

Ю. Б. Голицынский

Great Britain



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Данная книга представляет собой пособие по страноведению, которое знакомит учащихся с основными достопримечательностями, историей и биографиями знаменитых граждан Великобритании.

Книга предназначена для учащихся старших классов гимназий и школ с углубленным изучением английского языка, для студентов высших и средних специальных учебных заведений.

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SECTION ONE

GENERAL INFORMATION

CHAPTER 1

GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY

Part 1. Geographical Position.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland¹ is situated on the British Isles² — a large group of islands lying off the north-western coast of Europe³ and separated from the continent by the English Channel⁴ and the Strait of Dover⁵ in the south and the North Sea⁶ in the east.

¹ The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland [ðə ju'naitɪd'kɪŋdəm əv'greɪt'brɪtn ənd'nɔ:ðən'aɪələnd] — Объединённое королевство Великобритании и Северной Ирландии

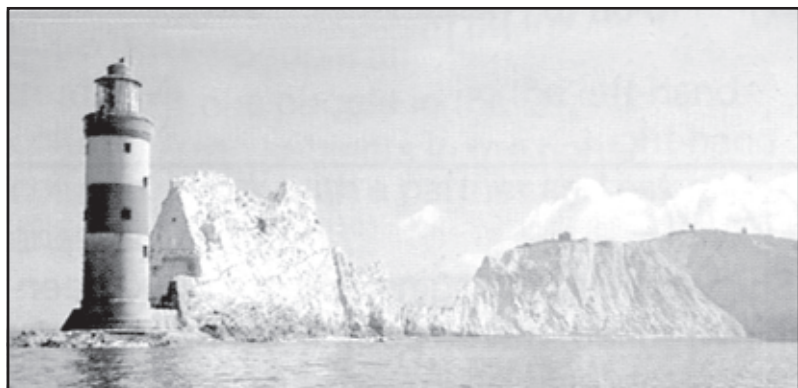
² the British Isles ['brɪtɪʃ'aɪlz] — Британские острова

³ Europe ['juərəp] — Европа

⁴ the English Channel ['ɪŋɡlɪʃ'tʃænl] — пролив Ла Манш

⁵ the Strait of Dover [streɪt əv'douvə] — пролив Па Де Кале

⁶ the North Sea ['nɔ:θ'si:] — Северное море



The Isle of Wight

The British Isles consist of two large islands — Great Britain and Ireland — separated by the Irish Sea¹, and a lot of small islands, the main of which are the Isle of Wight² in the English Channel, Anglesea³ and the Isle of Man⁴ in the Irish Sea, the Hebrides⁵ — a group of islands off the north-western coast of Scotland⁶, and two groups of islands lying to the north of Scotland: the Orkney Islands⁷ and the Shetland Islands⁸.

Historically the territory of the United Kingdom is divided into four parts: England⁹, Scotland, Wales¹⁰ and Northern Ireland.

The total area of the United Kingdom is 244 square kilometres.

¹ the Irish Sea ['aɪərɪʃ'i:] — Ирландское море

² the Isle of Wight ['aɪ əl əv'waɪt] — остров Уайт

³ Anglesea ['æŋɡlsi:] — Энглси

⁴ the Isle of Man ['aɪ əl əv'mæn] — остров Мэн

⁵ the Hebrides ['hebrɪdi:z] — Гебриды

⁶ Scotland ['skɒtlənd] — Шотландия

⁷ the Orkney Islands ['ɔ:kni'aɪləndz] — Оркнейские острова

⁸ the Shetland Islands ['ʃetlənd'aɪləndz] — Шетландские острова

⁹ England ['ɪŋɡlənd] — Англия

¹⁰ Wales [weɪlz] — Уэльс

QUESTIONS.

1. Where is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland situated?
2. Which waters separate the British Isles from the continent of Europe?
3. What islands do the British Isles consist of?
4. Which four parts is the territory of the United Kingdom historically divided into?
5. What is the total area of the United Kingdom?

Part 2. Nature.

Great Britain is situated in the temperate zone of Europe. The nature of Great Britain is greatly affected by the sea: there is no place situated more than 100–120 km from the seashore, in the northern parts only 40–60 km.

The territory of Great Britain can be divided into three natural regions:

1) Scotland with highland and upland relief and coniferous and mixed forests;

2) Wales and mountainous England with upland considerably cut by ravines and valleys and covered with meadows, moorland¹ and cultivated farmland, with patches of broadleaf forest;

3) South-east England with plain landscape, fertile soils, the predominance of cultivated farmland, with patches of broadleaf forest.

QUESTIONS.

1. What natural zone is the United Kingdom situated in?

¹ moorland ['muələnd] — пустошь, поросшая вереском

2. What factor is the nature of Great Britain affected by? Why?
3. What natural regions can the territory of Great Britain be divided into?

Part 3. Coasts.

The coastline of Great Britain is greatly indented, especially in the west and north-west where the mountains come close to the coast. The coasts of Scotland, as well as the coasts of the Hebrides, the Orkney Islands and the Shetland Islands, are cut by numerous fiords. In the south and east the land gradually slopes down towards the sea, and the coasts are sandy and gentle, here and there interrupted by the ends of hill-ranges, which form low cliffs.



The coast of Britain

QUESTIONS.

1. Why is the coastline of Great Britain especially greatly indented in the west and north-west?
2. Where are fiords especially numerous?
3. How do the southern and eastern coasts of Great Britain differ from the western and north-western coasts?

Part 4. Relief.

The general slope of the land is from north-west to south-east.

The mountains cover the greater part of northern, western and middle Great Britain. They can be divided into the following groups:

1) The Highlands of Scotland¹ occupy most of the land to the north-west of a line drawn from Glasgow² to Aberdeen³. Two parts of the Highlands — the North-western Highlands⁴ and the Grampians⁵ — are separated by a narrow valley, through which runs the Caledonian Canal⁶. At the south-western end of the Highlands rises Ben Nevis⁷, 1343 m, the highest mountain of the British Isles.

2) The Central Plain of Scotland⁸ separates the Highlands from the Southern Uplands of Scot-

¹ The Highlands of Scotland ['haɪləndz əv'skɒtlənd] — северная высокогорная часть Шотландии

² Glasgow ['glɑːsgou] — Глазго

³ Aberdeen [ˌæbə'diːn] — Эбердин

⁴ the North-western Highlands ['nɔːθ'westən'haɪləndz] — Северо-западная часть высокогорной Шотландии

⁵ the Grampians ['græmpɪənz] — Грампианские горы

⁶ the Caledonian Canal [ˌkæli'dɒnjən kə'næl] — Каледонский канал

⁷ Ben Nevis ['ben'nevis] — Бен Невис

⁸ The Central Plain of Scotland ['sentrəl'pleɪn əv'skɒtlənd] — Центральная Шотландская равнина

land¹. The Southern Uplands and the Pennines², which stretch in the north-south direction across the northern and middle parts of England, form a practically continuous group.

3) Nearly the whole of Wales is occupied by the Cumbrians³. The highest peak of the Cumbrians is Snowdon⁴, 1085 m.

The south-eastern part of England is lowland, interrupted in places by low chalk ridges.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the general slope of the land in Great Britain?
2. Which three groups can the mountains be divided into?
3. Where are the Highlands of Scotland situated?
4. Which are the two parts of the Highlands? What are they separated by?
5. Which is the highest mountain of the British Isles? How high is it? Can you show it on the map?
6. Where are the Southern Uplands of Scotland? How are they separated from the Highlands?
7. Where are the Pennines situated? In what direction do they stretch?
8. Where are the Cumbrians?
9. Which is the highest peak of the Cumbrians? How high is it? Find it on the map.
10. What is the relief of the south-eastern part of England?

¹ the Southern Uplands of Scotland ['sʌðən'ʌpləndz əv'skɒt-lənd] — Южная Шотландская возвышенность

² the Pennines ['penaɪnz] — Пеннинские горы

³ the Cumbrians ['kʌmbriənz] — Кембрийские горы

⁴ Snowdon ['snoudən] — Сноудон

Part 5. Climate.

Great Britain enjoys the humid and mild marine West-Coast climate¹ with warm winters and cool summers and a lot of rainfall throughout the year.

The prevailing winds blow from the south-west. As these winds blow from the ocean, they are mild in winter and cool in summer, and are heavily charged with moisture at all times. As they approach the mountainous areas near the west coasts, they rise up the mountain slopes. Their temperature drops, which causes condensation of moisture in the form of rain. Therefore the wettest parts of Britain are those areas where high mountains lie near the west coast: the western Highlands of Scotland, the Lake District² and North Wales. The eastern part of Britain is said to be in the rain-shadow, as the winds lose most of their moisture in their passage over the highlands of the west.

All parts of the British Isles receive rain at any time of the year. Still autumn and winter are the wettest seasons, except in the Thames³ district, where most rain falls in the summer half of the year. Oxford⁴, for example, has 29 per cent of its rain in summer and only 22 per cent in winter.

As to temperature, Great Britain has warmer winters than any other district in the same latitude. It is

¹ the humid and mild marine West-Coast climate ['hjuːmɪd ənd 'maɪld mə'riːn'westkəʊst'klaɪmɪt] — влажный и мягкий морской климат Западного побережья

² the Lake District ['leɪk'dɪstrɪkt] — Озёрный край

² the Thames [temz] — Темза

⁴ Oxford ['ɒksfəd] — Оксфорд

due in large measure to the prevalence of mild south-west winds. Another factor is the Gulf Stream¹, which flows from the Gulf of Mexico² and brings much warmth from the equatorial regions to north-western Europe.

QUESTIONS.

1. What climate does Great Britain enjoy? What are the characteristic features of this climate?
2. Which are the prevailing winds in Great Britain? What do they bring to the country?
3. Which are the wettest parts of Great Britain? Why?
4. The eastern side of Great Britain is said to be in the rain-shadow. What does it mean?
5. Which are the wettest seasons in Great Britain?
6. Why does Great Britain have warmer winters than any other district in the same latitude?

Part 6. Inland Waters.

The rivers of Britain are short; their direction and character are determined by the position of the mountains.

Most of the rivers flow in the eastward direction since the west coast is mountainous.

Due to the humid climate and abundant rainfall, the water level in the rivers is always high. The rivers seldom freeze in winter, most of them remain ice-free. Many of the rivers are joined together by canals. This system of rivers and canals provides a good means of cheap inland water transport.

¹ the Gulf Stream ['gʌlf,stri:m] — Гольфстрим

² the Gulf of Mexico ['meksikou] — Мексиканский залив

British rivers are not navigable for ocean ships, but they form deep estuaries, and strong tides penetrating into them prevent the formation of deltas. Most of the large ports of Great Britain are situated in the estuaries.

The most important rivers are the Severn¹, flowing from the Cumbrian Mountains in Wales into the Bristol Channel², the Thames, flowing across the plains of south-eastern England and emptying into the North Sea, the Tyne³ and the Trent⁴, flowing from the eastern slopes of the Pennines to the North Sea, the Mersey⁵, flowing down the western slopes of the Pennines and emptying into the Irish Sea at Liverpool⁶, and the Clyde⁷ in Scotland, which flows west across the Southern Uplands and on which the port of Glasgow is situated.

Owing to the fact that British lakes are rather small and have no outlets, they afford limited economic possibilities in the system of navigable waterways. But most of them, especially those situated in the counties of Cumberland⁸, Westmorland⁹ and north Lancashire¹⁰, are famous for their unique beauty and picturesque surroundings. Famous is the English Lake District, occupying a comparatively small area. It is a place of steep ridges and deep valleys, smooth slopes

¹ Severn ['sevən] — р. Северн

² the Bristol Channel ['bristol'tʃænl] — Бристольский залив

³ the Tyne [taɪn] — р. Тайн

⁴ the Trent [trent] — р. Трент

⁵ the Mersey ['mɜ:zi] — р. Мерсей

⁶ Liverpool ['lɪvəpʊl] — Ливерпуль

⁷ the Clyde [klaɪd] — р. Клайд

⁸ Cumberland ['kʌmbələnd] — Кэмберленд

⁹ Westmorland ['westmələnd] — Уэстморленд

¹⁰ Lancashire ['læŋkəʃɪə] — Ланкашир

and deep lakes, ravines, waterfalls and green meadows. The Lake District is one of the most popular holiday districts in Great Britain.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why do most of the rivers in Great Britain flow in the eastward direction?
2. Why is the water level in British rivers always high?
3. Do British rivers freeze in winter?
4. Many rivers in Great Britain are joined together by canals. What does the system of rivers and canals provide?
5. Are British rivers navigable for ocean ships?
6. What prevents the formation of deltas at the mouths of rivers?
7. Where are most of the large sea ports situated?
8. Which are the most important rivers in Great Britain?
9. What are the British lakes famous for? Where are most of them situated?
10. Give a description of the Lake District.

Part 7. Vegetation.

In the mountainous regions of Great Britain the vegetation is represented by coniferous and mixed forests with the predominance of pine, oak and birch. Many parts of highland Britain have only thin, poor soils. As a result, there are large stretches of moorland in the Highlands of Scotland, the Pennines, the Lake District, the mountains of Wales and in some parts of north-east and south-west England. In most of these areas the farmers have

cultivated only the valley lands and the plains where the soils are deeper and richer.

With its mild climate and varied soils, Britain has a rich natural vegetation. When the islands were first settled, oak forests probably covered the greater part of the lowland. In the course of the centuries, nearly all the forests have been cut down, and now woodlands occupy only about 7 per cent of the surface of the country. The greatest density of woodland occurs in the north and east of Scotland, in some parts of south-east England and on the Welsh border. The most common trees are oak, beech, ash and elm, and in Scotland also pine and birch.

Midland Britain appears to be well wooded because of the numerous hedges¹ and isolated trees. Hedges are a typical feature of countryside landscape in England. Farming land is divided into fields by hedges or stone walls. Most of countryside England is agricultural land, about a third of which is arable, and the rest is pasture and meadow.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the vegetation represented by in the mountainous regions of Great Britain?
2. Where are stretches of moorland to be found? Why are these places covered with moorland?
3. Why does Great Britain have a rich natural vegetation?
4. What has happened to nearly all the forests? What parts of Great Britain do most woods still remain in?

¹ hedges [hedʒɪz] — живые изгороди

5. Which are the most common trees in Great Britain?
6. What is a typical feature of countryside landscape in England? Why does midland Britain appear to be well wooded?

Part 8. Animal Life.

The animal life of the British Isles is now much poorer than it was a few centuries ago. With the disappearance of forests, many forest animals, including the wolf, the bear, the boar, the deer and the Irish elk, have become practically extinct. There are foxes in most rural areas, and otters are found along many rivers and streams. Of smaller animals there are mice, rats, hedgehogs, moles, squirrels, hares, rabbits and weasels.

There are a lot of birds, including many song-birds. Blackbirds, sparrows and starlings are probably most common. There are many sea-birds, which nest round the coasts and often fly far inland in search of food or shelter in rough weather.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why is the animal life of the British Isles much poorer now than it was a few centuries ago? What forest animals have become practically extinct?
2. What animals can be found in most rural areas along many rivers and streams?
3. Are there many birds in Great Britain? Which are most common?

Part 9. Mineral Resources.

Great Britain is rich in coal. There are rich coal basins in Northumberland¹, Lancashire, Yorkshire², Nottinghamshire³, South Wales, North Wales and near Glasgow.

Among other mineral resources, iron ores found alongside coal layers are of primary importance, but the iron content of most of the ores is very low.

There are tin and copper mines in Cornwall⁴ and Devonshire⁵, copper and lead mines in England.

Lead and silver ores are also mined in Derbyshire⁶ and Cumberland⁷ and Lancashire.

QUESTIONS.

1. What mineral resources is Great Britain rich in?
2. Where are the coal basins?
3. Where are the iron ores found? What is the drawback of the iron ores in Great Britain?
4. In what parts of Great Britain are the tin, copper, lead and silver deposits?

Part 10. Economy.

The United Kingdom was the first country in the world which became highly industrialized. During the rapid industrialization of the 19th century,

¹ Northumberland [nɔ:θʌmbəlænd] — Нортумберленд

² Yorkshire ['jɔ:kʃɪə] — Йоркшир

³ Nottinghamshire ['nɒtɪŋəməʃɪə] — Ноттингемшир

⁴ Cornwall ['kɔ:nwəl] — Корнуолл

⁵ Devonshire ['devənʃɪə] — Девоншир

⁶ Derbyshire ['dɜ:bɪʃɪə] — Дербишир

⁷ Cumberland ['kʌmbəlænd] — Кемберленд

one of the most important factors was that coal deposits were situated near the ground surface, which made mining easy. Coal mining is one of the most developed industries in Great Britain. The biggest coal and iron mines are in the north-east of England, near Newcastle¹, in Lancashire and Yorkshire; in Scotland near Glasgow; in Wales near Cardiff² and Bristol³.

Until recent times, Britain's heavy industry was mainly concentrated in the centre of England and in the London region. Such towns as Birmingham⁴, Coventry⁵ and Sheffield⁶ produced heavy machines, railway carriages and motor-cars. In the 20th century new branches of industry have appeared: electronics, radio, chemical industry and others.

Of great importance for Britain is ship-building industry. It is concentrated in London, Glasgow, Newcastle, Liverpool and Belfast⁷.

Great Britain produces a lot of wool, and woollen industry is developed in Yorkshire. British woollen products are exported to many countries.

Sea-ports play a great role in the life of the country. London, Liverpool and Glasgow are the biggest English ports, from which big liners go to all parts of the world. Great Britain exports industrial products to other countries and imports food and some other products.

¹ Newcastle ['nju:kɑ:sl] — Ньюкасл

² Cardiff ['kɑ:dɪf] — Кардифф

³ Bristol ['brɪsl] — Бристоль

⁴ Birmingham ['bɜ:mɪŋəm] — Бирмингем

⁵ Coventry ['kɒvəntri] — Ковентри

⁶ Sheffield ['ʃeɪld] — Шеффилд

⁷ Belfast ['belfɑ:st] — Белфаст

Sheep-farming, cattle-farming and dairy-farming are also important branches of Great Britain's economy. Chicken farms produce a great number of chickens and eggs for the population.

The south of England is often called the "Garden of England", because there are many gardens and orchards there. In the orchards people grow apples, pears, cherries, plums and other fruits, and there are also large plantations of different berries.

QUESTIONS.

1. What was one of the most important factors of the rapid industrialization of the country in the 19th century?
2. What industry is mostly developed in Great Britain? Where are the biggest coal and iron mines situated?
3. Where was Britain's heavy industry mainly concentrated until recent times? What was produced in Birmingham, Coventry and Sheffield?
4. What branches of industry appeared in the 20th century?
5. What towns is ship-building industry concentrated in?
6. Great Britain has always been a great exporter of wool, hasn't it? Where is the woollen industry concentrated?
7. Do sea-ports play a great role in the life of Great Britain? Which are the biggest sea-ports of the country?
8. Why is the south of England often called the "Garden of England"? What fruits grow in the orchards?

CHAPTER REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

temperate, meadow, affected, coniferous, ravines, plain, fertile, indented, arable, lowland, ridges, marine, moisture, hedges, latitude, mixed, estuaries, empties, agricultural, pasture.

1. Most of the large sea-ports of Great Britain are situated in the _____.
2. Most of countryside England is _____ land, about a third of which is _____ and the rest is _____ and _____.
3. The winds blowing from the ocean are heavily charged with _____.
4. Great Britain is situated in the _____ zone of Europe.
5. Farming land is divided into fields by _____ and stone walls.
6. Great Britain enjoys the _____ West-Coast climate.
7. The coastline of Great Britain is greatly _____.
8. The nature of Great Britain is greatly _____ by the sea.
9. The Thames _____ into the North Sea.
10. South-east England has _____ landscape and _____ soils.
11. The Highlands of Scotland are covered with _____ and _____ forests.
12. The south-eastern part of England is _____, interrupted in places by low chalk _____.
13. The uplands are cut by _____ and valleys.
14. Great Britain has warmer winters than any other district in the same _____.

II. Write a 200-word composition on the geography of Great Britain.

CHAPTER 2 COMPOSITION OF THE COUNTRY

The territory of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is historically divided into four parts:

1) England; 2) Scotland; 3) Wales; 4) Northern Ireland.

Part 1. England.

Of the four countries which make up the United Kingdom, England is the largest. It occupies an area of 131,8 thousand sq. km.

England borders on Scotland in the north. In the east it is washed by the North Sea. In the south it is separated from the continent by the English Channel. In the west it borders on Wales and is washed by the Bristol Channel and by the Irish Sea.

The highest part of England is in the west, from where the land gradually slopes down to the east.

The Atlantic Ocean washes the rocky and broken west coast of England, Wales and Scotland and is gradually wearing it away, leaving caves and sandy beaches. On the east coast the land is low and sandy.

The rivers flowing to the east and emptying into the North Sea form deep estuaries well protected from the sea. The greatest port of the country London is conveniently situated in the Thames estuary.

The white chalk cliffs of the south coast washed

by the English Channel can be seen from many miles out at sea.

As concerns the relief, England can be divided into: Northern England mostly taken up by the low Penine Mountains, the Central Plain, lowland South-east England, and hilly South-west England.

QUESTIONS.

1. Which four parts is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland historically divided into?
2. How does the west coast of England look? How does the east coast differ from the west one?
3. Where is the port of London situated? What makes its position convenient?
4. What is characteristic of the south coast of England?
5. What parts can England be divided into as concerns the relief?

Part 2. Scotland.

Scotland is the most northern of the countries that constitute the United Kingdom. It occupies an area of 78,8 thousand sq. km.

Scotland is washed by the Atlantic Ocean in the north and west and by the North Sea in the east.

The coastline of Scotland is greatly indented. In many places deep fiords penetrate very far inland.

Geographically the territory of Scotland can be divided into three regions: the Northern Highlands, the Central Lowlands and the Southern Uplands.

The Highlands are the highest mountains in the British Isles. Their average height does not exceed

457 m above sea level, though some peaks are much higher, rising over a thousand metres. Ben Nevis, the highest peak in the British Isles, reaches the height of 1343 m.

The Lowlands are the cradle of the Scottish nation. They are densely populated.

The Southern Uplands seldom rise over 579 m above sea level. It is one of the most sparsely populated districts in Great Britain.

QUESTIONS.

1. Where is Scotland situated?
2. What is the coastline of Scotland like?
3. Which three regions can the territory of Scotland be divided into?
4. Are the Highlands very high?
5. What part of Scotland can be called the cradle of the Scottish nation?

Part 3. Wales.

Wales is a peninsula washed by the sea on three sides: the Bristol Channel in the south, the St. George's Channel¹ in the west, and the Irish Sea in the north. Its territory is 20,8 thousand sq. km.

Geographically Wales may be considered part of highland Britain, the Cumbrian Mountains occupying most of the land. It is an area of high mountains, deep valleys, waterfalls and lakes.

Wales is a region of heavy rainfall brought by the prevailing west winds from the Atlantic Ocean. The valleys are sheltered by the high mountains from cold east winds. The climate is rather mild.

¹ the St. George's Channel [snt'dʒɔ:dʒɪz'tʃænl] — пролив Св. Геора

Wales has never been densely populated. The Welsh¹ have kept their own language, but English is spoken in town as well.

QUESTIONS.

1. What kind of relief does Wales have?
2. How do you explain the fact that there is a lot of rainfall in Wales?
3. What language is spoken in Wales?

Part 4. Northern Ireland.

Northern Ireland occupies the north-eastern part of Ireland, which is separated from the island of Great Britain by the North Channel². In the south-west Northern Ireland borders on the Irish Republic³ (Eire⁴).

Almost all the area of Northern Ireland is a plain of volcanic origin, deepening in the centre to form the largest lake of the British Isles, Lough Neagh⁵.

The greatly indented coastline of Northern Ireland is abundant in rocks and cliffs.

Northern Ireland has a typical oceanic climate with mild damp winters (the mean temperature in January is +4, +5) and cool rainy summers (the mean temperature in July is +14, +15).

Forests are rather scarce, moors and meadows prevail.

Northern Ireland is mostly an agrarian district. On small farms they grow crops, especially oats, veg-

¹ The Welsh [welʃ] — уэльсцы

² the North Channel ['nɔ:θ'tʃænl] — Северный пролив

³ the Irish Republic ['aɪrɪʃ rɪ'pʌblɪk] — Ирландская республика

⁴ Eire ['eɪrə] — Эйре

⁵ Lough Neagh ['lɒx'neɪ] — оз. Лох Ней

etables and potatoes. Large areas are taken up by meadows, where cattle graze. On the river banks and on the coasts the population is engaged in fishing.

QUESTIONS.

1. Where is Northern Ireland situated? What country does it border on?
2. Describe the relief of Northern Ireland.
3. What is characteristic of the coastline of Northern Ireland?
4. What kind of climate does Northern Ireland enjoy?
5. What vegetation prevails in Northern Ireland?
6. What do people grow on their farms?

CHAPTER REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

historically, make up, slopes, rocky, broken, sandy, estuaries, conveniently, chalk, Pennine, peninsula, sheltered, cradle, sparsely, volcanic, indented, agrarian, graze.

1. Wales is a _____ washed by the sea on three sides.
2. The rivers form deep _____, well protected from the sea.
3. Cattle _____ in large meadows.
4. The greatly _____ coastline of Northern Ireland is abundant in rocks and cliffs.
5. The territory of the United Kingdom is _____ divided into four parts.
6. The territory of Northern England is mostly taken up by the low _____ Mountains.
7. The Southern Uplands are _____ populated.

8. The land in England gradually _____ down from west to east.
9. Northern Ireland is mostly an _____ district.
10. Of all the four countries which _____ the United Kingdom, England is the largest.
11. On the east coast the land is low and _____.
12. The white _____ cliffs of the south coast are washed by the English Channel.
13. The Central Lowlands are the _____ of the Scottish nation.
14. Almost all the area of Northern Ireland is a plain of _____ origin.
15. The port of London is _____ situated in the Thames estuary.
16. The Atlantic Ocean washes the _____ and _____ west coasts of England, Wales and Scotland.
17. The valleys are _____ by the high mountains from the cold east winds.

CHAPTER 3

POLITICAL SYSTEM

Great Britain is a parliamentary monarchy. Officially the head of the state is the king or queen. The power of the monarch is not absolute but constitutional. The monarch acts only on the advice of the ministers.

The hereditary principle upon which the monarchy is founded is strictly observed. The now reigning monarch, Queen Elizabeth, II is a descendant of the Saxon king Egbert.

The monarch, be it king or queen, is the head of the executive body, an integral part of the legislature, the head of the judicial body, the commander-in-chief of the armed forces of the crown, the head of

the Established Church of England¹ and the head of the British Commonwealth of Nations.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who is the official head of the state of Great Britain?
2. What are the official titles of Queen Elizabeth II?
3. The monarchy in Great Britain is founded on hereditary principle, isn't it? What does "hereditary principle" mean?
4. Explain the following sentence: "The power of the monarch is not absolute but constitutional."

Part 1. The Constitution.

Practically speaking, there is no written constitution in Great Britain. The term "English Constitution" means the leading principles, conventions and laws, many of which have been existing for centuries, though they have undergone modifications and extensions in agreement with the advance of civilization. These principles are expressed in such documents of major importance as *Magna Carta*², a famous document in English history agreed upon in 1215 by King John³ and the barons, which set certain limits on royal power and which was later regarded as a law stating basic civil rights; *Habeas Corpus Act*⁴, a law passed in 1679, which guarantees

¹ the Established Church of England — Господствующая церковь Англии

² Magna Carta ['mæɡnə'kɑ:tə] — Магна карта (*Великая хартия вольностей*)

³ King John [dʒɒn] — король Джон (*Иоанн Безземельный*)

⁴ Habeas Corpus Act ['heɪbjəs'kɔ:pəs ækt] — Хабеас Корпус (*закон 1679 г. о неприкосновенности личности*)

to a person arrested the right to appear in court of justice¹ so that the jury² should decide whether he is guilty or not guilty; *The Bill of Rights*³, an act of Parliament passed in 1689, which confirmed certain rights of the people; the laws deciding the succession of the royal family⁴, and a number of constitutional acts, separate laws and agreements.

QUESTIONS.

1. Is there a written constitution in Great Britain? What does the term “English Constitution” mean?
2. Name some important documents which contain the leading principles of government.
3. When was Magna Carta signed? Who signed it? What did Magna Carta set limits on?
4. When was Habeas Corpus Act passed? What does Habeas Corpus Act guarantee?
5. When did Parliament pass The Bill of Rights? What did The Bill of Rights confirm?

Part 2. Three Branches of Government.

Power in Great Britain is divided among three branches: the legislative⁵ branch, the executive⁶ branch and the judicial⁷ branch.

¹ court of justice ['kɔ:t əv'dʒʌstɪs] — суд

² the jury ['dʒʊəri] — присяжные заседатели

³ The Bill of Rights — Билль о правах

⁴ the laws deciding the succession [sək'seɪn] of the royal family — законы, определяющие порядок наследования королевского престола

⁵ legislative ['ledʒɪslətɪv] — законодательная

⁶ executive [ɪg'zekjʊtɪv] — исполнительная

⁷ judicial [dʒʊ'dɪʃəl] — судебная



Parliament Square

The legislative branch is represented by Parliament, which consists of two chambers, or houses: the House of Lords¹ and the House of Commons².

Parliament in Britain has existed since 1265. Having been organized in the reign of King Edward I³, it is the oldest parliament in the world.

The House of Lords consists of more than 1000 peers⁴, including the “lords spiritual”⁵: the Archbishop of Canterbury⁶, the Archbishop of York⁷, and

¹ the House of Lords — Палата лордов

² the House of Commons — Палата общин

³ King Edward I ['edwəd də'fə:st] — король Эдуард I

⁴ peers [piəz] — пэры

⁵ “lords spiritual [spɪ'ritʃuəl]” — высшее духовенство

⁶ the Archbishop [ɑ:tʃ'biʃəp] of Canterbury ['kæntəbəri] — архиепископ Кентерберийский

⁷ the Archbishop of York — архиепископ Йоркский



The House of Lords

24 bishops of the Church of England. The peers (with the exception of the “lords spiritual”) have the right to sit in Parliament during their lifetime¹ and transmit their right² to their eldest sons.

During the present century a new practice has appeared: the practice of “creating” new peers. They are called “life peers”, because their children do not inherit their titles like the children of hereditary

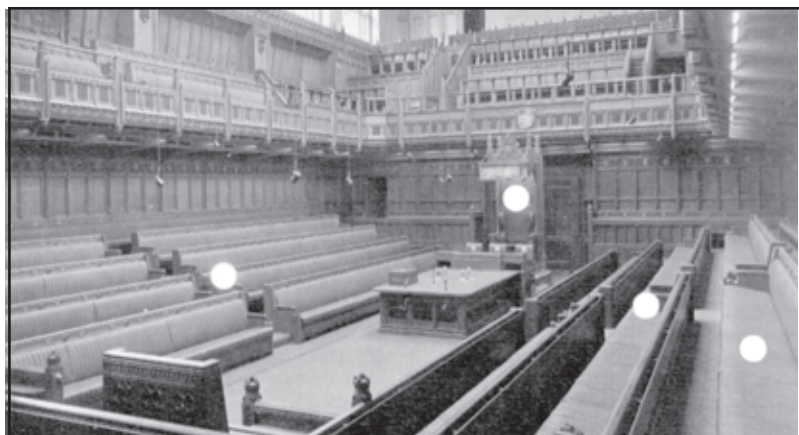
peers. New peers are created by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister. Sometimes a prominent politician is made a peer, sometimes a leading civil servant³ who has served the country well. As a result, about one-third of the Lords today are not representatives of hereditary nobility⁴ but company directors, bankers, newspaper proprietors and other businessmen.

¹ during their lifetime — пожизненно

² transmit [trənz'mɪt] their right — передавать своё право

³ a leading civil ['sɪvɪl] servant — ведущий государственный служащий

⁴ hereditary [hɪ'redɪtəri] nobility — наследственная знать



The House of Commons

The members of the House of Commons are elected by a general election¹. The whole country is divided into constituencies², every one of which chooses one delegate. Big cities are divided into several constituencies each. Members of the House of Commons are elected for five years.

Parliament's main function is to make laws. The procedure of making new laws is as follows: a member of the House of Commons proposes a bill³, which is discussed by the House. If the bill is approved, it is sent to the House of Lords, which, in case it does not like it, has the right to veto it for one year. If the House of Commons passes the bill again the following year, the House of Lords cannot reject it. Finally the bill is sent to the Queen for the "royal assent"⁴, after which it becomes a law.

¹ by a general election — всеобщим голосованием

² constituencies [kən'stitjuənsɪz] — избирательные округа

³ a bill — законопроект

⁴ "royal assent [ə'sent]" — королевское одобрение

The executive branch is headed by the Prime Minister, who is appointed by the king (queen). According to tradition, the Prime Minister is the leader of the party that has won the elections and has the majority in the House of Commons. The Prime Minister appoints the ministers to compose the government. After that the newly appointed ministers are presented to the monarch for the formal approval. The most important ministers of the government (about twenty) form the Cabinet¹. Members of the Cabinet make joint decisions or advise the Prime Minister.

The main function of the executive branch of the government is to administer the laws (to see to it that the laws are carried out, actually to rule the country).

The judicial branch interprets the laws.

The highest judicial body is the Supreme Court of Judicature², which consists of two divisions: the High Court of Justice³ and the Court of Appeal⁴. It is often said that English law is superior to the law of most other countries. Indeed, the English judicial system contains many rules which protect the individual against arbitrary action⁵ by the police and the government.

QUESTIONS.

1. Which are the three branches of state power in the United Kingdom?
2. What body is the legislative power represented by?

¹ the Cabinet — кабинет министров

² the Supreme [sju:'pri:m] Court [kɔ:t] of Judicature ['dʒu:dɪkətʃə] — Верховный суд

³ the High Court of Justice ['dʒʌstɪs] — «Высокий суд» (*суд первой инстанции по гражданским делам с юрисдикцией на территории всей Великобритании*)

⁴ the Court of Appeal [ə'pi:l] — апелляционный суд

⁵ arbitrary [ˈɑ:bitrəri] action — произвольные действия

3. The British Parliament is the oldest parliament in the world, isn't it? Since what time has it existed? How old is it?
4. Which are the two chambers of the British Parliament?
5. How many peers are there in the House of Lords? Who are the "lords spiritual"?
6. Who are "hereditary peers" and "life peers"? How are life peers created?
7. How are the members of the House of Commons elected? How often do general elections of the House of Commons take place?
8. What is the main function of Parliament?
9. Explain in detail how new laws are made.
10. Who is the executive branch headed by?
11. How is the Prime Minister chosen?
12. What is the procedure of forming the government?
13. What is the Cabinet? What is the work of the Cabinet?
14. What is the highest judicial body of the country called? Which two divisions does it consist of?
15. Why is it often said that English law is superior to the law of most other countries?

Part 3. Political Parties.

The two main political parties of Great Britain are the Conservative Party¹ and the Labour Party².

The Conservative Party (otherwise called the Tory³ Party) is right-wing, tending to be opposed to great

¹ the Conservative [kən'sə:vətɪv] Party — Консервативная партия

² the Labour ['leɪbə] Party — Лейбористская партия

³ Tory ['tɔ:ri] — Тори

and sudden changes in the established order of society. It is against state control of industry.

The Labour Party, sometimes called the Socialists, has a close association with the Trade Unions¹, although it is now not as left-wing as it used to be. It has many supporters, especially among working-class and middle-class people.

QUESTIONS.

1. Which are the two main political parties in Great Britain?
2. What is the Conservative Party otherwise called? How can the general policy of the Conservative Party be described?
3. What is the Labour Party sometimes called? What organization does the Labour Party have a close association with? Where does the Labour Party have the majority of supporters?

Part 4. The British Commonwealth of Nations.

For centuries British sailors and merchants travelled all over the world, discovered new lands and claimed them for England². Large territories in North America³, Africa⁴, the whole continent of Australia⁵, New Zealand⁶, India⁷ and a lot of islands in the ocean got under British rule. Thus, gradually, in the

¹ the Trade Unions — профсоюзы

² claimed them for England — объявляли их владениями Англии

³ North America ['nɔ:θ ə'merikə] — Северная Америка

⁴ Africa ['æfrɪkə] — Африка

⁵ Australia [ɔ:'streɪljə] — Австралия

⁶ New Zealand ['nju:zɪ'lənd] — Новая Зеландия

⁷ India ['ɪndiə] — Индия

course of centuries, the huge British Empire¹ came into being. After World War II, with the growth of national liberation movement² in the world, the countries which were dependent on Great Britain and formed parts of the British Empire, began claiming independence³. As a result of this movement, the British Empire fell apart⁴. However, centuries-long economic, cultural and political ties of these former colonies and dominions with Great Britain were too strong for them to completely break away from each other, and it was found advisable to maintain the old ties. A new organization was established: the British Commonwealth of Nations⁵, including about 50 independent states which were formerly parts of the British Empire. The British Commonwealth of Nations encourages trade and friendly relations among its members. The Queen is the official head of the Commonwealth.

QUESTIONS.

1. How was the British Empire formed?
2. What international movement brought about the fall of the British Empire? When did this movement start?
3. Why didn't former dependent countries completely break away from Great Britain? Why was it found advisable to maintain the old ties?

¹ the British Empire ['brɪtɪ'empaɪə] — Британская империя

² national ['næʃənəl] liberation [lɪbə'reɪʃn] movement — национально-освободительное движение

³ began claiming independence [ɪndə'pendəns] — начали требовать независимости

⁴ fell apart — распалась

⁵ the British Commonwealth ['kɒmənwelθ] of Nations — Британское содружество наций

4. What is the name of the new association of former British colonies and dominions?
5. What does the British Commonwealth of Nations encourage?
6. Who is the official head of the British Commonwealth of Nations?

CHAPTER REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

superior, interprets, legislative, existed, peers, inherit, laws, approved, veto, executive, majority, Cabinet, administer, confirmed, justice, guaranteed, power, undergone, absolute, descendant, reigning, hereditary, parliamentary.

1. The British Parliament has _____ since 1265.
2. The judicial branch _____ laws.
3. Great Britain is a _____ monarchy.
4. If a bill is _____ by the House of Commons, it is sent to the House of Lords.
5. The Bill of Rights _____ certain rights of the people.
6. It is often said that English law is _____ to the law of most other countries.
7. The monarchy in Great Britain is founded on _____ principle.
8. The most important ministers of the government form the _____.
9. According to tradition, the Prime Minister is the leader of the party which has the _____ in the House of Commons.
10. The children of life peers do not _____ their titles.

11. Habeas Corpus Act _____ to a person arrested the right to appear in court of _____.
12. The _____ monarch Queen Elizabeth II is a _____ of the Saxon king Egbert.
13. The main function of the executive branch is to _____ laws.
14. Many leading principles, conventions and laws have _____ modifications in agreement with the advance of civilization.
15. The power of the queen of England is not _____.
16. The _____ branch of power is represented by Parliament.
17. The House of Lords consists of more than 1000 _____.
18. Magna Carta set certain limits on royal _____.
19. The _____ branch of power is headed by the Prime Minister.
20. Parliament's main function is to make _____.
21. The House of Lords has the right to _____ a bill for one year.

Write a 200-word composition on the political system of the United Kingdom.

SECTION TWO

HISTORY

UNIT ONE

THE EARLY DAYS OF BRITAIN

Around 10,000 BC Britain was peopled by small groups of hunters and fishers. They followed herds of deer, which provided them with food and clothing.

In the course of time, different groups of people kept arriving in Britain, bringing their customs and skills. The Romans, who occupied Britain in the 1st century, brought the skills of reading and writing. The written word was important for spreading ideas and culture.

CHAPTER 1

ANCIENT BRITONS

Part 1. The Ancient Population.

Little is known about the ancient population of the British Isles. Like other primitive people in other parts of the world, they lived in caves and hunted animals for food. Gradually they learned to grow corn and breed domestic animals. They made primitive tools and weapons of stone. Later they learned to smelt metal and make metal tools and weapons. Archaeolo-



A hut of ancient people inhabiting the British Isles (reconstruction)

gists find their tools and weapons, as well as remains of primitive houses.

These people were religious, though we know very little about their religion. Some temples which they built still stand in many parts of England and Scotland. These temples are also very primitive. They are just circles of great stones standing vertically. The greatest of them is Stonehenge¹ in the south of England.

QUESTIONS

1. Where did the ancient population of Britain live? How did they get their food?
2. What material did they use to make tools and weapons?
3. What is known about the religion of the ancient population of Britain?

¹ Stonehenge ['stounhendʒ] — Стоунхендж

Part 2. Who were the Britons?

About 500–600 BC new people — the Celts¹ — appeared in Britain. They were tall, strong people with long red or sandy hair, armed with iron swords and knives which were much stronger than the bronze weapons used by the native population. They crossed the English Channel from the territory of the present-



A Briton

day France. The Romans called these people Britons and the island — Britannia. In the course of centuries the Britons partly killed the native population, partly mixed with it.

The Britons were skilful workers. They made things out of iron, bronze, tin, clay and wood, and decorated them with beautifully drawn lines and patterns². They made money out of gold and silver. They began to make roads, along which they travelled about the country, buying and selling things.

There were some good and rather big houses in Britain, which had many rooms and corridors. The richer Britons lived in these big houses. When they had feasts in their houses, they sat round low tables. There were no forks or spoons. They took big pieces of meat in their fingers and tore them apart, or cut them with their knives. They drank from big cups made of earthenware or silver.

¹ the Celts [kelts] — кельты

² patterns — узоры



A village of Britons

Not all parts of Britain were civilized. In the mountains and forests of the west and north there were people who did not know the use of iron and did not use money. They had no real houses, but still lived in caves. The parts in the south-east of Britain were most civilized, because they were nearest to the continent, from which people got new knowledge.

QUESTIONS

1. Where did the Britons come from? How did they look? What were they armed with?
2. The Britons were skilful workers, weren't they? What could they do?
3. What do we know about the Britons' way of life? What kind of houses did they have? Did they have forks or knives? What did they make their plates and cups of?
4. Which parts of Britain were most civilized? Why?

Part 3. Their Religion.

The Britons were polytheistic, that is they believed in many gods. They believed that different gods lived in the thickest and darkest parts of the forests. Some plants, such as the mistletoe and the oak-tree, were considered sacred. Some historians think that the Britons were governed by a class of priests called Druids¹ who had great power over them. Stonehenge was the temple of the Druids, just as it had been the temple of the primitive men before. The Druids were cruel men and their ways of worshipping their gods were cruel too. They often declared that a god was angry, and to get the god's pardon the people had to

¹ Druids ['druidz] — друиды

offer up sacrifices of human beings. The Druids put men into huge baskets and burned them in the presence of the people.

The Britons often fought among themselves. The remains of forts built by the Britons can be seen in different parts of the country. From time to time the Britons had feasts and entertainments. During a feast a minstrel usually sang songs about brave deeds of famous warriors. After the minstrel's songs his listeners began to boast of their own brave deeds. And when they had drunk too much, they began quarrelling and fighting, and usually some men were killed.

