 1945: the Labour Prime Minister C. Attlee represented the United Kingdom in Potsdam.

W. Churchill had enjoyed the admiration and respect of the nation, but the popular desire for social and economic reforms brought the Labour Party into government. Their Programme of Welfare State was put into action. The National Health Service gave free of charge medical assistance to all; the Bank of England, railways, civil aviation, gas, electric, steel and coal mining industries were nationalized. The period was one of austerity; shortages and food rationing lasted till 1954.

The public opinion shifted in favor of the Conservatives in 1951. Winston Churchill, Anthony Eden, Harold Macmillan, Alec Douglas-Home - the Prime Ministers during the Tory rule from 1951 to 1964 maintained the policy of national unity; they accepted the major reforms of the Labour Party - the Welfare State, the National Health Service, but the steel industry was denationalized and returned to private enterprise.

The post-war period saw great changes it the status of the British Empire, its disintegration was accompanied by the

changes in the status of the former colonies into dominions and then into independent republics and national monarchies. "The winds of change" stripped Britain of its imperial supremacy, and in the second half of the 20th century Britain had to get ajusted to the new position and place in the world.

The relations with Europe and the USA became Britain's first priorities in its foreign policy; important contacts and cooperation were to be further developed through the Commonwealth — a voluntary association of members of the former British Empire and Colonies. The British Monarch was recognized "titular head of the Commonwealth" though a great number of member states were becoming republics (e.g. India).

The post - World War II period brought the "culture of austerity" into the life of the country. It was based on the rising standards of living. The 50ties saw a great number of works from many novelists of distinction: James Joyce, Graham Green, Angus Wilson, John Boynton Priestley, Charles Percy Snow.

The young writers of the 50ties with their socially realistic novels and plays (John Brain, Kingsley Amis, Alan Sillitoe, Arnold Wesker) gave rise to the ambiguous romantic phenomenon of the "angry young men" (after John Osborn's play "Look back in anger").

In the early 60ties a group of four youths from Liverpool effected a musical break through, a revolution in rock and pop music which made Britain a world centre for youthful fashion and entertainment.

In classical music Benjamin Britten gained a worldwide reputation (e.g. opera "Peter Grimes").

The cinema and television competed and British television was recognized the best in the world. TV serials of literary classics were particularly popular - the television version of the well-known novel “The Forsyte Saga” by John Gals worthy (1867-1933).

The British theatre prospered, new theatres were opening in many provincial cities. In 1976, the National Theatre Company got finally established in its own building. Its first director was Laurence Oliver, one of Britain’s best known actors.

The Royal Shakespeare Company also got two homes - the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre in Strafford –upon- Avon (since 1879) and the Barbican Arts Centre in London (since 1982).

Generally speaking, the post-World War II historical period can be viewed as three stages - 1) 1945-1979; 2) 1979-1997; 3) the period since 1997.

In the first period the Conservative Party respected and observed the postwar consensus concerning fundamental economic and social issues and the reforms initiated by the Labour Government of 1945. The British economy was doing comparatively well, though the manufacturing industries were in decline. The 60ties showed that the European countries enjoyed economic benefits as a result of their membership in the European Economic Community. The first British attempt to join the EEC in 1963 was rejected by President Charles de Gaulle of France.

But Britain managed to enter EEC in 1973. The entrance was confirmed by the National Referendum, and the Anti-Europeanism in British society was di-minishing.

Since 1975 economic difficulties were growing worse and worse, and the number of the unemployed exceeded one million the trade unions refused to give support to the Labour Government in 1978-1979, thus destroying the "Social Contract" which was nicknamed the "Social Contrick".

The 1979 Election was the worst defeat for the Labour Party since 1931, as the conflict in the Party ranks had weakened the ability of the party to govern itself, to say nothing about governing the whole country.

The victorious Conservative Party headed by the first lady leader and the first woman Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher offered a new policy for Britain. The government saw the way out of the economic decline in privatisation, and the state enterprises like the gas industry and British Airways were sold off into private ownership. To conquer unemployment and inflation the Conservative Government restricted money spending which reduced the role played by the state in the economy. Due to the North Sea oil exploration Britain became self - sufficient in its energy base

The political prestige of the Theater Government and the Prime Minister personally rose immensely due to the successful outcome of the Falklands War in which Britain displayed great power status and the military, naval and technological superiority over the fascist government of the Argentine republic (1982).