QUESTIONS

1. What do we call the people who believe in many gods?
2. Where did the gods live, according to the early Britons' religion?
3. Who were the Druids? How did they worship their gods?
4. How did the Britons entertain themselves during the feasts?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

minstrel, temples, to smelt, sacred, polytheistic, Druids, caves, swords, corn, worshipping, hunted, breed, sacrifices, to boast, ancient.

1. The _____ population of the British Isles lived in _____ and _____ animals for food.
2. Gradually people learned to grow _____ and _____ domestic animals.

3. The Britons were armed with iron _____ and knives.
4. The Britons were governed by a class of priests called _____.
5. During their feasts the Britons liked _____ of their brave deeds.
6. The Druids' ways of _____ their gods were strange and cruel.
7. The Druids offered up _____ of human beings.
8. The Britons were _____, that is they believed in many gods.
9. The mistletoe and the oak-tree were considered _____.
10. Ancient people learned _____ metal and make metal tools and weapons.
11. Some ancient _____ still stand in many parts of England and Scotland.
12. During a feast a _____ usually sang songs about brave deeds of famous warriors.

CHAPTER 2

THE ROMANS

Part 1. The Coming of the Romans.

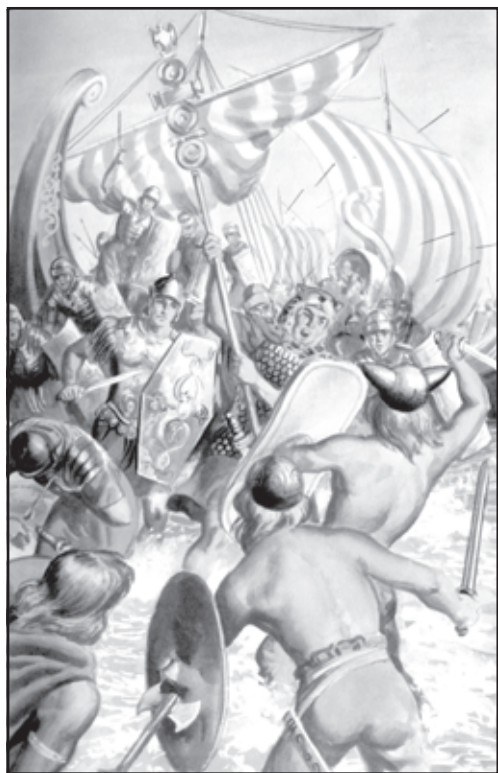
In the year 55 BC the great Roman general Julius Caesar¹ sailed to Britain with about 12,000 soldiers in eighty ships. When they were near the coast, they saw the Britons armed with spears and swords, ready to fight them. Still the Roman soldiers landed and fought with the Britons. They won

¹ Julius Caesar ['dʒu:lɪəs 'si:zə] — Юлий Цезарь



Julius Caesar in Britain

the battle, but did not stay long and soon departed. In the following year Julius Caesar came to Britain again. This time, after fighting the Britons on the shore, the Romans marched north-west where London stands today. The British attacked them in chariots and on foot, but the Romans had better arms and armour, and were much better trained. The Britons could not stop them.



The Romans landing in Britain

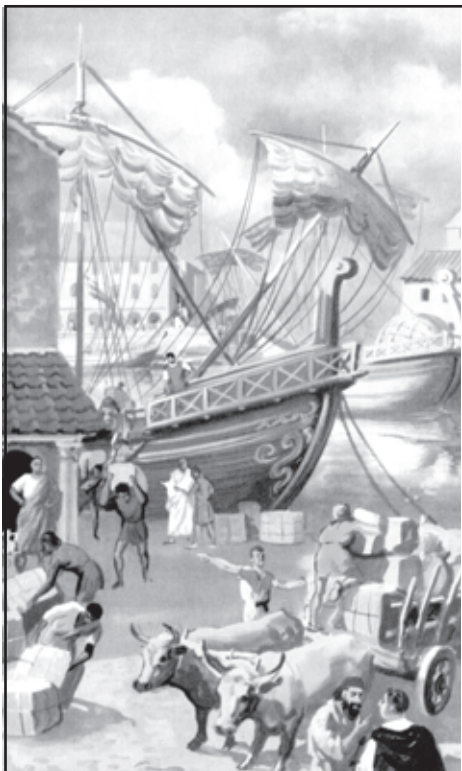
Having stayed in Britain some time, the Romans left again and did not appear on the British shores for about a hundred years. Then, in the year 43 AD, the Roman Emperor Claudius¹ sent a general with 40,000 men to conquer Britain all over again. The British fought bravely, but could not hold back the trained Roman army. Soon the whole of the south of Britain was conquered.

The Romans were very practical people, and the first thing they did in Britain was to make and fortify the ports where they landed their soldiers and supplies. The Roman ports were very well built, with stone quays and warehouses. There were big cranes, which lifted the cargo from the ships' holds, and many carts transported goods along the great Roman roads which ran in long straight lines to different parts of the country.

¹ Claudius ['klo:dʒəs] — Клавдий

QUESTIONS

1. How many times did Julius Caesar come to Britain? When was it? What did he do the first and the second time?
2. When did the Romans come and stay in Britain?
3. What facts show that the Romans were practical people?
4. How were the Roman ports built and what equipment did they have?

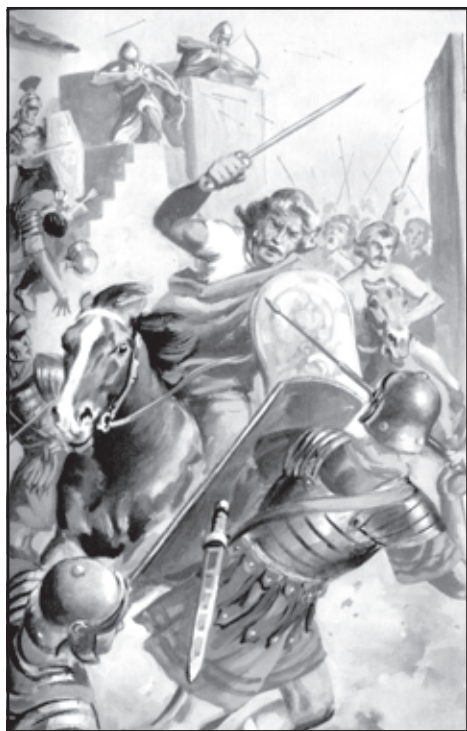


A Roman port

Part 2. The Revolt of Queen Boadicea¹.

Although the Romans had occupied Britain, there were many British men and women hidden away in the great forests and swamps who refused to submit. These men were fierce fighters, and they often came out of their hiding places and attacked small Roman forts or outposts. Then, when the Romans brought up reinforcements, they disappeared into the forests where the Romans could not find them.

¹ Boadicea [ˌboʊədɪˈsiːə] — Бодисея



Fighting off the rebellious Britons

Some of the British tribes were more warlike than others, and one of these was the tribe of the Iceni¹, who lived in what is now Norfolk². In those days this part of England was covered with swamps, and the Roman soldiers had never completely conquered it.

Less than twenty years after the Roman invasion, the men of the Iceni tribe revolted headed by their warlike Queen Boadicea.

The Roman army was far away fighting in North Wales, when Boadicea, with 100,000 fighting men, destroyed first the Roman town of Colchester³, and then, soon afterwards, the towns of London and St Albans⁴. These towns were all burned to the ground, and all the people were cruelly killed.

The Roman Governor of Britain at that time was a famous soldier named Suetonius⁵. When the news of

¹ Iceni [aɪˈsiːnaɪ] — Ицени

² Norfolk ['nɔːfək] — Норфолк

³ Colchester ['kɒltʃɪstə] — Колчестер

⁴ St Albans [sntˈɔːlbənz] — Сент Олбанс

⁵ Suetonius [swiːˈtʊnjəs] — Суетоний

the revolt of the Iceni reached him, he was in the middle of a campaign against the men of Wales. In spite of it he decided that he must march across England and attack Boadicea and the Iceni as soon as possible.

He had about 10,000 trained Roman soldiers with him, and although Boadicea had ten times that number, Suetonius had no doubt that the training and discipline of the Roman army would give him the victory.

Suetonius placed his men on the slope of a hill, protected by woods on both sides. The British thought that the Romans were trapped, and they crowded in the woods to attack them. At the right moment, when Boadicea's men were so crowded together that they could not use their arms, the Romans attacked, and the British were completely beaten.



Queen Boadicea

QUESTIONS

1. How did the Britons fight against the Romans? Why was it difficult for the Romans to crush them?

2. Who was Boadicea? How many men did she gather in her army?
3. Where was the Roman army when Boadicea destroyed Colchester, London and St Albans?
4. Why was Suetonius sure that he would win a victory in spite of the fact that Boadicea's men greatly outnumbered his army? What advantages did his army have over the army of the Iceni queen?
5. What tactics did Suetonius use to beat Boadicea's army?

Part 3. Britain under the Romans.

In the year 70 AD, when the Romans had been nearly thirty years in Britain, many Britons could not remember a time when the country had been free, and it seemed quite natural to them to be governed,

not by British kings or chiefs, but by Governors from Rome.

There were still three legions of Roman soldiers in the country, but everything was now so quiet that the soldiers spent most of their time enjoying themselves in sports or at the games in the amphitheatres.

Although Britain was now fairly peace-



Roman soldiers

ful, the Romans realized that at any moment some tribe might try to revolt. So they built forts in many parts of the country, in which they stationed small groups of soldiers.

For the next three hundred and twenty-five years Britain remained a Roman province, governed by Roman Governors and protected by the Roman legions. During this time there were long periods of peace, and Britain became a civilized country of towns and villages and good roads.

Wherever the Romans went, they built roads. If we look at a modern map of England, we see that there are great main highways running across the country, often in long straight lines, from one town to another. Many of these roads which are still in use today, were built by the Romans.



A Roman fort



Roman roads in Britain



A kitchen in a Roman house (reconstruction)

The south of England was covered with the villas of wealthy Romans and Britons. There were large farmhouses, often with water supply and baths.

QUESTIONS

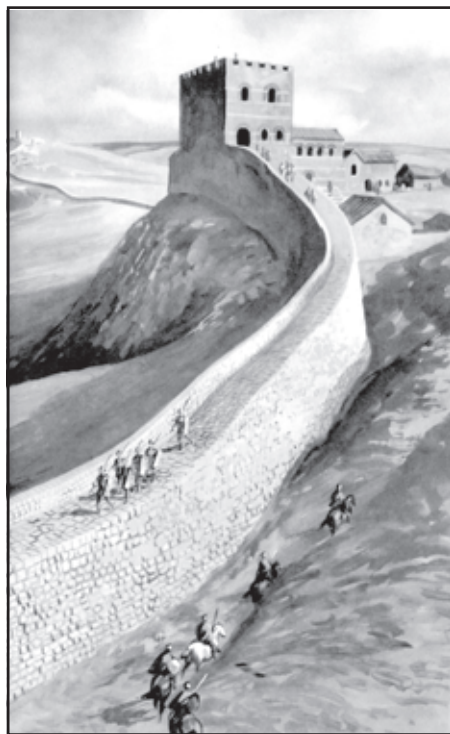
1. Why did it seem natural for many Britons to be ruled by Roman Governors?
2. How many Roman soldiers were constantly stationed in Britain?
3. Britain was now fairly peaceful, wasn't it? How did the Roman soldiers spend much of their time?
4. Why did the Romans build forts in many parts of the country?
5. What kind of country did Britain gradually become under Roman rule?
6. What reminds us of the Roman rule when we look at a modern map of England?
7. What kind of houses did wealthy Romans and Britons live in?

Part 4. Hadrian's Wall.

In the year 122 the Roman Emperor Hadrian¹ came to Britain. Hadrian was a great traveller and wherever he went in the Roman Empire, he strengthened its frontiers.

Some years before there had been a serious rebellion in the north of Britain. Tribes of the Picts², the people who lived to the north and south of the Scottish border, had risen in revolt and killed the whole of the 9th Roman legion which was stationed at York³. Not a man was left.

The rebellion was crushed, but Hadrian decided that in future it should be made much more difficult for the Picts to cross the border into peaceful Britain. So he chose three legions of Roman soldiers — about 20,000 men — and set them the task of building a great wall running right across the country from Newcastle⁴ on



Hadrian's Wall

¹ Hadrian ['heɪdrɪən] — Адриан

² Picts [pɪkts] — пикты

³ York [jɔ:k] — Йорк

⁴ Newcastle ['nju:kɑ:sl] — Ньюкасл

the eastern shore to Carlisle¹ on the western shore. In seven years the building of the wall was finished. Parts of this wall can still be seen.

Hadrian's wall was seventy-three miles long, seven to ten feet thick, and sixteen to twenty feet high. It was built of stone and it had a row of forts situated about four miles from each other. At every mile there was a strong tower which held a hundred men, and at every third of a mile there was a signal turret. Hadrian's Wall was the strongest of all the Roman frontier fortifications.

QUESTIONS

1. When did Emperor Hadrian come to Britain?
2. Who were the Picts?
3. What fact gave Emperor Hadrian the idea to build the famous wall?
4. How long did it take to build Hadrian's Wall? How long was it? How thick? How high? Was it built of stone, earth or wood? How far apart were the towers and signal turrets?

Part 5. Roman Towns.

The Romans remained in Britain for three hundred and fifty years, and during that time they built many towns. Strangely enough, London was not the chief town in early Roman times. The capital city, from which the Romans governed the island, was Colchester.

Many of these towns were large. The walls of St Albans, for instance, were two miles round, and the town covered two hundred acres of land. We know

¹ Carlisle [ка:'laɪl] — Карлайл

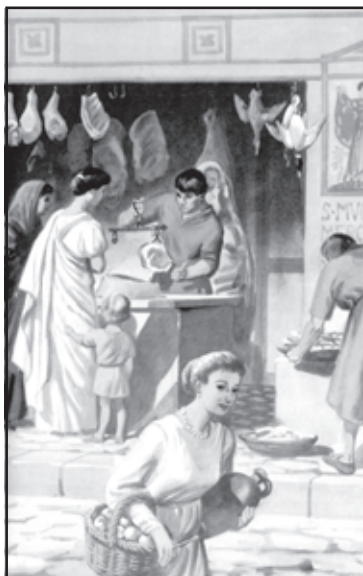
where the Roman towns have stood from the names of the English towns which were later built on their ruins. The names of modern towns ending in *-chester* or *-caster*, like *Dorchester*¹ or *Lancaster*², come from the Latin word *castra* meaning a camp or a fortified place.

Each large town had a theatre, open to the sky, with some seats in a great semi-circle. Many towns had amphitheatres like the Coliseum³ in Rome, but smaller. Here the soldiers did military exercises and played all sorts of games.

There were shops in all Roman-British towns. The shops were usually located on two sides of the main square. The shops were of all kinds: butcher's, baker's and greengrocer's; there were shoemak-



A Roman town

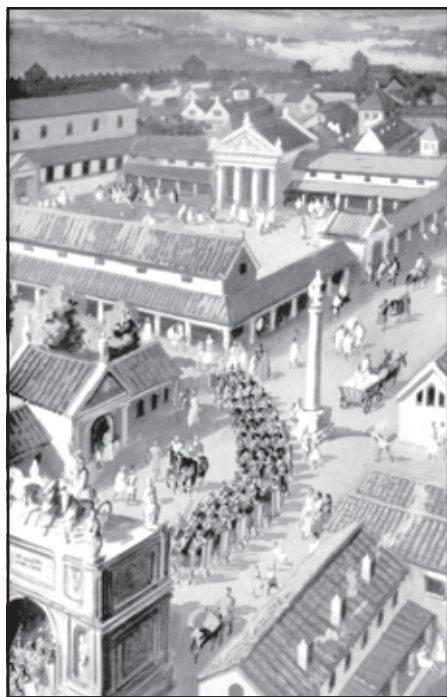


Shopping in a Roman town

¹ *Dorchester* ['dɔ:tʃɪstə] —
Дорчестер

² *Lancaster* ['læŋkəstə] —
Ланкастер

³ *Coliseum* [ˌkɒlɪ'siəm] —
Колизей



A Roman town

er's, and locksmith's, carpenter's and jeweller's shops. Tailors and leather workers could be seen at work behind their counters, and everywhere merchants invited the passers-by to buy their goods.

The customers were as varied as the merchants: Britons in rough woollen clothes, Romans in togas, soldiers in scarlet and brass, women in graceful dresses and cloaks, and slaves in short tunics. It was a busy scene.

The social centre of every Roman town was the great building of the baths. This building usually occupied one side of the main square and contained, in addition to the hot and cold baths, the law courts¹, the municipal offices², the school building and the gymnasium³.

The Romans believed in keeping clean. They built wonderful baths and used them two or three times a

¹ law courts ['lɔ:kɔ:ts] — суд

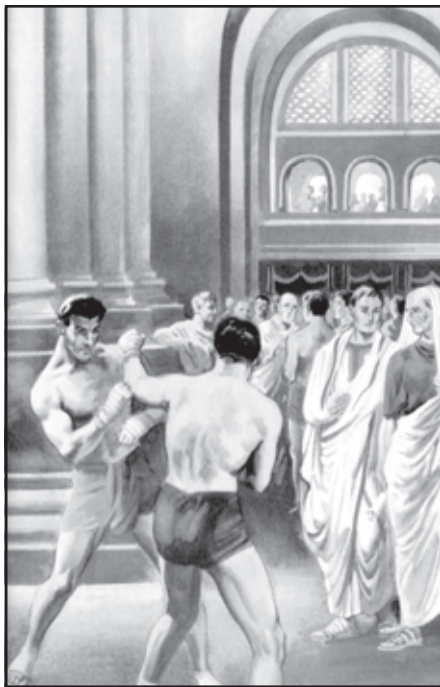
² municipal offices [mju'nɪsɪpəl'ɒfɪsɪz] — муниципальные учреждения

³ gymnasium [dʒɪm'neɪzjəm] — спортивный зал

day. After the bath the young Romans went into the large high gymnasium to practice boxing and wrestling and all kinds of gymnastics.

At the same time, the Roman gymnasium was much more than just a place for physical exercise. Many business operations were done in it. There were places, too, in this large building, where people could buy food and drink. In fact, a Roman citizen could go

to the baths in the morning and spend the whole busy day there, without wasting a moment.



A gymnasium

QUESTIONS

1. How long did the Romans stay in Britain? What town was their capital?
2. How do we know from the name of a town that it was built in Roman times?
3. Were there theatres in large towns?
4. What were the amphitheatres for?
5. Where were the shops usually located? What shops were they?
6. What clothes did different groups of people wear?

7. What was the centre of social life in every Roman town?
8. Did the building of the baths contain only baths? What else did it contain?
9. What is a gymnasium? What facts show that the Romans attached great importance to sports?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

gymnasium, customers, Hadrian's, chariots, arms, baths, wrestling, fortified, province, tribes, quays, fortifications, cargo, cranes, armour, warehouses, to submit, holds.

1. The Britons attacked the Romans in _____ and on foot.
2. The Romans had better _____ and _____ than the Britons.
3. The Roman well-built ports had stone _____ and _____.
4. There were big _____ in the Roman ports for lifting the _____ from the ships' _____.
5. There were many Britons who refused _____ to the Romans.
6. Some of the British _____ were more warlike than the others.
7. Britain remained a Roman _____ for over three hundred years.
8. _____ Wall was the strongest of all the Roman frontier _____.
9. The Latin word *castra* means a camp or a _____ place.

10. The _____ in the shops were as varied as the merchants.
11. The social centre of every Roman town was the great building of the _____.
12. After the bath the young Romans went into the large high _____ to practice boxing and _____.

CHAPTER 3 ANGLO-SAXON ENGLAND

Part 1. The Invasion by Anglo-Saxons.

Towards the end of the 4th century Europe was invaded by barbaric tribes. The Romans had to leave Britain because they were needed to defend their own country. The Britons were left to themselves, but they had very little peace. Very soon sea-robbers came sailing in ships from the continent. These invaders were Germanic¹ tribes called Angles², Saxons³ and Jutes⁴. They were wild and fearless people, and the



The Anglo-Saxon invasions and
the kindoms they established

¹ Germanic [dʒə'mænik] — германские

² Angles [æŋɡlz] — англý

³ Saxons ['sæksənz] — саксы

⁴ Jutes [dʒu:ts] — юты



An Anglo-Saxon village (reconstruction)

Britons could never drive them away. The Britons fought many battles, but at last they were forced to retreat to the west of Britain. Those who stayed became the slaves of the Anglo-Saxons.

For a long time the tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes fought with one another for supreme power. Britain split up into seven kingdoms: Kent¹, Sussex², Essex³, Wessex⁴, Mercia⁵, East Anglia⁶, and Northumbria⁷.

The Anglo-Saxons lived in small villages. Round each village there was a ditch and an earthen wall with a wooden fence on top. The earthen wall and the fence served to defend the village against robbers and wild beasts.

¹ Kent [kent] — Кент

² Sussex ['sʌsəks] — Сассекс

³ Essex ['esəks] — Эссекс

⁴ Wessex ['wesəks] — Уэссекс

⁵ Mercia ['mɜːʃiə] — Мерсия

⁶ East Anglia ['iːst'æŋgliə] — Восточная Англия

⁷ Northumbria [nɔː'θʌmbriə] — Нортумбрия



A ditch and wall surrounding a village

The Anglo-Saxons were tall, strong men, with blue eyes and long blond hair. They were dressed in tunics and cloaks which they fastened with a brooch above the right shoulder. On their feet they wore rough leather shoes. Their usual weapons were a spear and a shield. Some rich men had iron swords,



An Anglo-Saxon warrior



An Anglo-Saxon woman

which they carried at their left side. The women wore long dresses with wide sleeves. Their heads were covered with a hood.

In their villages the Anglo-Saxons bred cows, sheep and pigs. They ploughed the fields and grew wheat, rye or oats for bread and barley for beer.

QUESTIONS.

1. What tribes was Europe invaded by towards the end of the 4th century?
2. Why did the Romans leave Britain?
3. What tribes invaded Britain after the Romans left?
4. What parts of Britain did the Angles, Saxons and Jutes settle in?
5. What did the Britains have to do? Did all of them go to the west? What happened to those who remained?
6. Why did the tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes fight with one another?
7. Which seven kingdoms were finally formed in Britain?
8. Did the Anglo-Saxons live in towns?
9. Why were the Anglo-Saxon villages surrounded by walls and ditches?
10. How did the Anglo-Saxons look? What clothes did they wear?
11. What weapons did the Anglo-Saxons have?
12. What domestic animals did the Anglo-Saxons breed? What did they grow on their fields?

Part 2. Christianity.

Christianity first penetrated to Britain in the 3rd century. It was brought there from Rome¹ by Christian refugees who were fiercely prosecuted for their faith at home. In the year 306, the Roman Emperor Constantine² the Great stopped the prosecution of the Christians and became a Christian himself. Christianity was made the Roman national faith. It was brought to all dependent countries. It became the official religion in Britain, too. The Druids disappeared. The new religion was called the Catholic³ Church (“catholic” means “universal”). The Greek⁴ and Latin⁵ languages became the languages of the Church all over Europe.

When the Anglo-Saxons, who were pagans, invaded Britain, most of the British Christians were killed. Those who remained alive, fled to Wales and Ireland, where they lived in groups called Brethren⁶ (brotherhoods). They built churches and devoted themselves to worship. They told people stories of Christian martyrs⁷ and visitations by saints⁸ (called visions). Such stories were typical of the literature of that time.

Towards the end of the 6th century Christian monks began coming from Rome to Britain again. The head of the Roman Church at that time was Pope Gregory⁹. He wanted to spread his influence over England

¹ Rome [roum] — Рим

² Constantine ['kɒnstəntaɪn] — Константин

³ Catholic ['kæθəlɪk] — католическая

⁴ Greek [gri:k] — греческий

⁵ Latin ['lætɪn] — латинский

⁶ Brethren ['breðrən] — Братья

⁷ martyrs ['mɑ:təz] — мученики

⁸ visitations by saints — явления святых

⁹ Pope [pəʊp] Gregory ['ɡregəri] — папа Григорий

by converting the people to Christianity. He sent monks to convert the Anglo-Saxons. The monks landed in Kent (the south-eastern part of Britain), and the first church they built was in the town of Canterbury¹. Up to this day Canterbury has remained the English religious centre and the seat of the Archbishop of Canterbury², head of the Established Church of England³.

QUESTIONS.

1. When did Christianity first penetrate to Britain? Who brought it there?
2. When did the prosecution of Christians stop in Rome? Who stopped it?
3. What was the new Christian religion officially called? What does *Catholic* mean?
4. What languages became the languages of the Church?
5. What happened to many of the early British Christians with the coming of the Anglo-Saxons?
6. Who were Brethren? What did they devote themselves to? What stories did they tell people?
7. In what century did Christian monks begin coming to Britain again?
8. Why did Pope Gregory want to convert the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity?
9. Why is the town of Canterbury considered the English religious centre?

¹ Canterbury ['kæntəbəri] — Кентербери

² the Archbishop [ɑ:t'brɪʃəp] of Canterbury — архиепископ Кентерберийский

³ the Established Church of England — Господствующая церковь Англии

Part 3. The Raids of the Danes. Uniting the Country.

As we know, Anglo-Saxon Britain was not a united country. There were a lot of small kingdoms which constantly waged wars against one another for supreme power. As a result, these little kingdoms were weak and could not hold out against attacks from abroad.

Beginning with the 8th century, pirates from Scandinavia¹ and Denmark² began raiding the eastern shores of Britain. They are known in English history as the Danes³. They were brave, cruel and merciless people. They landed their long boats, killed and robbed the population of the towns and villages and sailed away. They returned over and over again and continued killing and robbing the population. Gradually they began settling in Britain and seized more and more land.

The Anglo-Saxons understood that their small kingdoms must unite in order to struggle against the Danes successfully. In the 9th century Egbert⁴, the



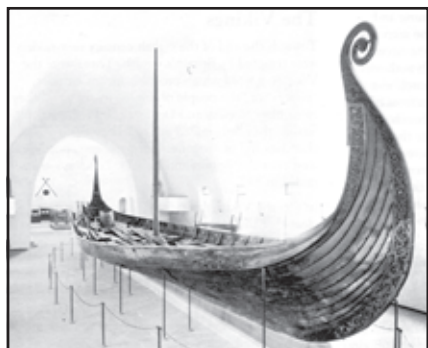
Invasions from Scandinavia
and Denmark

¹ Scandinavia [ˌskændɪˈneɪvjə] — Скандинавия

² Denmark ['denma:k] — Дания

³ the Danes [deɪnz] — датчане

⁴ Egbert ['egbət] — Эгберт



A Viking (Danes') ship

king of Wessex, one of the stronger Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, united several neighbouring kingdoms. The united kingdom got the name of England, and Egbert became the first king of the united country.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who raided the eastern shores of Britain in the 8th century? Where did the pirates come from?
2. Why was it impossible for the Anglo-Saxons to hold out against the Danes?
3. What kind of people were the Danes? What did they do on the British shores?
4. Who was Egbert? What did he do?

Part 4. Alfred the Great.

Alfred¹, the grandson of Egbert, became king in the year 871, when England's danger was greatest. The Danes, who had settled on the eastern shores of Britain, continued robbing and killing the people of England and occupying more and more land. Alfred gathered a big army and gave the Danes a great battle at Maldon² in 891. The Danes were defeated in this battle, but still they remained very strong and dangerous, and Alfred hurried to make peace with

¹ Alfred ['ælfɹəd] — Альфред

² Maldon ['mɔ:ldən] — Молдон

them. He had to give the Danes the greater portion of England. The kingdom that was left in Alfred's possession was Wessex. There were some years of peace, and during this time Alfred built the first English navy.

Alfred is the only king of England who got the name "the Great." And he was really a great king. He was very well educated for his time. He had learned to read and write when he was quite young. He had travelled on the continent and visited France. He knew Latin. He is famous not only for having built the first navy, but also for having tried to enlighten his people. He worked out a code of laws. He translated the Church history and parts of the Bible¹ from Latin into Anglo-Saxon. He started *the* famous *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*², which is the first history of England: it begins with the history of the early Britons. *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* was continued by various authors for 250 years after the death of Alfred.

QUESTIONS.

1. When did Alfred become king of England?
2. Why did Alfred have to fight with the Danes?
3. In what year did Alfred win a victory at Maldon?
4. Why did Alfred have to give the Danes a great portion of the territory of England in spite of the fact that he had won a victory over them at Maldon?
5. How did Alfred use the time of peace that followed the battle of Maldon?
6. When did Alfred learn to read and write?

¹ the Bible [baɪbl] — Библия

² *the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* ['krɒnɪkl] — «Англо-саксонские хроники»

7. Alfred was a very educated man for his time, wasn't he? What works did he translate from Latin into Anglo-Saxon?
8. What is *the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*?

Part 5.

England after Alfred the Great's Reign.

The Anglo-Saxon kings that ruled after Alfred the Great, continued fighting the Danes, until all England was once more ruled by English kings. But eighty years after Alfred's death the Danes came again with great armies and occupied much of the territory. Again Britain was divided into two parts: the northern part ruled by the Danes, and Wessex in the south ruled by English kings. The Danes continued their attacks on Wessex and finally occupied the whole of the territory. In 1016, the king of Denmark Canute¹ became also the king of England.

Canute was a strong monarch and gave England peace for nearly twenty years. When he died in 1035, his two sons ruled England for a short time one after the other. With the death of Canute's second son in 1042, the Danish rule was over. An English king came to the throne. It was Edward the Confessor². He got the name of Confessor for being a very religious man. The famous Westminster Abbey³ in London was built during his reign, and when he died in 1066 he was buried in the Abbey.

¹ Canute [kə'nju:t] — Канут

² Edward ['edwəd] the Confessor [kən'fesə] — Эдуард Исповедник

³ The Westminster Abbey ['westmɪnstə'æbi] — Вестминстерское аббатство

QUESTIONS

1. What was the name of the Danish king who became also king of England? When was it?
2. How long did Canute rule England?
3. When was the Danish rule over?
4. Who became king of England in 1042?
5. What kind of man was Edward the Confessor? What did he build?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

split up, to retreat, Germanic, barbaric, ploughed, Confessor, Chronicle, Christianity, converting, to enlighten, bred, worship, ditch, spear, prosecuted, fled, Catholic, Canterbury, shield, Archbishop.

1. Towards the end of the 4th century Europe was invaded by _____ tribes.
2. Britain was invaded by _____ tribes called Angles, Saxons and Jutes.
3. After severe battles with the invaders the Britons were forced _____ to the west.
4. Britain _____ into seven kingdoms.
5. _____ was brought: to Britain from Rome.
6. The first Christians were fiercely _____ in Rome.
7. The new Christian religion was called the _____ Church.
8. Many British Christians _____ to Wales and Ireland, where they built churches and devoted themselves to _____.
9. Pope Gregory wanted to spread his influence over England by _____ the people to Christianity.
10. The _____ of _____ is head of the Established

Church of England.

11. King Alfred the Great was trying _____ the people.
12. The Anglo-Saxon _____ is called the first history of England.
13. Round each of their villages Britons made a _____ and an earthen wall.
14. The usual weapons of an Anglo-Saxon were a _____ and a _____.
15. In their villages the Anglo-Saxons _____ cows, sheep and pigs.
16. The Anglo-Saxons _____ the fields and grew wheat, rye and oats.
17. Westminster Abbey was built during the reign of Edward the _____.

UNIT REVIEW

Who were these people? What did they do? Write in short about each of them.

Julius Caesar

Boadicea

Suetonius

Hadrian

Alfred the Great

Edward the Confessor

UNIT TWO

MEDIEVAL BRITAIN

William the Conqueror¹ organized his English kingdom according to the feudal system which had already begun to develop in Europe. The central idea of feudal society was that all land was owned by the king but it was held by others, called vassals, in return for services and goods. The king gave large estates to his main nobles in return for a promise to serve him in war. The nobles also had to give him part of the produce of the land. The greater nobles gave part of their lands to lesser nobles, called knights, and other freemen. Some freemen paid for the land by doing military service, while others paid rent. The noble kept serfs to work on his land. These serfs were not free to leave the estate and were often little better than slaves.

There were two basic principles to feudalism: every man had a lord, and every lord had land and vassals. At each level a man had to promise loyalty and service to his lord. On the other hand, each lord had responsibilities to his vassals. He had to give them land and protection.

¹ William ['wɪljəm] the Conqueror ['kɒŋkərə] — Вильгельм Завоеватель

CHAPTER 4

ENGLAND AFTER THE NORMAN CONQUEST

Part 1. William the Conqueror.



William the Conqueror

For a hundred and fifty years after the time of Alfred the Great people were continually fighting one another all over England. What the country needed was a strong king who could keep order.

In France there was a young boy named William, who was the son of the Duke of Normandy¹. This was the boy who in the year 1066 came and conquered England.

The Duke Robert² of Normandy, William's father, was a cousin of

King Edward the Confessor of England, and when William was 24 years old he came to England to visit his relative.

When William saw what a green and pleasant country England was, he wanted very much to be its king. King Edward the Confessor liked his young nephew and promised him the crown.

¹ Normandy ['nɔ:məndi] — Нормандия

² Robert ['rɒbət] — Роберт

At the same time there was in England a young Saxon named Harold¹, who was the son of the Earl² of Wessex, one of the most powerful English nobles of the time. Most Saxon nobles did not want a French king, and after Edward the Confessor's death they proclaimed Harold King of England.

William gathered a great army and sailed across the English Channel on hundreds of ships, Harold's army met him on the English coast. There was a great battle at Hastings³ on October 14, 1066. Harold's soldiers fought bravely, but William's army was stronger. Harold was killed in the battle, and with the death of their leader the English understood that the battle was lost.

William marched his army to London. Nobody tried to stop him on the



William of Normandy and King Edward. The Confessor



The battle at Hastings

¹ Harold ['hærəld] — Гарольд

² Earl [ə:l] — граф

³ Hastings ['heɪstɪŋz] — Гастингс



The death of Harold



The English crown
offered to William

way, and when he approached London, he found the gates of the city open. He was met by the Saxon bishops and nobles. They knew that they could not stop William, so they asked him to be the King of England without any more fighting.

So a Norman¹ duke became King of England. He was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas day, the 25th of December, 1066.

To protect himself from possible attacks of the Saxons, William ordered to build a strong tower on the left bank of the Thames. This tower still stands. It is called the White Tower because it is built of white stone. Later other buildings were added and the whole place was surrounded by a stone wall to form a strong fortress which we know now as the Tower of London.

William the Conqueror took lands from Saxon nobles and gave them to his Norman barons who became

¹ Norman ['nɔ:mən] — нормандский

new masters of the land. William and his barons, as well as all the other Normans who had come with him, did not know the Anglo-Saxon language and did not want to learn it. And for a very long time two languages were spoken in the country. Norman-French was the official language of the court, law and government administration. Common Saxon people and the few Saxon nobles who remained alive spoke Anglo-Saxon.

There were many people in England who did not want to be ruled by a Norman king, and in many parts of the country there were rebellions. But with the strong army of his barons and knights, William cruelly put down all the rebellions. Lots of people were killed, villages and towns were completely destroyed.

William sent groups of men all over the country to make lists of all the population together with the information of how much land every family had and how



Bilding the Tower of London



Making the Domesday book

much cattle and what other property they had on their land. All this information was put into a book which was called *the Domesday Book*¹. By means of *the Domesday Book*, William's government knew exactly where everyone lived and how much property they owned. Thus, for the first time in the history of England, it was made possible to collect the right taxes for the king.

QUESTIONS

1. Why was it necessary for England to have a strong king?
2. Whose son was William? Where did he live as a boy? How was his father related to the English king Edward the Confessor?
3. When did William see England for the first time? Why did Edward the Confessor promise William the crown?
4. Who was Harold? Why was he proclaimed King of England after Edward the Confessor's death?
5. When did the battle of Hastings take place? How did it end?
6. Was William's march to London difficult? Why?
7. Why did the Saxon nobles and bishops in London ask William to be King of England? What church was William crowned in? When was it?
8. What fortress did William build on the bank of the Thames to protect himself? Why was it called the White Tower?
9. Why did William take lands from Saxon nobles?
10. How did it happen that for a long time two languages were spoken in the country? Who spoke Norman-French? Who spoke Anglo-Saxon?

¹ *the Domesday Book* ['du:mzdeɪ,buk] — Земельная опись

11. There were rebellions against William's rule. How did he put down the rebellions?
12. What is *the Domesday Book*? How did William make it? What did he make *the Domesday Book* for?

Part 2.

English Kings of the 11th and 12th Centuries.

After William the Conqueror's death in 1087, three more kings of the Norman dynasty ruled England: his two sons, William II (1087–1100) and Henry I¹ (1100–1135), and his grandson, the son of his daughter, Stephen² (1135–1154). After Stephen's death, the English throne passed to the Plantagenet³ dynasty.

William the Conqueror's son Henry I had a daughter, Matilda⁴, who was married to the French count of Anjou⁵, Geoffrey⁶ Plantagenet. Their son Henry Plantagenet was made King of England after Stephen's death in 1154.

Richard I the Lion-Heart (Richard Coeur de Lion)⁷ (1189–1199) was the second king of the Plantagenet dynasty. He was famous for his good education (he knew Latin and was fond of music and poetry) and courage. His contemporaries described him as a man of excellent manners, kind to his friends and cruel and merciless to his enemies. Richard was seldom seen in England, spending most of his time taking

¹ Henry I ['henrɪ də fə:st] — Генрих I

² Stephen [sti:vən] — Стивен

³ Plantagenet [plæn'tædʒɪnɪt] — Плантагенет

⁴ Matilda [mæ'tɪldə] — Матильда

⁵ Anjou [a:ŋ'ʒu:] — Анжу

⁶ Geoffrey ['dʒefrɪ] — Джеффри

⁷ Richard I [rɪtʃəd də'fə:st] the Lion-Heart ['laɪən'hɑ:t] (Richard Coeur de Lion ['kə:də'laɪən]) — Ричард I Львиное Сердце



Henry II's empire

part in crusades¹ in Palestine². At home the barons, in the king's absence, strengthened their castles and acted like little kings. Prince John³, the king's brother, with the help of the barons, tried to seize the English throne. Common people were cruelly oppressed.

Richard the Lion-Heart was killed in one of the battles in France, and the English throne passed to his brother John.

At that time great territories in France belonged to England. Naturally, the French kings and nobles did not like it and wanted to win back these lands, so the English and the French waged continuous wars in France. King John wanted a lot of money to wage these wars. He made the barons give him that money, and the barons did not like it. There was constant struggle for power between the king and the barons. Finally the barons organized an open rebellion. In 1215 the king was made to sign a document called *the Great Charter*⁴ (*Magna Carta* in Latin). For the first time in the history of England, *the Great Charter* officially stated certain rights and liberties of the people, which the king had to respect.

¹ crusades [kru'seɪdz] — крестовые походы

² Palestine ['pælistain] — Палестина

³ John [dʒɒn] — Джон

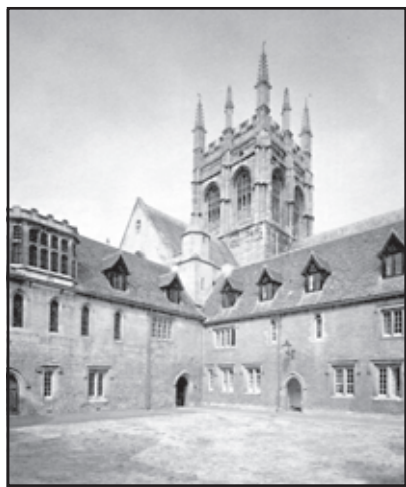
⁴ *the Great Charter* ['tʃɑ:tə] — Великая хартия вольностей

QUESTIONS

1. Who were the three kings of the Norman dynasty who ruled England after William's death? When did they rule?
2. What dynasty came to the English throne after Stephen's death? How was Henry Plantagenet related to William the Conqueror?
3. When did Richard I the Lion-Heart rule England? What was he famous for? How did his contemporaries describe him?
4. Richard did not have much time for ruling England, did he? Where did he spend most of his time?
5. What did Richard's brother Prince John try to do in Richard's absence? Why was the life of common people hard?
6. How did Richard the Lion-Heart die?
7. What fact caused constant wars between England and France?
8. How do you explain the fact that great territories of France belonged to England?
9. What caused an open rebellion of barons against King John in 1215?
10. What important document was the king made to sign in 1215? Why was the document very important?

Part 3. Education. The First Universities.

Before the 12th century most people were illiterate. Reading and writing skills were not considered important or necessary. Monasteries were centres of education, and priests and monks were most educated people.



One of the oldest colleges
in Oxford



A monk copying a book

But with the development of such sciences as medicine and law, organizations of general study called universities appeared in Italy and France. A university had four faculties: Theology¹ (the study of religion), Canon Law² (church laws), Medicine and Art, which included Latin grammar, rhetoric³ (the art of making speeches), logic, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and music.

In the middle of the 12th century a group of professors from France came to Britain and founded schools in the town of Oxford⁴ in 1168. It was the beginning of the first English university. A second university was formed in 1209 in

¹ Theology [θɪ'ɒlədʒɪ] — теология (богословие)

² Canon Law ['kænən,lɔ:] — церковное право

³ rhetoric ['retərɪk] — риторика

⁴ Oxford ['ɒksfəd] — Оксфорд

Cambridge¹. Towards the end of the 13th century colleges appeared around the universities, where other subjects were studied.

Getting an education in those times was very difficult. Printing had not yet been invented, and all the books were hand-written. That's why books were rare and very expensive. Only the richest people could af-



William Caxton

ford buying books. If a man had twenty or thirty books, people said that he had a great library. Special rules existed for handling books. You were not to touch books with dirty hands or put them on the table at meal times. In almost any monastery you could find one or two or more monks spending hours every day copying books.

Printing was invented in the middle of the 15th century in Germany², by *Johann Gutenberg*³. To England it was brought by *William Caxton*⁴.

In his early youth Caxton was an apprentice to a company of London merchants. Later he lived in Flanders⁵ where he worked as a hand-copier of books for the royal family. He was a learned man and did trans-

¹ Cambridge ['keɪmbɪdʒ] — Кембридж

² Germany ['dʒɜːməni] — Германия

³ Johann Gutenberg ['jəʊhən'gutənbɜːg] — Иоганн Гутенберг

⁴ William Caxton ['wɪljəm'kækstən] — Уильям Какстон

⁵ Flanders ['flændəz] — Фландрия



Printers at work

lations from French into English. When he was on business in Germany, he learned the art of printing. In 1476, when Caxton returned to England, he set up the first English printing-press¹ in London. Two years later, a second printing-press was set up in Oxford. During the next fifteen years Caxton printed sixty-five works, both translations and originals.

QUESTIONS

1. Were there many educated people in England before the 12th century? Who were the most educated people?
2. Where did universities first appear in Europe? Which four faculties did a medieval university have? What subjects were studied in each faculty?
3. How was Oxford University founded? When was it? When was Cambridge University opened?
4. It was difficult to get an education in those times, wasn't it? Why were books rare and very expensive? How many books did your library have to contain so that people might say that you had a great library?

¹ printing-press — типография

5. Which were some of the rules for handling books? Wouldn't it be advisable to observe these rules nowadays?
6. When was printing invented? Who invented it? Who brought the art of printing to Britain?
7. When did Caxton set up the first printing-press in London? Where and when was the second printing-press set up? How many books did Caxton print during the next fifteen years?

Part 4. A Medieval Town

Medieval towns were surrounded with walls. It was done to defend the town from possible attacks of enemies. Along the whole length of the wall there were towers with loopholes — very narrow windows — through which the defenders of the town could shoot at the attacking enemies. Round many towns there were moats filled with water. You entered the town by the drawbridge over the moat and through a wide archway with very strong gates which were closed every night.

Outside the walls there were meadows where cattle grazed and where the citizens spent holidays, running races, playing sport games or just walking about.

The houses in medieval towns were built of stone or wood, some of them partly of stone, partly of wood. The second floor overhung the first floor. The streets were very narrow, so the windows of the overhanging second floors of the houses standing on the opposite sides of the street were very close to each other. The narrow streets were very dirty, covered with mud, mixed with all sort of rubbish. People who kept pigs or horses or cows threw all the wastes from the pig-

sties, stables and cow-houses into the street. The streets were never cleaned. The wastes often got into the wells from which the townspeople got their drinking water. There is no wonder that epidemics were very frequent.

On market days farmers living in nearby villages came to the town to sell cheese, butter, eggs and other things. Some of them came with their wives and

children. The shops had no glass windows. Everything was open to the street. Across the front of each shop there was a counter with things for sale. The shopkeeper stood behind the counter. On market days the citizens and the farmers who came to the town were fond of watching plays performed by wandering actors. They usually acted scenes from the Bible.

Many people living in the towns were engaged in craftsmanship. They developed different crafts. In medieval towns there were cobblers, tailors, blacksmiths, goldsmiths, butchers, bakers and a lot of other specialists.



Houses with the second floor overhanging the first

Specialists of different trades (or professions) were united into corresponding trade guilds, which were a kind of professional associations or clubs. Members of a guild obeyed the rules of the guild. One of the rules was to sell the things they made at a fixed price. Nobody was allowed to sell his things cheaper than another member of the guild, for this would increase his trade and spoil the other men's. Today every trader tries to sell cheaper than others to increase his business. It is called competition. There was no competition in the medieval towns. The guilds took care of their members. When members fell ill and lost their trade, they received help. If they died, the guild paid for the funeral, supported the widow and educated the children.

QUESTIONS

1. Why were medieval towns surrounded with walls and moats?
2. What were loopholes? What were they used for? Do you understand why they were made very narrow?
3. How did you enter a medieval town?
4. People living in medieval towns kept cattle, didn't they? Where did the cattle graze?
5. What did the citizens do in the meadows outside the walls of the town on holidays?
6. Were the houses built of stone or wood? Can you explain why the floor space¹ of the second floor of a house was larger than that of the first floor?
7. How did the streets of a medieval town look? Why were they so dirty?

¹ floor space — площадь

8. Of course there was no water supply in the houses. Where did the citizens get water? Why were epidemics frequent?
9. Who came to the town on market days? What for?
10. How did the shops look?
11. What entertainment was organized on market days?
12. What were most people living in the towns engaged in? What craftsmen could you meet in a medieval town?
13. What are trade guilds?
14. How did the guilds take care of their members?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words and word combinations from the list:

guilds, crusades, education, Art, proclaimed, put down, Plantagenet, Canon Law, Hastings, drawbridge, Theology, Magna Carta, crowned, Court, wells, moats, Domesday, to seize, Medicine, Caxton.

1. After Edward the Confessor's death Saxon nobles _____ Harold King of England.
2. There was a great battle at _____ on October 14, 1066.
3. William the Conqueror was _____ in Westminster Abbey.
4. William the Conqueror cruelly _____ all the rebellions.
5. The _____ Book contained information about everybody's property.
6. Norman-French was the official language of the _____.

7. Richard the Lion-Heart was the second king of the _____ dynasty.
8. Richard the Lion-Heart spent most of his time taking part in _____ in Palestine.
9. In the king's absence Prince John tried _____ the English throne.
10. In 1215 the king was made to sign a document called _____.
11. In the Middle Ages monasteries were centres of _____.
12. The art of printing was brought to England by William _____.
13. A medieval university had four faculties: _____, _____, _____ and _____.
14. Round many medieval towns there were _____ filled with water.
15. You entered a medieval town by the _____ over the moat.
16. The wastes often got into the _____ from which people got drinking water.
17. Specialists of different trades were united into corresponding _____.

CHAPTER 5

WARS ABROAD AND AT HOME

Part 1. England in the 14th century.

By the 14th century the process of centralization of the king's power was completing. The same methods of government were applied to all parts of England. The old contradictions between the Normans and Saxons were gradually disappearing.

The Norman kings made London their residence. It became the largest town in England. The London dialect of the English language became the central dialect and was understood throughout the country. It was the London dialect from which the national language developed.

Other towns were also growing. The townspeople, that is the craftsmen and tradesmen, who later formed the class of bourgeoisie, were becoming an important social force. They became rich by trading with Flanders (a country across the English Channel that is now called Belgium¹). The English traders shipped wool to Flanders, where it was sold as raw material². Flanders had busy towns, and the weavers who lived and worked there, produced the finest cloth. Flemish³ ports were the world market of northern Europe and commercial rivals of England. Flemish weavers were even invited to England to teach the English their trade.

QUESTIONS.

1. What town became the largest and most important one in the 14th century?
2. What dialect did the national language of England develop from?
3. What class was growing and becoming an important social force?
4. How did craftsmen and traders become rich?
5. How did the English develop their relations with Flanders?

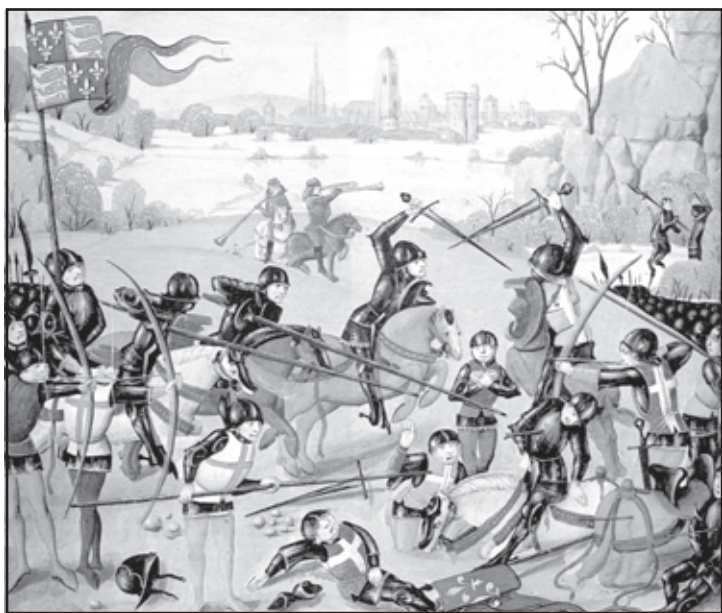
¹ Belgium ['beldʒəm] — Бельгия

² raw material ['rɔ: mə'tiəriəl] — сырьё

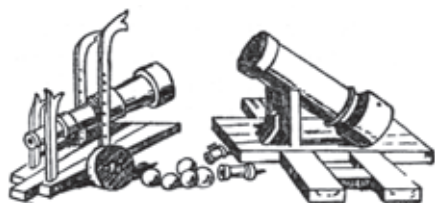
³ Flemish ['flemɪʃ] — фламандский

Part 2. The Hundred Years' War.

In the first half of the 14th century the king of England was Edward III. He was a powerful king, and he wanted to become King of France as well, because some of the French provinces, such as Normandy, had once belonged to England and others had been the property of Edward's mother, a French princess. Meanwhile the feudal lords in France were making plans to seize the free towns of Flanders. For England it would mean losing its wool market. Saying that he wished to defend English trade, Edward III declared war on France in 1337. This war is now called *the Hundred Years' War* because it lasted over a hundred years.



The Hundred Years' War



A cannon



An archer

At first England was successful in the war. The English fleet defeated the French fleet in the English Channel. Then the English also won battles on land. The English had certain advantages over the French. They had cannons, which had just been invented and which the French army did not have. Besides, the English archers could shoot their arrows from a distance, whereas the French knights, armed with swords, could only fight in hand-to-hand combats¹. When the thunder of the first cannons had scared the horses of the enemy, the arrows of the English archers reached the French knights before they could use their broad swords.

QUESTIONS

1. What did Edward III want? On what grounds did he claim² French territories?
2. What plans were the feudal lords of France making? How did their plans threaten England?
3. When did Edward III declare war on France? How did he explain his reason?
4. Was England successful in the war? What were the advantages of the English army over the French army?

¹ hand-to-hand combats ['kɒmbæts] — рукопашные схватки

² On what grounds did he claim — На каком основании он претендовал на

Part 3. The Peasants' Revolt of 1381.

The ruin of France and the famine that followed caused an epidemic of the plague. It was so infectious that there was no escape from it. People died within twenty-four hours. From France the epidemic was brought over to England. The English soldiers called it *the Black Death*. By the year 1348 one-third of England's population had perished.

The position of the peasants was very hard. They had to give part of their harvest to the lord. They also had to work on the lord's fields regularly. After the epidemic of the Black Death, when the population of England had diminished by one-third, there were not enough labourers to work on the lords' fields. So the surviving peasants were made to work on the lords' fields much more. They were paid for their work, but the payment was very little.

As years went by, the French feudals united against their enemy, and the English were beginning to lose their advantage. As the king needed money for the war, Parliament voted for extra taxes¹, which made the life of peasants still harder. In 1381 the peasants revolted. Sixty thousand people from the counties of Essex and Kent marched to London led by Wat Tyler² and Jack Straw³. In London they broke open the prisons, destroyed many buildings and killed many royal officials. They came to the royal palace and demanded to see the king. The king of England Richard II was then a 14-year-old boy. He boldly appeared be-

¹ voted for extra taxes — проголосовал за дополнительные налоги

² Wat Tyler ['wɒt'taɪlə] — Уот Тайлер

³ Jack Straw ['dʒæk'strɔ:] — Джек Строу



The murder of Wat Tyler

fore the crowd of rebels, listened to them and promised to fulfil their demands. But the king did not keep his promise. Wat Tyler was treacherously murdered and the rebellion was suppressed.

QUESTIONS

1. What epidemic broke out in France? Why did the English soldiers call it the Black Death? Was the epidemic brought over to England? How did it affect the population in England?
2. Why was the position of the peasants hard? In what way did the epidemic of the plague make this position still harder?
3. Why did Parliament vote for extra taxes?
4. When did the peasants' revolt start? How many people joined the revolt? Who headed the revolt?
5. What town did the rebels march to? What did they do in London? Whom did they want to see?
6. Who was King of England at that time? Did he listen to the rebels? What did he promise them?

7. Did the king fulfil his promise? How did the peasants' revolt end?

Part 4. The War of the Roses.

The Hundred Years' War, in which England lost practically all its lands in France, ended in 1453, but there was no peace in the country. Long before the end of this war, a feudal struggle had broken out between the descendants of Edward III.

When *the Magna Carta* was signed in 1215, the Norman barons were united with the Saxon nobles and the growing bourgeoisie of the big towns, and they took part in governing the country. During the Hundred Years' War some of the barons, who were professional soldiers, built castles with high walls and kept private armies of thousands of men. They wished to lead their armies over to France to seize lands there. These big barons formed a small group of their own. They thought more about their "family politics" than about national politics and were a real threat to the king's power. Realizing the danger which these big barons represented to the Crown, Edward III tried to marry his sons to their daughters, the heiresses of these Houses. Thus representatives of the royal family became relatives of many big barons. But that did not help to strengthen the position of the House of Plantagenets. During the reign of Richard II (1377–1399), the last king of the Plantagenet dynasty, Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Lancaster¹, seized the crown and became the first king of the Lancaster dynasty, Henry IV (1399–1413).

¹ Henry Bolingbroke ['henri'bɒlmbrʊk], Duke of Lancaster ['læŋkəstə] — Генрих Болингброк, герцог Ланкастерский

The interests of the House of Lancaster supported by the big barons collided with the interests of the lesser barons and merchants of the towns, who supported the House of York¹. The feudal struggle grew into an open war between the Lancastrians² and the Yorkists³. The Lancasters had a red rose in their coat of arms⁴, the Yorkists had a white rose. That's why the war between them got the name of *the War of the Roses*. This war, which lasted for thirty years (1455–1485), turned into a bitter struggle for the Crown, in which each party murdered every likely heir to the throne of the opposite party. It was a dark time for England, a time of anarchy, when the kings and nobles were busy fighting and murdering each other and had no time to take care of the common people, who suffered greatly.

The War of the Roses ended with the battle of Bosworth⁵ in 1485. King Richard III of the House of York was killed in the battle, and, right in the field, Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond⁶, was proclaimed King of England. The war was over at last, and everybody sighed with relief.

Henry Tudor was head of the House of Lancaster. A year later, in 1486, he married the Yorkist heiress Princess Elizabeth⁷ of York. This marriage was of great political importance. It meant the union of the red rose of the House of Lancaster with the white rose of the House of York.

¹ York [jɔ:k] — Йорк

² Lancastrians [ˌlæŋ'kæstriənz] — сторонники дома Ланкастеров

³ Yorkists ['jɔ:kists] — сторонники дома Йорков

⁴ coat of arms — герб

⁵ Bosworth ['bɔ:zwəθ] — Босуорт

⁶ Henry Tudor ['tju:də], Earl of Richmond — Генрих Тюдор, граф Ричмонд

⁷ Elizabeth [i'li:zəbəθ] — Елизавета

QUESTIONS

1. Why were the big barons a threat to the king's power? How did King Edward III try to neutralize this threat?
2. Who was the last king of the Plantagenet dynasty? Who seized the crown during his reign?
3. The House of Lancaster was supported by the big barons. Whom did the lesser barons and the merchants of the towns support?
4. Why did the war between the Lancastrians and the Yorkists get the name of the War of the Roses? When did the War of the Roses begin? How long did it last?
5. Who was proclaimed King of England when the War of the Roses ended?
6. Whom did Henry Tudor marry? Why did this marriage have a great political importance?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words and word combinations from the list:

feudal, revolted, harvest, plague, merchants, Bosworth, lesser, social, combats, descendants, Lancaster, collided, common, heir, Plantagenet, taxes, voted, declared war, threat.

1. In the towns the craftsmen and tradesmen were becoming an important _____ force.
2. The peasants had to give part of their _____ to the lord.
3. In 1337 Edward III _____ on France.
4. The ruin of France and the famine caused an epidemic of the _____.
5. The French knights, armed with swords, could only fight in hand-to-hand _____.

6. The king needed money for the war, and Parliament _____ for extra _____.
7. In 1381 the oppressed peasants _____ against the lords.
8. After the death of Edward III a _____ struggle broke out between his _____.
9. The big barons were a real _____ to the king's power.
10. Richard II was the last king of the _____ dynasty.
11. In 1399 Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Lancaster, seized the crown and became the first king of the _____ dynasty.
12. The interests of the House of Lancaster _____ with the interests of the _____ barons and _____ of the towns who supported the House of York.
13. During the War of the Roses each party murdered every likely _____ to the throne of the opposite party.
14. The king and the nobles had no time to take care of the _____ people.
15. The War of the Roses ended with the battle of _____ in 1485.

UNIT REVIEW

Who were these people? What did they do? Write in short about each of them.

William the Conqueror
Richard the Lion-Heart
Edward III

William Caxton
Wat Tyler

UNIT THREE

ABSOLUTE MONARCHY

During the Tudor period, from 1485 till 1603, England's foreign policy changed several times. Henry VII was careful to remain friendly with neighbouring countries. His son Henry VIII was more ambitious, hoping to play an important part in European politics. He was unsuccessful. Mary allied England to Spain by her marriage. Elizabeth and her advisers considered trade the most important foreign policy matter, as Henry VII had done. For them a country which was England's greatest trade rival was also its greatest enemy. This idea remained the basis of England's foreign policy until the 19th century.

CHAPTER 6

THE NEW MONARCHY

Part 1. Henry VII.

Henry VII is less known than either Henry VIII or Elizabeth I. But he was far more important in establishing the new monarchy than either of them. He had the same ideas and opinions as the growing classes of merchants and gentry¹, and he based royal power on good relations with these classes.

Henry VII firmly believed that business was good for the state. Only a year after he became king, he made an important trade agreement with the Netherlands², which allowed English trade to grow. Henry

¹ gentry ['dʒentri] — мелкопоместное дворянство

² Netherlands ['neðələndz] — Нидерланды



King Henry VII

understood that England's future wealth would depend on international trade. And he built a huge fleet of merchant ships. He also believed that wars ruined a country's economy, and so he avoided quarrels either with Scotland in the north or France in the south.

Henry was fortunate. Many of the old nobility had died or been defeated in the recent wars, and their lands had gone to the

king. This meant that Henry had more money than earlier kings. In order to strengthen his power, he forbade anyone, except himself, to keep armed men.

Henry's aim was to make the Crown financially independent, and the lands and the fines he took from the old nobility helped him do this. Of course it made him unpopular with the old nobility, but he kept the friendship of the merchant and gentry classes. Like him they wanted peace and prosperity. He created a new nobility from among them, and men unknown before now became Henry's statesmen. But they all knew that their rise to importance was completely dependent on the Crown.

QUESTIONS

1. Henry VII established a new type of monarchy, didn't he? What did he base royal power on? What principle did he believe in? What did he avoid?

2. Why was the trade agreement with the Netherlands important for England?
3. Why did Henry VII build a huge fleet of merchant ships?
4. Why did Henry VII have much money?
5. What measure did Henry VII take in order to strengthen his power?
6. What made Henry VII unpopular with the old nobility?
7. Why did Henry VII keep the friendship of the merchant and gentry classes?

Part 2. Henry VIII.

Henry VIII was quite unlike his father. He was cruel and wasteful with money. He spent so much on maintaining a rich court and on wars, that his father's carefully saved money was soon gone.

Henry VIII wanted to have an important influence on European politics. But much had happened in Europe since England had lost its lands in France in the Hundred Years' War. France was now more powerful than England. Spain was even more powerful, because it was united with the Holy Roman Empire¹ (which included much of central Europe). Henry VIII tried to ally himself with Spain against France, then he changed sides. When friendship with France did not bring him anything, Henry started talking again to Charles V² of Spain.

Problems with the Catholic Church. Henry disliked the power of the Church in England: it was an inter-

¹ the Holy ['houli] Roman Empire — Священная Римская империя

² Charles V ['tʃɑ:lz ðə'fɪfθ] — Карлос V



King Henry VIII



Catherine of Aragon



Anne Boleyn

national organization, so he could not completely control it. The power of the Catholic Church in England could work against Henry's authority. Besides, Henry had another reason for opposing to the authority of the Church.

In 1510 Henry had married Catherine of Aragon¹. But by 1526 she had still not had a son who could be the heir to the throne after Henry's death. Henry asked the Pope to allow him to divorce Catherine. But the Pope was controlled by Charles V, who was Holy Roman Emperor and king of Spain, and also Catherine's nephew. For both political and family reasons he wanted Henry to stay married to Catherine. The Pope did not wish to anger Charles V, and he forbade Henry's divorce.

Henry was extremely angry. He persuaded the English bishops to break away from the Catholic Church and establish a new Church in England, the head of which would be the English monarch. In 1531 the Church of England was established in the coun-

¹ Catherine ['kæθrɪn] of Aragon ['ærə-
gən] — Екатерина Арагонская

try, and this became law after Parliament passed *the Act of Supremacy*¹ in 1534. Now Henry was free to divorce Catherine and marry his new love, Anne Boleyn². He hoped Anne would give him a son to follow him on the throne.

The Reformation. Henry's break with Rome was purely political. He simply wanted to control the Church and to keep its wealth in his own kingdom. He did not approve of the new ideas of Reformation Protestantism³ introduced by Martin Luther⁴ in Germany and John Calvin⁵ in Geneva⁶. He still believed in the Catholic faith. But when he broke with Rome, he wanted to make the break legal. Between 1532 and 1536 Parliament passed several Acts, by which England officially became a Protestant country, even though the popular religion was still Catholic.

QUESTIONS

1. In what ways was Henry VIII unlike his father? Why did he soon spend all the money saved by his father?
2. Which European countries were more powerful than England? How did Henry try to influence European politics?
3. Why did Henry VIII dislike the power of the Church?
4. Why did Henry want to divorce his first wife Catherine of Aragon? Why did the Pope forbid

¹ the Act of Supremacy [sju'preməsi] — Закон о главенстве английского короля над церковью

² Anna Boleyn ['æn'bulɪn] — Анна Болейн

³ Reformation Protestantism — Реформационное протестантство

⁴ Martin Luther ['mɑ:tɪn'lu:θə] — Мартин Лютер

⁵ John Calvin ['dʒɒn'kælvɪn] — Жан Кальвин

⁶ Geneva [dʒɪ'ni:və] — Женева

him to divorce his wife? How did Henry get out of the difficulty? When was the Church of England established?

5. Whom did Henry VIII marry after the divorce with Catherine of Aragon?
6. Was Henry VIII really a Protestant? Who had introduced the ideas of Reformation Protestantism? Did Henry approve of the new ideas?
7. When did England officially become a Protestant country?

Part 3. The Protestant-Catholic Struggle.

Henry died in 1547, leaving three children. Mary, the eldest, was the daughter of Catherine of Aragon. Elizabeth was the daughter of his second wife, Anne Boleyn, whom he had executed because she was unfaithful. Nine-year-old Edward was the son of Jane Seymour¹, the only wife whom Henry had really loved but who had died giving birth to his only son.

Edward VI, Henry VIII's son, was only a child of 9 years old when he became king, so the country was ruled by a council. All the members of the council were representatives of the new nobility created by the Tudors. They were keen Protestant Reformers because they had benefited from the sale of monastery lands. Indeed, all the new landowners knew that they could only be sure of keeping their new lands if they made England truly Protestant.

Most English people still believed in the old Catholic religion. Less than half the English were Protestant by belief, but these people controlled religious matters. In 1552 a new prayer book was introduced to make sure

¹ Jane Seymour ['dʒeɪn'si:mɔ:] — Джейн Сеймур

that all churches followed the new Protestant religion.

Mary. Mary, the Catholic daughter of Catherine of Aragon, became queen when Edward, aged sixteen, died in 1553. Mary was unwise and made mistakes in her policy. For political, religious and family reasons, she married King Philip of Spain. It was a bad choice. The English people disliked the marriage. They were afraid that this marriage would place England under foreign control. Parliament agreed to Mary's marriage unwillingly and made a condition that Philip would be regarded as King of England only during Mary's lifetime.

Mary's marriage to Philip was the first mistake of her unfortunate reign. Then she began burning Protestants. Three hundred people died in this way during her five-year reign. For these mass executions she was called *Bloody Mary*.



Jane Seymour



King Edward VI

QUESTIONS

1. How many children did Henry VIII leave after his death? Who were they?
2. How old was Edward VI when he became King of England? Did he rule the country himself?
3. Whom did Mary marry? Why did the English

people dislike this marriage? What were they afraid of? On what condition did Parliament agree to the marriage?

4. What was Mary's second mistake? Why was she called Bloody Mary?



Queen Elizabeth I

Part 4. Elizabeth I.

When she became queen in 1558, Elizabeth I wanted to find a peaceful answer to the problems of the English Reformation. She wanted to bring together again those parts of English society (Catholic and Protestant) which were in disagreement. And she wanted to make England prosperous. As a result, the Protestantism in England

remained closer to the Catholic religion than to other Protestant groups. But Elizabeth made sure that the Church was still under her authority, unlike politically dangerous forms of Protestantism in Europe. In a way, she made the Church “part of the state machine.”

*The parish*¹, the area served by one church, usually the same size as a village, became the unit of state administration². People had to go to church on Sundays by law and they were fined if they stayed away. Elizabeth also introduced a book of sermons³ to be used in church. Besides containing texts of the ser-

¹ parish ['pærɪʃ] — приход

² the unit of state administration — административная единица

³ a book of sermons ['sə:mənz] — сборник проповедей

mons based on the Bible, this book also taught the people that rebellion against the Crown was a sin against God.

Mary, the Queen of Scots.

The struggle between Catholics and Protestants continued to endanger Elizabeth's position for the next thirty years. There was a special danger from those Catholic nobles in England who wished to remove Elizabeth and replace her with the queen of Scotland, who was a Catholic.



Mary, Queen of Scots

Mary, the Scottish queen, usually called *Queen of Scots*, was the heir to the English throne because she was Elizabeth's closest living relative, as Elizabeth had no children. Mary quarrelled with some of her nobles and had to escape to England, where Elizabeth kept her as a prisoner for almost twenty years. During that time Elizabeth discovered several secret Catholic plots aimed at making Mary queen of England. Finally Elizabeth agreed to Mary's execution in 1587.

Many people approved of Mary's execution. The Catholic plots and the dangers of a foreign Catholic invasion had changed people's feelings. By 1585 most English people believed that to be a Catholic was to be an enemy of England. This hatred of everything Catholic became an important political force.

QUESTIONS

1. When did Elizabeth I become Queen of England? How did she want to settle the problem of disagreement between the Catholics and Protestants? What was the result of her efforts?

2. How did Elizabeth ensure that the Church of England was “part of the state machine”? What is a parish? How did Elizabeth make the parish a unit of state administration? How were people punished if they did not go to church on Sunday?
3. What book did Elizabeth introduce for using in church? What did this book teach the people?
4. What did some Catholic nobles plan to do?
5. Why was Mary the Queen of Scots the heir to the English throne?
6. Why did Mary come to England? Why did Elizabeth keep her a prisoner?
7. Why did Elizabeth finally agree to Mary’s execution?
8. Why did many people in England approve of Mary’s execution?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

Holy, merchant, nobility, gentry, plots, sermons, endangered, rebellion, agreement, forbade, established, sin, political, Reformation, parish, machine, influence.

1. Henry VII had the same ideas as the merchants and _____.
2. Henry VII made an important trade _____ with the Netherlands.
3. In order to strengthen his power, Henry VII _____ anyone, except himself, to keep armed men.
4. Henry VII created new _____ from among merchants and gentry.
5. Henry VII built a huge fleet of _____ ships.

6. Henry VIII wanted to have an important _____ on European politics.
7. Spain was a very powerful country because it was united with the _____ Roman Empire.
8. Henry VIII's break with Rome was purely _____.
9. In 1531 the Church of England was _____ in the country.
10. Elizabeth I wanted to find a peaceful answer to the problems of the English _____.
11. Elizabeth I made the Church part of the state _____.
12. The _____ became the unit of state administration.
13. Elizabeth introduced a book of _____ to be used in church.
14. The Church taught the people that _____ against the Crown was a _____ against God.
15. The struggle between Catholics and Protestants _____ Elizabeth's position.
16. Elizabeth discovered several secret _____ aimed at making Mary Stuart queen of England.

CHAPTER 7

GAINING POWER AND EXPANDING

Part 1. The New Foreign Policy.

Elizabeth continued Henry VII's work and encouraged foreign trade. She considered Spain her main trade rival and enemy. Spain at that time ruled the Netherlands, where many people were Protestant and were fighting for their independence from Catholic Spanish rule. To reach the Netherlands from Spain



Walter Raleigh

by sea, Spanish soldiers had to sail through the English Channel. Elizabeth helped the Dutch¹ Protestants by allowing their ships to use English harbours from which they could attack Spanish ships, often with the help of the English. When the Dutch rebels lost the city of Antwerp² in 1585, Elizabeth helped them with money and soldiers. It

was almost an open declaration of war on Spain.

English ships had already been attacking Spanish ships as they returned from America loaded with silver and gold. Although these English ships belonged to private people, the treasure was shared with the queen. These seamen were traders as well as pirates and adventurers. The most famous of them were *John Hawkins*³, *Francis Drake*⁴ and *Walter Raleigh*⁵.

The Spanish king Philip decided that he had to conquer England if he wanted to defeat the Dutch rebels in the Netherlands. He hoped that enough Catholics in England would be willing to help him. He built a great fleet of ships, an *Armada*⁶. But in 1587 Francis Drake attacked and destroyed part of this fleet in Cadiz⁷ harbour.

¹ Dutch [dʌtʃ] — голландские

² Antwerp [ˈæntwə:p] — Антверпен

³ John Hawkins [ˈdʒɒnˈhɔ:kɪnz] — Джон Хокинс

⁴ Francis Drake [ˈfrænsɪsˈdreɪk] — Фрэнсис Дрейк

⁵ Walter Raleigh [ˈwɔ:ltəˈrɔ:lɪ] — Уолтер Роли

⁶ Armada [ɑːˈmɑ:də] — Армада

⁷ Cadiz [kəˈdɪz] — Кадис

Philip started again and built a new *Armada*, a still larger fleet. But most of the ships were designed to carry soldiers, and the few fighting ships were not as good as the English ones. English ships were longer and narrower, so they were faster, and besides, their guns could shoot further than the Spanish ones.

The Spanish Armada was defeated more by bad weather than by English guns. Some Spanish ships were sunk, but most were blown northwards by the wind, and many of them were wrecked on the rocky coasts of Scotland and Ireland. For England it was a glorious moment.

A Trading Empire. Elizabeth encouraged English traders to settle abroad and create colonies. This policy led directly to Britain's colonial empire of the 17th and 18th centuries.

The first English colonists sailed to America towards the end of the century. One of the best known was *Sir Walter Raleigh*, who brought tobacco back to England. England also began selling West African slaves for the Spanish in America. By 1650 slavery had become an important trade. Only at the end of the 18th century this shameful trade ended.

The second half of the 16th century saw the development of trade with foreign lands. During Elizabeth's reign so-called *chartered companies*¹ were established. A charter gave the company the right to all the business in its particular trade or region. In return for this important advantage the chartered company gave some of its profits to the Crown. A number of these companies were established during Elizabeth's reign: *the Eastland Company* to trade with

¹ chartered ['tʃɑ:təd] companies — компании, организованные на основании правительственной концессии

Scandinavia¹ and the Baltic² in 1579, *the Levant*³ *Company* to trade with the Ottoman Empire⁴ in 1581, *the Africa Company* to trade in slaves in 1588, and *the East India Company* to trade with India⁵ in 1600.

QUESTIONS

1. Did Elizabeth I encourage foreign trade? What country did she consider to be her main trade rival and enemy?
2. Why did Elizabeth I help the Protestants in the Netherlands? How did she help them?
3. Who were the most famous English seamen that caused trouble to Spanish ships in the Atlantic Ocean? Why did Elizabeth support these seamen?
4. Why did the Spanish king Philip decide that he had to conquer England?
5. What did Philip call the fleet which he built to fight England?
6. What were the disadvantages of the Armada ships in comparison with the English ships? What was the result of the sea battle between the Armada and the English fleet?
7. What did Elizabeth encourage English traders to do? What did this policy lead to?
8. What parts of the world did English colonists begin to settle?
9. What did Walter Raleigh bring from America?
10. What shameful trade did English colonists start in West Africa?

¹ Scandinavia [ˌskændɪˈneɪvjə] — Скандинавия

² Baltic [ˈbɒltɪk] — Балтика

³ Levant [lɪˈvænt] — Левант

⁴ the Ottoman Empire [ˈɒtəmənˈempraɪə] — Османская империя

⁵ India [ˈɪndiə] — Индия

11. What is a chartered company? What right did a charter give a trading company? What did the company give the Crown in return for the charter? Name four chartered companies which were established during Elizabeth's reign. What did each of the four companies do?

Part 2. Wales and Ireland.

Both Henry VII and Henry VIII tried to bring Wales and Ireland under English control. Wales became joined to England under one administration between 1536 and 1543. Representatives of local Welsh gentry were appointed *magistrates*¹, and Welsh representatives entered the English parliament.

In Ireland the situation was more difficult. Henry VIII persuaded the Irish parliament to recognize him as king of Ireland. But when he tried to make the Irish accept his English Church Reformation, he met a stubborn resistance, as the majority of the Irish population were Catholics. Thus Irish nationalism and Catholicism were brought together against English rule. It took Henry a long time to destroy the old way of life and introduce English government in Ireland.

The effect of English rule was greatest in the north, in *Ulster*², where many good lands were taken from the native Irish population and sold to English settlers. Even today most good land in Ulster is owned by Protestants, and most poor land by Catholics.

QUESTIONS

1. What did both Henry VII and Henry VIII try to do in Wales and Ireland?

¹ magistrates [ˈmædʒɪstrɪts] — магистраты, мировые судьи

² Ulster [ˈʌlstə] — Ольстер

2. When did Wales join England under one administration? How was it done?
3. Henry VIII persuaded the Irish parliament to recognize him as king of Ireland, didn't he? Where did he meet a stubborn resistance? Why?
4. Did it take Henry a long time to introduce English government in Ireland?
5. What was the effect of English rule in Ulster? Is this effect still felt in our times? How?

Part 3. England and Scotland.

For a long time the Tudors were trying to join Scotland to England. In their attempts to preserve the independence of Scotland, the Scottish kings could not get much support from their nobility, because Scottish nobility was not united: some of them wanted closer friendship with England, and others wanted to remain loyal to the old alliance with France. Knowing how weak they were, the Scottish kings usually tried to avoid war with England. They made a peace treaty with Henry VII, and James IV, king of Scotland, married Henry VII's daughter Margaret¹. But it did not help. Henry VIII made two wars on Scotland. King James IV was killed during the first war. James V, whose army was also badly defeated during the second war, died soon after the war.

Henry VIII hoped to marry his son Edward VI to James V's daughter, the baby Queen of Scots Mary and in this way join the two countries together under an English king. But the Scots did not want this marriage and sent Mary to France, where she married the French king's son in 1558. However, her

¹ Margaret ['mɑ:ɡərɪt] — Маргарита

French husband died soon after their marriage, and she returned to Scotland. Mary was a Catholic, but during her time in France Scotland had become officially a Protestant country. The Scottish Protestants did not want a Catholic queen on the throne. There was a struggle, as a result of which Mary had to escape to England, where she was held by Elizabeth for nineteen years and finally executed.

QUESTIONS

1. Why couldn't the Scottish kings get much support from Scottish nobility in their struggle against England?
2. Why did the Scottish kings try to avoid war with England? Why did the Scottish king James IV marry the daughter of Henry VII ? Did this marriage help to avoid war with England?
3. How many wars did Henry VIII make on Scotland? What were the results of both wars?
4. Why did Henry VIII want to marry his son Edward to the Queen of Scots Mary? Why didn't the marriage take place?
5. Why wasn't Mary welcomed by many Scottish nobles when she returned from France? Why did she have to escape to England? What happened to her in England?

Part 4. A Scottish King for England.

Elizabeth I never married and had no children. Her closest relative was Mary's son, the Scottish king James VI, and after Elizabeth's death in 1603, he inherited the English throne. So, after a long struggle the two countries were united, but, ironically, under a royal dynasty which came from Scotland.

QUESTION

Who inherited the English throne after Elizabeth's death? Why? When was it?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

stubborn, Dutch, chartered, Elizabeth, inherited, to recognize, control, to avoid, harbours, encouraged, reign, slavery, profits, destroyed, rival.

1. _____ continued Henry VII's work and _____ foreign trade.
2. Elizabeth considered Spain her main trade _____ and enemy.
3. Elizabeth helped the _____ Protestants by allowing their ships to use English _____.
4. In 1587 Francis Drake attacked and _____ part of the Spanish Armada.
5. By 1650 _____ had become an important trade.
6. During Elizabeth's _____ so-called _____ companies were established.
7. The chartered company gave some of its _____ to the Crown.
8. Both Henry VII and Henry VIII tried to bring Wales and Ireland under English _____.
9. Henry VIII persuaded the Irish parliament _____ him as king of Ireland.
10. In trying to make the Irish accept his English Church Reformation, Henry met a _____ resistance.
11. The Scottish kings usually tried _____ war with England.
12. After Elizabeth's death, James VI of Scotland _____ the English throne.

CHAPTER 8

GOVERNMENT AND SOCIETY

Part 1. Tudor Parliaments.

The Tudor monarchs did not like governing through parliament. Henry VII used Parliament only for introducing new laws. Henry VIII used it to raise money for war and for his struggle with Rome.

The Tudor monarchs were certainly not more democratic than the kings that had ruled the country before them. In the early 16th century Parliament only met when the monarch ordered it. Sometimes it met twice in one year, but then it might not meet again for six years. Henry VIII assembled Parliament to make the laws for Church reformation. In forty-five years of Elizabeth's reign she only let Parliament meet fourteen times.

Only two things persuaded the Tudor monarchs not to get rid of Parliament altogether: they needed money and they needed the support of the merchants and landowners, whose representatives sat in Parliament. But by using Parliament to support their own policy, the Tudors actually increased Parliament's authority.

During the 16th century real power in Parliament moved from the House of Lords to the House of Commons. The reason for this was simple. The Members of Parliament (MPs) in the House of Commons represented richer and more influential classes than the Lords. In fact, the idea of getting rid of the House of Lords, a question which is still discussed in British politics today, was first suggested in the 16th century.

Parliament did not really represent the people. The monarchy used its influence to make Parliament sup-

port royal policy. In order to control discussion in Parliament, the Crown appointed a *Speaker*. Even today the Speaker is responsible for good behaviour during debates in the House of Commons.

The growing authority of Parliament led to the question about the limits of its power. MPs were beginning to think that they had a right to discuss more and more questions. By the end of the 16th century, when the gentry and merchant classes realized their strength, it was obvious that sooner or later Parliament would challenge the Crown. Eventually it resulted in war.

QUESTIONS.

1. Did the Tudor monarchs like governing the country through Parliament? What did Henry VII and Henry VIII use Parliament for?
2. Did Parliament meet regularly in the 16th century? How many times did it meet during the forty-five years of Elizabeth's reign?
3. If the Tudor kings did not like governing the country through Parliament, why didn't they get rid of it altogether?
4. Why did the House of Commons play a more important role in Parliament than the House of Lords? Whom did the MPs in the House of Commons represent?
5. Why did the Crown appoint a Speaker in Parliament? What is the Speaker responsible for in today's Parliament?
6. What question did the growing authority of Parliament lead to? What were the MPs beginning to think? What was obvious by the end of the 16th century?

Part 2. Changes in the Life of People.

At the end of the 15th century much of the countryside was still untouched. There were great forests of oak trees and unused land. There were still wild animals: wild pigs, wild cattle and even a few wolves. Only a few towns had more than 3,000 people. Most towns were no more than large villages, and the people living there worked on their own fields and farms, like in a village. Even London, a large city of over 60,000 by 1500, had fields around it, which its citizens farmed.

In the 16th century, however, this picture began to change rapidly. The population increased, the unused land was cleared for sheep, and large areas of forest were cut down to provide wood for the growing ship-building industry. England was beginning to face great social and economic problems.

The price of food and other goods rose steeply during the 16th and early 17th centuries. At the same time real wages¹ fell by half². Another problem was the sudden increase in population. In England and Wales the population almost doubled from 2,2 million in 1525 to 4 million in 1603. Twice the number of people needed twice the amount of food. It was not produced. Great masses of population became poor.

The countryside population divided into two parts. The people who did best³ in this situation were the yeoman farmers⁴ who had at least 100 acres of land. They employed men to work on their land and produced

¹ real wages ['weɪdʒɪz] — реальная зарплата

² fell by half — снизилась наполовину

³ The people who did best — Люди, которые преуспели больше всех

⁴ yeoman farmers ['jəʊmən'fɑ:məz] — йомены (зажиточные фермеры)

food to sell. They worked as farmers during the week, but were “gentlemen” on Sundays. They were able to increase the prices of the food they produced, because there was not enough food in the markets.

Most people, however, had only twenty acres of land, or less.

Because of the growing population, it was harder for a man to find work or to produce enough food for his family.

QUESTIONS

1. How did the country look at the end of the 15th century? Was there much difference between the way of people's life in towns and villages? What was in common?
2. How did the picture change in the 16th century? What was the unused land cleared for? Why were large areas of wood cut down?
3. How did the price of food change? How did the wages change?
4. How did the countryside population divide? Who were the yeoman farmers? What helped them to become still richer?

Part 3. Economy.

Wool and Clothmaking Industry. Many landowners found that they could make more money from breeding sheep than from growing crops. They could sell the wool for a good price to the rapidly growing clothmaking industry¹. They needed more land for the sheep to graze, so they fenced off² land that had

¹ clothmaking industry — суконная промышленность

² fenced off — обносили забором, «огораживали»

always belonged to the whole village. This process of fencing off common land is known as enclosures¹. Enclosures were often carried out against the law, but because magistrates were themselves land-



Spinners at work

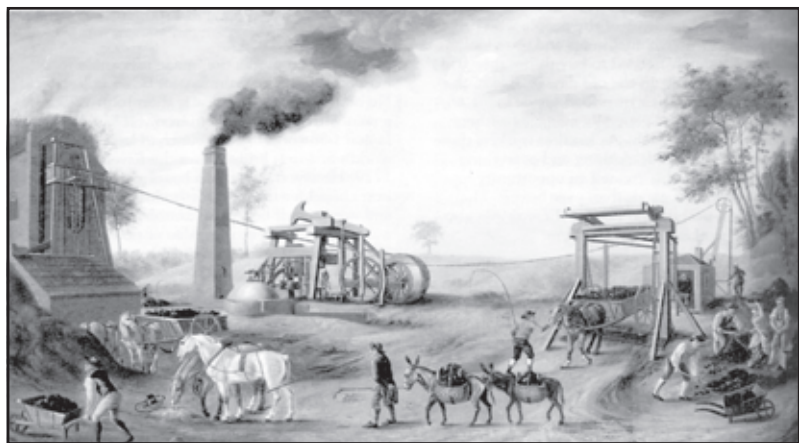
lords, few peasants could prevent it. As a result, many poor people lost the land which they had farmed, as well as the common land where they kept animals.

The production of cloth, the most important of England's products, reached its greatest importance during the 16th century. Clothmakers bought raw wool and gave it to spinners. The spinners were mostly women and children, who worked in their poor cottages for very little payment. After the spinners the wool was passed to weavers. When the cloth was ready, it was sold.

Coal and Steel. In the 16th century people learned to burn coal in stoves instead of wood. Coal gave greater heat when burning. By using coal instead of wood fires, people were able to produce greatly improved steel. Improved steel was used to make knives and forks, clocks, watches, nails and pins. Birmingham², by using coal fires to make steel, grew in the 16th century from a village into an important industrial city.

¹ enclosures [ɪnˈkloʊzəz] — огораживание

² Birmingham [ˈbɜːmɪŋəm] — Бирмингем



A coal-mine

QUESTIONS

1. Why did many landowners decide to breed sheep?
2. What did the big landowners do to get more land for their sheep to graze?
3. Enclosing land was often against the law, yet the peasants could not prevent it. Why?
4. What became the most important of England's products in the 16th century?
5. What did people learn to burn in stoves instead of wood in the 16th century? What was the advantage of burning coal? What did they make of improved steel?