Throughout the 70s social and ethnic tensions aggravated the situation in the UK. Northern Ireland was the most painful and disturbing case where animosities between the Unionist Protestant and Republican Catholic communities were so explosive that the troops were patrolling the streets of the towns. The parliament of Northern Ireland (the Stormont) was dissolved in 1972,and direct rule from Westminster was imposed by the British Government. The period of the "troubles" (rather a mild form used for denoting the decades of violence and sectarian killings in Northern Ireland) lasted well into the 80ties: the IRA prisoners hunger strike, the terrorist actions of the Unionist forces and the IRA. Sinn Féin in Northern Ireland and England frustrated the successive government's attempts to achieve any settlement let alone reconciliation.

The social and economic picture of Britain in the 80ties combined elements of dissolution and stability. The troubles in Northern Ireland, in the industrial world (the miners strike), in the inner areas of the cities (in the black ghettoes) were going parallel to a fundamental social divide between a prosperous South and a declining North.

The split in the Labour Party resulting in the appearance of the Social Democratic Party weakened the opposition. The domineering Thatcherism of the government with its privatisation, monetarism, European policy and special relationship with the USA, the Prime Minister's authoritarian style of leadership was facing severe difficulties. Mrs Thatcher herself became increasingly unpopular. She was challenged for

leadership in her own Conservative Party and was forced to resign in November 1990.

Mrs. Thatcher was succeeded by her supporter John Major who was a man of more moderate views. The Conservative Party, unable to stop the recession in economy, was torn by disagreements, especially in British commitment to the European Union. In May 1997, the Conservatives were heavily defeated by the Labour Party.

The landslide victory of Tony Blair's Labour Party, proclaimed New Labour, was achieved mainly due to a greater attractiveness of the Party's modernized Programme. The revision of Clause 4 of the Party's Constitution were the commitment to nationalization was substituted by the concept of "social ownership and stake holder economy" which were declared to be the target economic ideas.

The reform of the House of Lords, the devolution of the legislative branch of power establishing assemblies in Wales and Northern Ireland and reestablishing Scottish Parliament — were major political aims.

Education was pronounced to be of the highest priority in the plans of the new Labour Government. The agenda of the two terms of Tony Blair's Government was centered on five pledges— education, crime, health, jobs and economic stability. The second successive victory in the General Election of 2001 gave Labour a majority of 167. On the steps of Downing Street, 10 Tony Blair described the victory as a "mandate for investment and reform".

In 2002 the British Monarch Queen Elizabeth II of the House of Windsor celebrated the Golden Jubilee of her ac-

cession to the throne. She had succeeded her father, the highly respected King George VI, when she was a very young woman (1952). The Queen has contributed to the ideas of national identity and historical cultural values being the public symbol of national unity. Elizabeth II describes her reign as a lifetime job in the service of the nation; assuring the continuity of Monarchy, the most ancient institution in the UK, and confirming rather a controversial idea that monarchy can he a successful integral part of democracy.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland has been playing an important leading role as a member of the international community. It is a founding member of the UNO, a permanent member of the UN Security Council. The British Monarch, the head of the Commonwealth and the UK, remains committed to the work at the global problems facing the countries of that voluntary association. Britain's national interests are described by the Labour Government as best served by closer international cooperation. Britain is playing an active role in developing NATO and the European Union. The modern Government was and is committed to maintaining continuity of the UK tradition of special relationship with the USA, giving every support to the actions and policy of the US President "being at America's side", which is not unanimously approved of by the British public.

In scientific research and technology Britain kept some pre-eminence. There were great achievements in radio physics, biology, medicine and engineering. The country contributed to the world science and technology: the jet-engine, the hovercraft, nuclear power stations, discoveries in electronics. In the field of

Nobel Prizes Britain came second only to the USA in physics, physiology, medicine.

Britain produced such outstanding leaders of human thought and action as Ernest Rutherford and Alexander Fleming, Bernard Shaw and Bertrand Russell, John Keynes, Winston Churchill and Margaret Thatcher.

Great Britain of the 21st century is a multicultural and a multiracial country. The British is a collective name for the citizens of the UK who benefit from the great advantages of the country's cultural and historical values and traditions, technological achievements and social freedoms.