Part 4. The Problem of the Poor.

Enclosures caused great damage. Peasants who lost their land could not provide for¹ their families. People left their homes and went from place to place trying to find work or food. Many people stole in

¹ provide for — обеспечивать

order to eat. In the middle of the 16th century there were over 10,000 people on the roads. Crime was increasing. In order to control the growing problem of wandering homeless people, Parliament passed a law forbidding people to move from the parish where they had been born without permission. Any person who was caught on the road homeless and unemployed could be executed. However, even these severe measures did not solve the crime problem.

There were years in which the harvest was very poor, and that made the problem of the poor still worse. In 1601 Parliament passed the first *Poor Law*. This law made local people responsible for the poor in their own area. It gave power to magistrates to raise money¹ in the parish to provide food, housing and work for the poor and homeless of the same parish.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the damage caused by enclosures?
2. What law did Parliament pass? With what purpose was this law passed? What was the punishment for wandering along the roads? Did these measures solve the crime problem?
3. What law was passed in 1601? What is the contents of this law?

Part 5. Domestic Life.

Everyday life in families was hard. Most women had between eight and fifteen children, and many women died in childbirth. About half the children died at a young age. No one could hope for a long married life because the dangers to life were great.

¹ to raise money — собирать деньги



A wealthy family in the 16th century

Both rich and poor lived in small family groups. Grown-up brothers and sisters usually did not live with each other or with their parents. They tried to find a place of their own. Over half the population was under 25 years of age, while only few were over 60. Queen Elizabeth reached the age of 70, but this was unusual. Most people worked hard and died young. Poor children started work at the age of 6 or 7.

In spite of the hard conditions of life, most people had a larger and better home than ever before. Stoves with chimneys, which before had only been used in the homes of the rich, were now built in every house. This made cooking and heating easier and more comfortable.

QUESTIONS

1. What facts show that family life in the 16th century was hard?
2. How long did people live?
3. At what age did the children of poor families start work?

4. What improvements in domestic life appeared in the 16th century?

Part 6. Language and Culture.

Since the time of *Chaucer*¹, in the mid-fourteenth century, *London English* had become accepted as standard English. Printing made this standard English more widely accepted among the literate public. For the first time people started to think of London pronunciation as “correct” pronunciation. Until Tudor times the local forms of speech had been spoken by lord and peasant alike. From Tudor times onwards the way people spoke began to show the difference between them. Educated people began to speak “correct” English, and uneducated people continued to speak the local dialects.

Literacy increased greatly during the 16th century. By the beginning of the 16th century about half the population of England could read and write.

Renaissance² is the period in Europe between the 14th and 17th centuries, when, after the period of Middle Ages during which there had been little education, people became interested in the art, literature and ideas of ancient Greece³. This interest caused the appearance of outstanding thinkers, scientists, artists and writers.

England felt the effects of the Renaissance later than much of Europe because it was an island. In the early years of the 16th century English thinkers became interested in the work of the Dutch philosopher

¹ Chaucer [ˈtʃɔ:sə] — Чосер

² Renaissance [ˌrɪˈneɪsəns] — ренессанс (эпоха Возрождения)

³ Greece [ɡri:s] — Греция



Thomas More

Erasmus¹. One of them, Thomas More², wrote a book in which he described an ideal nation. The book was called Utopia³. It was very popular throughout Europe.

The Renaissance also influenced religion, music and painting. In painting English masters developed their own special kind of painting, the miniature portrait.

In literature such names as Christopher Marlowe⁴, Ben Jonson⁵ and William Shakespeare⁶, were very popular. The plays which they wrote were staged in all theatres, and the public enjoyed them. Shakespeare's popularity, as we know, has not died down until our time, and his plays are still staged in many theatres throughout the world.

QUESTIONS

1. Since what time had London English become accepted as standard English?
2. Was there any difference between the way nobility and common people spoke before Tudor times? When did a difference become noticeable?
3. How did literacy increase during the 16th century?

¹ Erasmus [i'ræzməs] — Эразм

² Thomas More [tə'məs'mɔ:] — Томас Мор

³ Utopia [ju'tɒpjə] — Утопия

⁴ Christopher ['krɪstəfə] Marlowe ['mɑ:ləu] — Кристофер Марло

⁵ Ben [ben] Jonson ['dʒɒnsən] — Бен Джонсон

⁶ William ['wɪljəm] Shakespeare ['ʃeɪkspiə] — Уильям Шекспир

4. What is Renaissance?
5. Who was Thomas More? What book did he write? What did he describe in his book?
6. What spheres of life did Renaissance influence?
7. What kind of painting did English masters develop?
8. What writers were popular in the 16th century?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words and word combinations from the list:

damage, breeding, introducing, rid, governing, Speaker, yeoman farmers, fenced off, responsible, increased, amount, royal, influential, challenge, enclosures, to graze, literacy.

1. The Tudor monarchs did not like _____ through Parliament.
2. Henry VII used Parliament only for _____ new laws.
3. By using Parliament to support their own policy, the Tudors actually _____ Parliament's authority.
4. MPs in the House of Commons represented richer and more _____ classes than the Lords.
5. The idea of getting _____ of the House of Lords was first suggested in the 16th century.
6. The monarchy used its influence on Parliament to make it support the _____ policy.
7. In order to control discussion in Parliament, the Crown appointed a _____.
8. It was obvious that sooner or later Parliament would _____ the Crown.
9. Twice the number of people needed twice the _____ of food.

10. The _____ employed men to work on their land and produced food to sell.
11. Many landowners found that they could make more money from _____ sheep than from growing crops.
12. The big landowners needed land for the sheep _____, so they _____ land that had always belonged to the whole village.
13. The practice of fencing off common land is known as _____.
14. Enclosures caused great _____.
15. The Poor Law made local people _____ for the poor in their own area.
16. _____ greatly increased during the 16th century.

UNIT REVIEW

Who were these people? What did they do? Write in short about each of them.

Henry VII

Mary Tudor

Mary Queen of Scots

Henry VIII

Elizabeth I

Thomas More

UNIT FOUR

THE STUARTS

The Stuart monarchs were less successful than the Tudors. They quarrelled with Parliament and this resulted in civil war. One of the Stuarts was executed. Another Stuart king was driven from the throne. When the last Stuart, Queen Anne, died in 1714, the monarchy was no longer absolutely powerful as it had been in the Tudor times.

These important changes were the result of basic changes in society. During the 17th century economic power moved into the hands of the merchant and landowning farmer classes. The Crown could no longer raise money or govern without their cooperation.

CHAPTER 9

THE CROWN AND PARLIAMENT

Part 1. James I.

Like Elizabeth, James I tried to rule without Parliament as much as possible. He believed in *the divine right of kings*¹: the king was chosen by God and therefore only God could judge him. He expressed these ideas openly and this led to trouble with Parliament.

When Elizabeth died, she left James with a huge debt. James had to ask Parliament to raise a tax² to pay the debt. Parliament agreed, but in return insisted on the right to discuss James's home and for-

¹ the divine [dɪ'vaɪn] right of kings — божественное право королей

² to raise a tax — ввести налог



King James I

eign policy. James did not agree to this, and so he did not get the money.

James managed to rule the country without Parliament between 1611 and 1621, but it was only possible because Britain remained at peace. James could not afford the cost

of the army. In 1618, at the beginning of *the Thirty Years' War* in Europe, Parliament wished to go to war against the Catholics, but James did not agree. Until his death in 1625 James was always quarrelling with Parliament over money and over its desire to play a part in his foreign policy.

Parliament against the Crown. *Charles I*¹ quarrelled with Parliament even more bitterly than his

father had done. More than once Charles dissolved Parliament, but had to recall it again because he needed money. In 1628, in return for money, Parliament wanted Charles to sign a document known as *the Petition of Rights*², which would give Parliament the right to control state mon-



King Charles I

¹ Charles I [ˈtʃɑːlɪz ðəˈfɜːst] — Карл I

² the Petition [pəˈtɪʃn] of Rights — Петиция о правах

ey, the national budget and the law. Charles realized that *the Petition of Rights* was putting an end to a king's divine right. So he dissolved Parliament again.

Between 1629 and 1640 Charles successfully ruled without Parliament. He was able to balance his budgets, he got rid of dishonesty among officials¹ and made administration efficient. By 1637 he was at the height of his power. It seemed that Parliament would never meet again.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did James I try to rule without Parliament? What did he believe in?
2. Why did James I have to ask Parliament for money? Did he get the money? Why?
3. Did James manage to rule the country without Parliament?
4. How did Charles I's relations with Parliament develop? Why did he dissolve Parliament in 1628?
5. How did Charles I rule the country without Parliament between 1629 and 1640?

Part 2. Religious Disagreement.

The religious situation in Britain was not simple.

There were people in the country who disagreed with the teachings of *the Church of England*. They said that the services of *the Church of England* had become too complicated and too rich and took too much money. They wanted to make the Church of England more modest, *to purify* it. These people were called *Puritans*². Charles, who was married to a French

¹ officials [ə'fɪʃəlz] — чиновники

² Puritans ['pjʊərɪtənz] — пуритане

Catholic, disliked Puritans. Many MPs either were Puritans themselves, or sympathized with them.

Events in Ireland. Events in Ireland resulted in civil war. James I had continued Elizabeth's policy and had colonized Ulster, the northern part of Ireland. The Catholic Irish were driven off their lands, which were given to Protestant settlers from England.

In 1641, at a moment when Charles badly needed a period of quiet, Ireland exploded in rebellion against the Protestant English settlers. 3.000 people — men, women and children — were killed, most of them in Ulster. In London Charles and Parliament quarrelled over who should lead an army to defeat the rebels. Many MPs were afraid to give an army to Charles: they thought that Charles would use the army in order to dissolve Parliament by force and to rule alone again. Charles's friendship towards the Catholic Church increased Protestant fears. In 1642 Charles tried to arrest five MPs in Parliament. Although he was unsuccessful, it convinced Parliament and its supporters all over England that they had good reason to fear.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did some people in Britain criticize the Church of England? How did they want to change it? What were these people called? Why were they called Puritans?
2. Why did Charles I dislike Puritans?
3. What happened in Ireland in 1641?
4. What did Charles and Parliament quarrel about in connection with the events in Ireland?
5. Why didn't Parliament want to give an army to Charles?

Part 3. The Civil War.

London, where Parliament's influence was stronger, locked its gates against the king, and Charles moved to Nottingham¹, where he gathered an army to defeat those MPs who opposed him. The Civil War had started.

Most of the House of Lords and a few from the House of Commons supported Charles. *The Royalists*², known as *Cavaliers*³, controlled most of the north and west. Parliament controlled the east and south-east, including London. At first Parliament's army consisted of armed groups of London apprentices. Their short hair gave the Parliamentary soldiers their popular name of *Roundheads*⁴.

The forces were not equal. Parliament was supported by the navy, by most of the merchants and by the population of London. So it controlled the most important national and international sources of wealth. The Royalists had no money. The soldiers of the Royalist

¹ Nottingham ['nɒtɪŋəm] — Ноттингем

² Royalists ['rɔɪəlists] — роялисты (*сторонники короля*)

³ Cavaliers [ˌkævə'liəz] — кавалеры

⁴ Roundheads ['raundhedz] — круглоголовые



A Roundhead and a Cavalier



The Civil War

army were unpaid, and as a result, they either ran away or stole from local villages and farms. In the end, at the battle of *Naseby*¹ in 1645, the Royalist army was finally defeated. That was the end of the Civil War. People in the country-side and in the towns did not want this war, and they were happy when it was over.

QUESTIONS

1. How did the Civil War start?
2. Who were Cavaliers and Roundheads?
3. What: parts of the country did the Royalists control? What parts were controlled by the Parliamentary army?
4. What were the advantages of Parliament in the Civil War?
5. When and where was the last battle of the Civil War fought? What was the result of the battle?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words and word combinations from the list:

Cavaliers, chosen, teachings, rebellion, to recall, Roundheads, to raise, judge, Puritans, debt, dissolved, services, divine right.

1. James I had to ask Parliament _____ a tax to pay his _____.

¹ Naseby ['neɪzbɪ] — Нейсби

2. James I believed in the _____ of kings: the king was _____ by God and therefore only God could _____ him.
3. More than once Charles I _____ Parliament, but had _____ it again because he needed money.
4. There were people in Britain who disagreed with the _____ of the Church of England.
5. Some people said that the _____ of the Church of England had become too complicated and too rich.
6. The _____ wanted to make the Church of England more modest.
7. In 1641 Ireland exploded in _____ against the Protestant English settlers.
8. The Royalists, known as _____, controlled most of the north and west.
9. The Parliamentary soldiers cut their hair short and got the name of _____.

CHAPTER 10 REPUBLICAN AND RESTORATION BRITAIN

Part 1. Republic in Britain.

Oliver Cromwell¹. Several MPs had commanded the Parliamentary army during the Civil War. The strongest of them was a gentleman farmer named **Oliver Cromwell**. He had created a new “model” army, the first regular force from which the British army of today developed. Instead of country people or gentry, Cromwell invited into his army educated men who wanted to fight for their beliefs.

¹ Oliver Cromwell ['ɒlɪvə'krɒmwəl] — Оливер Кромвель

Cromwell and his advisers captured the king in 1645, but they did not know what to do with him. This was an entirely new situation in English history. They could either bring Charles back to the throne and allow him to rule, or remove him and create a new political system. By this time most people in both Houses of Parliament, and probably in the country, wanted the king back. They were afraid of the Parliamentarians and of the dangerous behaviour of the army. But some army commanders were determined to get rid of the king. These men were Puritans, who believed they could build God's kingdom in England.

Two-thirds of the MPs did not want to put the king on trial¹. They were removed from Parliament by Cromwell's army. The king was accused of treason² and found guilty of³ "making war against his kingdom and Parliament." On 31 January, 1649, King Charles I was executed.

Republic. From 1649 till 1660 Britain was a republic. But the republic was not a success. Cromwell and his friends created a government which was far more severe than Charles had been. They had got rid of the monarchy, and now they got rid of the House of Lords.

The Scots were shocked by Charles's execution. They invited his son, whom they recognized as King Charles II, to join them and fight against the English Parliamentarian army. But they were defeated, and young Charles himself had to escape to France. Scotland was brought under English republican rule.

¹ to put the king on trial — предавать короля суду

² accused of treason [tri:zn] — обвинён в государственной измене

³ found guilty ['giltɪ] of — признан виновным в

Cromwell took an army to Ireland “to punish the Irish” for the killing of Protestants in 1641 and for the continued Royalist rebellion there. He captured two towns. His soldiers killed the inhabitants of both towns, about 6,000 people. These killings were probably not worse than the killings of the Protestants in 1641, but they remained powerful symbols of English cruelty to the Irish.

The Levellers¹. There were people at that time who had new ideas. Their ideas seemed strange to most other people of the 17th century. These people spoke about equality among all men. They called themselves **Levellers**. By and by the ideas of the Levellers began to attract more and more people. They also spread into the army. There appeared Levellers among the officers and soldiers. In 1649 the Levellers in the army rebelled and put forward their demands. They said that Parliament must meet every two years and that all men over the age of twenty-one must have the right to elect MPs to it. They also demanded complete religious freedom, so that all religious groups could follow their religion in the way they wished.

Two hundred years later such demands were considered as basic citizens' rights. But in the middle of the 17th century they had little support among the people. The rebellion of the Levellers was suppressed.

The Lord Protector. From 1653 Britain was governed by Cromwell alone. He became **Lord Protector** and had much more power than King Charles had had. But his efforts to govern the country through the army were extremely unpopular, and the idea of using the army to maintain law and order in the kingdom has remained

¹ Levellers ['levələz] — левеллеры, «уравнители»



Oliver Cromwell

unpopular ever since. His other innovations were unpopular too: people were forbidden to celebrate *Christmas*¹ and *Easter*², or to play games on Sunday.

When Cromwell died in 1658, he was succeeded by his son Richard. But Richard Cromwell was a poor leader and could control neither the army, nor Parliament. Nobody governed the country. It was

clear that the situation could be saved only by the restoration of monarchy. In 1660 Charles II was invited to return to his kingdom. The republic was over.

QUESTIONS

1. Who was Oliver Cromwell? What new kind of army did he create?
2. When did Cromwell capture Charles? What was the problem of the Parliamentarians in connection with the captured king? What choice did they have?
3. Why did most people want the king back? What were they afraid of?
4. Who wanted to get rid of the king? What did the Puritans believe they could do?
5. What was Charles I accused of? What was he found guilty of? When was he executed?

¹ Christmas ['krɪsməs] — Рождество

² Easter ['i:stə] — Пасха

6. In what years was Britain a republic? Was the republic a success? Why?
7. What was the reaction in Scotland to the execution of Charles I? What did the Scots do? Were they a success?
8. What did Cromwell do in Ireland?
9. Who were the Levellers? What idea did they speak about?
10. When did the Levellers rebel? What demands did they put forward? Why was the rebellion of the Levellers suppressed?
11. In what year did Cromwell begin governing the country alone? What title did he take?
12. Were Cromwell's efforts to govern the country through the army popular? What did he forbid the people?
13. Who succeeded Cromwell after his death? In what way was his successor different from him?
14. How did the republic in Britain end?

Part 2. Restoration.

With the restoration of monarchy, Parliament once more became as weak as it had been in the time of James I and Charles I. However, the new king, Charles II, did not want to make Parliament his enemy. He punished only those MPs who had been responsible for his father's execution. Many MPs were given positions of authority or responsibility in the new monarchy. But in general Parliament remained weak. Charles shared his father's belief in divine right, and he greatly admired the all-powerful, absolute ruler of France Louis XIV¹.

¹ Louis ['lu:] XIV — Луи XIV



King Charles II

Charles hoped to make peace between the different religious groups that existed in Britain at that time. He wanted to allow Puritans and Catholics, who disliked the Church of England, to meet freely. But Parliament, whose members belonged to the Church of England, did not want to allow this. Charles himself was attracted to the Catholic Church. Parliament knew this, and many MPs were worried that Charles would become a Catholic.

The first political parties. The first political parties in Britain appeared in Charles II's reign.

One of these parties was a group of MPs who became known as **Whigs**¹, a rude name for cattle drivers. The Whigs were afraid of an absolute monarchy and of the Catholic faith with which they connected it. They also wanted to have no regular army.

The other party, which opposed the Whigs, was nicknamed **Tories**², which is an Irish name for thieves. The Tories, who were natural inheritors of the Royalists of the Civil War, supported the Crown and the Church.

¹ Whigs [wɪgz] — Виги

² Tories ['tɔːrɪz] — Тори

These two parties, the Whigs and the Tories, became the basis of Britain's two-party parliamentary system of government.

The Glorious Revolution¹. The struggle over Catholicism became a crisis when James II became king after his brother's death in 1685. James II was a Catholic. He tried to revive the importance of the Catholic Church and give Catholics important positions in government and Parliament. Parliament was alarmed and angry. The Tories united with the Whigs against James. They decided that James II had lost his right to the crown.

James's daughter Mary was a Protestant, and she was married to the Protestant ruler of Holland², **William of Orange**³. Parliament invited William of Orange to invade England.

In 1688 William entered London. James was in danger and fled from England. The English crown was offered to William and Mary.

The events of 1688 went down into history as **the Glo-**



King William III



Queen Mary II

¹ The Glorious Revolution — Славная революция

² Holland ['hɒlənd] — Голландия

³ William of Orange ['wɪljəm əv'ɒrɪndʒ] — Вильгельм Оранский

rious Revolution. It was not really a revolution: in fact it was a *coup d'etat*¹ organized by the ruling class. Now Parliament was much more powerful than the king. Its power over the monarch was written into **the Bill of Rights**² in 1689. **The Bill of Rights** stated that the king could not raise taxes or keep an army without the agreement of Parliament.

The union with Scotland. Scotland was still a separate kingdom, although both countries had the same king (James II was James VII of Scotland). The English wanted England and Scotland to be united. Scotland wanted to remove the limits on trade with England from which it suffered economically. The English Parliament promised to remove these limits if the Scots agreed to the union with England. Finally, in 1707; the union of Scotland and England was completed by *an Act of Parliament*³. The state got a new name: **Great Britain**. The separate parliaments of both countries stopped functioning. A new parliament, **the Parliament of Great Britain**, met for the first time.

QUESTIONS

1. How did the position of Parliament change with the restoration of monarchy?
2. What did Charles II do because he did not want to make Parliament his enemy?
3. What were the contradictions between Charles II and Parliament about Catholics and Puritans?
4. When did the first political parties appear in Britain? What were they called? What were the basic principles of each of the two parties?

¹ *coup d'etat* ['ku:der'ta] — фр. переворот

² the Bill of Rights — Билль о правах

³ an Act of Parliament — акт Парламента

5. When did the contradiction about religion grow into a crisis? Why?
6. Why did the Tories unite with the Whigs against James II ?
7. What important statement did Parliament make about James II ? Why did they invite William of Orange to invade England? How was William connected with the English throne?
8. When did William of Orange invade England? Why did James II flee from the country? Whom did Parliament offer the English crown?
9. Was the Glorious Revolution really a revolution?
10. How was the king's power limited as a result of the Glorious Revolution?
11. Why did Scotland agree to the union with England? In what year was the union officially completed? What was the new official name of the united state?

Part 3. Foreign Relations.

During the 17th century Britain's main rivals were Spain, Holland and France. There was a competition in trade between England and Holland. After three wars Britain achieved the trade position it wanted.

At the end of the century Britain went to war against France. Partly it was because William of Orange had struggled with France before he came to the English throne. But Britain also wanted to limit French power, which had been growing under Louis XIV. The British army won several important victories over the French. By *the treaty of Utrecht*¹ in

¹ Utrecht ['ju:trekt] — Утрехт

1713 Britain got possession of the rock of **Gibraltar**¹, so now it controlled the entrance to the Mediterranean² from the Atlantic Ocean.

Colonizing foreign lands was important for Europe's economic development. In the 17th century Britain did not have so many colonies abroad as either Spain or Holland, but it had greater variety. It had twelve colonies on the east coast of North America. In the West Indies³ it had new colonies where sugar was grown. Besides, by this time Britain's East India Company had established its first trading settlements in India, on both the west and east coasts.

QUESTIONS

1. What countries were Britain's main rivals in the 17th century?
2. What were the reasons of the wars with Holland and France? What did Britain achieve as a result of these wars?
3. What was colonizing foreign lands important for? What colonies did Britain have in North America, in the West Indies and in India?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words and word combinations from the list:

to invade, Glorious Revolution, Whigs, accused, unpopular, two-party, equality, Tories, executed, Bill of Rights, restoration, Protector.

1. The king was _____ of treason.
2. On January 31, 1649, King Charles I was _____.

¹ Gibraltar [dʒɪ'brɔ:ltə] — Гибралтар

² the Mediterranean [ˌmedɪtə'reɪnjən] — Средиземное море

³ the West Indies ['west'ɪndɪz] — Вест-Индия

3. The Levellers spoke about _____ among all men.
4. The idea of using the army to maintain law and order in the country has remained _____ to this day.
5. In 1653 Cromwell became Lord _____.
6. With the _____ of monarchy Parliament became weak again.
7. The _____ were afraid of an absolute monarchy and of the Catholic faith.
8. The _____ supported the Crown and the Church.
9. The Whigs and the Tories became the basis of Britain's _____ parliamentary system of government.
10. Parliament invited William of Orange _____ England.
11. The events of 1688 went down into history as the _____.
12. The _____ stated that the king could not raise taxes or keep an army without the agreement of Parliament.

CHAPTER 11

THE 17TH CENTURY SOCIETY

Part 1. Reconsidering religious dogmas.

The influence of Puritanism increased greatly during the 17th century, especially among the classes of merchants and the lesser gentry. The new official translation of the Bible encouraged Bible reading among all those who could read. Some people understood the Bible in a new way. As a result, by the middle of the 17th



A Quaker meeting

century Puritanism had led to the formation of a large number of small new religious groups or sects. Most of these *Nonconformist*¹ sects lasted only a few years, but one is important, that is the sect of people who called themselves **Quakers**², or Friends. The Quakers became particularly famous for their reforming social work in the 18th century.

The Church of England, unlike the Nonconformist churches, was strong politically, but it became weaker intellectually. The great religious writers of the period, **John Bunyan**³, who wrote "*The Pilgrim's Progress*"⁴, and **John Milton**⁵, who wrote "*Paradise Lost*"⁶, were both Puritans.

QUESTIONS

1. What fact encouraged Bible reading among the people? How did some people understand the Bible? What did it lead to?
2. Which of the Nonconformist sects that appeared in the 17th century became particularly famous?

¹ Nonconformist ['nɒnkən'fɔ:mɪst] — нонконформистский, раскольниковый

² Quakers ['kweɪkəz] — квакеры

³ John Bunyan ['dʒɒn'bʌnjən] — Джон Баньян

⁴ "The Pilgrim's Progress" — «Путь паломника»

⁵ John Milton ['dʒɒn'mɪltən] — Джон Мильтон

⁶ "Paradise Lost" ['pæradaɪs'lɒst] — «Потерянный рай»

3. What was the disadvantage of the Church of England in comparison with the Nonconformist movement?
4. Who were the two great religious writers of the century? What books did they write?

Part 2. Revolution in Scientific Thinking.

The revolution in religious thinking coincided with the revolution in scientific thinking.

A new approach to science was established at the very beginning of the century by **Francis Bacon**¹, who was known for his work on scientific method. He said that every scientific idea must be tested by experiment, and with idea and experiment following one another, the whole natural world would be understood. The British scientists put Francis Bacon's

¹ Francis Bacon ['frænsɪs'beɪkən] — Фрэнсис Бэкон



The Royal Observatory in Greenwich founded by Charles II



London rebuilt after the Great Fire in 1666

ideas into practice, attaching much importance to experiment and research.

The scientific studies were encouraged by the Stuarts. **The Royal Society**¹, founded by the Stuart monarchy, became an important centre where thinkers could meet, argue and share information.

In 1628 **William Harvey**² discovered the circulation of blood, and this led to great advances in medicine and in the study of the human body.

In 1666 the Cambridge professor of mathematics **Sir Isaac Newton**³ began to study gravity. He published his important discovery in 1684. In 1687 he published "*Principia*"⁴, or "*The Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*"⁵, which is considered

¹ The Royal Society — Королевское научное общество

² William Harvey ['wɪljəm'hɑ:vɪ] — Уильям Гарвей

³ Isaac Newton ['aɪzɪk'nju:tən] — Исаак Ньютон

⁴ "Principia" [prɪn'sɪpiə] — «Начала»

⁵ "The Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy" [ðə ,mæθə'mætɪkəl'prɪnsɪplz əv'nætʃərəl fɪ'lɒsəfɪ] — «Матеметические начала натуральной философии»

one of the greatest books in the history of science. Newton's work remained the basis of physics until Einstein's¹ discoveries in the 20th century.

The greatest British architect of the time, **Sir Christopher Wren**², was also professor of astronomy at Oxford. He is famous for rebuilding London after the Great Fire of 1666.

QUESTIONS

1. Who established a new approach to science? What was the essence of his new approach?
2. Did the Stuart Monarchs encourage scientific studies? What important institution was founded in their reign?
3. What discovery did William Harvey make in 1628?
4. What is Christopher Wren famous for?
5. What did Isaac Newton study? What is the title of his famous book?

Part 3. Life in the Stuart Age.

The situation for the poor improved in the second half of the 17th century. Prices fell compared with wages, and fewer people had to ask for help from the parish. The middle groups continued to do well. Many who started life as yeoman farmers or traders became minor gentry or merchants.

Trade in Britain greatly developed in the 17th century. Different regions of the country became less economically separated from each other. No place in Britain was more than 75 miles from the sea, and

¹ Einstein ['aɪnstain] — Эйнштейн

² Christopher Wren ['krɪstəfə'ren] — Кристофер Рен

very few places were more than 20 miles from a river or canal. These waterways became important means of transport.

Before the 17th century most towns did not have shops. They had market days on which farmers and manufacturers sold their produce in the town square or marketplace. By 1690, however, most towns also had proper shops. Shopkeepers travelled around the country to buy for their shops new goods, which drew people from the countryside to see and buy them. The towns which had shops grew larger.

London. London remained much larger than any other town. By 1650 more than 500,000 people lived in it. The next largest cities, Norwich¹, Newcastle² and Bristol³ had only 25,000 each.

¹ Norwich ['nɔːrɪdʒ] — Норидж

² Newcastle ['nju:kɑːsl] — Ньюкасл

³ Bristol ['brɪstəl] — Бристоль



A house of a wealthy family



A coffeehouse

In London there was a new class of aristocrats. These people were rich, and most of them were representatives of old nobility.

Some of the aristocrats, however, were “*new nobility*” who had bought themselves titles for much money. Some of the older Tudor nobility did not want to accept the “new nobles” as equals. They called themselves *squires* (which means the ruling class of the countryside) and looked down upon¹ the upstarts².

After 1650 the rich began to meet in the new coffee-houses, which quickly became the meeting places for conversation and discussing politics. These coffee-houses later developed into present-day clubs, which are so popular in England today.

⁴ looked down upon — смотрели свысока на

⁵ upstarts — выскочки



A typical farmhouse

Family life. In the 17th century the authority of the father in the family continued to grow. It was the result of the increasing authority of the Church. The Protestants believed that teaching religion in the family was important, and put the responsibility on the head of the family. The father always led daily family prayers and Bible reading. In some ways he had taken the place of the priest. Absolute obedience on the part of¹ his wife and children was expected. Disobedience was considered an act against God as well as the head of the house.

One result of this growth of the father's authority was that children were frequently beaten to break their "sinful" will. A child who was not beaten was unusual.

¹ on the part of — со стороны

QUESTIONS.

1. How did the life of people improve in the 17th century?
2. Trade in the 17th century greatly developed, didn't it? Why did different regions of the country become less separated from each other?
3. How many people lived in London in 1650?
4. What was the new class in London? Who was this new class represented by? Who were "new nobility"?
5. What were the coffee-houses? What did they later develop into?
6. Who was considered the person of authority in the 17th-century family? What was the father of the family responsible for? What were his religious duties in the family?
7. What was expected on the part of the wife and children? How was disobedience regarded?
8. What was the negative result of the enormous growth of the father's authority in the family?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words or word combinations from the list:

Royal Society, aristocrats, gravity, disobedience, Quakers, coincided, Puritanism, circulation, discussing, scientific, intellectually, Francis Bacon.

1. The influence of _____ increased greatly during the 17th century.
2. The _____ became particularly famous for their reforming social work.
3. The Church of England was strong politically, but it became weaker _____.

4. The revolution in religious thinking _____ with the revolution in _____ thinking.
5. _____ established a new approach to science.
6. In 1628 William Harvey discovered the _____ of blood.
7. The _____ became an important centre where thinkers could meet, argue and share information.
8. In 1666 Sir Isaac Newton began to study _____.
9. In London there was a new class of _____.
10. The coffee-houses quickly became the meeting places for conversation and _____ politics.
11. _____ to the father was considered an act against God.

UNIT REVIEW

Who were these people? What did they do? Write a few words about each of them.

Charles I

William of Orange

Francis Bacon

Oliver Cromwell

Isaac Newton

John Milton

Christopher Wren

UNIT FIVE

BRITAIN IN THE 18TH CENTURY

Well before the end of the 18th century Britain had become a very powerful country. It became wealthy through trade. The wealth made possible both an agricultural and an industrial revolution, which made Britain the most economically advanced country in the world.

However, there was a reverse side to it: while a few people became richer, many others lost their land, their homes and their way of life. Families were driven off the land in another period of enclosures. They became the working proletariat of the cities. The invention of machinery destroyed the old "cottage industries" and created factories. At the same time it caused the growth of unemployment.

This splitting of society into very rich and very poor was a great danger to the established order. In France the misery of the poor and the power of the trading classes led to revolution in 1789. Britain was saved from revolution partly by the high level of local control of the ruling class in the countryside and partly by Methodism, a new religious movement which offered hope and self-respect to the new proletariat.

CHAPTER 12

CHANGES IN POLITICAL LIFE

Part 1. Politics and Money.

The new dynasty. King James I had a granddaughter, Sophia¹, who was a Protestant. She married the Elector of Hanover², also a Protestant. The British Parliament declared their son, **George Hanover**³, the heir to the English throne after Queen Anne, who had no surviving children. When Queen Anne died in 1714, George Hanover ascended the English throne⁴ as George I, thus starting a new dynasty.



Queen Anne

George I was a strange king. He was a true German and did not try to follow English customs. He could not speak English and spoke to his ministers in French. But Parliament supported him because he was a Protestant.

There were some Tories who wanted the deposed James II's son to return to Britain as James III. James did not want to change his religion, but he wanted the

¹ Sophia ['soufjə] — София

² the Elector [ɪ'lektə] of Hanover ['hænəvə] — курфюрст Ганновера

³ George Hanover ['dʒɔ:dʒ'hænəvə] — Георг Ганновер

⁴ ascended [ə'sendɪd] the English throne — вступил на английский престол

English throne. In 1715 he started a rebellion against George I. But the rebellion was put down: George's army defeated the English and Scottish **Jacobites**¹, as Stuart supporters were called.

The Bank of England. At the end of the 17th century the government had to borrow money in order to pay for the war with France. In 1694, a group of financiers who lent money to the government decided to establish a bank, and the government agreed to borrow only from this bank. The new bank was called **the Bank of England**. It was given the right to print *bank notes*, which could be used instead of coins. The paper money which is used today developed from these bank notes.

Robert Walpole². The power of the government during the reign of George I was increased because the new king did not seem very interested in his kingdom. The greatest political leader of the time was **Robert Walpole**. He is considered Britain's first Prime Minister.

In the other countries of Europe kings and queens had absolute power. Britain was unusual, and Walpole was determined to keep the Crown under the firm control of Parliament. Walpole developed the



King George I

¹ Jacobites ['dʒækəbaɪts] — якобиты

² Robert Walpole ['rɒbət'wɔːlpoul] — Роберт Уолпол

political results of the Glorious Revolution of 1688. He insisted that the power of the king should always be limited by the constitution.

The limits to royal power were these: the king could not be a Catholic; the king could not remove or change laws; the king depended on Parliament for his money and for his army.

Lord Chatham¹. Walpole wanted to avoid war because it took a lot of money. The most important political enemy of Walpole was **William Pitt the Elder**², later **Lord Chatham**. Chatham was sure that in order to be economically strong in the world, Britain should develop international trade. Trade involved competition. France was the main rival of Britain because it had many colonies. Chatham was certain that Britain must beat France in the competition for overseas markets. When Chatham was in the government, he decided to make the British navy stronger than that of France or any other nation. He also decided to seize a number of France's trading ports abroad.

The war with France. The war with France broke out in 1756 and went on all over the world. In Canada the British took *Quebec*³ in 1759 and *Montreal*⁴ the following year. This gave the British control of the important fish, fur and wood trades. In India the army of the British East India Company defeated French armies both in *Bengal*⁵ and in the south near *Madras*⁶. Soon Britain controlled most

¹ Lord Chatham [ˈtʃætəm] — Лорд Чэтем

² William Pitt the Elder — Уильям Питт Старший

³ Quebec [kwɪˈbek] — Квебек

⁴ Montreal [ˌmɒntʁiˈɔːl] — Монреаль

⁵ Bengal [ˈbeŋɡɔːl] — Бенгалия

⁶ Madras [məˈdrɑːs] — Мадрас



An East India Company official with his escort

of India. Many Britons started to go to India to make their fortune¹.

Growth of international trade. During the rest of the century Britain's international trade increased rapidly. By the end of the century the West Indies were the most profitable part of Britain's new empire. They formed one corner of a profitable trade triangle. Knives, swords and cloth made in British factories were taken to West Africa and exchanged for slaves. The slaves were taken to the West Indies where they worked on large plantations growing sugar. From the West Indies the ships returned to Britain carrying great loads of sugar which had been grown by the slaves.

Voting. Parliament represented only a very small number of people: in the 18th century voting was not universal. Only house owners with a certain income

¹ to make their fortune ['fɔ:tʃən] — разбогатеть, «сколотить состояние»

had the right to vote. As a result, while the population of Britain was almost eight million, there were fewer than 250,000 voters. Besides, the voters were controlled by a small number of very rich property owners, who sometimes acted together as a town corporation. Each county and each town sent two representatives to Parliament. It was not difficult for rich and powerful people to make sure that the man they wanted was elected to Parliament. In the countryside ordinary farmers did not own land: they rented it from greater landowners. At that time voting was not done in secret, and no farmer would vote against the wishes of his landlord for fear of losing his land. Other voters voted for the "right man" for a gift of money: in other words, their votes were "bought." In this way the great land-owning aristocrats were able to control those who sat in Parliament and make sure that the MPs did what they wanted. No one could say that Parliament in those days was democratic.

QUESTIONS

1. How did the Hanover dynasty come to reign over Britain?
2. What kind of king was George I? Why did Parliament support him?
3. What did some Tories want? When did the Jacobite rebellion start? How did it finish?
4. When was the Bank of England established? What innovation did the Bank of England introduce? What did the present-day paper money develop from?
5. Who was Robert Walpole?
6. How did Walpole develop the political results of the Glorious Revolution?

7. What were the limits to royal power?
8. Who was the most important political enemy of Walpole?
9. What was Lord Chatham sure of?
10. Why was France the main rival of Britain in international trade? What was Lord Chatham determined to do in this connection?
11. When did the war with France break out? Was it waged only in Europe? What advantages did Britain achieve as a result of the war?
12. What colony was the most profitable part of Britain's new empire?
13. What was the "profitable trade triangle"? How did it function?
14. Was voting universal in the 18th century? Who had the right to vote?
15. Who were the voters controlled by?
16. How many representatives were sent to Parliament from each town and each county?
17. How did ordinary farmers depend on greater landowners in their voting? Explain.
18. How did the great land-owning aristocrats make sure that MPs did what they wanted? Explain.

Part 2. Developing Public Opinion.

Between 1750 and 1770 the number of newspapers published in the country increased. Newspapers were read by many people who could never hope to vote because they were not rich enough, but who were interested in the important matters of the times. These people were clerks, skilled workers and tradesmen. Newspapers sent their own reporters to listen to Parliament discussions and write about them. Politics

were no longer a monopoly of the land-owning gentry. The age of public opinion had arrived.

The loss of the American colonies. In 1764 there was a serious quarrel over taxation between the British government and the colonies in America. The population of the British colonies in America was rapidly growing. In 1700 there had been only 200,000 colonists, but by 1770 there were already 2,5 million. Some American colonists decided that it was not lawful for the British government to tax them without their agreement. They said that if they paid taxes to the British government, they must have their own representatives in British Parliament.

In 1773 a group of colonists at the port of *Boston*¹ threw a shipload of tea² into the sea because they did

¹ Boston ['bɒstən] — Бостон

² a shipload of tea — груз чая



The Boston Tea-party

not want to pay a tax on it which the British government demanded. The event became known as *the Boston tea-party*. The British government answered by closing the port. The colonists rebelled. The American *War of Independence* began.

The war in America lasted from 1775 until 1783. The result was a complete defeat of the British forces. Britain lost all its colonies in America, except Canada¹.

Radicals. Many British politicians openly supported the colonists. They were called radicals. For the first time British politicians supported the rights of the king's subjects abroad to govern themselves and to fight for their rights against the king. The war in America brought new ideas of democracy.

QUESTIONS

1. How did the increased number of newspapers influence public opinion?
2. What did the British government and the American colonies quarrel over in 1764?
3. Why did the American colonists decide that it was not lawful for the British government to tax them? What did they say?
4. What happened in Boston in 1773? What is the event called? Why did the colonists throw the load of tea overboard?
5. When did the American War of Independence begin? How long did it last? What was the result of the war?
6. What new ideas did the War of Independence in America bring? Who were the radicals?

¹ Canada ['kænədə] — Канада

Part 3. Ireland.

The position of the Irish Catholics remained miserable under British rule. The Protestant Parliament in *Dublin*¹ passed laws which prevented the Catholics from taking any part in national life. Catholics could not become members of the Dublin Parliament and could not vote in parliamentary elections. No Catholic could become a lawyer, go to university, or join the navy. The Catholics were second-class citizens in their own land. It was only natural that hatred between the ruling Protestant settlers and the ruled Catholic Irish was growing.

In order to increase British control, Ireland was united with Britain in 1801 and the Dublin Parliament was closed. *The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland* lasted for 120 years, until 1921, when the independent Irish Republic was formed.

QUESTIONS

1. What made the position of the Irish Catholics miserable? What rights were they deprived of?
2. What was done in order to increase British control over Ireland? When was it done?
3. How long did the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland last? When was the independent Irish Republic formed?

Part 4. Scotland.

The Stuarts made more than one attempt to win back the English throne. The first Jacobite revolt to win the crown for James II's son, in 1715, had been unsuccessful. In 1745 the Stuarts tried again. James

¹ Dublin ['dʌblɪn] — Дублин



The battle at Culloden

II's grandson, **Prince Charles Edward Stuart**, better known as **Bonnie Prince Charlie**¹, landed on the west coast of Scotland and persuaded some clan chiefs to join him. With his army of *Highlanders*² he entered Edinburgh³ and defeated an English army in a surprise attack. Then he marched south. But Bonnie Prince Charlie's success was not long. When the Highland army was on the way to London, the Highlanders felt unhappy at being so far from home. Many of them left Prince Charlie's army and moved back to Scotland. In 1746 Prince Charlie's army was defeated by the British army at **Culloden**⁴, near Inverness⁵. The rebellion was finished.

¹ Bonnie Prince Charlie ['bɒni'prɪns'tʃɑ:lɪ] — Красивый принц Чарли

² Highlanders ['haɪ,lændəz] — «хайлендеры», обитатели высокогорных районов Шотландии

³ Edinburgh ['edɪnbərə] — Эдинбург

⁴ Culloden [kə'lɒdn] — Кэллоден

⁵ Inverness [ɪnvə'nes] — Инвернес

QUESTIONS

1. When did the Jacobites make the second attempt to seize the English throne for the Stuarts?
2. Who was Bonnie Prince Charlie? What did he do in 1745?
3. Who was Bonnie Prince Charlie supported by? Why was his army defeated?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words or word combinations from the list:

voters, profitable, increased, taxation, reporters, ascended, bank notes, fortune, lawful, limited, democracy, democratic, income, Parliament, county.

1. The Bank of England was given the right to print _____.
2. Walpole insisted that the power of the king should be _____ by the constitution.
3. Many Britons went to India to make their _____.
4. By the end of the century the West Indies were the most _____ part of Britain's new empire.
5. Only house owners with a certain _____ had the right to vote.
6. The _____ were controlled by a small number of very rich property owners.
7. Each _____ and each town sent two representatives to _____.
8. No one could say that Parliament in those days was _____.
9. Between 1750 and 1770 the number of newspapers published in the country _____.
10. Newspapers sent their own _____ to listen to Parliament discussions.

11. There was a serious quarrel over _____ between the British government and the colonies in America.
12. Some American colonists said that it was not _____ for the British government to tax them without their agreement.
13. The war in America brought new ideas of _____.
14. When Queen Anne died in 1714, George Hanover _____ the English throne.