The international value of English language as a global language is the greatest contribution of the British people to the treasury of the world cultural heritage.

Questions and Suggested Activities:

1. What were the reasons of the World War I?
2. Describe the consequences of World War I for the United Kingdom.
3. What were the problems of Ireland and what solution was found by the British government?
4. How serious were the conflicts in the industrial relations in Great Britain?
5. Describe the changes that took place in the British Royal Family in 1936.
6. Find out information about King Edward VIII and his brother George. Report it to the class.
7. What were the circumstances that preceded World War II?

8. Describe the role of Britain at the beginning of World War II.
9. What was the British contribution to the defeat of the fascist Germany? Describe D-Day.
10. What unexpected turn of events prevented Churchill from participating in the Potsdam Conference?
11. Describe the main reforms of the Welfare State programme.
12. Make a report about the new literary trend in British literature – Modernism and its representatives James Joyce and Virginia Woolf. Share your information with the class.
13. How did the British Empire change its status?
14. What were the foreign policy priorities of the United Kingdom in the 80s?
15. Explain the reasons of the Thatcher Government success. Give the arguments.
16. How did the events in Northern Ireland develop?
17. Describe the major reforms of Tony Blair's Government and the situation in Britain.
18. Give a short general outline of the British cultural events in the 20th century.

Unit VIII
Great Britain in the 21st century

The Plan:

1. ***Britain in the 21st century: short review***
2. ***Multiracial Great Britain***
3. ***The UK's withdrawal from the European Union***
4. ***The Post Brexit period***
5. ***Britain and the Commonwealth***
6. ***The UK and NATO***
7. ***Monarchy in crisis***
8. ***The British cultural life and science of the 21st century***

"What experience and history teach is this - nations and governments have never learned anything from history, or acted upon any lessons they might have drawn from it."
(Georg Hegel)

Great Britain of the 21st century is a multicultural and a multiracial country. The British is a collective name for the citizens of the UK who benefit from the great advantages of the country's cultural and historical values and traditions, technological achievements and social freedoms. The international role of English as a global language is the greatest contribution of the British people to the treasury of the world cultural heritage.

Territorially everything has remained unchanged, Great Britain is an island in the North Atlantic Ocean off the north-west coast of continental Europe, and it is the largest of the

British Isles, the largest European island and the ninth largest island in the world. But there have been some changes in the political life of the Great Britain, after a tragic moment that happened on the 8th of September 2022, when the Queen Elizabeth II died at Balmoral Castle, aged 96, and her son, King Charles III succeeded to the throne, becoming the 13th British monarch.

The history of multiculturalism can be told from many perspectives, because Britain has always been a mixed race society, and early in its history the country was invaded by Romans, Saxons, Vikings and Norman armies; Africans were brought to Britain by force in the 17th and 18th centuries as slaves or servants as well and so on and so forth. But for contemporary Britain, perhaps, the most interesting perspectives are to investigate to what extent a pluralistic society is a threat to the identity of Britishness and how it affects demography. According to the 2021 Census, the total population of England and Wales was 59.6 million, and 81.7% of the population was white, people from Asian ethnic groups made up the second largest percentage of the population (9.3%), followed by the black (4.0%), the mixed (2.9%) and other (2.1%) ethnic groups. Out of the 19 ethnic groups, white British people made up the largest percentage of the population (74.4%), followed by people in the white 'other' (6.2%) and Indian (3.1%) ethnic groups. From 2011 to 2021, the percentage of people in the white British ethnic group went down from 80.5% to 74.4%, but the percentage by people of the 'other' white ethnic group went up from 4.4% to 6.2% – the largest percentage point increase out of all ethnic groups and the

number of people who identified as 'any other ethnic background' went up from 333,100 to 923,800. Moreover, at the beginning of the 21st century, the multicultural debate took a new turn, from race relations to religion, which is clearly seen in a cultural context. Interestingly, this was further seen in correlation with the two terror attacks - on America (11.09.2001) and Britain (07.07.2005); the bombings in London have changed many Britons' perceptions of people from the ethnic minorities and created a feeling of xenophobia (attitudes, prejudices and behavior that reject, exclude and often vilify people, based on the perception that they are outsiders or foreigners to the community, society or national identity). The focus changed from noticeable differences like the color of skin to differences not so easily detectible like cultural and religious practices. The debate revolved around Islam and its extreme fundamental forms, and it sought to highlight the reasons for immigrants to end up in terror cells. After 2005, the debate led to an increased polarization between white Britons and the members of ethnic minorities. After the research The Guardian in 2007 showed that 145 000 immigrants arrive to the UK each year.

On December 31, 2020, the transition period for the United Kingdom to withdraw from the European Union (EU), otherwise known as Brexit, officially came to an end. This marked the end of a years-long process that was overseen by two different Prime Ministers, included several delays and extensions and left the UK divided. 'Brexit' was the nickname for the 'British exit' from the EU, the economic and political union of which the UK had been a member since 1973. That

changed on June 23, 2016, when the UK voted to leave the EU. The residents decided that the benefits of free trade were not enough to offset the costs of free movement of immigrants. The vote was 17.4 million in favor of leaving vs. 16.1 million who voted to remain.

What caused Brexit? In 2015, the Conservative Party called for the referendum. Most of the pro-Brexit voters were older, working-class residents of England's countryside. They were afraid of the free movement of immigrants and refugees, claiming in the Brexit process that the citizens of poorer countries were taking jobs and benefits. Small businesses were also frustrated by the EU fees. Others felt that leaving the EU would create jobs. Many felt that the UK was paying more to the EU than it was receiving. Those who voted to stay in the EU primarily lived in London, Scotland and Northern Ireland. They liked the free trade with the EU and claimed that most of the EU immigrants were young and eager to work. Most of them felt that leaving the EU would damage the UK’s global status.

How has Brexit impacted the UK? The UK has already suffered from Brexit. The economy has slowed, and many businesses have moved their headquarters to the EU. Here are some of the negative impacts on the growth of jobs. There will also be consequences specific to Ireland, London and Scotland.

The post Brexit's period has a lot of negative points, the biggest disadvantage being its damage to the UK's economic growth. Most of this has been due to the uncertainty surrounding the final outcome. The uncertainty over Brexit slowed the UK's economic growth from 2.4% in 2015 to 1.6% in 2019. The UK government estimated that Brexit would lower

the UK's growth to 6.7% over 15 years. It assumed the current terms of free trade but restricted immigration. The British pound fell from $1.48 on the day of the referendum to $1.36 on the next day. That fact helps exports but increases the prices of imports. It has not regained its pre-Brexit height. Brexit hurts Britain's younger workers. According to the forecasts Germany will have a labor shortage of 3 million skilled workers by 2030. After Brexit those jobs won't be as readily available to the UK's workers as they used to be. Employers are having a harder time finding applicants. One reason is that EU-born workers left the UK, their numbers falling by 95% in 2017. This has hit the low-skilled and medium-skilled occupations the most. The UK must negotiate new trade agreements with the countries outside the EU, which had more than 45 trade agreements with over 70 countries already in place. Northern Ireland remains with the UK, the Republic of Ireland, with which the UK shares a border, remains part of the EU. The agreement avoids the establishment of a customs border between the two Irish countries. A customs border could reignite the troubles, which were a 30-year conflict in Northern Ireland between mainly Catholic Irish nationalists and pro-British Protestants. In 1998, it ended with the promise of the absence of border between Northern Ireland and Ireland. A customs border would force about 9,300 commuters to go through the customs on their way to and from work and school. Brexit has already depressed growth in the UK's financial center of London, which saw only 1.4% in 2018 and was close to zero in 2019. Brexit also diminished business investment by 11% between 2016 and 2019. International companies are less likely to use London as an English-speaking

entry into the EU economy. Barclay's has moved 5,000 clients to its Irish subsidiary, while Goldman Sachs, JP Morgan and Morgan Stanley have switched 10% of their clients. The Bank of America has also transferred 100 bankers to its Dublin office and 400 bankers to a broker-dealer unit in Paris. Scotland voted against Brexit. The Scottish government believed that staying in the EU was the best thing for Scotland and the UK. It had been pushing the UK government to allow holding a second referendum. To leave the UK, Scotland would have to call a referendum on independence. It could then apply for EU membership on its own.