CHAPTER 13 LIFE IN TOWN AND IN THE COUNTRYSIDE

Part 1. Life in Towns.

In 1700 England was still a land of small villages. In the northern areas of England the large cities of the future, such as Liverpool¹, Manchester², Birmingham³, Sheffield⁴ and Leeds⁵ were only just beginning to grow.

All the towns smelled bad. There were no drains⁶. The streets were dirty. The towns were centres of disease. As a result, only one child in four in London lived to become an adult.

During the 18th century efforts were made to make the towns healthier. The streets were built wider, so that carriages drawn by horses could pass each oth-

¹ Liverpool ['lɪvəpʊl] — Ливерпуль

² Manchester ['mæntʃɪstə] — Манчестер

³ Birmingham ['bɜːmɪŋəm] — Бирмингем

⁴ Sheffield ['ʃɛfld] — Шеффилд

⁵ Leeds [liːdz] — Лидс

⁶ drains — сточные трубы, канализация

er. From 1734 London had a street lighting system. After 1760 many towns organized street cleaning.

There were four main classes of people in the eighteenth-century towns: wealthy merchants, ordinary merchants and traders, skilled craftsmen, and a large number of workers who had no skills and who could not be sure of finding work.

QUESTIONS

1. Why were the towns of the early 18th century centres of disease?
2. What changes were introduced during the 18th century to make the towns healthier?
3. Which were the main classes of people in the 18th-century towns?

Part 2. Life in the Countryside.

The countryside changed greatly during the 18th century. At the beginning of the century farming was still done as it had been for centuries. Each village was surrounded by large fields, which were not in individual possession. It was common land, and each villager farmed part of it.

Beginning with the middle of the 17th century farming had become much more profitable. A number of improvements had been introduced in farming methods. Farmers had begun to understand how to improve soil. The improvements made it possible to produce greater crops. But it was difficult to introduce these improvements when land was divided into small parts farmed by individual farmers. Small farmers could not afford the necessary machinery.

People with money and influence, such as the village squire, persuaded their MPs to pass a law through

Parliament allowing them to take over common land and to enclose it. With one large area for each farm, the new machinery and methods worked very well.

The enclosures and the farming improvements made agriculture in Britain more efficient than in almost any other country in Europe. At the same time, the enclosures were damaging for a lot of people. When common land was enclosed, the villagers had nowhere to grow their crops, so they could not feed their families. Some of them had built their houses on common land. When the common land was enclosed, their houses were destroyed, and they became homeless.

To help homeless and unemployed people, *parish workhouses*¹ were built, where the poor lived and were fed. Sometimes a local businessman who wanted cheap workers hired a workhouse. The poor people who were kept in this workhouse worked for the businessman, and he provided food in return for work. This quickly led to a system which was little better than slavery. In the workhouses children, as well as adults, worked long hours and got so little food that they were always hungry.

Other people left their village and went to the towns to find work. They provided the cheap working force that made possible an **industrial revolution** which was to change² the face of Britain.

QUESTIONS

1. How was farming done at the beginning of the 18th century? What was common land?
2. Why had farming become more profitable?

¹ parish workhouses — приходские работные дома

² which was to change — которой предстояло изменить

3. Why was it difficult to introduce improvements and use machinery in farming when land was divided into small parts?
4. During the 18th century most of common land was enclosed, wasn't it? What does the term "enclosures" mean?
5. Who enclosed common land? How did they get the support of Parliament for enclosures?
6. The enclosures, together with the farming improvements, made agriculture in Britain very efficient, didn't they? What was the negative side of the enclosures?
7. What attempts were made to help the poor? What is a workhouse? What were the conditions of life in the workhouses?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words and word combinations from the list:

lighting, common land, workhouses, healthier, unemployed, wealthy, enclosed, improvements, disease, damaging, afford, skilled, enclosures, influence, crops.

1. The towns were centres of _____.
2. During the 18th century efforts were made to make the towns _____.
3. From 1734 London had a street _____ system.
4. There were four main classes of people in the 18th-century towns: _____ merchants, ordinary merchants and traders, _____ craftsmen, and workers who had no skills.
5. People with money and _____ took over common land and _____ it.

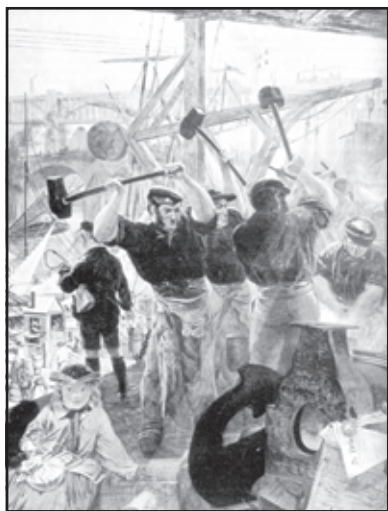
6. A number of _____ were introduced in farming methods.
7. Small farmers could not _____ the necessary machinery.
8. The _____ and the farming improvements made agriculture more efficient.
9. The enclosures were _____ for a lot of people.
10. When _____ was enclosed, the villagers had nowhere to grow their _____.
11. Parish _____ were built to help homeless and _____ people.

CHAPTER 14 THE YEARS OF REVOLUTION

Part 1. Industrial Revolution.

By the early 18th century simple machines had already been invented. With the help of the machines, large quantities of simple goods could be made quickly and cheaply.

By the middle of the 18th century industry began to use coal for changing iron ore into good quality iron or steel. This made Britain the leading iron producer in Europe. Increased iron production made it possible to manufacture new machinery for other industries. One invention led to another, and increased production in one area led to increased production in others. In the middle of the century other countries were buying British uniforms, equipment and weapons for their armies. To meet this increased demand, better methods of production were found, and new machinery was invented which replaced handwork. In 1764 a *spin-*



Industrial revolution

*ning machine*¹ was invented which could do the work of several hand spinners. The *weaving machine*² invented in 1785 revolutionized clothmaking³. It allowed Britain to make cheap cloth, and Lancashire cloths⁴ were sold in every continent.

Factories supplied with machinery did not need so many workers as before, and that created a serious problem: a lot of workers became unemployed. Workers tried to join together to protect themselves against powerful employers. Riots occurred, led by the unemployed who had been replaced at the factories by machines. In 1799 some of these rioters, known as **Luddites**⁵, began breaking up the machinery which had put them out of work. The situation in the country was very tense. People were afraid of a revolution like the one in France.

QUESTIONS

1. What was it possible to do even with the simple machines that existed in the early 18th century?
2. When did industry begin to use coal for changing iron ore into good quality iron and steel?

¹ spinning machine — ткацкий станок

² weaving machine — прядильная машина

³ revolutionized clothmaking — революционизировала суконное производство

⁴ Lancashire ['læŋkəʃɪə] cloths — ланкаширские сукна

⁵ Luddites ['lʌdaɪts] — луддиты



Rich and poor

3. What did increased iron production make it possible to do?
4. What did other countries buy from Britain in the middle of the 18th century?
5. What advantage did the spinning machine give the industry?
6. Why were Lancashire cloths sold in every continent? Why were they cheap?
7. Why did unemployment increase?
8. How did the workers try to protect themselves against the employers?
9. Who were the Luddites?

Part 2. Society and Religion.

Britain avoided revolution partly because of a new religious movement. This movement did not come from the Church of England, which was slow to recognize change. Many new industrial towns in fact had no church or priests or any kind of organized religion.

The new movement which met the needs of the growing industrial working class was led by the founder of *the Methodist Church*¹ **John Wesley**². He travelled around the country preaching and teaching. He visited the new villages and industrial towns which had no parish church. Soon others joined in his work.

John Wesley's *Methodism* was above all a personal and emotional form of religion. It was organized in small groups, or chapels, all over the country. At a time when the Church of England itself showed little interest in the social and spiritual needs of the growing population, Methodism was able to give ordinary people a sense of purpose and dignity.

By the end of the century there were over 360 Methodist chapels, most of them in industrial areas. These chapels were more democratic than the Church of England.

¹ the Methodist Church ['meθədɪst'tʃə:tʃ] — Методистская церковь

² John Wesley ['dʒən'wesi] — Джон Уэсли



A Methodist meeting

John Wesley was no friend of the ruling classes, but he was deeply conservative and “had no time for radicalism.” He disapproved of the French Revolution and taught people to be hard-working and honest.

The Methodists were not alone. Other Christians also joined them in the movement against social injustice. One of the best known was **Elizabeth Fry**¹, a Quaker, who spoke about the terrible conditions in the prisons and called for reform. It was also a small group of Christians who were the first to act against the evils of the slave trade. Others tried to limit the cruelty of employers who forced children to work long hours.

The influence of these 18th-century religious movements continued. A century later, when workers started to organize themselves more effectively, many of them were members of Methodist or other Nonconformist sects.

QUESTIONS

1. What helped Britain to avoid revolution?
2. What facts show that the Church of England was slow to recognize change?
3. Who was John Wesley? What did he do?
4. What kind of religion was John Wesley's Methodism? How was it organized? What did Methodism give ordinary people?
5. Did John Wesley approve of the French Revolution? What did he teach people?
6. Were the Methodists alone in the movement against social injustice? Who supported them?
7. Who was Elizabeth Fry? What did she attract public attention to?
8. What other social evils did Christians speak about?

¹ Elizabeth Fry [i'lizəbəθ'fraɪ] — Элизабет Фрай

Part 3. Revolution in France.

The French Revolution in 1789 alarmed all European countries. The ruling classes in Britain were frightened by the danger of the working class “awakening”. They saw the danger of revolution in the British countryside, where the enclosures were taking place, and in the towns, to which many of the landless were going in search of work.

Several radicals sympathized with the cause of the French revolutionaries, and called for reforms in Britain. Both the gentry and the bourgeoisie accused the radicals of putting Britain in danger. Tory crowds attacked the homes of radicals in Birmingham and several other cities. The Whig Party was split. Those who feared revolution joined **William Pitt the Younger** (the son of Lord Chatham), a leader of the Tories, while those who wanted reform joined the radical Whig leader **Charles James Fox**¹. Fox’s party was small, but later it formed the link between the Whigs of the 18th century and the Liberals of the 19th century.

The British government was so afraid that revolution would spread to Britain that it imprisoned radical leaders. It also formed the so-called *yeomanry forces* from among the yeomen and gentry who supported the ruling establishment, and trained them as soldiers in order to use them to prevent revolution.

QUESTIONS

1. The French Revolution alarmed all European countries, didn’t it? Where did the ruling classes of Britain see the danger of revolution?

¹ Charles James Fox [ˈtʃɑːlɪzˈdʒeɪmzˈfɒks] — Чарльз Джеймс Фокс

2. Were there people in Britain who sympathized with the cause of the French Revolution? Who were they? What did they call for?
3. Who accused the radicals of putting Britain in danger? What did Tory crowds do in Birmingham and several other cities?
4. Who was William Pitt the Younger?
5. Who was Charles James Fox? What link did Fox's party form?
6. What measures did the British government take because it was afraid of revolution?

Part 4. The War with Napoleon.

One by one the European countries were defeated by **Napoleon**, until at last most of Europe fell under his control. In 1793, after Napoleon's army invaded Belgium and Holland, Britain went to war.

Britain decided to fight France at sea because it had a stronger navy and because its own survival depended on control of its trade routes. The commander of the British fleet, **Admiral Horatio Nelson**¹, won brilliant victories over the French navy, near the coast of Egypt², at Copenhagen³, and finally near Spain, at *Trafalgar*⁴ in 1805, where



Napoleon Bonaparte

¹ Horatio [hə'reɪʃɪu] Nelson [nel-
sn] — Горацио Нельсон

² Egypt ['i:dʒɪpt] — Египет

³ Copenhagen [ˌkoupn'heɪɡən] —
Копенгаген

⁴ Trafalgar [trə'fælgə] — Тра-
фальгар



The battle of Trafalgar

he destroyed the French-Spanish fleet. Nelson was himself killed at Trafalgar, but became one of Britain's greatest national heroes.

In the same year as Trafalgar, in 1805, a British army landed in Portugal¹ to fight the French. This army, with its Portuguese² and Spanish allies, was commanded by **Arthur Wellington**³.

¹ Portugal ['pɔ:tjuɡəl] — Португалия

² Portuguese [ˌpɔ:tju'ɡi:z] — португальский

³ Arthur ['ɑ:θə] Wellington ['welɪŋtən] — Артур Веллингтон



The battle of Waterloo

Like Nelson, Wellington quickly proved to be a great commander. After several victories over the French in Spain, he invaded France. Napoleon, weakened by his disastrous invasion of Russia, surrendered in 1814. But the following year he escaped and quickly assembled an army in France. Wellington, with the help of the Prussian army¹ finally defeated Napoleon at *Waterloo*² in Belgium in June 1815.

QUESTIONS

1. When did Britain go to war against Napoleon?
2. Why did Britain decide to fight France at sea?
3. Who was Horatio Nelson? Where did he win victories over the French navy? Which was the decisive victory? When was it won?
4. When did the British army land in Portugal? Who was the army commanded by?
5. In what battle was Napoleon finally defeated in 1815?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words or word combinations from the list:

Methodism, avoided, Luddites, weapons, ore, defeated, Liberals, Waterloo, unemployed, replaced, quantities, brilliant, ruling classes, equipment, cheaply, steel, sense.

1. With the help of the machines large _____ of simple goods could be made quickly and _____.
2. By the middle of the 18th century industry began to use coal for changing iron _____ into good quality iron and _____.

¹ Prussian [prʌʃn] army — прусская армия

² Waterloo [ˌwɒtəˈluː] — Ватерлоо

3. Other countries were buying British uniforms, _____ and _____ for their armies.
4. In the factories machinery _____ handwork.
5. As a result of introducing machinery, a lot of workers became _____.
6. _____ began breaking up the machinery which had put them out of work.
7. Britain _____ revolution partly because of a new religious movement.
8. John Wesley's _____ was a personal and emotional form of religion.
9. Methodism was able to give ordinary people a _____ of purpose and dignity.
10. The _____ of Britain were frightened by the danger of the working class "awakening."
11. Fox's party formed the link between the Whigs of the 18th century and the _____ of the 19th century.
12. One by one the European countries were _____ by Napoleon.
13. Admiral Horatio Nelson won _____ victories over the French navy.
14. Wellington defeated Napoleon at _____ in June 1815.

UNIT REVIEW

Who were these people? What did they do? Write a few words about each of them.

Robert Walpole

Horatio Nelson

Elizabeth Fry

Bonnie Prince Charlie

John Wesley

Lord Chatham

Arthur Wellington

UNIT SIX

THE AGE OF POWER AND PROSPERITY

In the 19th century Britain was more powerful and self-confident than ever. As a result of the industrial revolution, 19th-century Britain was the «workshop of the world». British factories were producing more than any other country in the world.

Having many colonies, Britain controlled large areas of the world. The British had a strong feeling of their importance.

The rapid growth of the middle class caused a change in the political balance. The role played by the middle class in politics and government was increasingly growing. By 1914 the aristocracy and the Crown had little power left.

CHAPTER 15

BRITAIN IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE 19TH CENTURY

Part 1. Britain's International Policy.

After the defeat of Napoleon Britain enjoyed a strong place in Europe. Its strength was in industry and trade, and in the navy which protected this trade.

Britain's trading position in the world was stronger than any other country's. To defend its interests it kept ships of its navy in almost every ocean of the world. It had its ports on some islands in the Medi-

terranean Sea, in the Indian Ocean¹, in south and west Africa, in Ceylon² and Singapore³.

In Europe Britain did not want any nation to become too strong. Therefore it was glad that Russia's influence in Europe was limited by Prussia⁴ and the empires of Austria⁵ and Turkey⁶. It did not want Russia to expand southwards by taking over the Slavic⁷ parts of Turkey's possessions in the Balkans⁸ and reach the Mediterranean. So Britain supported Turkey against Russian expansion.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the position of Britain in Europe after the defeat of Napoleon?
2. What measures did Britain take to defend its interests in the world? Where did it have its ports?
3. What were Britain's interests in Europe? What countries limited Russia's influence in Europe? Why was Britain glad of it?
4. Why did Britain support Turkey against Russia's expansion? What was it afraid of on the part of Russia?

Part 2. The Situation at Home.

At home the contradictions between the rich and the poor were growing and becoming dangerous. During the wars with Napoleon Britain's factories had

¹ the Indian Ocean ['ɪndiən'ou|n] — Индийский океан

² Ceylon ['si'lɒn] — Цейлон

³ Singapore ['sɪŋgəpɔ:] — Сингапур

⁴ Prussia ['prʌʃə] — Пруссия

⁵ Austria ['ɔ:striə] — Австрия

⁶ Turkey ['tɜ:kɪ] — Турция

⁷ Slavic ['slævɪk] — славянские

⁸ the Balkans ['bɒlkənz] — Балканы

produced clothes, guns and other necessary war supplies to sell to its allies' armies. It had given jobs to many workers.

All this changed when peace was declared in 1815. Suddenly there was no longer such a need for factory-made goods, and many workers lost their jobs. Besides, 300,000 men from Britain's army and navy had returned home and were looking for jobs, which made the number of the unemployed still greater.

The situation in the countryside was as bad as in the towns. New methods of farming which were being introduced reduced the number of workers needed, and many of them lost their jobs. The starving farmworkers tried to catch wild birds and animals for food. But almost all the woods had been enclosed by the local landlords, and new laws forbade hunting in enclosed areas.

The poor people did not receive enough help from the government. Only those who lived in the workhouses were given any help at all. The workhouses



The growth of cities. Sheffield in the 19th century

were feared and hated. They were crowded and dirty. The inhabitants had to work from early morning till late at night and got very little food.

Many poor people moved to the towns hoping for a better life there. Between 1815 and 1835 Britain changed from a nation of country people to a nation mainly of townspeople. In the first thirty years of the 19th century such cities as Birmingham, Sheffield, Manchester, Glasgow¹ and Leeds doubled in size. Several towns situated close together grew into huge cities with no countryside left in between. London remained the largest city. In 1820 it had a population of 1,25 million.

QUESTIONS

1. What had given jobs to many people during the wars with Napoleon?
2. Why did the declaration of peace in 1815 cause an increase of unemployment? Give two reasons.
3. What was the situation in the countryside? Why did many farmworkers lose their jobs?
4. Did the poor people receive enough help from the government? Why were the workhouses feared and hated?
5. Why did Britain change from a nation of country people to a nation of townspeople between 1815 and 1835?
6. Name some cities which doubled in size during the first thirty years of the 19th century. London remained the largest city, didn't it? What was its population in 1820?

¹ Glasgow ['glɑ:sgou] — Глазго

Part 3. Reforming the Parliamentary System.

The Whigs understood better than the Tories the need to reform the law in order to improve social conditions. Both the Tories and the Whigs were afraid of revolution. The Whigs believed that the country could avoid revolution by introducing reforms. The idea of reforming the parliamentary system had appeared in the 18th century. Early radicals had started speaking about reforms under the influence of the American War of Independence and the French Revolution.

There were serious contradictions between the conservative Tories and the radicals as to what classes of society should be mostly represented in Parliament and determine the government's policy. The Tories believed that Parliament should represent "property" and the property owners (this idea is still associated by some people with today's Tory Party). The radicals believed that Parliament should represent the people. The Whigs, or *Liberals* as they later became known, were in the middle: they wanted to introduce some changes in order to avoid revolution, but were not ready for any radical reforms.

The Tories hoped that the House of Lords would protect the interests of the property owners. When the House of Commons passed *a bill*¹ on reform, it was turned down by the House of Lords in 1830. **Lord Grey**² formed a Whig government, and the Reform Bill was passed again. In 1832 the Lords accepted it. Of course they accepted it not because they now accepted the idea of reform. They were frightened by

¹ a bill — законопроект

² Lord Grey [greɪ] — Лорд Грей

the riots in the streets and feared that the collapse of political and civil order might lead to revolution.

The Reform Bill was a progressive step. It gave the right to vote to many people who had previously been deprived of this right. As a result of *the Reform Bill* many people in Scotland, as well as many people in the towns and cities of England, got the right to vote for the first time. Scotland's voters increased from 5,000 to 65,000. Forty-one English towns, including the large cities of Manchester, Birmingham and Bradford¹, were represented in Parliament for the very first time. *The 1832 Reform Bill* was a political recognition that Britain had become an urban society.

QUESTIONS

1. What was it necessary to do in order to improve the social conditions in the country? Who understood it better: the Tories or the Whigs?
2. What were both the Tories and the Whigs afraid of?
3. When had the idea of reforming the parliamentary system first appeared? What world events had influenced its appearance?
4. What were the contradictions between the Tories and the radicals about?
5. Who did the Tories think the Parliament should represent? What did the radicals believe? What was the position of the Whigs?
6. What hopes did the Tories lay on the House of Lords? How did the House of Lords try to protect the interests of the property owners in 1830?
7. When did the Lords accept the Reform Bill? Why did they accept it?

¹ Bradford ['brædfəd] — Брэдфорд

8. Why is it right to call the Reform Bill a democratic step? How did it tell on the number of voters in Scotland? How many towns received the right to vote for the first time?

Part 4. Workers' Revolts.

Since 1824 workers began joining together in unions to struggle against employers for their rights and better wages. The first *workers' unions* were small and weak. The introduction of a cheap postage system greatly helped the unions to organize themselves across the country: for one penny a letter could be sent to anyone, anywhere in Britain.

In 1838 the workers' unions worked out¹ a document called a **People's Charter**². The Charter demanded rights that are now accepted by everyone: the vote for all adults, the right for a man without property to be an MP, secret voting³, and payment for MPs. The House of Commons refused to meet these demands⁴. As a result, there was a wave of riots and political meetings. In 1839 fourteen men were killed by soldiers in a riot in Newport⁵, Wales. Many others were sent to Britain's colonies as prisoners. The government's severe actions showed how



A postage stamp

¹ worked out — разработали

² People's Charter ['tʃɑ:tə] — Народная хартия

³ secret voting — тайное голосование

⁴ refused to meet these demands — отказалась выполнить их требования

⁵ Newport ['nju:ps:t] — Ньюпорт

much it feared that the poor might take power and establish a republic.

QUESTIONS

1. When did workers begin joining together in unions? What did they organize unions for?
2. What innovation greatly helped the workers' unions to organize themselves across the country?
3. When was the People's Charter worked out? What rights did the Charter demand?
4. Did the House of Commons meet the demands stated in the Charter? What was the reaction of the workers' unions? What did the government's severe actions show?

Part 3. Robert Peel's Reforms.

The government was saved by the skill of **Robert Peel**, the Prime Minister of the time. In 1846 he abol-

ished the unpopular **Corn Law** of 1815 which had kept the price of corn higher than necessary. As a result, the price of corn, as well as other food-stuffs, dropped down, and life became better. Peel used the improved economic situation to weaken the **Chartist movement**¹, which gradually died.



A street robbery

¹ the Chartist ['tʃɑ:tɪst] movement — Чартистское движение

Peel also turned his attention to the crime problem. He established a regular police force in London in 1829. At first people laughed at the men in blue uniform and top hats¹. But during the next thirty years almost every other town and county started their own police forces. The new police forces were successful: with time much crime was pushed out of the larger cities, then out of towns, and then out of the countryside, and life became safer.



Queen Victoria

The aristocracy in Europe admired Britain's success in avoiding the storm of revolution in 1848. European monarchs wished they were as safe on their thrones as the British queen was on hers. And European liberals wished they could act as freely as radicals in Britain did. During almost the whole of the 19th century Britain was the envy of the world. It was a model of industrial success and of free constitutional government.

QUESTIONS

1. Who was Robert Peel?
2. What law did Robert Peel abolish in 1846? What was the result of this act? How did Robert Peel use the improved economic situation?

¹ top hats — цилиндры

3. How did Robert Peel deal with the crime situation in the country? When was the regular police force established in London?
4. What was the result of establishing a regular police force in the country?
5. What did the aristocracy in Europe admire about Britain? Why did European monarchs envy the British queen? Why did European liberals envy British radicals?
6. What was Britain a model of during almost the whole of the 19th century?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words and word combinations from the list:

influence, represent, reforms, townspeople, avoiding, contradictions, recognition, force, conservative, enclosed, social, feared, property, to expand, ocean, People's Charter.

1. Britain was glad that Russia's _____ in Europe was limited by Prussia, Austria and Turkey.
2. Britain kept ships of its navy in almost every _____ of the world.
3. Britain did not want Russia _____ southwards.
4. The _____ between the rich and the poor were growing.
5. Almost all the woods were _____ by the local landlords.
6. The workhouses were _____ and hated.
7. Between 1815 and 1835 Britain changed from a nation of country people to a nation mainly of _____.

8. It was necessary to reform the law in order to improve _____ conditions.
9. The Whigs believed that the country could avoid revolution only by introducing _____.
10. There were serious contradictions between the _____ Tories and the radicals.
11. The Tories believed that Parliament should represent _____ owners.
12. The radicals believed that Parliament should _____ the people.
13. The 1832 Reform Bill was a political _____ that Britain had become an urban society.
14. The workers' unions worked out a document called a _____.
15. Robert Peel established a regular police _____ in London.
16. The aristocracy in Europe admired Britain's success in _____ the storm of revolution in 1848.

CHAPTER 16

THE YEARS OF SELF-CONFIDENCE

Part 1. Industrial Power.

In 1851 **Queen Victoria** opened the **Great Exhibition of the Industries of All Nations** in the *Crystal Palace* in London. The aim of the Exhibition was to show the world the greatness of Britain's industry. No other nation could produce as much at that time. By 1850 Britain was producing more iron than the rest of the world together.

Britain had become powerful because it had enough coal, iron and steel for its own industry and could



The Great Exhibition

even export them to Europe. Having coal, iron and steel, it could produce new heavy industrial goods like ships and steam engines. It could also make machinery which produced English traditional goods — woollen and cotton cloth in the factories of Lancashire. Britain's cloth was cheap and was exported to India, to other colonies and to the Middle East. Britain had the largest fleet in the world.

The railway. The pride of Britain and a great example of its industrial power was its railway system. The first trains were *goods trains*, which quickly became very popular because they made transporting goods faster and cheaper. The network of railway tracks was quickly growing and by 1840 their total length was 2,400 miles. Railways connected not only the industrial towns with London, but also economically unimportant towns. The canals were soon empty, because everything went by railway. The speed of the railway

even made it possible to deliver fresh fish and raspberries from Scotland to London in one night.

In 1851 the railway companies provided *passenger train service*. Passenger trains stopped at all stations. Now people could move from place to place much more quickly and easily.

With the introduction of the railway system many people began to live in suburbs, from which they travelled into the city every day by train. The suburb was a copy of a country village with all the advantages of a town.

QUESTIONS

1. What exhibition was opened in the Crystal Palace in 1851? What was the aim of the exhibition?
2. Why had Britain become powerful?
3. What goods did Britain produce?
4. What parts of the world was Britain's cloth exported to?
5. What was the pride of Britain and a great example of its industrial power? What was the total length of the railway tracks by 1840?
6. Why did the first goods trains become popular very quickly?
7. When was passenger train service provided? How did the life of many people change with the introduction of passenger train service?
8. What do you think: why did many people find it better to live in suburbs?

Part 2. The Rise of the Middle Class.

Before the 19th century the middle class was small and was represented by merchants, traders and small farmers, as well as by industrialists and factory own-

ers who had joined it in the second half of the 18th century. In the 19th century the number of people belonging to the middle class greatly increased. Now the middle class was made up of people of different wealth, social position and kinds of work. It included those who worked in the Church, the Law, medicine, the civil service, the diplomatic service, banks, and also in the army and navy. Typical of the middle class in the 19th century were *self-made men*, who came from poor families. They believed in hard work, a regular style of life, and were careful with money. The middle class included both successful and rich industrialists and small shopkeepers and office workers.

QUESTIONS

1. Who was the middle class represented by before the 19th century?
2. How did the composition of the middle class change in the 19th century? What new people joined it?
3. What was typical of many representatives of the middle class? What principles did self-made men believe in?

Part 3. Life in Towns.

The towns were still unhealthy. Very few houses had water supply and sewerage systems. Dirty water caused epidemics. In 1832 an outbreak of cholera killed 31,000 people.

In the middle of the century the administration of many towns began to appoint **health officers**¹ and to provide sewerage and clean water. These measures

¹ health officers — санитарные врачи



An evening at home

quickly reduced the level of disease, particularly cholera. In some towns parks were laid out¹ in newly built areas, public baths were opened where people could wash. There appeared libraries and concert halls.

Representatives of the middle class usually lived in houses with a small garden in front of each, and a larger one at the back. The houses of workers usually had only four small rooms, two upstairs and two downstairs, and a small back yard. Still there



Slums

¹ parks were laid out —
были разбиты парки

remained many *slum areas* inhabited by the poorest people, where tiny houses were built very close together.

QUESTIONS

1. Why were the towns unhealthy?
2. What measures were taken by the administration of many towns to improve the conditions of life? What did they achieve by taking these measures? How did the town administration take care of the cultural life?
3. Did the people living in towns have gardens?
4. What areas did the poorest people live in?

Part 4. Population and Politics.

Both Tories and Whigs understood the economic need for free trade, as well as the need for social and political reform which would allow the middle class to grow richer and to expand. That's why they supported the liberal movement in the countries with which Britain hoped to trade. Britain welcomed the liberation movement led by **Simon Bolivar**¹ in South American Spanish colonies, and helped the Greeks in their struggle for independence from the Turkish Empire. There was yet another reason for Britain to help the Greeks. Russia was also helping the Greeks in their struggle against Turkey. Both Russia and Greece were orthodox² Christian countries, and Britain was afraid that Russia would take control over Greece and expand south to the Mediterranean Sea.

¹ Simon Bolivar ['saɪmən bɒ'li:və:] — Симон Боливар

² orthodox ['ɔ:θədɒks] — православный

Palmerston. From 1846 until 1865 the most important political figure was **Lord Palmerston**, a minister, and from 1855 Prime Minister. He had been a Tory as a young man, but later joined the Whigs. Palmerston was known for liberalism in his foreign policy. He firmly believed that despotic states were bad for free trade, and he openly supported European liberal and independence movements. In 1859–60 he successfully supported the Italian independence movement against Austrian and French interests.

The growth of democracy. After Palmerston's death in 1865, a much stricter "two-party" system developed in Britain. The two parties, Tory (or **Conservative** as it became officially known) and **Liberal**, developed greater party organizations and demanded greater loyalty from their members. The British political system of today was mostly built in the 1860s and 1870s. Between 1867 and 1884 the number of voters increased from 20 per cent to 60 per cent of men in towns and to 70 per cent in the country, including some representatives of the working class. In 1872 voting was carried out in secret for the first time. The growth of the newspaper industry strengthened the importance of public opinion. Democracy grew quickly. The House of Commons grew in size and now had over 650 members. The House of Lords lost the powerful position which it had held in the 18th and early 19th centuries. Now it could no longer play an important part in forming the state policy.

Trade unions. After 1850 a number of **trade unions** appeared. In 1868 the first congress of trade unions, which represented 118,000 members, met in Manchester. The following year the new *Trade Union Congress* established a parliamentary committee,

the purpose of which was to represent workers in Parliament. This wish of trade unions to work within Parliament, not outside it, brought trade unionists into close co-operation with radicals and reformist Liberals. Even the Conservative Party tried to attract worker support.

QUESTIONS

1. What economic need was understood by both Tories and Whigs?
2. What liberal movements did Britain welcome and support in other countries?
3. What was the reason for Britain to be afraid that Russia might take control over Greece?
4. Who was Lord Palmerston? What was he known for in his foreign policy?
5. Why did Palmerston openly support liberal and independent movements in Europe?
6. How did both the Tory and the Liberal Parties strengthen discipline among their members?
7. How did the number of voters increase in the period between 1867 and 1874?
8. When was voting carried out in secret for the first time?
9. How did the growth of the newspaper industry tell on the development of democracy?
10. What changes occurred in the House of Commons and the House of Lords?
11. When did the first congress of trade unions meet? How many members did it represent?
12. What policy of the trade unions brought them into close co-operation with radicals and reformist Liberals?

Part 5. The British Empire.

In the 19th century Britain was engaged in many “colonial wars”, the purpose of which was to establish its influence in different parts of the world and to ensure the safety of its trade routes. In 1840–1842 and in 1856–1860 it waged two so-called **Opium Wars** against China¹, as a result of which China had to give away some of its territories and to allow Britain to carry on profitable trade in opium. Historians consider the Opium Wars to be shameful events in British colonial history.

Fear that Russia would expand southwards towards India resulted in disastrous wars in *Afghanistan*² (1839–1842), in *Sindh*³ — a part of modern Pakistan⁴ (1843) and in *India* (1845–1846 and 1848–1849).

Britain also feared that in the Middle East Russia would destroy the weak **Ottoman Empire**⁵, which controlled Turkey and the Arab⁶ countries. It might be dangerous for Britain’s sea and land routes to India. So, when Russia and Ottoman Turkey went to war in the Crimea⁷ in 1853, Britain joined the Turks against Russia.

Britain’s first colonies in Africa were on the west coast. Then it took over **the Cape of Good Hope**⁸ at the southern point, because it needed a port there on its sea route to India.

¹ China [ˈtʃaɪnə] — Китай

² Afghanistan [əfˈɡænistən] — Афганистан

³ Sindh [sɪnd] — Синдх

⁴ Pakistan [ˌpɑːkɪˈstɑːn] — Пакистан

⁵ Ottoman Empire [ˈɒtəmənˈempraɪə] — Османская империя

⁶ Arab [ˈærəb] — арабские

⁷ the Crimea [kraɪˈmiə] — Крым

⁸ the Cape of Good Hope — мыс Доброй Надежды

Reports sent by European travellers and explorers of Africa increased Britain's interest in this continent. The most famous of the explorers was **David Livingstone**¹, who was a Scottish doctor and a *Christian missionary*. He made several journeys from the east coast to the central parts of Africa. Livingstone discovered areas of Africa unknown to Europeans and "opened" these areas to Christianity, to European ideas and to European trade.

Unfortunately, Christianity became a tool for building a commercial and political empire in Africa. The governments of Europe rushed to the "*Black Continent*" in order to seize lands. They did it under the pretext of bringing "*civilization*" to the people. By 1890 Africa was divided by European countries into "*areas of interest*". By the end of the century several European countries had taken over large areas of Africa.

Sometimes the interests of different European countries clashed. In South Africa there were disagreements between Britain and the Dutch settlers (**the Boers**²), which led to a war at the end of the century (**the Boer War**, 1899–1902).

In 1882 Britain invaded Egypt "*to protect international shipping*", as it was officially stated. In fact, Britain protected its own trading interests, its route to India through the newly dug **Suez Canal**³. Britain told the world that its occupation of Egypt would only last for a short time, but it did not leave the country until it was forced to do so in 1954.

¹ David Livingstone ['dɜːvɪd'lɪvɪŋstən] — Дэвид Ливингстон

² the Boers ['bəʊəz] — буры

³ Suez Canal ['suːɪz kə'næl] — Суэцкий канал



A battle in an African colony

Britain had one more reason for creating colonies. From the 1830s the population of Britain was rapidly growing, and soon the small territory of the British Isles would not hold all the population. A solution to the problem was found in the development of colonies for British settlers in different parts of the world. Encouraged by the government, lots of people moved to **Canada**, **Australia**¹ and **New Zealand**², settled on free land and farmed it. In all these countries there were native populations. In Canada most of them were pushed westwards. In Australia British settlers killed most of the native inhabitants; only a few were left in the central desert areas. In New Zealand the

¹ Australia [ɔ:s'treɪljə] — Австралия

² New Zealand ['nju:ˈzi:lənd] — Новая Зеландия

*Maori*¹ inhabitants suffered less than in Canada or Australia: not so many of them were killed, but they lost most of their land.

Soon the white colonies were allowed to govern themselves. Officially they no longer depended on Britain. But still, they accepted the British monarch as their head of state.

By the end of the 19th century Britain controlled the oceans and much of the land areas of the world. Most British strongly believed in their right to an empire, and were very proud of it. But even at this moment of greatest power Britain was already beginning to spend more on its empire than it took from it. The empire was becoming a heavy load. And by the time when

¹ Maori ['mauri] — маори



The British Empire at the end of the 19th century

the colonies began to demand their freedom in the 20th century, this load had become impossibly heavy.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the purpose of the numerous “colonial wars” Britain was engaged in?
2. What are “Opium Wars”? When did Britain wage them? What did it gain as a result of these wars?
3. Why did Britain wage wars in Afghanistan, Pakistan and India?
4. Why did Britain join Turkey in the Crimean War of 1853–1856 against Russia?
5. In what part of Africa were Britain’s first colonies? Why did Britain take over the Cape of Good Hope?
6. Who was David Livingstone? What did he do?
7. What excuse did European governments use to justify their policy of seizing lands in Africa? What areas was Africa divided into by European countries?
8. Where and when was the Boer War waged? What was the reason of it?
9. Under what pretext did Britain invade Egypt in 1882? What was the real reason of this action? When did Britain promise it would leave Egypt? When did it really leave this country?
10. Why did Britain’s government encourage British people to move to different parts of the world and start colonies there?
11. How did the existence of the white colonies in Canada, Australia and New Zealand tell on the native population of these lands?
12. How did many British feel about the British Empire?

Part 6. Ireland.

In Ireland the struggle between Catholics and Protestants became a struggle for Irish freedom from English rule. The native Irish population, most of which were Catholics, was cruelly oppressed by Protestants, who were supported by the British government.

In 1845, 1846 and 1847 Ireland suffered the worst disaster in its entire history: for three years the potato crop failed¹. Potatoes were the main food of the poor. At the same time Ireland had enough wheat to feed the entire population, but it was grown by the Protestant landowners for export to England, so the Irish population did not get it. The situation was tragic. One and a half million people (about 20 per cent of the total Irish population) died from hunger in these three years.

Many Irish emigrated. At least a million people left during these years, and the emigration continued during the rest of the century because of the great poverty in Ireland. Most emigrants went to the United States of America. Between 1841 and 1920 almost five million Irish settled there.

The Irish who went to the United States did not forget their old country and did not forgive Britain. By 1880 many Irish Americans were rich and powerful and were able to support the Irish freedom movement. Today they still have an influence on British policy in Ireland.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the position of the native population of Ireland in the 19th century?

¹ the potato crop failed — картофель не уродился (неурожаи картофеля)

2. What terrible disaster did Ireland suffer in 1845, 1846 and 1847? How many people died from hunger in these three years?
3. What country did many Irish emigrate to? How many Irish settled in the United States between 1841 and 1920?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words and word combinations from the list:

opinion, pretext, waged, self-made, cloth, suburbs, liberalism, health officers, exported, goods, sewerage, independence, hard, orthodox, middle, power, regular, liberation, pride, outbreak.

1. Britain's _____ was cheap and was _____ to other countries.
2. The _____ of Britain and a great example of its industrial _____ was its railway system.
3. The first trains were _____ trains.
4. With the introduction of the railway system many people began to live in _____.
5. In the 19th century the number of people belonging to the _____ class greatly increased.
6. Typical of the middle class in the 19th century were _____ men who believed in _____ work and a _____ style of life.
7. In 1832 an _____ of cholera killed 31,000 people.
8. In the middle of the century the administration of many towns began appointing _____ and to provide _____ and clean water.
9. Britain welcomed the _____ movement led by Simon Bolivar.

10. Britain helped the Greeks in their struggle for _____ from the Turkish Empire.
11. Russia and Greece were _____ Christian countries.
12. Palmerston was known for _____ in his foreign policy.
13. The growth of the newspaper industry strengthened the importance of public _____.
14. Britain _____ two so-called Opium Wars against China.
15. The governments of Europe rushed to Africa under the _____ of bringing civilization to the people.

CHAPTER 17

THE END OF AN AGE

Part 1. Social and Economic Improvements.

Between 1875 and 1914 the conditions of the poor in Britain greatly improved because prices fell by 40 per cent and real wages doubled. As a result, poor families could eat better food, including meat, fresh milk (brought from the countryside by train) and vegetables. Life at home was made more comfortable. Most homes now had gas for heating and lighting.

Public education was given attention to. In 1870 and 1891 two **Education Acts** were passed. As a result of these Acts, all children up to the age of 13 had to go to school, where they were taught reading, writing and arithmetic. In the new industrial cities they started building **redbrick universities**. The term *redbrick* came from the tradition of building the new universities of red brick. It distinguished them from the older, stone-

built universities of Oxford and Cambridge. Unlike Oxford and Cambridge, these new universities taught more science and technology to meet the demands of Britain's industry.



Pupils at an elementary school

There were social changes as well. Power in the countryside gradually moved from the country squire to new *county councils*¹ which were made up of elected men and women. Each county council had a *staff of administrators*² who carried out the decisions of the council. This system still operates today.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did the conditions of the poor improve between 1875 and 1914?
2. How did the system of public education improve? What was provided by the Education Acts of 1870 and 1891?
3. What steps were taken to provide higher education on a wider scale? Explain the term "*redbrick universities*". How did the curriculum of the new universities differ from that of Oxford and Cambridge? Why did the new universities teach more science and technology?
4. What changes took place in the administration in the countryside? Who were the members of the new county councils?

¹ county councils ['kauntɪ'kaʊnsɪlz] — советы графства

² a staff of administrators — штат административных служащих



Cricket

Part 2. Sport.

By the end of the 19th century two sports, **cricket** and **football**, had become very popular with the British public. Cricket had started in the 18th century, but only a century later its rules were organized. From 1873 a country championship took place each year. With time, cricket was spread to different parts of the British Empire: to the West Indies, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Australia and New Zealand.

The proper rules of Britain's other main game, football, were also organized in the 19th century. As an organized game, it was at first a middle-class, or gentlemen's, sport, but it quickly became popular among all classes. Soon it drew huge crowds of people, who came to watch the professional footballers play the game. By the end of the 19th century almost every town of Britain had its own football team. Soon football was also exported abroad.

QUESTIONS

1. Which are the two most popular sports in Britain?
2. When did people begin playing cricket? When were the rules of playing cricket organized? Is cricket played only in Britain or has it also spread to other parts of the world?

3. When were the proper rules of playing football organized? How was the popularity of football growing?

Part 3. Changes in Thinking.

In 1776 the Scottish economist and philosopher **Adam Smith**¹ published a book called *Enquiry into the Wealth of Nations*². In the book he expressed the idea that everyone had the right to *personal freedom*. This idea became very popular in the 19th century. Influenced by Adam Smith several capitalist economists declared that government should not interfere in trade and industry at all. The growing middle class readily accepted these ideas.

However, it soon became very clear that the freedom of factory owners to do as they liked led to slavery and misery for the poor. More and more people were beginning to understand that government must interfere to protect the poor and the weak. The result was a number of laws to improve working conditions. One of them, in 1833, limited the number of hours that women and children were allowed to work. Another law in the same year abolished slavery in the colonies of the British Empire.