The 21st century should see the Commonwealth as a force for good in promoting peace, democracy, good governance, gender equality, human rights, rule of law and sustainable development. The organization should continue to be a catalyst for global peace, cooperation, security and development. His Majesty King Charles III is also the Head of the Commonwealth itself, a voluntary association of 56 independent countries. This is an important symbolic and unifying role. As the Head, the king personally reinforces the links by which the Commonwealth joins people around the world. The Commonwealth of Nations is a voluntary association of 54 sovereign states and home to 2.2 billion Commonwealth citizens. Almost all Commonwealth members were once part of the former British Empire and therefore share a rich cultural, political and linguistic heritage. Most of the Commonwealth countries, reflecting their British influence, have adopted a Westminster style form of parliamentary government with elected legislatures, often with an upper

chamber and a lower chamber, multi-party democratic elections and a responsible government consisting of the ministries recruited from the majority party and the parties accountable to the elected legislature and its opposition.

On April 4, 1949, the foreign ministers from 12 countries signed the North Atlantic Treaty (also known as the Washington Treaty) in the Departmental Auditorium in Washington, D.C. Those countries were Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the United Kingdom and the United States. The United Kingdom's Joint Delegation to NATO is the link between the UK government and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Its main roles are to promote British interests in NATO and to keep the UK ministers and government departments informed about NATO discussions. NATO's essential and enduring purpose is to safeguard by political and military means the freedom and security of all its members. Collective defense is at the heart of the Alliance and creates a spirit of solidarity and cohesion among its members. The UK is Europe's largest contributor to NATO.

Following the 2022 Russian invasion of Ukraine, the UK provided Ukraine with substantial support in the form of defensive military aid (including about 2,000 NLAW anti-tank missile systems), humanitarian aid and retaliatory economic sanctions against Russia. In 2022, the UK trained 10,000 Ukrainian soldiers in basic infantry skills and committed to training up to 20,000 more in 2023. On February 8, the Prime Minister announced the plans for an additional UK-led training program to include Ukrainian jet fighter pilots and marines. In

total, the UK provided £2.3bn of military aid to Ukraine in 2022 – more than any other nation except the United States – and the government committed to sustain the same level of funding in 2023.

Monarchy is the most ancient secular institution in the UK, dating back at least to the 9th century. Now monarchy is a worthy symbol of the nation. In the 21st century the monarch is the head of the state and his main functions as the head of the state are to appoint the Prime Minister and all the other ministers, to open the new sessions of the parliament and to give the royal assent to the bills passed by the parliament, meaning that they have become law. The British monarchy is facing its worst crisis in the last 30 years since the acrimonious separation of Charles and Diana (1992 was also the year when Andrew and Fergie split, and Anne divorced Mark Phillips).

This conflict appears more intransigent than the public outcry following the death of Diana on August 31, 1997, Princess of Wales died from injuries sustained earlier that night in a car crash in the Pont de l'Alma tunnel in Paris, France. It was even supposed that she was killed by the royal family. She was the first wife of King Charles III (then Prince of Wales) and mother of the princes William and Harry. Her activism and glamour made her an international icon and earned her enduring popularity. She always tried to help people, so she made a lot of donations and created charities. Diana was born into the British nobility and grew up close to the royal family at their Sandringham estate.

On April 9, 2005, Charles and Camilla tied the knot in a civil ceremony at Windsor Guildhall. The ceremony was

followed by an official blessing from the Archbishop of Canterbury at St. George's Chapel in Windsor Castle. In this way he married his mistress with whom he had not been allowed to marry before as the Queen Elizabeth II forbade him because Camilla had already had a husband and didn't come from a noble family. But after the death of Charles' first wife, Princess Diana, she gave him such permission.

Another moment is the book Spare published in 2023 by Prince Harry, Duke of Sussex, who is also a member of the British royal family. He is the younger son of King Charles III and Diana, Princess of Wales. He is the fifth in the line of succession to the British throne. The book Spare is his memoirs about how he saw his life, and this is how he describes it: it was one of the most searing images of the twentieth century - two young boys, two princes, walking behind their mother's coffin as the world watched it in sorrow and horror. As Princess Diana was laid to rest, billions wondered what Prince William and Prince Harry had to be thinking and feeling and how their lives would play out from that point on. For Harry, this is that story at last. Before losing his mother, the twelve-year-old Prince Harry was known as the carefree one, the happy-go-lucky Spare to the more serious Heir. The grief changed everything. He struggled at school, struggled with anger, with loneliness and, because he blamed the press for his mother's death, he struggled to accept life in the spotlight. At twenty-one he joined the British Army. The discipline gave him structure, and two combat tours made him a hero at home. But he soon felt more lost than ever, suffering from post-traumatic stress and prone to crippling panic attacks. Above all, he couldn't find true love.