Robert Owen³. There were many factory owners who tried to avoid obeying the new laws. There were others, who believed that a factory owner should take care of his workers if he wanted them to work well. One of such men was **Robert Owen**, a factory owner in Scot-

¹ Adam Smith ['ædəm'smiθ] — Адам Смит

² Enquiry [ɪn'kwɪəri] into the Wealth of Nations — «Исследование о природе и причинах богатства народов»

³ Robert Owen ['rɒbə'təʊən] — Роберт Оуэн

land. He built his factory in the countryside, away from the fog and dirt of the cities. Near the factory he built good houses for the workers and a school for their children. His workers had shorter working hours. Owen proved that his workers produced more in less time than the workers of other factories who were forced to work longer hours. Owen also encouraged trade unions. Owen's ideas and example began to spread. There appeared other reformers, who took care to improve the working and living conditions of their workers. One of them was the Quaker Arthur Cadbury¹, famous for his Birmingham chocolate factory, who built first-class houses for the workers of his factory.

Still improvements were slow, and 30 per cent of the nation were extremely poor. The great writer of the 19th century **Charles Dickens**² attacked the rich and powerful for their cruelty towards the weak and unfortunate in society. By the end of the century most people understood that it was right for the government to interfere in factory conditions, problems of health in towns and education for children.

William Booth³ and the **Salvation Army**⁴. In 1873 **William Booth** started a new religious movement, called the *Salvation Army*, the aim of which was to "make war" on poverty. Members of the Salvation Army organized help for the poorest people.

Charles Darwin's theory. In 1857 **Charles Darwin**⁵ published *The Origin of Species*⁶. His theory of evo-

¹ Arthur Cadbury ['ɑ:θə'kædbəri] — Артур Кэдбери

² Charles Dickens ['tʃɑ:lz'dɪkɪnz] — Чарльз Диккенс

³ William Booth ['wɪljəm'bu:ð] — Уильям Бутс

⁴ the Salvation [səl'veɪʃn] Army — Армия спасения

⁵ Charles Darwin ['tʃɑ:lz'dɑ:vɪn] — Чарльз Дарвин

⁶ The Origin ['ɒrɪdʒɪn] of Species ['spi:ʃi:z] — «Происхождение видов»

lution was based on scientific observation. Many people saw in Darwin's theory a proof of mankind's ability to find a scientific explanation for everything. But for churchgoing people it was a shock. Most of the churchgoing population believed every word of the Bible. They found it difficult to accept Darwin's theory that the world had developed over millions of years and had not been created in six days by God and that man had developed from the ape and not had been created by God in one day. Darwin's theory caused a battle between faith and reason which lasted for the rest of the century.

QUESTIONS

1. Who was Adam Smith? What book did he publish? What was the idea expressed in the book?
2. What did some of the 19th-century economists declare under the influence of Adam Smith's idea of personal freedom?
3. What proved to be wrong about the idea of personal freedom? What did the freedom of factory owners lead to?
4. What did people begin to understand about the idea of personal freedom? What was the result of this understanding? How did the new laws protect the workers?
5. What was the attitude of the factory owners to the laws protecting the workers?
6. Who was Robert Owen? Why did he build his factory in the countryside? What did he build near his factory? How long was the workday of his workers? What did Robert Owen prove?
7. How did Robert Owen's ideas and example affect other factory owners? Were there other reformers? Who was Arthur Cadbury?

8. What was the contribution of Charles Dickens in the struggle against the social evils of the time?
9. What is the Salvation Army? Who was it started by and when? What was the aim of the Salvation Army?
10. What did most people understand by the end of the century?
11. Who was Charles Darwin? What book did he publish? What was Charles Darwin's theory of evolution based on?
12. Why was Darwin's theory a shock for many churchgoing people? What statements of the theory was it difficult for them to accept? Did the battle between faith and reason last long?

Part 4. The Storm Clouds of War.

By the end of the 19th century Britain was no longer as powerful as it had been. In Europe Germany was now united and very strong. Like the USA it was producing more steel than Britain, and it had built strong industry and a strong navy.

The danger of war with Germany had been clear from the beginning of the 20th century, and it brought France and Britain together.

By 1914 the political situation in Europe was extremely dangerous. **Germany and Austria-Hungary¹** had made a **military alliance**. **Russia and France** had made **another alliance**.

In June 1914 the Austrian Archduke² **Francis Ferdinand³** was killed in Serbia⁴. Austria-Hungary de-

¹ Austria-Hungary ['ɔ:striə'hʌŋgəri] — Австро-Венгрия

² Austrian ['ɔ:striən] Archduke ['ɑ:tʃdju:k] — австрийский эрцгерцог

³ Francis Ferdinand ['frænsɪs'fɜ:dmənd] — Франц Фердинанд

⁴ Serbia ['sɜ:biə] — Сербия

clared war on Serbia. Russia, which was an ally of Serbia, declared war on Austria-Hungary. Automatically, it meant a war with Germany. France was Russia's ally, so it was now also at war with Germany.

In August 1914 Germany's troops invaded France through Belgium¹. Britain, which had been Belgium's ally since 1838, immediately declared war on Germany. Thus, practically the whole of Europe was fighting. **The First World War** had started.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the political situation in Europe at the beginning of the 20th century?
2. What military alliances were formed by 1914?
3. When and how did the First World War start?
4. When did Britain enter the war? What caused Britain to declare war on Germany?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words and word combinations from the list:

county councils, fog, alliance, Salvation, interfere, football, improved, technology, misery, dirt, observation, to spread, personal, cricket, redbrick, slavery, science, abolished.

1. Between 1875 and 1914 the conditions of the poor in Britain greatly _____.
2. In the new industrial cities they started building _____ universities.
3. Unlike Oxford and Cambridge, the new universities taught more _____ and _____.
4. Power in the countryside gradually moved from the country squire to new _____.

¹ Belgium ['beldʒəm] — Бельгия

5. By the end of the 19th century two sports, _____ and _____, had become very popular with the British public.
6. Adam Smith expressed the idea that everyone had the right to _____ freedom.
7. Several economists declared that government should not _____ in trade and industry at all.
8. The freedom of factory owners to do as they liked led to _____ and _____ for the poor.
9. In 1833 slavery was _____ in the colonies of the British Empire.
10. Robert Owen built his factory in the countryside, away from the _____ and _____ of the cities.
11. Owen's ideas began _____.
12. William Booth started a new religious movement called the _____ Army.
13. Darwin's theory of evolution was based on scientific _____.
14. By 1914 Germany and Austria-Hungary had made a military _____.

UNIT REVIEW

Who were these people? What did they do? Write a few words about each of them.

Robert Peel

David Livingstone

Adam Smith

Robert Owen

William Booth

Charles Darwin

UNIT SEVEN

THE 20TH CENTURY

At the beginning of the 20th century Britain was still one of the greatest world powers. In the middle of the century, although it was still one of the “Big Three”, it was considerably weaker than the United States or the Soviet Union. By the end of the 1970s Britain was just an ordinary country, and economically poorer than a number of other European countries.

One of the reasons for Britain’s decline in the 20th century was the cost of two world wars. Another reason was that Britain could not spend as much money on developing its industry as other industrial nations did: at first it needed a lot of money for keeping up the empire, and when the empire fell apart, as much money was needed to solve numerous economic problems connected with maintaining friendly relations within the British Commonwealth of Nations.

CHAPTER 18

THE FIRST WORLD WAR AND ITS AFTER-EFFECTS

Part 1. The first World War.

Germany had better trained soldiers and better equipment, and in the first few weeks of war in 1914 it nearly defeated the Allies, Britain and France. The German troops crossed the border and penetrated into the territory of France. The French army and the small British force managed to stop the German army

only at *the River Marne*¹ deep inside France. Then followed four years of bitter fighting, during which both armies lived in trenches.

The war was going on not only in Europe. In the Middle East the British fought against Turkish troops in *Iraq*², in *Palestine*³, and in *the Dardanelles*⁴. There, too, the fighting went on for a long time. Only in 1917 the British were able to drive back the Turks.

The war at sea was more important than the war on land, because defeat at sea would have caused Britain's surrender. Being an island state, Britain had always depended on imported goods. Beginning with 1915, German submarines started sinking merchant ships which carried supplies to Britain. 40 per cent of Britain's merchant fleet was sunk during the war. There was one period in the course of the war when for six weeks the British population was on the point of starvation. When Russia, after the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917 made peace with Germany, the German generals hoped for victory against the Allies. But German submarine attacks on neutral ships drew America into the war against Germany. The arrival of American troops in France ended Germany's hopes, and it surrendered in November 1918.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did Germany nearly defeat the Allies in the very first weeks of war in 1914?
2. Where did the French army and the small British force manage to stop the German army?

¹ the River Marne [ma:n] — р. Марна

² Iraq [i'ru:k] — Ирак

³ Palestine ['pælistain] — Палестина

⁴ the Dardanelles [ˌdɑ:də'nels] — Дарданеллы

3. In what other parts of the world, besides Europe, was the war going on?
4. Why was the war at sea more important for Britain than the war on land? What had Britain always depended on, because it was an island state?
5. What damage did German submarines cause the British merchant fleet? How did it tell on the British population?
6. What did the German generals hope for when Russia made peace with Germany after the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917?
7. Why did the United States enter the war?
8. When was the First World War over?

Part 2. The Rise of the Labour Party.

The Labour Party¹ rapidly grew during the war. It had begun in the 19th century as part of the trade union movement, and was formally established in 1900. The trade unions themselves grew enormously in the 20th century, and by 1918 numbered eight million members. In that year, for the first time, all men aged twenty-one and some women over thirty were allowed to vote. In the following years the number of voters doubled from eight to sixteen million people, most of whom belonged to the working class. As a result of these changes, **the Labour Party**, which had won twenty-nine seats in Parliament in the 1906 election, won fifty-seven seats in 1918, one hundred and forty-two seats in 1922, and one hundred and ninety-one seats in 1925. In 1924 the first Labour government was created.

¹ The Labour Party — Лейбористская партия

The Labour Party was not “*socialist*”. Its leaders were members of the middle class. Instead of a social revolution, they wanted to develop a kind of socialism that would fit the situation in Britain¹. The British working class was not interested in socialist ideas. In fact **Karl Marx**², who spent most of his life in Britain studying and writing, was almost unknown except to a few friends. Both he and his close friend **Friedrich Engels**³, who owned a factory in Manchester, had little hope that the British working class would become truly socialist. The working class people wanted to improve their financial situation and to enjoy the advantages of the middle class without becoming involved in socialist beliefs. The trade unions and the Labour Party did not want to bring down⁴ the existing form of government; they wanted to change things by accepted constitutional means, in Parliament. So, the effect on Britain of the 1917 Bolshevik Revolution in Russia was not great. Some people were interested in Marxism and they established a Communist Party, but the Labour Party firmly refused to be connected with it.

As a result of the Labour Party's success in 1924, the Liberal Party almost completely disappeared. Liberals with traditional capitalist ideas joined the Conservative Party, and Liberal “*reformers*” joined the Labour Party.

QUESTIONS

1. What did the Labour Party develop from? When was it formally established?

¹ that would fit the situation in Britain — который бы подошёл к ситуации в Британии

² Karl Marx ['ka:l'ma:ks] — Карл Маркс

³ Friedrich Engels ['fri:drɪk'ɛngəlz] — Фридрих Энгельс

⁴ to bring down — свергнуть

2. In what year were all men aged twenty-one given the right to vote? How was the number of voters growing during the following years?
3. The number of seats in Parliament won by the Labour Party was constantly growing during the first two decades of the 20th century, wasn't it? How was it growing between 1906 and 1923?
4. Was the Labour Party "*socialist*"? Did they want a socialist revolution in the country? What did they want?
5. What did the British working class people want? What didn't they want to be involved in?
6. What was the effect of the Russian Bolshevik Revolution on Britain?
7. How did the success of the Labour Party in 1924 tell on the Liberal Party?

Part 3. Ireland.

Before the beginning of the First World War Britain had agreed to give *Ireland self-government*. There was a group of Irishmen who were not satisfied with the idea of self-government. They formed a *republican party* and demanded a full independence from Britain. In the 1918 elections to the British Parliament the republicans won in almost every area of Ireland except Ulster. Instead of joining the British Parliament, they met together in *Dublin*¹ and started their own new parliament. They announced that Ireland was now a republic. Many Irishmen joined the republic's army and began a *guerilla* fighting against the British. As a result, the British government de-

¹ Dublin['dʌblɪn] — Дублин

cided to make peace. In 1921 it agreed to the independence of southern Ireland. But it also insisted that Ulster, or Northern Ireland as it became known, should remain united with Britain.

The Anglo-Irish Treaty¹, which was concluded in 1921, did not bring peace to Ireland. A civil war started between the Irish themselves, because the republicans insisted that all Ireland, including Northern Ireland, should be an independent republic. A group of republicans formed a new party, **Fianna Fail**², which won the elections of 1932, and in 1937 the new Prime Minister, **Eamon de Valera**³, declared southern Ireland a republic. The British Crown was no longer sovereign in Ireland.

Today Ireland and Britain find themselves in a very strange position: officially they are entirely separate states, but by agreement their citizens are not considered foreigners in one another's country. In the Republic of Ireland the majority of population believe that one day all Ireland should be united, but without the use of force. There are some people, however, who are ready to use violent means to achieve a united Ireland.

QUESTIONS

1. What status had Britain agreed to give Ireland?
2. Why did a group of Irishmen form a republican party in Ireland? What did they demand?
3. When did the republicans start their own parliament in Dublin? What did they announce?
4. When did Britain agree to the independence of southern Ireland?

¹ The Anglo-Irish Treaty — Англо-Ирландский договор

² Fianna Fail ['fi:ənə'fɔɪl] — Фианна Фойл

³ Eamon de Valera ['i:mən də və'leɪrə] — Имон де Валера

5. Did the Anglo-Irish Treaty of 1921 bring peace to Ireland? What did the republicans insist on?
6. When was southern Ireland declared a republic?
7. Why does today's position of Britain and Ireland seem somewhat strange?

Part 4. Disappointment and Depression.

The cost of the war caused a great increase of taxes, from 6 per cent of income in 1914 to 25 per cent in 1918. Greater taxes led to increasing disagreement between workers and the government. There were serious strikes, and at times the government had to use soldiers to break these strikes and force men back to work.

The discontent of workers was growing and in 1926 led to a general strike by all workers. The general strike lasted nine days. The government widely used the police force. Many strikers were arrested and the strike was finally broken, but the understanding between the government and the workers was seriously damaged as a result of the cruel measures taken by the government in its efforts to put down the strike. Many workers were shocked to see that the police, whose job, as they had believed, was to keep the law, was actually fighting against them. For half a century after that many people remembered the general strike with great bitterness. These memories influenced their opinion of employers, government and the police.

The Depression. A serious economic crisis known as **the Depression** shook Europe and America in 1929. The Depression affected Britain most severely between 1930 and 1933, when over three million workers were

unemployed. The areas most affected by the Depression were Clydeside¹, Belfast², the industrial north of England and south-east Wales. The working class in these areas still lived in poor conditions. Men and women in working families did not live as long as people in richer areas, and more babies died in the first year of life. There was little hope for improving the conditions of life because nobody wanted to invest large amounts of money into industry in the period of economic crisis.

Economic recovery. In the middle of the 1930s the British economy began gradually recovering. The process of economic recovery was especially noticeable



Houses in a suburb

in the Midlands and the south, where a great number of small houses were being built along the main roads leading from big cities into the countryside. A great role in the recovery of economy was played by Britain's growing motor industry, which was based in the Midlands. With the appearance of a great number of privately

owned cars, the country around the towns changed: many new houses were built along the roads which were suitable for motoring. Middle-class people read-

¹ Clydeside ['klaɪdsaɪd] — Клайдсайд

² Belfast ['bel'fɑːst] — Белфаст

ily moved into quiet new suburbs. Unplanned suburbs grew especially quickly around London, where the underground railway system, *the Tube*, had spread out far into the country.

Another reason of economic recovery was the danger of a new war. By 1935 it was clear that Germany, under its new leader Adolf Hitler¹ was preparing to strengthen its position in Europe, if necessary by force. Seeing this, the British government began rebuilding its armed forces. It invested a large amount of money in heavy industry, which gave jobs to many people. By 1937 British industry was producing weapons, aircraft and equipment for war.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did taxes increase between 1914 and 1918? What did greater taxes lead to?
2. When did the general strike take place? How long did it last? What measures did the government take to break the strike?
3. Why were many workers shocked at the fact that the government used the police to put down the strike?
4. What was the Depression? When did it occur? How did the Depression affect Britain?
5. What areas of Britain were most affected by the Depression? Why was there little hope for improving the conditions of life in these areas?
6. When did the British economy begin gradually recovering? In what parts of the country was the recovering process especially noticeable?
7. What industries played a great role in the recovering of economy?

¹ Adolf Hitler ['ædɒlfhɪtlə] — Адольф Гитлер

8. Why were unplanned suburbs growing especially quickly around London?
9. Who was the leader of Germany in the 1930s? What was he preparing to do?
10. How did the danger of a new war help the recovery of British economy?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words or word combinations from the list:

guerilla, socialist, depended, self-government, starvation, submarines, surrender, aircraft, discontent, armed forces.

1. Being an island state, Britain had always _____ on imported goods.
2. Defeat at sea would have caused Britain's _____.
3. In 1915 German _____ started sinking merchant ships.
4. For six weeks the British population was on the point of _____.
5. The British working class was not interested in _____ ideas.
6. Before the beginning of the First World War Britain had agreed to give Ireland _____.
7. Many Irishmen joined the republican army and began a _____ fighting against the British.
8. The _____ of workers led to a general strike in 1926.
9. The British government began rebuilding its _____.
10. By 1937 British industry was producing weapons, _____ and equipment for war.

CHAPTER 19

THE SECOND WORLD WAR

Part 1. The First Period of the War.

After the First World War Adolf Hitler founded the *Nazi*¹ Party in Germany. Together with his followers he began to spread his beliefs. Hitler called the German people a superior race, which must rule the world.

Soon Hitler made himself dictator of Germany and began preparing for war. The Nazis oppressed anyone whose race, religion or politics they did not like. They built huge *concentration camps*. Jews², Catholics, Poles³ and others whom Hitler considered enemies were sent to these camps. In the concentration camps people who were strong enough were forced to work as slaves. Those who were too weak to work, children and old people, were killed soon after they arrived at the camps.

Germany was not the only country in Europe ruled by a dictator. **Benito Mussolini**⁴, who had come to power in Italy, was making plans to revive the glory of *the Roman Empire*.

In Asia⁵, a military group came to power in **Japan**⁶. They also believed in the “glory” of ruling over other nations. They wanted to take control of other countries in Asia and islands in the Pacific Ocean⁷.

¹ Nazi ['nɑ:tsɪ] — нацистская

² Jews [dʒu:z] — евреи

³ Poles [pəʊlz] — поляки

⁴ Benito [be'ni:tou] Mussolini [ˌmusə'li:nɪ] — Бенито Муссолини

⁵ Asia ['eɪʃə] — Азия

⁶ Japan [dʒə'pæn] — Япония

⁷ the Pacific Ocean [prə'sɪfɪk'ouʃn] — Тихий океан

In the 1930s Germany, Italy and Japan formed an alliance called **the Axis**¹. Britain and France led the alliance of European countries called **the Allies**. The Allies opposed the Axis.

Japan was the first nation to use military might. In 1931 the Japanese² army invaded a part of China³ called *Manchuria*⁴. In 1935 Italy invaded *parts of Africa*. Germany seized *Austria* and part of *Czechoslovakia*⁵.

On September 1, 1939, the German army invaded *Poland*⁶. The Polish government asked Britain and France for help. On September 3, 1939, Britain and France declared war on Germany. That was the beginning of **the Second World War**.

The Poles fought bravely, but the German army conquered the country in less than three weeks. The Germans used a new tactics called a *blitzkrieg*⁷ (lightning war). The attack was so swift that Poland's allies, Britain and France, had no time to come and help Poland.

In the spring of 1940 Germany turned its attention to western Europe. The Germans invaded *Denmark, Norway*⁸, *the Netherlands, Belgium* and *Luxembourg*⁹. The French army was thought to be very strong. But, with the help of Italy, Germany defeated the French in a few weeks. The British who were fighting in France were driven into the sea losing

¹ the Axis ['æksɪs] — ось

² Japanese [ˌdʒəpə'niːz] — японский

³ China ['tʃaɪnə] — Китай

⁴ Manchuria [mæn'tʃʊəriə] — Манчжурия

⁵ Czechoslovakia [ˌtʃekoslə'vækiə] — Чехословакия

⁶ Poland ['pəʊlənd] — Польша

⁷ blitzkrieg ['blɪtskriːg] — нем. молниеносная война

⁸ Norway ['nɔːweɪ] — Норвегия

⁹ Luxembourg ['lʌksəmbəːg] — Люксембург

almost all their weapons. At **Dunkirk**¹, a small French port, the British army was saved by thousands of private boats which crossed the English Channel carrying the soldiers over to Britain. As some historians said, Dunkirk was a miraculous rescue from military disaster². Britain's new Prime Minister, **Sir Winston Churchill**³, played a great role in keeping up the fighting spirit⁴ of the British people. He persuaded the nation that Dunkirk was a victory of courage and determination at Britain's darkest hour.

QUESTIONS

1. What party did Adolf Hitler found in Germany? What did he say about the German people?
2. Who was oppressed in Nazi Germany? What were concentration camps?
3. What was the Axis? When was it formed?
4. What alliance opposed the Axis?
5. What lands were invaded by Germany, Italy and Japan in the 1930s?
6. When and how did the Second World War start?
7. What tactics did Hitler use in Poland? Why did Britain and France have no time to help Poland?
8. What countries did Germany invade in 1940?
9. How long did it take Germany to defeat the French? What happened to the British forces which were fighting in France?
10. Who saved the British army at Dunkirk? How?
11. Who was Winston Churchill? What was his role in keeping up the fighting spirit of the British people after Dunkirk?

¹ Dunkirk [dʌn'kɜ:k] — Дюнкерк

² military disaster — военный разгром

³ Sir Winston ['wɪnstən] Churchill ['tʃɜ:tʃɪl] — сэр Уинстон Черчилль

⁴ fighting spirit — боевой дух

Part 2. Alone against the Nazis.

By June 1940 Britain stood alone against the Nazis. German planes made bombing raids against British cities, railways and factories. All night long the bombs dropped. The pilots of the British air force tried to fight off the German planes.

Hitler's plan was to break the spirit of the British and destroy Britain's ability to defend itself. Then the Germans would cross the English Channel from France. They would invade and take control of Britain. But *the British Royal Air Force*¹ shot down many German planes, and Germany was not able to fulfil its plan of invading the country. The battle of Britain was the Allies' first victory.

QUESTIONS

1. How did Germany fight Britain in the air?
2. What was the purpose of German bombing raids against Britain? What did Hitler hope for? Why did his plan fail?

Part 3. The Mistakes of Germany and Japan. The End of the War.

In 1941 Germany and Japan made two fatal mistakes: Germany attacked the Soviet Union and Japan attacked the United States of America. Thus the Axis of Germany, Italy and Japan forced onto the battlefield two of the most powerful nations in the world. Germany now had to fight on two fronts: in the east and in the west.

¹ the British Royal Air Force — Британские королевские военно-воздушные силы

By 1943 the Soviet army was pushing the Germans out of the USSR, and Britain had driven German and Italian troops out of North Africa. In July 1943 the Allied troops landed in Italy.

D-Day. Meanwhile a huge invasion of France was being prepared. A large army and thousands of ships and boats were gathered on the southern shore of Great Britain. The day of the invasion went down into history as **D-Day**. On the night of June 5, 1944, the Allied Army boarded ships in Great Britain. A giant fleet of 600 warships and 4,000 smaller boats carried 176,000 Allied soldiers towards France. The soldiers were from the United States, Britain, Canada, France, Poland and many other nations. In the sky 11,000 Allied planes bombed the German positions in France. Early in the morning of June 6, the Allies landed on the French beaches. By nightfall, the Allied army was in France.

The invasion of France by Allied forces was the beginning of the end for Germany. Four months later France and Belgium were freed. Then the battle for Germany began. In May 1945 Germany surrendered.

Japan continued to fight until Britain and the USA dropped two atom bombs on the cities of **Hiroshima**¹ and **Nagasaki**² in August 1945. 110,000 people perished immediately, and many thousands more died later from the after-effects. It was a terrible end to the war, and bitter memories are still living in the hearts of people all over the world.

¹ Hiroshima [ˌhɪrəˈʃi:mə] — Хиросима

² Nagasaki [ˌnæɡəˈsɑ:ki] — Нагасаки

QUESTIONS

1. Which were the two fatal mistakes of Germany and Japan in 1941? Why can we call their actions mistakes? What did Germany have to do now?
2. What was the situation on the Soviet-German front in 1943? What were Britain's successes in North Africa?
3. When did the Allied troops land in Italy?
4. What is D Day? How was the invasion of France carried out?
5. What followed the invasion of France by Allied forces? When did Germany surrender?
6. Did Japan surrender together with Germany? How did Britain and the USA make Japan surrender?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words or word combinations from the list:

rescue, to break, alliance, Nazi, dropping, raids, bitter, declared, threat, to fight off, invaded, dictator, air force, spirit.

1. After the First World War Adolf Hitler founded a _____ party in Germany.
2. The actions of Germany, Italy and Japan brought the _____ of another war.
3. Hitler made himself _____ of Germany.
4. In the 1930s Germany, Italy and Japan formed an _____ called the Axis.
5. On September 1, 1939, the German army _____ Poland.
6. On September 3, 1939, Great Britain and France _____ war on Germany.
7. Dunkirk was a miraculous _____ from military disaster.

8. Winston Churchill played a great role in keeping up the fighting _____ of the British people.
9. German planes made bombing _____ on British cities, railways and factories.
10. The pilots of the British _____ tried _____ the German planes.
11. Hitler's plan was _____ the spirit of the British.
12. _____ atom bombs on the Japanese cities was a really terrible end to the war, and _____ memories are still living in the hearts of people.

CHAPTER 20

THE AGE OF UNCERTAINTY

Part 1. The United Nations.

At the end of the war the victorious Allies created **the United Nations Organization**¹ in order to protect peace and democracy in the world and prevent new wars. The idea was to settle local and global problems by discussion within the Organization and not by fighting in battlefields.

But from the very start this new world organization faced great difficulties. The idea of the four Allies (Soviet Union, United States, France and Britain) working together for the recovery of central Europe did not work. Europe became divided into two, the eastern part under communist Soviet control, and the western part under the control of Britain, France and the United States.

¹ the United Nations Organization — Организация объединённых наций

In 1948–49 the Soviet Union tried to capture **West Berlin** and blocked all road and rail traffic to it, and it was only saved by constant supplies from the west brought by air. As a result of the struggle for West Berlin, two opposite alliances were formed: **the North Atlantic Treaty Organization**¹ of the western nations, and **the Warsaw Pact**² of the eastern bloc.

QUESTIONS

1. What important international organization was formed at the end of the Second World War? With what purpose was this organization formed?
2. Did the idea work? Which two parts was Europe divided into? Do you understand why it happened?
3. Which two alliances were formed in Europe as a result of the struggle for West Berlin?

Part 2. A Change of Britain's Role on the International Arena.

Britain still considered itself to be a world power, but it was clear that its international position was weakening. It was most obvious in Egypt. Until 1956 Britain had controlled *the Suez Canal*, but in that year Egypt decided to take it over. Britain, together with France and Israel³, attacked Egypt. But the rest of the world, in particular the United States, loudly disapproved of Britain's action and forced Britain to remove its troops from Egypt.

The events in Suez showed the world that Britain was no longer *a Great Power*, and after Suez many

¹ the North Atlantic Treaty Organization — Организация Северо-Атлантического договора

² the Warsaw ['wɔ:sɔ:] Pact — Варшавский договор

³ Israel ['izreɪəl] — Израиль

weaker countries in Asia and Africa, particularly the Arab countries, began to challenge Britain's authority more openly.

QUESTIONS

1. How was Britain's international position changing after the Second World War?
2. What happened in Egypt in 1956? Why did Britain attack Egypt? What was the reaction of the world to Britain's attack? What was Britain forced to do?
3. What did the events in Suez show? How did these events affect many weaker countries in Asia and Africa?

Part 3. The Welfare State.

In one of his speeches during the Second World War Winston Churchill had said, "We are not fighting to restore the past. We must plan and create a noble future."

After the war the government concentrated on working out reforms aimed at doing away with social wrongs¹ in British life. The reforms which were introduced by both the Conservative and Labour governments gave importance to people's happiness and well-being. In 1944 the government introduced free² secondary education for all. In 1946 everyone was given the right to free medical treatment. Two years later, in 1948, **the National Assistance Act** provided financial help for the old, the unemployed and those unable to work through sickness. Mothers and children also

¹ aimed at doing away with social wrongs — направленные на то, чтобы покончить с социальным злом

² free — *зд.* бесплатное



Primary school children
in an art class



Secondary school students
working on a woodwork project

received help. Both the Conservative and Labour Parties agreed on the need to keep up **the welfare state**¹, in particular to avoid unemployment. Britain became a country in which both main parties shared the idea that providing the basic human rights to the population was the matter of the first importance.

Like much of post-war Europe, Britain had become economically dependent on the United States. Thanks to **the US Marshall Aid Programme**², Britain was able to recover quickly from the war.

Working people now had a better standard of living than ever before. There was enough work for everyone. Wages were about 30 per cent higher than in 1939, and prices had hardly risen at all.

People had free time to enjoy themselves. At weekends many watched football matches in large new

¹ welfare state['welfɛə,steɪt] — государство, заботящееся о благосостоянии своих граждан

² the Marshall ['ma:ʃəl] Aid Programme — Программа Маршалла по оказанию помощи странам, пострадавшим во время Второй мировой войны



Going on a holiday

stadiums. In the evenings they could go to the cinema. They began to go away for holidays to low-cost holiday camps. In 1950 car production was twice what it had been in 1939, and by 1960 cars were owned not only by richer people but many with a lower income. It seemed as if the sun shone on Britain. As one Prime Minister said, "*You've never had it so good*", a remark that became famous.

It was also the age of youth. Wages for



Holidaymakers on a beach



At a country pub

those who had just started work had risen, so young people had more money in their pockets than ever before. As a result, the young began to influence fashion, particularly in clothes and music. The youthful pop culture of the sixties was best expressed by **the Beatles**, a group of working-class boys from Liverpool, whose music quickly became internationally known.

QUESTIONS

1. What had Winston Churchill said in one of his speeches during the Second World War?
2. What task did the British government concentrate on after the war?
3. What did both the Conservative and Labour Parties agree on? What idea was shared by both parties?
4. What international programme helped Britain to quickly recover from the war?
5. Why did working people have a better standard of living than before the war? How had the wages and prices changed in comparison with the last pre-war year?
6. How did people enjoy themselves in their free time?
7. How did car production change in post-war time? Did the cars become cheaper? What makes you think so?
8. What remark of one Prime Minister became famous?
9. Why is it right to say that the post-war time was also the age of youth? Why did young people have more money now? What fashions did young people begin to influence?
10. Who are the Beatles?

Part 4. A Popular Monarchy.

During the 20th century the monarchy became still more popular than in the times of *Queen Victoria* in the 19th century. *George V*, the grandson of Victoria, had started a tradition of attending the annual football *Cup Final* match at *Wembley Stadium*¹. On Christmas Day, 1932, he spoke to the people of Britain and the Commonwealth on the radio. Since then *the Christmas speech of the monarch* has also become a tradition. During the Second World War *George VI* and his wife won great admiration of the British people for refusing to leave Buckingham Palace² even after

¹ Wembley Stadium ['wembli'steɪdjəm] — стадион Уэмбли

² Buckingham Palace ['bʌkɪŋəm'pælɪs] — Букингемский дворец



The Royal family in the 1980s

it had been bombed. Since 1952, when *Elizabeth II* became queen, the popularity of the monarchy has been steadily growing.

QUESTIONS

1. Is the monarchy still popular in Britain?
2. Which two new traditions were started by George V?
3. What step of George VI brought him great admiration of the British people during the Second World War?
4. Who is the present monarch of Britain? Is the popularity of the monarchy still growing?

Part 5. The Loss of Empire.

At the end of the First World War **the British Empire** was bigger than ever before and covered a quarter of the entire land surface of the world. However, there were signs that the empire was coming to an end. Public opinion was changing, and more and more people were beginning to realize that colonialism was wrong and that all nations had the right for self-government. The independence movement in colonies was rapidly growing.

The United Nations Charter in 1945 also called for¹ progress towards self-government.

In India there was a powerful nationalist movement skilfully led by **Mahatma Gandhi**². By 1945 it was clear that British rule in India could not continue. It became impossible for Britain to rule 300 million people without their co-operation. In

¹ called for — призывала

² Mahatma Gandhi [mə'hæt mə'gændi] — Махатма Ганди

1947 the British finally left India, which divided into a *Hindu*¹ state and a smaller *Muslim*² state called *Pakistan*. *Ceylon* became independent the following year.

In the 1950s, after Suez, Britain began to give up³ its other possessions. Between 1945 and 1955 500 million people in former British colonies became completely self-governing.

Britain tried to keep international ties with its former colonies through a new organization called **the British Commonwealth of Nations**⁴. All the former colonies were invited to join **the Commonwealth** as free and equal members. This system of co-operation has proved to be successful, because it is based on the kind of friendship that allows all members to follow their own policies without interference.

QUESTIONS

1. How large was the British Empire at the end of the First World War?
2. How was public opinion changing about the idea of colonialism in the 20th century?
3. What movement was growing in the colonies?
4. What did the United Nations Charter of 1945 call for?
5. Who was the leader of the nationalist movement in India? What was impossible for Britain? When did India get independence? Which two states were formed on its territory?

¹ Hindu ['hɪndu:] — индуистское

² Muslim ['muslɪm] — мусульманское

³ to give up — отдавать

⁴ the British Commonwealth ['kɒmənwelθ] of Nations — Британское содружество наций

6. When did Ceylon become independent?
7. How many people in former British colonies became independent between 1945 and 1965?
8. What new organization was formed to help Britain keep international ties with its former colonies? Why has this system proved to be successful? What principle is it based on?

Part 6. The Situation in Northern Ireland.

When Ireland was divided in 1921, the majority of the population in Northern Ireland (Ulster) was Protestant. Northern Ireland was a self-governing province, and most of the population were satisfied with this system. There were other people, however, mostly Catholics, who considered that their sys-



Struggle in Ulster

tem of government was unfair. These people supported the party of republicans who wanted to unite the whole of Ireland.

Suddenly, in 1969, some people in Ulster, both Catholics and Protestants, began to gather in the streets and demand full independence from Britain. This movement was very strong and soon turned into a nationalist rebellion against British rule.

To keep law and order, the British government sent soldiers to help the police, but many Catholics saw them as a foreign army with no right to be there. In spite of the attempts of the British government and the local administration of Ulster, fighting in Northern Ireland is still continuing. Young people in Northern Ireland cannot remember a time when there was peace in the province.

QUESTIONS

1. When was Ireland divided into the Irish Republic and Northern Ireland (Ulster)?
2. What is the political status of Ulster?
3. What movement began in Ulster in 1969? What did this movement grow into?
4. How did the British government try to keep law and order in Ulster? Were the attempts successful?
5. What is the situation in Northern Ireland now?

Part 7. The Years of Discontent.

Beginning with the 1970s Britain was gradually falling behind¹ its European neighbours economical-

¹ was gradually falling behind — постепенно отставала

ly. It happened as a result of rising prices and growing unemployment. The government did not know how to solve the problem. In 1973 Britain joined **the European Community**¹ (**Common Market**²) with the hope that it would help to raise its economic wealth. But it did not happen.

Britain also faced new social problems after the arrival of immigrants in the country. The first black immigrants started to arrive from the West Indies in the 1950s. They were looking for work. By 1960 there

were 250,000 coloured immigrants in Britain, and the first signs of trouble with young whites appeared.

Later, Asian immigrants started to arrive from India and Pakistan, and black immigrants from East Africa. Most immigrants lived together in poor areas of large cities.

The relationship between the coloured immigrants and the white pop-



Unemployment

¹ the European Community [juərə'piən kə'mju:niti] — Европейское сообщество

² Common Market — Общий рынок

ulation of Britain was not easy. There were white people, mostly young, who blamed the immigrants for growing unemployment. They were wrong, because, in fact, it was often the immigrants who were willing to do dirty or unpopular work in factories, hospitals and other workplaces.

Unemployment increased rapidly at the end of the 1970s, and by 1985 the number of unemployed people reached 3,5 million. In many towns 15 per cent or more of the working population was out of work. Things became worse as steel mills¹ and coal mines² were closed. In 1984 the miners went on strike protesting against the closing of mines. Only after a whole year of violent fighting with the police the strike was put down³.

Inflation made the situation more difficult. Within a short period of only thirty years, between 1954 and 1984, prices multiplied⁴ by six. In these conditions it was almost impossible to make sure that all workers received fair wages.

QUESTIONS

1. When did Britain begin falling behind other European countries economically? Why did it happen?
2. Why did Britain join the Common Market in 1973? Why was it disappointed?
3. What new social problem did Britain face? When did the first immigrants begin to arrive in Britain? Where did they come from? What were they looking for?

¹ steel mills — сталепрокатные заводы

² coal mines — угольные шахты

³ the strike was put down — забастовка была подавлена

⁴ multiplied ['multiplaid] by six — увеличились в шесть раз

4. How many coloured immigrants were there in Britain by 1960?
5. What other countries did immigrants come from?
6. Where did most immigrants live?
7. What did some white people blame the immigrants for? Why were they wrong?
8. What was the number of the unemployed by 1985?
9. Why did the miners go on strike in 1984? What did they protest against?
10. How did inflation affect the situation in the country? How did the prices change between 1954 and 1984?

Part 8. Margaret Thatcher.

Britain's first woman Prime Minister **Margaret Thatcher**¹ the leader of the Conservative Party, was elected in 1979 because she promised a new beginning for Britain.

Margaret Thatcher called on the nation for² hard work, patriotism and self-help. She attached great importance to free trade at home and abroad and individual enterprise³, and insisted that government interference in economy should be minimal.

As a result, the old Conservative-Labour agreement on the guiding principles of the welfare state was gradually breaking down. In the Conservative Party there had been a strong movement to the right, and in the Labour Party there had been a similarly

¹ Margaret Thatcher ['mɑ:gərit'θætʃə] — Маргарет Тэтчер

² called on the nation for — призывала нацию к

³ individual enterprise [ˌɪndɪˈvɪdʒuəl'entəpraɪz] — индивидуальное предпринимательство

strong movement to the left. Both parties moved further away from the “centre” of British politics than they had done before.

In 1981 four senior right-wing members left the Labour Party and formed their own **Social-Democratic Party**, in alliance with the small but surviving Liberal Party. By March 1982 the new



Margaret Thatcher

party was gaining ground both from the Conservative and Labour Parties¹.

Thatcher succeeded in returning a number of nationalized industries to the private sector. By 1987 *telecommunications, gas, British Airways, British Aerospace* and *British Shipbuilders* had all been put into private ownership.

In the 1983 elections Thatcher was returned to power. However, there were many people in Britain who were dissatisfied with the Thatcher government. Thatcher had promised to stop Britain's decline, but by 1983 she had not succeeded. *Industrial production*² since 1979 had fallen by 10 per cent, and *man-*

¹ was gaining ground both from the Conservative and Labour Parties — теснила как Консервативную, так и Лейбористскую партии

² Industrial production — промышленное производство

*ufacturing production*¹ by 17 per cent. Unemployment had risen to over three million. But the most serious accusation against the Thatcher government was that it had created a more unequal society, a society of “two nations”, one wealthy and the other poor. The number of very poor, who received only a very small amount of government help, increased from twelve million in 1979 to over sixteen million by 1983.

The black community also felt separated from richer Britain. Most blacks lived in the poor city areas, and unemployment among blacks by 1986 was twice as high as among the white population.

In spite of these problems, Thatcher’s Conservative Party was still more popular than any other party in 1987. In the national elections that year the Conservative Party was returned to power with a majority of 102 seats.

Thatcher’s victory caused concern for both opposition parties. The Labour Party did better than many had expected², and won the majority in the 1997 elections. **Tony Blair**³ became Prime Minister.

QUESTIONS

1. When did Margaret Thatcher become Prime Minister of Britain? What did she promise the nation?
2. What did Margaret Thatcher call on the nation for? What did she attach great importance to? What did she insist on?

¹ manufacturing production — производство предметов потребления

² did better than many had expected — добилаь лучших результатов, чем многие ожидали

³ Tony Blair [ˈtɒniˈbleɪ] — Тони Блэр

3. How did Margaret Thatcher's policy affect the old Conservative-Labour agreement on the guiding principles of the welfare state?
4. How was the new Social-Democratic Party formed in 1981?
5. What industries did Margaret Thatcher return to the private sector?
6. Were the British satisfied with Margaret Thatcher's policy? What was the most serious accusation against the Thatcher government?
7. Why did the black community feel separated from richer Britain?
8. Why was the Conservative Party returned to power during the 1987 elections in spite of many people's dissatisfaction?
9. What party won the majority in the 1997 elections? Who became Prime Minister?

Part 9. Britain Today. Ties with the Past and Thoughts of the Future.

Britain has more living symbols of its past than many countries. It still has a royal family and a small nobility. Its capital, other cities and countryside have preserved many ancient palaces, castles, and cathedrals, and grand mansions of the nobility. Every year there are historical ceremonies, for example the *State Opening of Parliament*, the *Lord Mayor's Show in London*, or the meeting of the *Knights of the Garter*¹ at Windsor each St

¹ the Knights [naɪts] of the Garter ['gɑ:tə] — Рыцари ордена Подвязки

George's Day. These symbols are a true representation of the glorious past.

As to the country's present and future, there is a difference of opinion among the British people today as to what home policies Britain should pursue. Some people are sure that most important for national renewal is material wealth. Others believe that the emphasis on material wealth encourages selfishness and a retreat from an ideal of community to a desire for personal gain. They are worried by the weakening of the "*welfare-state*" principle, particularly by the reduction of government aid in the education and health services.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the living symbols of the past that Britain has preserved?
2. What do the opinions of the British people differ about?
3. Do all the people agree that material wealth is most important for national renewal? What danger do some people see in the emphasis on material wealth? What are these people worried about? What do you think? Would you put emphasis on material wealth? What in your opinion is most important for national renewal?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words and word combinations from the list:

secondary, Christmas, immigrants, well-being, to protect, to challenge, Aid, Common, economically, prevent, Commonwealth, self-help, unemployment, encourages, dissatisfied, strike, majority, called on, to recover, material, falling behind.

1. The United Nations Organization was created in order _____ peace and democracy in the world and _____ new wars.
2. After Suez many weaker countries in Asia and Africa began _____ Britain's authority.
3. In 1944 the British government introduced free _____ education for all.
4. The reforms introduced by the government gave importance to people's happiness and _____.
5. Much of post-war Europe became _____ dependent on the United States.
6. Thanks to the US Marshall _____ Programme, Britain was able _____ quickly from the war.
7. The _____ speech of the monarch has become a tradition.
8. All the former colonies were invited to join the _____ as free and equal members.
9. Beginning with the 1970s Britain was gradually _____ its European neighbours economically.
10. Britain joined the _____ Market in 1973.
11. Britain faced new social problems after the arrival of _____ in the country.
12. _____ increased rapidly at the end of the 1970s.
13. In 1984 the miners went on _____, protesting against the closing of mines.