Then he met Meghan. The world was swept away by the couple's cinematic romance and rejoiced at their fairy-tale wedding. But from the beginning, Harry and Meghan were preyed upon by the press, subjected to waves of abuse, racism and lies. Watching his wife suffer, their safety and mental health at risk, Harry saw no other way to prevent the tragedy of history from repeating itself but to flee from his mother country. Over the centuries, leaving the royal family was an act few had dared. The last one to try, in fact, had been his mother. For the first time, Prince Harry tells his own story, chronicling his journey with raw, unflinching honesty. A landmark publication, Spare is full of insight, revelation, self-examination and hard-won wisdom about the eternal power of love over grief. In this book he describes the secrets of the royal family. Since 2020 he has not received any allowance from the royal court.

One of the most important events was Queen Elizabeth's II Platinum Jubilee; it began on February 6, 2022, marking the70th anniversary since she acceded to the throne after her father's death. On the eve of the date, she held a reception at Sandringham House for pensioners, local Women's Institute members and charity volunteers. In her accession day message, Elizabeth renewed her commitment to a lifetime of public service, which she had originally made in 1947. Later that month, Elizabeth had 'mild cold-like symptoms' and tested positive for COVID-19, along with some staff and family members. She cancelled two virtual audiences on February 22, 2022, but held a phone conversation with the British Prime Minister Boris Johnson on the following day amid the crisis on the Russian-Ukrainian border. After that she made a donation to

the Disasters Emergency Committee (DEC) of Ukraine Humanitarian Appeal. On February 28, 2022, she was reported to have recovered and spent time with her family at Frogmore. On March 7, 2022, Elizabeth met the Canadian Prime Minister Justin Trudeau at Windsor Castle, in her first in-person engagement since her COVID diagnosis. She later remarked that COVID infection “leave[s] one very tired and exhausted ... It's not a nice result”. During the Platinum Jubilee celebrations, Elizabeth was largely confined to balcony appearances and missed the National Service of Thanksgiving. At the Jubilee concert she took part in a sketch with Paddington Bear that opened the event outside Buckingham Palace. On June 13, 2022, she became the second longest- reigning monarch in history among those, whose exact dates of reign are known, with 70 years, 127 days reigned, that is, she surpassed King Bhumibol Adulyadej of Thailand. On September 6, 2022, she appointed her 15th British prime minister, Liz Truss, at Balmoral Castle in Scotland. This marked the only time during her reign she did not receive a new prime minister at Buckingham Palace. No other British reign had seen so many prime ministers. The Queen's last public message was issued to her Canadian people on September 7, 2022, in the aftermath of the Saskatchewan stabbings. Elizabeth never planned to abdicate, though she took on fewer public engagements as she grew older, and Prince Charles took on more of her duties. The Queen told the Canadian governor-general Adrienne Clarkson at a meeting in 2002 that she would never abdicate, saying “It is not our tradition. Although, I suppose, if I became completely gaga, one would have to do something”. In June 2022, Elizabeth met

the Archbishop of Canterbury, Justin Welby, who "came away thinking there is someone who has no fear of death, has hope in the future, knows the rock on which she stands and that gives her strength."

British culture is influenced by the combined nations' history, its historically Christian religious life, its interaction with the cultures of Europe, the traditions of England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland, and by the impact of the British Empire. Although British culture is a distinct entity, the individual cultures of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are diverse and have varying degrees of overlap and distinctiveness. British literature is particularly esteemed. The modern novel was invented in Britain, and playwrights, poets and authors are among its most prominent cultural figures. Britain has also made notable contributions to music, cinema, art, architecture and television. The UK is also the home of the Church of England, the state church and mother church of the Anglican Communion, the third largest Christian denomination. Britain contains some of the world's oldest universities; it has made many contributions to philosophy, science, technology and medicine, and it is the birthplace of many prominent scientists and inventions. The industrial revolution began in the UK and has had a profound effect on the family socio-economic and cultural conditions of the world. Thus, a significant British influence can be observed in the language, law, culture and institutions of its former colonies, most of which are members of the Commonwealth of Nations. The subset of these states forms the Anglo- sphere, and they are among Britain's closest allies. In turn, the British colonies and dominions have

influenced British culture, especially British cuisine. Sport is an important part of British culture, and numerous sports, including cricket, football and rugby, originated in this country. The UK has been described as a "cultural superpower", and London has been described as the world capital of culture. The global opinion polls for the BBC saw the UK ranked the third most positively viewed nation in the world (after Germany and Canada) in 2013 and 2014.

Questions and Suggested Activities:

1. Give a short review on the 21st century Britain.
2. How many ethnic groups are there in Britain?
3. What changed many Britons' perceptions of people from the ethnic minorities and created a feeling of xenophobia?
4. What country is Europe's largest contributor to NATO?
5. What is the nickname for "British exit"?
6. When was the transition period for the United Kingdom to withdraw from the European Union?
7. What is the biggest disadvantage of post-Brexit period?
8. Who is Head of the Commonwealth?
9. How many countries take part in the Commonwealth association?
10. Make a report about Princess Diana and report it to the class.
11. What book wrote Prince Charles?

12. How was celebrated Queen Elizabeth's II Platinum Jubilee?
13. Who succeeded the throne after Queen Elizabeth II?
14. What is British culture influenced by?
15. Investigate the information about British Heritage to the World and report it to the class.
16. Make a time capsule for the future generation in which you will describe your country, traditions, customs and values. What would you write in it?

The British Monarchs

Dynasty	*Monarch*	*Years of life*	*Years of reign*
Saxon kings	Alfred the Great	849-899	871-899
	Edward the Elder	?-924	899-924
	Athelstan	892-939	924-939
	Edmund I	921-946	939-946
	Edred	?-955	946-955
	Edwy the Fair	944-959	955-959
	Edgar the Peaceful	944-975	959-975
	Edward the Martyr	963-978	975-978
	Aethelred	968-1016	978-1016
	Edmund II	981-1016	1016
Danish kings	Canute	994-1035	1016-1035
	Harold Harefoot	?-1040	1035-1040
	Hardecanute	1019-1042	1040-1042
Saxon kings	Edward the Confessor	1002-1066	1042-1066
	Harold II	1020-1066	1066
Norman kings	William the Conqueror	1028-1087	1066-1087
	William II	1060-1100	1087-1100
	Henry I	1068-1135	1100-1135
	Stephen	1097-1154	1135-1154
Plantagenet	Henry II	1133-1189	1154-1189
	Richard I the Lion-Heart	1157-1199	1189-1199
	John Lackland	1167-1216	1199-1216
	Henry III	1207-1272	1216-1272
	Edward I	1239-1307	1272-1307
	Edward II	1284-1327	1307-1327
	Edward III	1312-1377	1327-1377
	Richard II	1367-1400	1377-1399

Lancaster	Henry IV	1367-1413	1399-1423
	Henry V	1387-1422	1413-1422
	Henry VI	1421-1471	1422-1461
York	Edward IV	1442-1483	1461-1483
	Edward V	1470-1483	1483
	Richard III	1452-1485	1483-1485
Tudor	Henry VII	1457-1509	1485-1509
	Henry VIII	1491-1547	1509-1547
	Edward VI	1537-1553	1547-1553
	Mary I	1516-1558	1553-1558
	Elisabeth I	1533-1603	1558-1603
Stuart	James I	1566-1625	1603-1625
	Charles I		1625-1649
	REPUBLIC	1600-1649	1649-1660
	Charles II	1630-1685	1660-1685
	James II	1633-1701	1685-1688
	William III	1650-1702	1689-1702
	and Mary II	1662-1694	1689-1694
	Anne	1665-1714	1702-1714
Hanover	George I	1660-1727	1714-1727
	George II	1683-1760	1727-1760
	George III	1738-1820	1760-1820
	George IV	1762-1830	1820-1830
	William IV	1765-1837	1830-1837
	Victoria	1819-1901	1837-1901
	Edward VII	1841-1910	1901-1910
Windsor	George V	1865-1936	1919-1936
	Edward VIII	1894-1972	1936
	George VI	1895-1952	1936-1952
	Elisabeth II	1926-2022	1952-2022
	Charles III	1948-	2022-…

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