14. Margaret Thatcher _____ the nation for hard work, patriotism and _____.
15. There were many people in Britain who were _____ with the Thatcher government.
16. The Labour Party won the _____ in the 1997 elections.
17. Some people are sure that most important for national renewal is _____ wealth.
18. Some Britons think that the emphasis on material wealth _____ selfishness.

UNIT REVIEW

Who are these people? What have they done? Write a few words about each of them.

Winston Churchill Margaret Thatcher

SECTION THREE

PRESENT-DAY BRITAIN

CHAPTER 1

BRITISH OR ENGLISH?

Some people find it difficult to distinguish between such names as *British* and *English*, between *Britain* and *England*; and the names *the British Isles* and *the United Kingdom* add to the difficulty. What exactly does each of these names mean?

Part 1. The British Isles¹.

This is the geographical name that refers to all the islands situated off the north-west coast of the European continent: *Great Britain*², the whole of *Ireland*³ (Northern and Southern), and all the smaller islands situated between and around them: *the Isle of Wight*⁴, *the Orkneys*⁵, *the Hebrides*⁶, *the Shetlands*⁷, *the Isles of Scilly*⁸, *the Channel Islands*⁹ and *the Isle of Man*¹⁰.

¹ The British Isles ['brɪtɪʃ'aɪlz] — Британские острова

² Great Britain ['ɡreɪt'brɪtn] — Великобритания

³ Ireland ['aɪələnd] — Ирландия

⁴ the Isle of Wight ['aɪ əv'waɪt] — остров Уайт

⁵ the Orkneys ['ɔ:kni:z] — Оркнейские острова

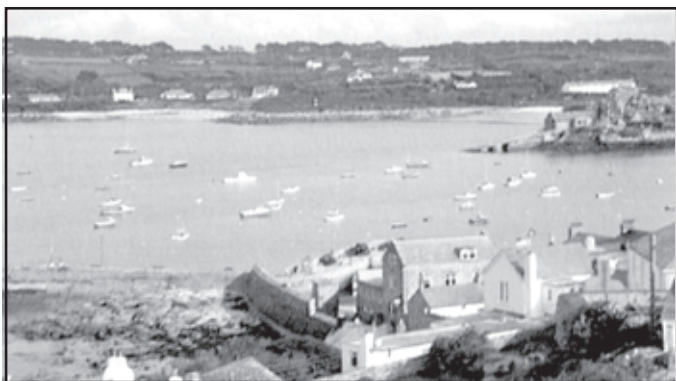
⁶ the Hebrides ['hebrɪdɪ:z] — Гебриды

⁷ the Shetlands ['ʃetlənd] — Шетландские острова

⁸ the Isles of Scilly ['aɪlz əv'sɪli] — острова Сциллы

⁹ the Channel Islands ['tʃænəl'aɪləndz] — Нормандские острова

¹⁰ the Isle of Man ['aɪ əv'mæn] — остров Мэн



The Isles of Scilly

QUESTIONS

1. What does the name *British Isles* refer to?
2. What smaller islands are situated between and around Great Britain and Ireland? Can you show them on the map?

Part 2. Great Britain.

This is the name of the largest island of the British Isles. It is historically divided into three parts which were once independent states: *England*, *Scotland* and *Wales*. The people who live in England are *English*, the people who live in Scotland are *Scots*, the people who live in Wales are *Welsh*¹. At the same time all these people are *British* because they live in Britain. As to the word *Great* in the name of the island, it was first introduced by the French to distinguish the island from the area in the north of France called *Britanny*² (the French language has the same word for *Britain* and *Britanny*).

¹ Welsh [welʃ] — уэльсцы

² Britanny ['britəni] — Бретань

QUESTIONS

What is Great Britain? What three parts is it traditionally divided into?

Part 3. The United Kingdom.

The United Kingdom (or UK) is an abbreviation of *the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland*¹, which is the political name of the country consisting of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland (sometimes called *Ulster*²). Southern Ireland is a completely independent state: *the Republic of Ireland* (also called *Eire*³).

It took centuries and a lot of armed struggle to form the United Kingdom. In the 15th century a Welsh prince Henry Tudor, became King Henry VII of England. Then his

The United Kingdom



¹ the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland — Объединённое королевство Великобритании и Северной Ирландии

² Ulster ['ʌlstə] — Ольстер

³ Eire ['ɛərə] — Эйре

son, Henry VIII united England and Wales under one Parliament in 1536. In Scotland a similar thing happened. The king of Scotland inherited the crown of England and Wales in 1603, so he became King James I of England and Wales and King James VI of Scotland. The Parliaments of England and Wales were united a century later, in 1707.

The Scottish and Welsh are proud and independent people. In recent years there have been attempts at *devolution*¹ in the two countries, particularly in Scotland where the Scottish Nationalist Party was very strong for a while. However, in a referendum in 1978 the majority of the Welsh people rejected devolution, and in 1979 the Scots did the same. Nevertheless, most Welsh and Scots sometimes complain that they are dominated by England, and of course they don't like to be referred to as English².

The whole of Ireland was united with Great Britain from 1801 till 1921. In 1921 it was divided into two parts. The larger southern part formed the independent Republic of Ireland (Eire), while Northern Ireland (Ulster) became part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

QUESTIONS

Which is the full name of the county situated on the British Isles? Which four parts does the United Kingdom consist of?

¹ devolution — отделение (от другой страны)

² they don't like to be referred to as English — они не любят, когда их называют англичанами

Part 4. Forming the Nation.

About 2,000 years ago the British Isles were inhabited by *the Celts*¹, who had originally come from continental Europe. During the next 1,000 years there were many invasions. *The Romans* came from Italy in AD 43. The *Angles* and *Saxons* came from Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands in the 5th century and gave the country the name England (Angle-land). *The Vikings*² kept coming from Denmark and Norway throughout the 9th century. In 1066 (the date in history which every British school child knows) *the Normans* invaded from France. All these invasions drove the Celts into Wales and Scotland, and of course they also remained in Ireland. The present-day English are the descendants of all the invaders, although they are more *Anglo-Saxon* than anything else. These various origins explain many of the differences which exist between England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland — differences in education, religion, the legal systems³ and in language.

QUESTIONS

1. What people were the British Isles inhabited by about 2,000 years ago?
2. When did the Romans settle in Great Britain?
3. When did the Anglo-Saxons come?
4. When did the Normans invade Britain?
5. In what spheres of life do differences still exist between England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland?

¹ Celts [kelts] — кельты

² Vikings ['vaɪkɪŋz] — викинги

³ legal systems — судопроизводство

Part 5. Language.

The Celts spoke *Celtic*¹, which survives today in the form of *Welsh*, *Scottish Gaelic*² and *Irish Gaelic*. *Welsh*, *Scottish Gaelic* and *Irish Gaelic* are still spoken by some people, although they have suffered from the spread of English. However, all three languages are now officially encouraged and taught at schools.

English developed from *Anglo-Saxon* and it is a language of *the Germanic group*³. All the invading peoples, particularly the *Norman-French*, influenced the English language, and we can find many words in English which are French in origin. Nowadays all Welsh, Scottish and Irish people speak English (even if they speak their own language as well), but they have their own special accents and dialects, so you can tell what part of Britain a person is from as soon as they begin to speak. Sometimes the differences in accents are so great that people from different parts of the UK have difficulty in understanding one another. The southern accent is generally accepted as *standard English*.

QUESTIONS

1. Has the Celtic language survived? In what form?
2. What did present-day English develop from? Why are there many words of French origin in present-day English? What accent is generally accepted as standard English?

¹ Celtic ['keltɪk] — кельтский язык

² Gaelic ['geɪlɪk] — гаэльский язык

³ a language of the Germanic [dʒə'mæɪnɪk] group — язык германской группы

Part 6. Immigrants in Britain.

Recently there have been many waves of immigration into Britain. Many *Jews*, *Russians*, *Germans* and *Poles* have come to Britain during political changes in the rest of Europe. There are also many immigrants from different countries of the Commonwealth. Before the Second World War these immigrants were mostly white people from *Canada*, *Australia*, *New Zealand* and *South Africa*. In the 1950s the British government encouraged¹ people from the *West Indies*, *India*, *Pakistan*, *Bangladesh*² and *Hong Kong*³ to come and work in Britain. Today two million British people are of West Indian or Asian origin and over 50 per cent of them were born in Britain. The government encourages the immigrant communities to continue speaking their own languages as well as English. The children of immigrants are often taught their own languages at school, and there are special newspapers, magazines and radio and television programmes for the immigrants.

The latest wave of immigration has caused se-

¹ encouraged [ɪn'kʌrɪdʒd] —
поощряло

² Bangladesh [ˌbæŋɡlə'deɪʃ] —
Бангладеш

³ Hong Kong ['hɒŋ'kɒŋ] —
Гонконг



Immigrants in London

rious problems. There is a certain racial tension and racial prejudice in Britain today. In spite of laws passed to protect them, there is still discrimination against Asian and black people, many of whom are unemployed or have low-paid jobs. Settling the discrimination problem is an important task which British society faces today.

QUESTIONS

1. Where did immigrants come to Britain from?
2. How many British people today are of West Indian or Asian origin?
3. How does the British government encourage the immigrant communities to continue speaking their own languages?
4. What problem has the latest wave of immigration caused?

Part 7. The Union Jack.

The flag of the United Kingdom, known as *the Union Jack*, is made up of three crosses. The upright red cross is the cross of *St George*, the patron saint of England. The white diagonal cross (with the arms



The Union Jack

going into the corners) is the cross of *St Andrew*, the patron saint of Scotland. The red diagonal cross is the cross of *St Patrick*, the patron saint of Ireland.

QUESTIONS

What is the state flag of the UK sometimes called?
What do the crosses on the flag stand for?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

accepted, off, discrimination, Wales, Ulster, Commonwealth, inherited, historically, Eire, Germanic, geographical.

1. Northern Ireland is sometimes called _____.
2. Great Britain is _____ divided into three parts.
3. The British Isles is the _____ name that refers to all the islands situated _____ the north-west coast of Europe.
4. _____ is the name of the Republic of Southern Ireland.
5. In 1536 Henry VIII united England and _____ under one Parliament.
6. After the death of Elizabeth I King James VI of Scotland _____ the crown of England.
7. English is a language of the _____ group.
8. The southern accent is generally _____ as standard English.
9. Many immigrants came to Britain from different countries of the _____.
10. Today British society faces an important task of settling the _____ problem.

CHAPTER 2

HOW THEY LIVE

Part 1. The Way of Life.

In recent years there have been many changes in family life. A typical British family used to consist of mother, father and two children. Since the law made it easier to get a divorce, the number of divorces has considerably increased: one marriage in every three now ends in divorce. As a result, there are a lot of one-parent families. Society is now more tolerant of unmarried couples and single parents.

The increased number of divorces, however, does not mean that marriage and the family are not popular: the majority of divorced people marry again, and they usually take responsibility for the children in their second family.

Members of a family — grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins — keep in touch, but they see each other less than before, because people often move away from their home town to work, and so the family becomes scattered. Christmas is the traditional season for reunions, and relatives often travel many miles in order to spend the holiday together.

Taking care of the older generation. There are about ten million old-age people in Britain, of whom about 750,000 cannot live entirely independently. The government gives them financial help in the form of a pension. More than half of all old people are looked after at home. Old people who have no families live in *Old People's Homes*, which may be state-owned or private.

The individual and the family. The relations between the members of a family have become more

democratic than they used to be. Many parents treat their children more as equals, and children have more freedom to make their own decisions. The father gives more time to bringing up children, often because the mother goes to work. Although the family holiday is still an important part of family life, many children spend their holidays away from their parents, often with a school party or another organized group.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the result of the increased number of divorces in recent years?
2. Does the increased number of divorces mean that marriage and the family are no longer popular? Explain.
3. Do all members of a family usually live together or apart? What is the traditional time for a family reunion?
4. What is the number of old-age people in Britain? How does the government help the old people who have no families?
5. What facts show that the relations between the members of a family have become more democratic?

Part 2. Education.

In most schools boys and girls learn together. In the first stage, which is called *primary education*, all children are educated according to the same programme. As they grow older, differences in ability and attainment become very marked, so it is considered necessary to offer different programmes.

There are three stages of education: *primary*, or *elementary*, *education*, *secondary education* and *higher education*.

Primary education is given to children between 5 and 11 years of age. A primary school is subdivided into *an infant school* for children aged 5 to 7 and *a junior school* for children aged 7 to 11. In small country places both the infant department and the junior department may be combined under the roof of one school.

Secondary education embraces the children from 11 years of age to 16 years of age. Until recently there were three main types of secondary schools: *grammar schools*, *technical schools* and *modern schools*. Children were sent to one of these three types of school according to their abilities. These three types of school still exist, but their number is decreasing. They are being replaced by the so-called *comprehensive schools*. *The comprehensive schools* are the most modern development in secondary schools. The main advantages of the comprehensive schools are that these schools are open to children of all types of ability from the age of 11; they are large schools which give a much wider range of subjects than smaller schools, so that teenagers can choose a course of studies according to their individual inclinations and abilities.

QUESTIONS

1. Are all children educated according to the same programme or different programmes?
2. Which is the first stage of education?
3. Which is the second stage of education? Which were the three main types of secondary schools until recently? Do these three types of schools still exist?
4. Which is the most modern development in secondary schools? What are the main advantages of this type of schools?

Part 3. Culture, Leisure, Entertainment.

Annual festivals of music and drama are very popular in Britain. Some of them are famous not only in Britain, but all over the world.

Burns' night. January 25 is the birthday of Scotland's greatest poet **Robert Burns**¹. There are hundreds of Burns clubs not only in Britain, but also throughout the world, and on the 25th of January they all hold **Burns Night celebrations**. In banquet halls of Edinburgh, in workers' clubs of Glasgow, in cottages of Scottish villages, thousands of people drink a toast to the immortal memory of Robert Burns. To the sounds of bagpipes there appear on the tables the traditional dishes of the festival dinner: chicken broth, boiled salt herring, and *haggis* — a typical Scottish dish made from the heart and other organs of a sheep. It is eaten with boiled turnip and potatoes. The dinner is followed by dancing, pipe music, and reciting selections from Burns' lyrics. The celebration concludes with singing the poet's famous *Auld Lang Syne*².

Shakespeare's Birthday. Every year the anniversary of the birth of William Shakespeare³ is celebrated in *Stratford-upon-Avon*⁴, where he was born on April 23, 1564. Flags are hung in the main street, people wear *sprigs of rosemary*⁵ (for remembrance) in their button-holes. A long procession goes along the streets to the church where everyone in the procession puts a wreath

¹ Robert Burns ['rɒbət 'bɜ:nz] — Роберт Бернс

² Auld Lang Syne ['ɔ:ld læŋ'saɪn] — «Забыть ли старую любовь»
(традиционная шотландская застольная песня)

³ William Shakespeare ['wɪljəm 'ʃekspɪə] — Уильям Шекспир

⁴ Stratford-upon-Avon ['strætfd əpən'eɪvən] — Страдфорд-на-Эйвоне

⁵ sprigs of rosemary ['rouzməri] — веточки розмарина

or a bouquet, or just one flower at the poet's grave. In the evening there is a performance of the chosen *Birth-day Play in the Royal Shakespeare Theatre*¹.

In London, *the Aldwych Theatre*² which has close ties with the Royal Shakespeare Theatre in Stratford-upon-Avon, holds *international Shakespeare festivals*, during which famous companies from abroad, including *the Comédie Française*³ from Paris, *the Moscow Art Theatre*, *the Schiller Theatre* of Berlin⁴, *the Abbey Theatre* from Dublin, and others, perform Shakespeare's plays.

The Edinburgh International Festival. **The Edinburgh International Festival**⁵ is held annually during three weeks in late August and early September. **The Festival** is quite international in its character, as it gives a varied representation of artistic production from many countries. Leading musicians of the world and world-famous theatre companies always take part in it.

The idea of the Festival originated in the first post-war year. All over Europe rationing and restrictions were the order of the day, and hundreds of towns lay in ruins, and it seemed a good idea to shift people's attention from everyday needs to eternal values.

The first Festival was held in 1947. And since that time the Edinburgh International Festival has firmly established its reputation as one of the important events of its kind in the world.

¹ the Royal Shakespeare Theatre — Королевский Шекспировский театр

² the Aldwych ['ɔ:ldwɪtʃ] Theatre — театр Олдуич

³ the Comédie Française [kɔmɛ'di: fraŋ'seiz] — Комеди Франсез

⁴ the Schiller ['ʃɪlə] Theatre of Berlin [bɜ:'lɪn] — Берлинский Шиллеровский театр

⁵ The Edinburgh ['edɪnbərə] International Festival — Эдинбургский международный фестиваль

The weekend. People in Britain work five days a week, from Monday to Friday. From Friday evening till Monday morning they are usually free. Leaving work on Friday, people usually say to each other, "*Have a nice weekend*", and on Monday morning they ask, "*Did you have a nice weekend?*"

Saturday morning is a very busy time for shopping, as this is the only day when people who are at work can shop without hurrying. On Saturday afternoon the most important sporting events of the week take place: *football, rugby* (in summer — *cricket* and *tennis*), *horse-racing, car and motor-cycle racing* and other sports. A lot of people go and watch the sports events, others stay at home and watch the sports programmes on TV. In the late afternoon the sports results are announced on TV.

Saturday evening is the best time for parties, dances, going to the cinema or theatre.

Having gone to bed late the night before, many people don't hurry to get up on Sunday morning, so they usually have a late breakfast. Some people like to have breakfast in bed. While having breakfast, people start reading the Sunday papers. It is quite usual for a family to have two or three Sunday papers, and some families have more. These people have little time for anything else on Sunday morning.

Sunday dinner (some people call it Sunday lunch), which is at 1 o'clock or at 1,30, is traditionally the most important family meal of the week. Most people have a joint (a piece of meat roasted in the oven) which is served with roast or boiled potatoes, some other vegetables, and gravy. Then comes the pudding and finally tea or coffee. This heavy meal makes most people feel sleepy and passive, and they sit talk-

ing, reading newspapers, watching television until tea time. In summer they sit in the garden. More energetic people go out for a walk or to see friends.

Tea-time is 5–5,30. *The 5 o'clock tea* is another traditional meal, during which they don't just drink tea, but also eat sandwiches, sometimes cold meat and salad, fruit and cream, bread and butter and jam, and cakes.

As to Sunday evening, some people spend it quietly at home, others go to see friends, go to a concert or film, or go out for a drink.

QUESTIONS

1. What entertainment is very popular in Britain?
2. When is the birthday of Robert Burns? What celebrations do the Burns clubs hold on this day? How are the celebrations held? What is the traditional Scottish dish that is served at these celebrations?
3. How is Shakespeare's birthday celebrated in Stratford-upon-Avon? How is his birthday marked by the Aldwych Theatre in London?
4. When is the Edinburgh International Festival held? When did the idea of the Festival originate? Who takes part in the Festival?
5. How do people usually spend Saturday? Why is Saturday evening the best time for going to the theatre or having parties?
6. How is Sunday morning usually spent in most families?
7. What is the most important family meal of the week? What does it consist of?
8. How do most people spend their Sunday evening?

Part 4. Sport.

British people are fond of sports, perhaps more fond than any other nation in the world. Almost everybody is actively engaged in this or that kind of sports. Among the most popular sports are *football*, of course, then *cricket*, *boat racing* and *horseracing*.

Football. Football is a very popular sport in Britain, played between August and May (the football season). Many people support a particular team and often watch the games that their team plays. Professional football is controlled by *the Football Association (the FA)*. Teams play regularly against other teams according to a fixed programme. A very important competition is *the FA Cup*. *The FA Cup* is also open to amateur teams that belong to the Football Association. The two teams which are the winners of the FA Cup competition, play in *the FA Cup Final* at *Wembley Stadium* in London. This is a very important national sporting event, and it is always watched by millions of people on TV.

Cricket. Cricket is another very popular sport in Britain, played mainly in summer (May — September). Many people consider cricket to be England's national game and to be typical of the English style of behaviour, which includes above all a sense of honour and fairness.

The Boat Race. The Boat Race is a rowing race on the River Thames held every year at the end of March or the beginning of April between teams from Oxford University and Cambridge University. It is a popular national event and is shown on TV.

The Henley Regatta. The Henley Regatta is a meeting for races between rowing boats at *Henley*¹, a town on the Thames. It is an important social event for upper-class and fashionable people.

The Derby. The Derby² is a very important annual horse race held at *Epsom*³ in England in May or June, on a day which is known as *Derby Day*.

The Royal Ascot. It is a four-day horse-racing event held at *Ascot*⁴, a suburb of London, every June, and is one of the most important race meetings in Britain. It is especially popular with upper-class people. Members of the royal family always attend it. One of the days is called *Ladies' Day*, and some of the women like to wear very big and unusually looking hats.

QUESTIONS

1. Which are the most popular sports in Britain?
2. When is the football season? What organization is professional football controlled by? What teams play at Wembley Stadium?
3. When is cricket played? What does the English style of behaviour include, according to many people?
4. What is the Boat Race? When is it held? What teams take part in it?
5. What is the Henley Regatta?
6. What is the Derby? Where is it held?
7. What event is held at Ascot? Why is it called Royal Ascot? What kind of hats do women like to wear at Ascot?

¹ Henley ['henlɪ] — Хэнли

² The Derby ['dɑːbɪ] — Дерби

³ Epsom ['epsəm] — Эпсом

⁴ Ascot ['æskət] — Эскот

Part 5. Young People's Groups.

When the new trend in music, *Rock-n-Roll*, appeared in the 1950s, it immediately became very popular with the young people. Over the last forty years or so it has had an enormous effect on people's lives, and especially on the kind of clothes they wear.

The first group, which appeared in the late 1950s, was **the Teddy Boys**. Their clothes were an imitation of the clothes which were worn in *Edwardian England* — the time of the reign of *Edward VII*, the beginning of the 20th century (*Ted* and *Teddy* are abbreviations of *Edward*): long jackets with velvet collars, “*drainpipe*” trousers (so tight that they looked like drainpipes) and brightly coloured socks. Their shoes had very thick rubber soles and their long hair was swept upwards and backwards. This was like a revolution in fashion: before the Teddy Boys came, young people had usually worn the same kind of clothes as their parents. Now they wore what they liked.

In the mid-60s **the Mods** (so called because of their modern style of dressing) became the new leaders of teenage fashion. Short hair and smart suits were popular again. **The Mods** rode *scooters*, which they usually decorated with a lot of lights and mirrors. They often wore long green coats with hoods, called *parkas*.

The Mods' greatest enemies were **the Rockers**, who despised **the Mods'** scooters and smart clothes. Like the Teddy Boys, **Rockers** listened mainly to *rock-n-roll*. They rode powerful *motor-bikes*, had long untidy hair, wore thick leather jackets, and drank alcohol.

Throughout the 1960s, on public holidays during summer, groups of **Mods** and **Rockers** used to travel to the sea-side resorts of south-eastern England,



Mods



Hippies

where they got into battles with the police and with each other.

Towards the end of the 1960s a new group appeared, whose ideas started in *California*¹ in the USA. This new group was **the Hippies**. They preached a philosophy of peace and love, wore necklaces of coloured beads, and gave flowers to surprised strangers in the streets. The name **Hippies** comes from the fact that drug-takers in Asia and in the Far East used to lie on one hip while smoking opium. Hippies did not use opium, but they smoked marijuana and took powerful drugs called *LSD*. **Hippies** wore simple clothes, blue jeans and open sandals, and grew

their hair very long. They often lived together in large communities, sharing their possessions. It was their protest against the materialism of the 1960s.

The 1970s saw the appearance of **the Skinheads**, who got their name because they cut their hair ex-

¹ California [ˌkælɪˈfɔːnjə] — Калифорния

tremely short or even shaved it all off. They wore very short trousers, enormous boots and braces. **The Skinheads** blamed the immigrants for the unemployment in the country. They attacked Asian and black immigrants in the streets and in their homes. Many **Skinheads** joined *the National Front*, a political party whose slogan is “*Britain for white people only*”.

Towards the end of the 1970s another style of music and dressing appeared — **the Punks**, and it is still very popular. The word **Punk** comes from American English and is used to describe someone who is immoral or worthless. **The Punks** sing songs about anarchy and destruction and use bad language. Their music is loud, fast and tuneless.



A Punk

In recent years many new bands have emerged; and some old ones have reappeared. A new trend is **New Wave**¹ music, which totally rejects the ideas of **the Skinheads**. Many of the bands contain both black and white musicians, and *anti-racism concerts* have been organized (they are known as *Rock against Racism*). West Indian music has also played a large part in forming people's musical tastes. Many new British bands combine traditional rock music with West Indian *reggae beat*².

¹ New Wave — Новая волна

² reggae beat ['regeɪ'bi:t] — популярная ритмическая музыка из Вест-Индии

Many of the new bands make use of the changes in technology to develop their music. Computerized drum machines, synthesizers and other electronic instruments are now just as popular as the electric guitar.

QUESTIONS

1. When did *Rock-n-Roll* appear? What effect did it have on people?
2. When did *the Teddy Boys* first appear? Why were they called *Teddy Boys*?
3. What group became the new leaders of teenage fashion in the 1960s? How did they cut their hair? How did they dress? What did they ride on?
4. Who were the enemies of *the Mods*? What was the difference between *the Mods* and *the Rockers* in the way they wore their hair or dressed?
5. Where and when did *the Hippies* first appear? What philosophy did *the Hippies* preach? How did they dress?
6. What new group appeared in the 1970s? What details of their clothing distinguished them from other people? Why were they called *Skinheads*? What was characteristic of their behaviour? What was the slogan of the political party which many *Skinheads* joined?
7. When did *the Punks* appear? What does the word *punk* mean? Will it be right to say that *the Punks* live up to their name¹? Why?
8. What is the new trend in music called? How does *New Wave* music promote friendship among people?

¹ live up to their name — оправдывают своё имя

Part 6. Holidays.

New Year. New Year is not such an important holiday in England as Christmas. Some people don't celebrate it at all.

Many people have *New Year parties*. A party usually begins at about eight o'clock and goes on until early in the morning. At midnight they listen to the chimes of Big Ben, drink a toast to the New Year and Sing *Auld Lang Syne*.

In London crowds usually gather round the statue of *Eros* in *Piccadilly Circus* and welcome the New Year.

St. Valentine's Day. *St. Valentine* is considered a friend and patron of lovers. For centuries *St. Valentine's Day*, February 14th, has been a day for choosing sweethearts and exchanging *Valentine cards*. At first a *Valentine card* was hand-made, with little paintings of hearts and flowers, and a short verse composed by the sender. In the 19th century *Valentine cards* appeared in shops, complete with verses and decorations, brightly coloured and gilded. The tradition of sending *Valentine cards* is widespread all over the country, and lots of *Valentine cards* are posted and received every year on February 14th.

Easter. *Easter* is a Christian holiday in March or April, when Christians remember the death of Christ and his return to life. The holiday is marked by going to church and then having a celebration dinner. *Easter* is connected in people's minds with spring, with the coming to life of the earth after winter. The most popular emblem of *Easter* is *the Easter egg*: a hard-boiled egg painted in different colours. *Easter eggs* are traditional Easter presents for children. Nowadays *Easter eggs* are usually made of chocolate.

Children get chocolate *Easter eggs*, and also chocolate *Easter rabbits*. They are either hollow or have a filling, and are usually covered with brightly coloured silver paper.

Each year, on *Easter Sunday*, London greets spring with a traditional spectacular *Easter Parade* in Battersea Park. *The Parade* is a great procession of many richly *decorated floats*, that is large moving platforms on wheels, on which actors and amateurs perform shows. The most beautifully decorated float moves at the back of the procession and carries *the Easter Princess* and her attendants.

May Spring Festival. *The May Spring Festival*, which is celebrated on the 1st of May, has to some extent retained its old significance — that of a *pa-*



The Maypole

gan spring festival. Nowadays it is celebrated mostly by children and young people in many schools in different parts of Britain. It is celebrated with garlands of flowers, dancing and games on the village green, where they erect *a maypole* — a tall pole decorated with flowers and ribbons. The girls put on their best summer dresses, put flowers in their hair and round their waists, and wait for the crowning of *the May Queen*. The most beautiful girl is crowned with a garland of flowers. After this great event there is dancing, and the dancers wear fancy costumes representing characters from the Robin Hood legends.

Spring Bank Holiday. *Spring Bank Holiday* is celebrated on the last Monday in May. It is an official holiday, when all the offices are closed and people don't go to work. Many people go to the country on this day and have picnics.

Late Summer Bank Holiday. It is another official public holiday, and it is celebrated on the last Monday in August. During *the August Bank Holiday* townsfolk usually go to the country and to the sea-coast. If the weather is fine, many families take a picnic lunch or tea with them and enjoy their meal in the open. Seaside towns near London are invaded by thousands of Londoners, who come in cars and trains, on motor-cycles and bicycles.

The August Bank Holiday is also a time for big sports meetings at large stadiums, mainly all kinds of athletics. There are also horse races all over the country, and, most traditional, there are *large fairs* with *swings*, *roundabouts*, *Punch and Judy shows*¹

¹ Punch and Judy shows ['pʌntʃ ənd'dʒu:di'ʃəʊz] — Панч и Джуди (куклы, действующие лица ярмарочного балагана)

and every kind of other entertainments. Traditional on this day is *the famous Henley regatta*.

Guy Fawkes Night. *Guy Fawkes Night* is one of the most popular festivals in Britain. It commemorates the discovery of the so-called *Gunpowder Plot*, and is widely celebrated all over the country.

The story goes that there was a plot to destroy the Houses of Parliament and kill King James I during the ceremony of opening Parliament on November 5, 1605. The plot was organized by a group of Roman Catholics. In 1604 the conspirators rented a house near the House of Lords. From this house they dug a tunnel to a vault below the House of Lords and put into the vault 36 barrels of gunpowder. The plot was discovered because one of the conspirators wrote a letter to his relative, a member of the House of Lords, warning him to stay away from the House of Lords on the 5th of November. On November 4, a search was made of the parliament vaults, and the gunpowder was found, together with *Guy Fawkes*, who was to set off the explosion¹. Guy Fawkes was hanged.

The historical meaning of the event is no longer important, but this day is traditionally celebrated with *fireworks* and a *bonfire*, on which the figure of a man called *Guy* is burnt.

November 5 is a day on which children are allowed, under proper supervision, to let off fireworks², to make a bonfire and to burn on it a guy made of old clothes, straw and — if possible — one of father's old hats. On the days before November 5, one may see groups of

¹ who was to set off the explosion [iks'plouzn] — который должен был произвести взрыв

² to let off fireworks ['faɪəwɜ:ks] — запускать фейерверк

children going about the streets with their faces blackened and wearing some fancy clothes. Sometimes they have a little cart with a guy in it. They ask the passers-by to give them *a penny for the guy*. With this money they buy fireworks for the festival.

Christmas. Christmas is the main public holiday in Britain, when people spend time at home with their families, eat special food and drink a lot. Christmas is a Christian festival to remember the birth of Jesus Christ.

Long before Christmas time shops become very busy, because a lot of people buy Christmas presents. A lot of money is spent on the presents, but many people enjoy it. Every day television and newspapers say how many days are left before Christmas. People also buy Christmas cards to send to their friends and relatives. The cards have the words Merry Christmas and pictures of the birth of Christ, Santa Claus¹, a Christmas tree, a robin, or scenes of old-fashioned Christmases.

In churches people sing Christmas carols — special religious songs. Sometimes groups of people walk about the streets and sing carols at the doors of houses. One of the well-known carols is “Silent Night”.

Houses are usually decorated with lights and branches of needle-leaf trees². Many people have a decorated Christmas tree in their houses.

Young children are told that Santa Claus will bring them presents if they are good. Before going to bed on Christmas Eve³ the children hang stockings at the

¹ Santa Claus ['sæntə'klɔ:z] — Санта Клаус

² needle-leaf trees — хвойные деревья

³ Christmas Eve ['krɪsməs'i:v] — канун Рождества

back of their beds, for Santa Claus to put the presents in when he comes in the middle of the night through the chimney.

On *Christmas Eve* (the 24th of December) some people go to a special church service called *Midnight Mass*¹ which starts at 12 o'clock at night.

Christmas is the day when people stay at home, open their presents and eat and drink together. The most important meal is *Christmas dinner*. The typical meal consists of *turkey* with potatoes and other vegetables, followed by a *Christmas pudding*. Other traditional foods include a special Christmas cake and *mince pies* — small round cakes filled with a mixture of apples, raisins and spices.

The day after Christmas, the 26th of December, is also a public holiday. It is called *Boxing Day*. The name goes back to the old tradition: some time before Christmas, boxes were placed in churches for the people to put some money or presents for the poor. On the day after Christmas, the 26th of December, the priest opened the box and gave the contents away to poor people.

QUESTIONS

1. How do people celebrate the New Year? What do people do in Piccadilly Circus?
2. What is St. Valentine's Day? When is it celebrated? What is a *Valentine card*?
3. Who celebrates Easter? What do people celebrate on this day? How is Easter celebrated? What is Easter connected with in people's minds? What are *Easter eggs*? How is London's Easter Parade held?

¹ Midnight Mass [mæs] — Полуночная месса

4. When and how is the May Spring Festival celebrated?
5. When is the Spring Bank Holiday celebrated? What is the traditional way of celebrating it?
6. When is the August Bank Holiday celebrated? What events are organized on this day?
7. What does the holiday of *Guy Fawkes Night* commemorate? When is it marked? Why do children feel especially happy on *Guy Fawkes Night*?
8. Christmas is the main holiday of the year, isn't it? Why are the shops busy long before Christmas?
9. What are *Christmas carols*? Where do people sing them?
10. How do people usually decorate their houses for Christmas?
11. Why do children hang their stockings on the back of their beds on the night before Christmas?
12. What does a typical Christmas dinner consist of?

Part 7. Traditions.

Clubs. One of English traditions is clubs. A club is an association of people who like to meet together to relax and discuss things. These people are usually upper-class men or men connected with the government or other powerful organizations which control public life and support the established order of society. However, there are clubs of people not connected with the ruling circles, for example cultural clubs, whose members are actors, painters, writers and critics and their friends. In a word, clubs are organizations which join people of the same interests. A club usually owns a building where members can eat, drink, and sometimes sleep.

Gardening. Gardening is very popular with many people in Britain. Most British people love gardens, and this is one reason why so many people prefer to live in houses rather than flats. In suburban areas you can see many small houses, each one with its own little garden of flowers and shrubs. For many people gardening is the foundation of friendly relations with neighbours. Flower-shows and vegetable-shows, with prizes for the best exhibits, are very popular.

Traditional ceremonies. Many traditional ceremonies have been preserved since old times and are still regularly observed.

Changing of the Guard. The royal palace is traditionally guarded by special troops who wear colourful uniforms: *scarlet tunics*, *blue trousers* and *bearskin caps*. The history of *the Foot Guards* goes back to 1656, when King Charles II, during his exile in Holland, recruited a small *body-guard*¹. Later this small body-guard grew into a *regiment of guards*². *Changing of the guard*³ is one of the most popular ceremonies. It takes place at Buckingham Palace every day at 11.30. The ceremony always attracts a lot of spectators — Londoners as well as visitors — to the British capital.

Mounting the Guards. *Mounting the Guard* is another colourful ceremony. It takes place at *the Horse Guards*⁴, in Whitehall⁵, at 11 a.m. every weekday and at 10 a.m. on Sundays. It always attracts sight-

¹ a small body-guard [ga:d] — небольшой отряд телохранителей

² a regiment of guards — полк охраны

³ Changing of the guard — Смена караула

⁴ the Horse Guards ['hɔ:s'ga:dz] — Штаб конногвардейского полка

⁵ Whitehall ['waɪthɔ:l] — Уайтхолл

seers. *The Guard* is a detachment¹ of *Cavalry troops*² and consists of *the Royal Horse Guards* and *the Life Guards*. *The Royal Horse Guards* wear deep-blue tunics and white metal helmets with red horsehair plumes³, and have black sheep-skin saddles. *The Life Guards* wear scarlet uniforms and white metal helmets with white horsehair plumes, and have white sheep-skin saddles. Both *the Royal Horse Guards* and *the Life Guards* wear steel cuirasses⁴ — body armour that reaches down to the waist⁵ and consists of a breastplate and a backplate fastened together. The ceremony begins with *the trumpeters* sounding the call⁶. The new guard arrives and the old guard is relieved. The two officers, also on horseback, salute each other and then stand side by side while the guard is changed. The ceremony lasts fifteen minutes and ends with the old guard returning to its barracks.

The Ceremony of the Keys. *The Ceremony of the Keys* dates back 700 years and has taken place every night since that time. It was never interrupted even during the air-raids by the Germans in the last war. Every night, at 9.53 p.m. *the Chief Warder*⁷ of *the Yeomen Warders (Beefeaters)*⁸ of the Tower of London lights a candle lantern and goes, accompanied by

¹ a detachment [dɪ'tætʃmənt] — отряд

² Cavalry troops ['kævəlɪ'tru:ps] — кавалерийские войска

³ horsehair plumes ['hɔ:shɛə'plu:mz] — султаны (плюмажи) из конского волоса

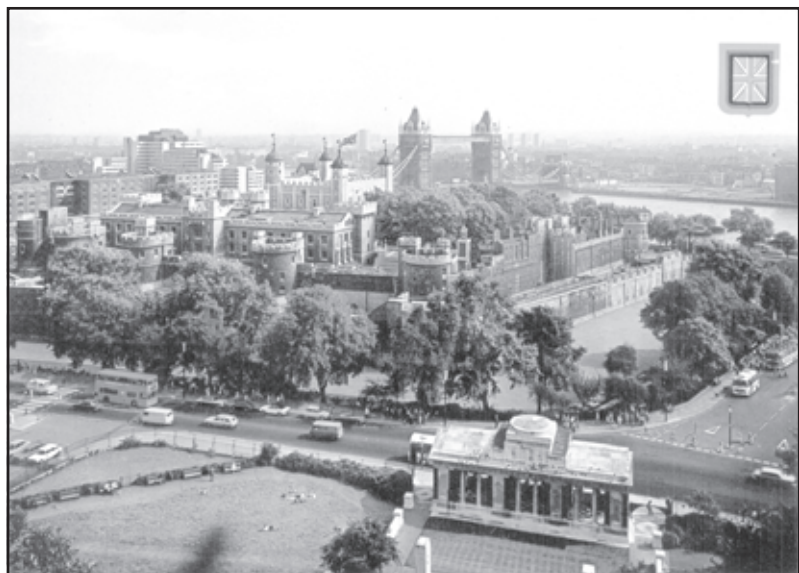
⁴ cuirasses [kwɪ'ræsɪz] — латы

⁵ reaches down to the waist — закрывают верхнюю часть тела до пояса

⁶ The ceremony begins with the trumpeters sounding the call — Церемония начинается с того, что горнисты трубят сигнал

⁷ the Chief Warder ['tʃi:fwɔ:də] — Главный страж

⁸ the Yeomen Warders (Beefeaters) — Стражи Тауэра



The Tower of London

his *Escort*, towards *the Bloody Tower*¹. In his hand *the Chief Warder* carries the keys, with which he locks *the West Gate*² and then *the Middle Tower*³. Then *the Chief Warder* and his *Escort* return to *the Bloody Tower*, where they are stopped by the *sentry*⁴. Then comes the following dialogue.

SENTRY. Halt!⁵ Who goes there?

CHIEF WARDER. The keys.

S. Whose keys?

CR. W. Queen Elizabeth's keys.

S. Advance, Queen Elizabeth's keys; all's well.

¹ the Bloody Tower ['blʌdɪ,tauə] — Кровавая башня

² the West Gate — Западные ворота

³ the Middle Tower — Средняя башня

⁴ sentry — часовой

⁵ Halt! [hɔ:lt] — Стой!

Having received permission to go on, *the Chief Warder* and his *Escort* walk through the Archway of *the Bloody Tower* and face *the Main Guard of the Tower*, who gives the order *to present arms*¹, which means to hold a weapon upright in front of the body as a ceremonial greeting to an officer of high rank². *The Chief Warder* takes off his Tudor-style cap and cries, “*God preserve Queen Elizabeth!*” “*Amen*”³, answer *the Main Guard* and *the Escort*.



Beefeaters

The Lord Mayor's Show. The local power⁴ of the City of London is headed by *the Lord Mayor*⁵ who is elected every year from among the most prominent citizens. The splendid ceremony of election known as *the Lord Mayor's Show* dates back more than six hundred years. It is always watched by many thousands of people, who



The Lord Mayor's show

¹ to present arms — взять оружие «на караул»

² an officer of high rank — офицер высокого ранга

³ Amen ['a:men] — Аминь

⁴ The local power — местная власть

⁵ the Lord Mayor ['lɔ:d'meə] — лорд мэ́р



The Lord Mayor in his coach



Mansion House



Guildhall

crowd the streets of the City of London on the second Saturday of November to see and admire its interesting procession. The ceremony begins at *the Guildhall*¹, the seat of the municipal government² in the City of London. Starting from *the Guildhall* at about 11.30 a.m., the newly-elected *Lord Mayor* travels in a gilded coach which dates from the mid-eighteenth century. His body-guard³ is a company⁴ of *Pikemen*⁵ and *Musketeers*⁶. The long, colourful procession, made up of liveried footmen⁷ and coachmen, moves along the narrow streets of the City. At about noon *the Lord Mayor* arrives

¹ the Guildhall ['gɪldhɔ:l] — Гилд-холл

² the seat of the municipal government — местопребывание муниципального управления

³ body-guard ['bɒdɪgɑ:d] — телохранители

⁴ a company — рота

⁵ Pikemen — копейщики

⁶ Musketeers [ˈmʌskiˈtiəz] — мушкетёры

⁷ liveried footmen ['lɪvrɪd'fʊtmən] — ливрейные лакеи

at *the Royal Court of Justice*¹, where he takes the oath² before *the Lord Chief Justice*³ and *Judges of the Queen's Bench*⁴ to perform his duties faithfully. The bells of the City ring out as the festive procession⁵ leaves *the Court of Justice* after the ceremony and heads for *the Mansion House*⁶, the official residence of *the Lord Mayor*. During the evening the traditional *Banquet*⁷ takes place at *Guildhall*. The *Banquet* is attended by many of the most prominent people of the country, and is usually televised. *The Prime Minister* delivers a political speech⁸, and a toast is proposed⁹ by *the Archbishop of Canterbury*¹⁰.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a club in Britain? According to what principle are people joined in clubs? What do the members do in their clubs?
2. What part does gardening play in the life of British people?
3. Which are some of the most traditional ceremonies that have been preserved since old times?

¹ the Royal Court of Justice [ˈrɔɪəl'kɔ:t əv'dʒʌstɪs] — королевский суд

² takes the oath [əʊθ] — даёт клятву

³ the Lord Chief Justice — лорд Главный судья

⁴ Judges [ˈdʒʌdʒɪz] of the Queen's Bench — Судьи королевской скамьи

⁵ the festive procession — праздничная процессия

⁶ the Mansion House — Мэншен Хаус (*резиденция лорд-мэра*)

⁷ Banquet [ˈbæŋkwɪt] — банкет

⁸ delivers a political speech — произносит политическую речь

⁹ and a toast is proposed — предлагается тост

¹⁰ the Archbishop [ˈɑ:tʃbɪʃəp] of Canterbury — Архиепископ Кентерберийский

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

ability, preached, comprehensive, recent, inclinations, anti-racist, enormous, trend, tolerant, blamed.

1. In _____ years there have been many changes in family life.
2. Society is now more _____ of unmarried couples and single parents.
3. Rock-n-Roll has had an _____ effect on people's lives.
4. The Hippies _____ a philosophy of peace and love.
5. The Skinheads _____ immigrants for the unemployment in the country.
6. New Wave is a new _____ in music.
7. Many New Wave bands have organized _____ concerts.
8. _____ schools are the most modern development in secondary schools.
9. Comprehensive schools are open to children of all types of _____.
10. Teenagers can choose a course of studies according to their individual _____ and abilities.

CHAPTER 3

LONDON

London is a very old city. It began life two thousand years ago as a Roman fortification at a place where it was possible to cross the River Thames. Around the town the Romans built a wall for defence. After the Norman Conquest there was a long period of peace, during which people began building outside the walls. This building continued for a very long time, especially to the west of the city, so that in a few centuries London covered a very large territory. In 1665, during the terrible plague in London, many people left the city and escaped to the villages in the surrounding countryside. In 1666 the Great Fire of London ended the plague, but it also destroyed much of the city. After the plague and the Great Fire London was rebuilt and people returned to it, but never again were there so many Londoners living in the city centre.

Today, also, not many people live in the city centre, but London has spread further outwards into the country, including surrounding villages. Greater London now covers about 1600 square kilometres and the suburbs of London continue even beyond this area. Some people travel over 150 km every day to work in London, while living far away from the city in the country or in other towns.

It is difficult to speak about the centre of London as of one definite place. As a matter of fact, it has a number of centres, each with a distinct character: the financial and business centre called the City (spelt with a capital C), the shopping and entertainment centre in the West End, the government centre in Westminster. Some places on the outskirts of London have kept their village-like character.

QUESTIONS

1. When did London begin life? Why did the Romans build a wall around the city?
2. Where did people begin building their houses during the long period of peace which followed the Norman Conquest?
3. What great disasters befell London in 1665 and 1666?
4. How large is the territory of Greater London now?
5. Why is it difficult to speak about the centre of London as of one definite place? What is the financial and business centre of London? What is its entertainment centre? Where is the government centre?

Part 1. The City.

Tradition. The City is not the whole of central London: it is just a small area east of the centre, the site of the original Roman town, so it is the oldest part of the capital. The City has a long and exciting history, and it is proud of its independence and traditional role as a centre of trade and commerce. The City's administration is headed by the annually elected *Lord Mayor*, whose official residence is *the Mansion House*. Once a year, in November, *the Lord Mayor's Show* takes place. It is a colourful street parade in which the newly elected Lord Mayor travels along the streets of the City in a golden coach, which is over 200 years old. In the evening a splendid meal is served in the *Guildhall*, to which the Prime Minister and members of the government are invited.

Commerce and finance. The City of London is one of the biggest banking centres of the world, and you

can find the banks of many nations in the famous *Threadneedle Street*¹ and the surrounding area. Here, too, you will find *the Bank of England*. Nearby is *the Stock Exchange*², which is like a busy market, except that here not food but *shares*³ in commercial companies are bought and sold. A little further along, in *Leadenhall Street*, is *Lloyds*⁴, the most famous insurance company⁵ in the world.



Barristers in Old Bailey

The Old Bailey. *The Central Criminal Court*⁶ of the country is also to be found in the City, in the western part of it. It is called *the Old Bailey*⁷, after the street in which it is situated. Some of Britain's most famous murder trials have taken place here. Nearby is the area known as *the Temple*⁸ — a group of buildings where many lawyers have their offices.

The press. *Fleet Street*⁹ is famous as the home of the nation's newspapers but, in fact, only two of them — *The Daily Express* and *the Daily Telegraph* — are still in Fleet Street. However, people still say *Fleet Street* when they mean the press.

¹ Threadneedle Street ['θredni:dl,stri:t] — Треднидл Стрит

² the Stock Exchange ['ks:tʃeɪndʒ] — Фондовая биржа

³ shares ['ʃeəz] — акции

⁴ Lloyds ['lɔɪdz] — Ллойд

⁵ insurance company [ɪn'ʃʊərəns'kʌmpəni] — страховая компания

⁶ The Central Criminal Court — Центральный уголовный суд

⁷ the Old Bailey ['beɪli] — Олд Бейли

⁸ the Temple [templ] — Темпл

⁹ Fleet Street ['fli:t,stri:t] — Флит Стрит



There is a large selection
of newspapers
at any newsagent's

The British are a nation of newspaper readers. Many of them even have a daily paper delivered to their homes in time for breakfast. British newspapers can be divided into two groups: quality and popular. Quality newspapers are more serious and cover home and foreign news thoughtfully, while the popular newspapers like shocking, personal

stories. These two groups of papers can be distinguished easily because the quality newspapers are twice the size¹ of the popular newspapers.

QUESTIONS

1. Which is the oldest part of London?
2. Who is the City's administration headed by? What is the official residence of the Lord Mayor? What is the Lord Mayor's Show?
3. What important buildings are located in or near the famous Threadneedle Street?
4. What is the Old Bailey? What is the Temple?
5. What is Fleet Street famous for? Which two groups can British newspapers be divided into?

Part 2. The East End.

The East End is the industrial part of London. It grew with the spread of industry to the east of the City and the growth of the port of London. It covers

¹ twice the size — в два раза больше

a wide area, and there are many wharfs and warehouses along the river banks.

The East End is one of those areas of London where people from abroad have come to find work. For centuries foreigners have made London their home. Some have had to leave their country for religious or political reasons. Others have wanted to find a better life. Some have brought new skills and started new industries. The immigrants have also brought their customs, traditions and religion into the East End, so you can see a mosque¹, a church and a synagogue² not very far apart.

The East End markets are famous throughout the world. **Petticoat Lane market**³ takes place every Sunday morning and has become one of the sights⁴ of London. The street-salesmen here will offer you all kinds of goods and promise that they are of the highest quality and much cheaper than those you can buy in the West End.

Traditionally, someone born in the East End is known as *a cockney*⁵, although this name is now given to anyone who speaks like a Londoner. Cockneys change certain vowel sounds⁶ so that the vowel sound in “*late*” becomes more like that in “*light*”: that is they say [laɪt] instead of [leɪt]. They pronounce “*day*” as [daɪ] instead of [deɪ], “*may*” as [maɪ] instead of [meɪ], and “*rain*” as [raɪn] instead of [reɪn]. Another

¹ a mosque [mɒsk] — мечеть

² a synagogue ['sɪnəɡɒɡ] — синагога

³ Petticoat ['petɪkəʊt] Lane market — рынок на улице Петтикоут Лейн

⁴ one of the sights — одна из достопримечательностей

⁵ a cockney ['kɒkni] — кокни

⁶ vowel [vaʊəl] sounds — гласные звуки

peculiarity of cockney pronunciation is dropping H's ['eɪtɪz] at the beginning of words, so that “*he*” sounds like [i:], “*head*” like [ed] and “*how*” like [au]. These, and other peculiarities of cockney pronunciation are very well described by the great British playwright *Bernard Shaw*¹ in his *Pygmalion*².

QUESTIONS

1. What is the East End of London?
2. How do you explain the fact that in the East End you can find a Christian church, a synagogue and a mosque situated very near one another?
3. What is a cockney? What are the peculiarities of cockney pronunciation? What famous British playwright described the peculiarities of cockney pronunciation?

Part 3. The West End.

The West End is the name given to the area of central London between *the Mall*³ and *Oxford Street*. It includes **Trafalgar Square**⁴, the main shopping areas of **Oxford Street**, **Regent Street**⁵ and **Bond Street**, and the entertainment centres of **Soho**⁶, **Piccadilly Circus**⁷, **Leicester Square**⁸ and **Shaftesbury Avenue**⁹. The name *West End* is associated with glamour and bright lights.

¹ Bernard Shaw ['bɜ:nədʹʃɔ:] — Бернард Шоу

² Pygmalion ['pɪɡ'meɪljən] — «Пигмалион»

³ the Mall [mæl] — улица Мэлл

⁴ Trafalgar Square [trə'fælgə,skwɛə] — Трафальгарская площадь

⁵ Regent Street ['ri:dʒənt,stri:t] — Риджент стрит

⁶ Soho [sou'həu] — Сохо

⁷ Piccadilly Circus [,pɪkə'dɪlɪ,sə:kəs] — площадь Пикадилли

⁸ Leicester Square ['lestə,skwɛə] — площадь Лестер сквер

⁹ Shaftesbury Avenue ['ʃɑ:ftsbəri,ævənju:] — Шафтсбери авеню



Trafalgar Square — a traditional meeting place

Trafalgar Square. **Trafalgar Square** was built at the beginning of the 19th century to commemorate *the Battle of Trafalgar*. *Admiral Lord Nelson's* statue stands on top of a column in the middle of Trafalgar Square. The large square is a traditional place for people to meet: all sorts of protest meetings are held in Trafalgar Square. At Christmas time carol singers gather round a huge Christmas tree which is sent to Britain from Norway every year. Behind Nelson's Column is the building of **the National Gallery**¹, a rich art gallery in which you can find many old masters.

¹ the National Gallery ['næʃnəl'gæləri] — Национальная галерея

Shopping. Most of London's big department stores are situated in Oxford Street and Regent Street. They are always crowded, but especially at sale times¹, in January and July, when there are so many people here that it is difficult to move.

Entertainment. *Piccadilly Circus* is the centre of night life in the West End. The square is quite small, and many people are disappointed when they see it for the first time because they imagined that it would be much bigger. To the north of Piccadilly Circus is **Soho**, which has been the foreign quarter of London since the 17th century. Now it is famous for its restaurants, which offer food from different countries. Especially popular are *Chinese*² and *Italian* foods.

¹ at sale times — в периоды распродажи

² Chinese [tʃaɪ'ni:z] — китайская



Piccadilly Circus

London is famous for its theatres. In the West End there are over thirty theatres within a square mile. They offer a great variety of shows to choose from: *opera, musicals, drama, comedies, whodunnits*¹, and so on.

QUESTIONS

1. What area of London does the West End embrace? What is the name West End associated with?
2. What does Trafalgar Square commemorate? What monument stands in the centre of it?
3. What tree is placed in Trafalgar Square at Christmas time every year? Where is it sent from? What art museum is situated in Trafalgar Square?
4. Where are most of London's big department stores? When are the department stores especially crowded? Why?
5. What place in the West End is the centre of night life?
6. What is Soho famous for?

Part 4. Westminster.

Every day, when people in the UK and overseas switch on their radio to listen to BBC radio news, they can hear one of the most famous sounds in London: *the chimes of Big Ben* on the tower of the Houses of Parliament.

The Houses of Parliament occupy a magnificent building on the left bank of the Thames in a part of London called Westminster², that has long been connected with royalty and government.

¹ whodunnits [hu'dʌnɪts] — детективные пьесы (*от неграмотного who [has] done it?*)

² Westminster ['westmɪnstə] — Вестминстер



Westminster

King Edward the Confessor¹ built a palace beside the River Thames in the 11th century. His successors made the palace their main residence. Gradually Westminster became the centre of government. At first Parliament was organized to help the monarch rule the country. The monarch called representatives of different groups of people together; so the House of Lords represented the Church and aristocracy, and the House of Commons represented the rich land-owners who expressed the views and interests of their own town or village. In the course of centuries, power gradually passed from the monarch to Parliament.

According to the long-standing tradition, the Queen still opens the new session of Parliament each autumn by reading *the Queen's Speech* in the House of Lords. Another tradition is that the Queen is not allowed to enter the house of Commons. This tradi-

¹ Edward ['edwəd] the Confessor [kən'fesə] — Эдуард Исповедник



The Houses of Parliament

tion goes back to the time of Charles I, more than three hundred years ago, and reminds everybody that the monarch must not try to govern the country.

Westminster Abbey. Opposite the Houses of Parliament stands **Westminster Abbey**¹. A church has stood here since Saxon times, when



Westmisnter Abbey

¹ Westminster Abbey
 ['westmɪnstə'æbi] —
 Вестминстерское аб-
 батство



Central London

it was known as *West Monastery* (Westminster), because of its position to the west of London's centre. Since William the Conqueror's times British monarchs have been crowned there, and since the 13th century they have been buried there. Many other famous people are also buried in Westminster Abbey.

Whitehall. The street called **Whitehall** stretches from *Parliament Square* to *Trafalgar Square*. Whitehall is often associated with the government of Britain.

Downing Street¹, which is a small side street off Whitehall, is the home of *the Prime Minister* who lives at number ten. Next door, at number eleven, lives *the Chancellor of the Exchequer*², who is responsible for financial planning and the British economy. Just around the corner, in Whitehall itself, are all the important ministries: **the Foreign Office**³, **the Ministry of Defence**⁴, **the Home Office**⁵ and **the Treasury**⁶.

¹ Downing Street ['daunɪŋ,stri:t] — Даунинг стрит

² the Chancellor ['tʃɑːnsələ] of the Exchequer [ɪks'tʃekə] — Министр финансов

³ the Foreign Office ['fɔːrɪn'ɒfɪs] — Министерство иностранных дел

⁴ the Ministry of Defence ['mɪnɪstrɪ əv dɪ'fens] — Министерство обороны

⁵ the Home Office — Министерство внутренних дел

⁶ the Treasury ['trezəri] — Государственное казначейство

In the middle of Whitehall is **the Cenotaph**¹, a monument to the fallen² in the two world wars of the 20th century. According to tradition, on **Remembrance Day**³, the Sunday nearest to November 11, the Queen lays **a wreath of poppies**⁴ at the Cenotaph. People of Britain remember their dead from the two world wars by wearing a red paper poppy.

QUESTIONS

1. In what part of London is the building of the Houses of Parliament situated? What is Big Ben?
2. Which two parts does British Parliament consist of?
3. How does the Queen open the new session of Parliament each autumn?
4. What is the origin of the tradition according to which the Queen is not allowed to enter the House of Commons?
5. What English king built Westminster Abbey? What is Westminster Abbey famous for?
6. What important buildings are situated in or near Whitehall?
7. What is the Cenotaph? What ceremony is held at the Cenotaph on Remembrance Day?

Part 5. Royal London.

When you are in London, you are always reminded of the city's close connection with the Crown. There are royal palaces, royal parks and colourful ceremonies.

¹ the Cenotaph ['senətu:f] — кенотаф

² monument to the fallen — памятник павшим

³ Remembrance Day — День памяти

⁴ lays a wreath [ri:ð] of poppies ['pɒpi:z] — возлагает венок из мака



The Queen Mother, Queen Elizabeth II, Princess Diana, the Prince of Wales, Prince William and Prince Harry

The most important building in London, though not the most beautiful, is **Buckingham Palace**¹, which is the official residence of the Queen. It stands in **St. James's Park**². Running through the park from the front of Buckingham Palace to Trafalgar Square is **the Mall**, a wide tree-lined avenue.

St. James's Park is one of ten so-called royal parks situated in or near London. These parks officially belong to the Crown, but are open to the public free of charge³. These large parks are very good places for people to escape from traffic jams⁴, crowded shops and the city noise. Each park has its own character. **Hyde Park**⁵ was originally a hunting forest and is

¹ Buckingham Palace ['bʌkɪŋəm'pælɪs] — Букингемский дворец

² St. James's Park [snt'dʒeɪmzɪz'pɑ:k] — Сент Джеймс парк

³ free of charge — бесплатно

⁴ traffic jams — транспортные пробки

⁵ Hyde Park ['haɪd,pɑ:k] — Гайд парк

still popular with horse-riders. **Regent's Park**, which was also originally a hunting park, is now the home of London Zoo, and an open-air theatre which stages Shakespeare's plays.

QUESTIONS

1. What places and ceremonies remind one of London's close connection with the Crown?
2. Name three of London's parks. What do you know about each of them?

Part 6. Knightsbridge¹.

This area is a part of London where you can find many foreign embassies, large glamorous hotels, and the department store that is the symbol of expensive and high-class living — **Harrods**².

People say you can buy anything in Harrods, including wild animals — they even have a zoo which will sell you lion cubs as well as more common pets such as dogs, cats or parrots.

Another place of interest here is **the Albert Hall**³, a huge concert hall which gives festivals of popular classical music concerts every summer.

Museums. Three of London's most interesting museums — **the Victoria and Albert Museum**⁴, **the Science Museum**⁵ and **the Natural History Museum**⁶ — are also in this area. **The Natural History Museum**

¹ Knightsbridge ['nartsbrɪdʒ] — Найтсбридж

² Harrods ['hærədz] — Хэрродс

³ the Albert ['ælbət] Hall — Альберт холл

⁴ the Victoria and Albert Museum — Музей Виктории и Альберта

⁵ the Science Museum — Музей науки

⁶ the Natural History Museum — Музей естественной истории

has exhibits of birds, animals and reptiles, as well as life-size reconstructions of prehistoric animals. **The Victoria and Albert Museum** includes exhibits from almost every place and period, including costumes from the theatre, and paintings. **The Science Museum** covers every aspect of science and technology, and its collections are constantly being enlarged. The museum is always crowded. In many of the rooms there are machines and computers which the visitors can work themselves.

QUESTIONS

1. What is Harrods?
2. What festivals are held in the Albert Hall in summer?
3. Which are the three of London's most interesting museums?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

to commemorate, residence, financial, horseriders, fortification, spread, fallen, delivered, insurance, glamour, cockney.

1. London began as a Roman _____ at the River Thames.
2. The _____ and business centre of London is called the City.
3. The official _____ of the Lord Mayor of the City of London is Mansion House.
4. Lloyds is the most famous _____ company in the world.
5. Many British people have a daily paper _____ to their homes in time for breakfast.

6. The East End grew with the _____ of industry to the east of the City.
7. Traditionally someone born in the East End is known as a _____.
8. The name *West End* is associated with _____ and bright lights.
9. Trafalgar Square was built _____ Admiral Nelson's victory over the French navy.
10. The Cenotaph is a monument to the _____ in the two world wars of the 20th century.
11. Hyde Park is still popular with _____.

CHAPTER 4

PLACES TO SEE IN BRITAIN

Part 1. Stonehenge.

The great stone monument of **Stonehenge**¹ is the best known and most remarkable of prehistoric remains in Britain. It has stood on *Salisbury*² *Plain* for about 4,000 years. No written records exist of its origin, and it has always been surrounded by mystery. There have been many different theories, but still nobody knows why it was built.

One theory is that it was a place from where stars and planets could be observed. It was discovered that the position of some stones was related to³ the movements of the sun and moon, so that the stones could be used as a calendar to predict such things as eclipses.

¹ Stonehenge ['stounhendʒ] — Стоунхедж

² Salisbury ['sɔ:lzbəri] — Солсбери

³ the position of some stones was related to — расположение некоторых камней имеет связь с



Stonehenge

At one time people thought that Stonehenge was a *Druid temple*. The *Druids* were a Celtic religious group before the Norman Conquest. Some people believe that the Druids were a group of priests who practiced human sacrifice¹ and cannibalism.

Another theory is that the great stone circle was used to store terrestrial energy² which was then generated across the country through the so-called *ley lines*, which are invisible channels for a special kind of power.



A friar

Besides the theories of scientists, there are local legends. One of them tells that Stonehenge was built by the devil in a single

¹ human sacrifice ['sækrɪfaɪs] — человеческие жертвоприношения

² to store terrestrial energy — запасать земную энергию

night. He flew forwards and backwards between Ireland and Salisbury Plain carrying huge stones one by one and setting them in place. As he worked, he laughed to himself. *“That will make people think. They will never know how the stones came here!”* But a friar was hiding in a ditch nearby. The devil saw the friar and threw a stone at him which hit the friar on the heel.

The stone which the devil threw is known as the heel stone, and people will show it to you lying by the side of the road.

QUESTIONS

1. Which is the best known prehistoric monument in Britain?
2. What theories exist about the origin of Stonehenge?
3. What does the legend say about the building of Stonehenge?

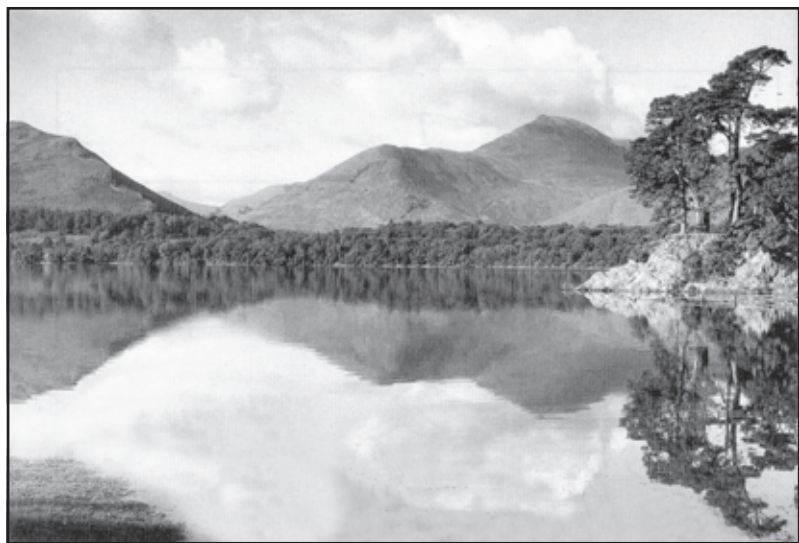
Part 2. The Lake District.

The Lake District¹ is a mountainous area in the north-west of England, and it has some of England's most beautiful scenery. Some admiring visitors called it *“A paradise of mountain scenery and magical light”*. Picturesque lakes lie in deep hollows dug out by the glacier which covered Britain during the Ice Age². Green hills, herds of sheep, and solitary farms scattered here and there are typical of this remote and surprisingly beautiful part of England.

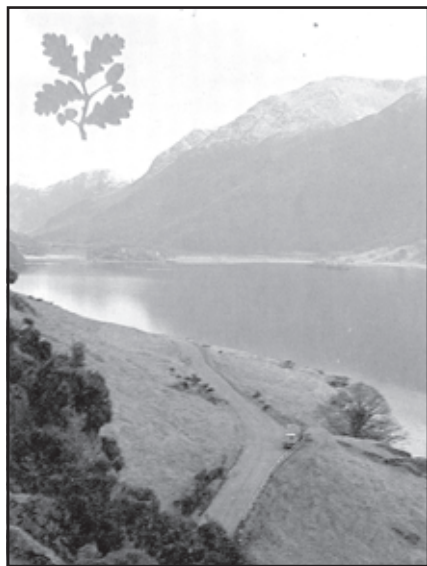
The Lake District is *a National Park*, which means that special care is taken to make sure that the beau-

¹ The Lake District — Озёрный край

² the Ice Age — эпоха оледенения



The Lake District



The Lake District

ty of the countryside is not spoiled. The people who are responsible for preserving the Lake District's natural beauty are members of *the National Trust*.

The National Trust is a public organization¹ which is financed by ordinary people who pay to become members. *The Trust* was set up in 1895 by

¹ a public organization — общественная организация

three people who thought that industrialization could spoil the countryside and ancient buildings of England and Wales. The National Trust members constantly keep an eye on¹ famous gardens, whole villages, farms, windmills and watermills, lakes and hills, abbeys, prehistoric and Roman antiquities.



A country house protected by the National Trust

QUESTIONS

1. Where is the Lake District situated?
2. What organization takes care of preserving the natural beauty of the Lake District?

Part 3. Canterbury.

Canterbury² is a town in **Kent**³ with a population of about 120,000. It is the religious capital of England because its cathedral is the seat of **the**



Canterbury

¹ keep an eye on — присматривают за

² Canterbury ['kæntəbəri] — Кентерберри

³ Kent [kent] — Кент



Thomas Becket and Henry II



Geoffrey Chaucer

Archbishop of Canterbury¹ who is head of the **Church of England**.

From the 12th to the 15th centuries it was a place of pilgrimage. Thousands of people came to pray at the tomb of a former Archbishop of Canterbury who was murdered in the Cathedral in 1170. His name was **Thomas Becket**².

During the 12th century King Henry II decided that the Church had too much power. In 1162 he made his friend **Thomas Becket** Archbishop of Canterbury thinking that he would help him to weaken the position of the Church.

Henry was amazed when Becket began to defend the position of the Church against the king. The relations between the

¹ the Archbishop ['ɑ:t[b]ɪʃəp] of Canterbury — Архиепископ Кентерберийский

² Thomas Becket ['tɒməs 'bekɪt] — Томас Бекет

Archbishop and the king became very bad, and Becket had to leave England because he was afraid that he might be killed. He lived in exile for five years until Henry asked him to come back, because **the Pope**¹ had insisted that the king should return the Archbishop of Canterbury.

When Thomas Becket returned to Canterbury in 1170, the serious contradictions between him and the king continued. Finally, one day, four of Henry's knights entered Canterbury Cathedral and murdered the Archbishop on the steps of the altar.

Three years later, in 1173, Becket was made a saint, and his tomb became the destination of thousands of pilgrims for three centuries.

Chaucer's Pilgrims. The best-known Canterbury pilgrims are probably those who are described in the book by **Geoffrey Chaucer**², *The Canterbury Tales*³. The book was written in the 14th century, when the pilgrimage had become a rather pleasant holiday for the groups of people who travelled together for protection and companionship.

The Canterbury Tales is a collection of stories told by the members of a group of pilgrims. Through the stories we get a vivid picture not only of the narrators themselves but also of



Pilgrims going to Canterbury

¹ the Pope [poup] — папа

² Geoffrey Chaucer ['dʒefrɪ 'tʃɔ:sə] — Джеффри Чосер

³ The Canterbury Tales — «Кентерберийские рассказы»



Pope John Paul II on a visit
to Canterbury

the religious and social life of the 14th century.

In the 16th century, when king Henry VIII separated from *the Roman Catholic Church* and established *the Church of England*, he declared that Becket was not a saint, and his tomb was destroyed.

The most famous modern “pilgrim” is certainly **Pope John Paul II**¹. His visit to Canterbury in 1982 was an important historical event, because it showed the spirit of understanding that exists now between *the Roman Catholic Church* and *the Church of England*.

QUESTIONS

1. Why is Canterbury considered the religious capital of England?
2. With what purpose did pilgrims come to Canterbury in the 12th–15th centuries?
3. What famous writer gave a very vivid picture of pilgrimages to Canterbury and the people who took part in them?
4. Who is the most famous “pilgrim” of modern times? When did he visit Canterbury? Why can his visit be considered an important historical event?
5. What is the story of Thomas Becket?

¹ Pope John Paul II ['pəʊp'dʒɒn'pɔ:l ðe'sekənd] — папа Иоанн Павел II

Part 4. Windsor Castle.

Windsor Castle¹, standing on a rock overlooking the River Thames, was founded by **William the Conqueror** and was later fortified and enlarged by almost every monarch since the Norman Conquest. William and his early successors needed to secure their military position. William put the castle to guard the river crossing at Windsor. Henry II built the massive *Round Tower* — every child's image of fortress, and his grandson Henry III added some fortifications. Still later, the famous *St. George's Chapel*² was added by the kings Edward IV, Henry VII and Henry VIII. Henry VIII also added a fortified gateway. Charles II and later monarchs continued to make alterations to suit the needs and fashions of the day, including the laying out of *the Great Park* as their personal estate. Nowadays Windsor Castle is a comfortable country place within an hour's drive from the capital, where the Royal family can relax.

QUESTIONS

1. Who began building Windsor Castle? With what purpose did he build it?
2. How far from London is Windsor Castle situated?

Part 5. Hampton Court Palace.

Hampton Court³ is a royal residence which is associated with **Henry VIII. Cardinal Wolsey**⁴, Henry's friend and adviser, was a brilliant politician and dip-

¹ Windsor Castle ['wɪnzə'kɑ:sl] — Виндзорский замок

² St. George's Chapel [snt'dʒɔ:dʒɪz'tʃæpəl] — часовня святого Георга

³ Hampton Court ['hæmptən'kɔ:t] — дворец Хэмптон Корт

⁴ Cardinal Wolsey ['kɑ:dɪnəl'wulzɪ] — кардинал Уолси

lomat. He began building this grand palace in red brick in 1514. In 1526 Wolsey presented the unfinished place to his king, and Henry continued the work until Hampton Court was one of the largest brick buildings in Europe.

During *the Civil War* **Oliver Cromwell** used Hampton Court to hold King Charles I under home arrest. After the king's execution, he lived there himself, in rather un-Puritan style¹.

The gardens surrounding the palace, with Henry's *tennis court*, *the orangery*, and *the famous maze*, are all relics of the pleasures and pastimes of those days, which attract thousands of tourists every year.

In 1689 William III commissioned **Sir Christopher Wren**² to rebuild and extend the palace, so that there is a mixture of styles in its architecture. The Great Gate built in Henry VIII's time presents a Tudor style, while Wren's south and east façades are performed in classical style.

Like many English old castles and palaces, Hampton Court is *haunted*³. According to a legend, one of the galleries is haunted by Henry's fifth wife **Catherine Howard**⁴, who was executed on a charge of infidelity⁵. Another legend says that **Jane Seymour**⁶, his third wife, also walks here in the palace where she died giving birth to the future **Edward VI**. Some leg-

¹ in rather un-Puritan style — в довольно непуританском стиле

² Sir Christopher Wren ['krɪstəfə'ren] — сэр Кристофер Рен

³ Hampton Court is haunted [hɔ:ntɪd] — в Хэмптон Кorte водятся привидения

⁴ Catherine Howard ['kæθrɪn'hauəd] — Кэтрин Говард

⁵ on a charge of infidelity [ˌɪnfɪ'delɪti] — по обвинению в неверности

⁶ Jane Seymour ['dʒeɪn'si:mɔ:] — Джейн Сеймур



Catherine of Aragon
divorced



Anne Boleyn
executed



Jane Seymour
died in childbirth



King Henry VIII



Anne of Cleves
divorced



Catherine Howard
executed



Catherine Parr
*lived longer
than Henry*

ends tell that the ghost of **Anne Boleyn**¹, Henry's second wife, who was also executed, sometimes walks along the ramparts² of *the Bloody Tower*. Henry himself, however, rests quietly: his ghost has never been seen by anybody.

¹ Anne Boleyn ['æn'bulɪn] — Анна Бoleйн

² ramparts ['ræmpɑ:ts] — крепостные валы

QUESTIONS

1. In what years was Hampton Court Palace built? What is the palace surrounded by?
2. Why is there a mixture of styles in the architecture of Hampton Court Palace?
3. How is Hampton Court Palace connected with the names of Henry VIII, Charles I and Oliver Cromwell?

Part 6. Oxford.

The first written record of the town of Oxford¹ dates back to the year 912. **Oxford University**, the oldest and most famous university in Britain, was founded in the middle of the 12th century, and by 1300 there were already 1,500 students. At that time Oxford was a wealthy town, but by the middle of the 14th century it was poorer, because of a decline in trade and because of the terrible plague, which killed many people in England. The relations between the students and the townspeople were very unfriendly, and there was often fighting in the streets.

Nowadays there are about 12,000 students in Oxford and over 1000 teachers. Outstanding scientists work in the numerous colleges of the University, teaching and doing research work in physics, chemistry, mathematics, cybernetics, literature, modern and ancient languages, art and music, philosophy, psychology.

Oxford University has a reputation of a privileged school. Many prominent political figures of the past and present times got their education at Oxford.

¹ Oxford ['ɒkfɔ:d] — Оксфорд



Oxford

The Oxford English Dictionary is well-known to students of English everywhere. It contains approximately 5,000,000 entries, and there are thirteen volumes, including a supplement.

Oxford University Press, the publishing house¹ which produces *the Oxford English Dictionary* has a special department called **the Oxford Word and Language Service** (OWLS for short). If you have a question about the meaning of a word or its origin, you can write or telephone, and the people there will help you.

QUESTIONS

1. Why is the town of Oxford famous all over the world?
2. How does Oxford University justify its reputation of a privileged school?
3. What is Oxford University Press?

¹ publishing house — издательство



The Chapel of King's College

Part 7. Cambridge.

Cambridge¹ is one of the best-known towns in the world, and the principal reason for its fame is its University, the second oldest university of Britain, which was founded in the 13th century. Today there are more than twenty colleges in **Cambridge University**.

The oldest college is *Peterhouse*, which was founded in 1284, and the most recent is *Robinson College*, which was opened in 1977. The most famous is probably *King's College*, because of its magnificent chapel. Its choir of boys and undergraduates is also well known.

The University was only for men until 1871. In 1871 the first women's college was opened. Another was opened two years later and a third in 1954. In the 1970s, most colleges opened their doors to both men and women. Nowadays almost all colleges are mixed.

The Cambridge Folk Festival. Every year, in summer, one of the biggest festivals of folk music in England is held in Cambridge. Thousands of people arrive in Cambridge for the Festival. Many of the fans² put up their tents to stay overnight. **The Cambridge Folk Festival** is always very well organized,

¹ Cambridge ['keɪmbɪdʒ] — Кембридж

² fans — поклонники

and there is always good order. However, some people who live nearby do not like the Festival. They say that there is too much noise, that too much rubbish is left on the ground, and that many of the fans take drugs. On the other hand, local shopkeepers are glad, because for them the Festival means



The Cambridge Folk Festival

a big increase in the number of customers.

QUESTIONS

1. What is Cambridge famous for?
2. How many colleges are there in Cambridge University? Which is the oldest college? When was the most recent college opened? Which is the most famous college? What is it famous for?
3. What festival is held in Cambridge every summer?

Part 8. Liverpool and the Beatles.

Liverpool¹ is situated in *Lancashire*², at the mouth of *the River Mersey*³, where it empties into *the Irish Sea*.

The settlement of **Liverpool** was first mentioned in 1191, and in 1207 it got the status of a town.

¹ Liverpool ['lɪvəpʊl] — Ливерпуль

² Lancashire ['læŋkəʃɪə] — Ланкашир

³ the River Mersey ['mɜːzi] — река Мерсей



The Beatles

Since the 13th century it has been a port. In the second half of the 17th century it began playing an important part in the trade with the English colonies in America. At present it is the second largest (after London) sea-port in Britain.

For a lot of people, not just in Britain but everywhere, **Liverpool** is first of all associated with **the Beatles**¹, probably the most famous and successful pop-group the world has ever known.

On October 24, 1962, the song *Love Me Do*² was sung by a then unknown group of four working-class lads from Liverpool, **John Lennon**³, **Paul McCartney**⁴, **George Harrison**⁵ and **Ringo Starr**⁶, who called

¹ the Beatles [bi:tlz] — Битлы

² Love Me Do — «Люби меня»

³ John Lennon ['dʒɔ:n'lenən] — Джон Леннон

⁴ Paul McCartney ['pɔ:l mæ'kɑ:tni] — Пол Маккартни

⁵ George Harrison ['dʒɔ:dʒ'hærisn] — Джордж Харрисон

⁶ Ringo Starr ['rɪŋgou'sta:] — Ринго Старр

themselves **the Beatles**. It was the first of a number of big hits that brought them world fame.

The road to success was not easy. John and Paul had spent many afternoons listening to American stars like **Chuck Berry**¹ and **Elvis Presley**² before they were able to write the famous **Lennon and McCartney songs**.

During the 1960s the Beatles were at the height of their glory: newspaper headlines, films, and world-tours. Their new style of singing and their unusual haircuts — *Beatles mops!* — immediately became the latest fashion.

After a decade of successful music and films, **the Beatles** had some disagreements, and finally decided to break up in the early seventies. Many people hoped that there would be a reunion, but it became impossible after the tragic murder of John Lennon in New York in 1980.

QUESTIONS

1. Where is Liverpool situated?
2. When did Liverpool begin playing an important part in the sea trade? Is it still a large port? How large?
3. What is Liverpool associated with for many people?
4. When were the Beatles at the height of their glory? What immediately became the latest fashion? When did the group fall apart?

¹ Chuck Berry ['tʃʌk'beri] — Чак Берри

² Elvis Presley ['elvis'prezli] — Элвис Пресли

CHAPTER REVIEW

Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

picturesque, reputation, mountainous, second, pilgrims, temple, glory, haunted, Royal, glacier, religious, sacrifice.

1. At one time people thought that Stonehenge was a Druid _____.
2. Some people believe that the Druids practiced human _____.
3. The Lake District is the central _____ area in the north-west of England.
4. _____ lakes lie in deep hollows dug out by the _____ which covered Britain during the Ice Age.
5. Canterbury is the _____ capital of England.
6. Canterbury _____ are best described by Geoffrey Chaucer.
7. Windsor Castle is a comfortable country place of the _____ family.
8. Legends say that many rooms and galleries of Hampton Court Palace are _____ by the ghosts of Henry VIII's wives.
9. Oxford University has a _____ of a privileged school.
10. The _____ oldest university of Britain is Cambridge.
11. During the 1960s the Beatles were at the height of their _____.

SECTION FOUR

FAMOUS BRITONS



KING ALFRED THE GREAT (849–899)

Alfred the Great¹, who is considered the first king of England, is remembered for two important things: saving his land from destruction by the invading **Danes**, and his dedication to education. He brought peace to his land and restored the centres of learning.

Alfred's interest in education was encouraged by his stepmother **Judith**² and his teacher, and later by his biographer **Asser**³, a bishop from Wales. Alfred

¹ Alfred the Great ['ælfred ðə'greɪt] — Альфред Великий

² Judith ['dʒuːdɪθ] — Джудит

³ Asser ['æsə] — Ассер

learned to read and write Latin and English. He studied passages from **the Bible**¹ and translated them into English.

The duties of the king constantly interrupted Alfred's education. His entire reign was spent in wars with the Danes.

He became king of **Wessex**² in 871. By that time the Danes had been present in the British Isles for at least a hundred years, and the eastern lands of Britain were in their hands. They made constant raids to Wessex, and people had to pay tribute³ to them. During the first four years of his reign, until 875, Alfred bought peace for his people by paying tribute to the Danes. At first the invaders seemed satisfied, but in 875, after collecting their tribute they did not leave Wessex as they had done before. In a few years Alfred gathered a strong army. He defeated the invading Danes and forced them to leave Wessex.

However, the Danes still inhabited Britain: *Northumbria*⁴, *East Anglia*⁵ and parts of *Mercia*⁶ were still in their hands, and they constantly threatened *Wessex*. Alfred built several new fortified cities, where great groups of people could gather for protection, and reorganized his army. Finally, in 886, Alfred took the initiative himself and attacked the Danish-held city of *London*. He forced the Danes out of London and captured the city. In the words of his biographer Asser, all the "*Angles and Saxons turned*

¹ the Bible [baɪbl] — Библия

² Wessex ['wesəks] — Уэссекс

³ to pay tribute [trɪbjut] — платить дань

⁴ Northumbria [nɔːθʌmbriə] — Нортумбрия

⁵ East Anglia [iːst'æŋɡliə] — Восточная Англия

⁶ Mercia ['mɜːʃiə] — Мерсия

willingly to King Alfred and submitted themselves to his lordship". At this point, in the historians' opinion, Alfred rightly earned the title "*King of England*", though in reality he governed perhaps a quarter of the land which is now known as England.

When he had brought peace to his land, Alfred began to introduce his reforms. He believed that the invaders represented punishment from God for the decay of education. So he actively supported education in the country. The ability to read was so important to Alfred, that he began to demand that other nobles of the land should learn to read. He opened schools for them and brought many Latin scholars from the continent to teach at these schools. He himself translated several works from Latin. He started *the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, which was a record of events in his kingdom and may be called the first history of England. He also established *a code of law*¹ based on *the Bible*.

The last years of Alfred's life were more peaceful and devoted to learning. When Alfred died in 899, he left a culture which would be remembered for centuries.

¹ a code of law [lɔ:] — кодекс законов



QUEEN ELIZABETH I (1533–1603)

Queen Elizabeth I¹, the last of the Tudor monarchs, was the daughter of **Henry VIII**. She received an excellent classical education. She could read Latin and Greek and spoke French and Italian fluently.

People rejoiced when Elizabeth became queen after her elder sister *Mary's* death in 1558. Elizabeth was an intelligent, courageous and determined woman. People often called her *Good Queen Bess*.

Elizabeth made her first task the settlement of England's religious affairs. She was determined to stop religious struggle. She tried to gradually spread Protestant religion, without offending the Catholics too much. However, the struggle between Catholics and Protestants continued and endangered Elizabeth's

¹ Queen Elizabeth I [ɪˈlɪzəbəθ ðəˈfɜːst] — Елизавета I

position. Some Catholic nobles wished to remove Elizabeth and replace her with the queen of Scotland, **Mary Stuart**¹, who was a Catholic. Mary, usually called *Queen of Scots*, was the heir to the English throne because she was Elizabeth's closest relation. Mary had powerful enemies in Scotland and had to escape to England. Elizabeth kept her in the Tower of London as a prisoner for nearly twenty years. During that time several Catholic plots were discovered, which aimed at making Mary queen of England. Finally Elizabeth had to agree to Mary's execution in 1587.

During Elizabeth's reign England became a great sea power. English sailors, the most famous of which are **Francis Drake**² and **Walter Raleigh**³, challenged the Spaniards in the Atlantic Ocean. They made daring raids on the Spanish colonies in America and captured Spanish ships that carried treasure from the New World to Spain.

Elizabeth helped the *Dutch*⁴ Protestants. At that time *the Netherlands*⁵ was part of the Spanish empire, and **King Philip II**⁶ of Spain was trying to suppress the Protestant rebellion there. He sent his army to *the Netherlands*. Elizabeth did the same. So Philip had to fight with England. He built a huge fleet of ships, which became known as *the Invincible Armada*⁷. England was in danger. Elizabeth spoke to the

¹ Mary Stuart ['mɛəri'stjuət] — Мария Стюарт

² Francis Drake ['frænsɪs'dreɪk] — Фрэнсис Дрейк

³ Walter Raleigh ['wɔ:lter'ɹɔ:lɪ] — Уолтер Роли

⁴ Dutch [dʌtʃ] — голландский

⁵ the Netherlands ['neðələndz] — Нидерланды

⁶ King Philip II ['fɪlɪp ɒ'sekənd] — Филипп II

⁷ the Invincible [ɪn'vɪnsɪbl] Armada [ɑ:'ma:də] — непобедимая Армада

crews of the ships that were going to do battle with the Armada. She won their hearts by saying that she was ready “...to live or die amongst you... for my God, and for my kingdom, and for my people... I know I am a weak woman, but I have the heart of a king — and a King of England too!”

The two fleets were fighting for six days, and on August 9, 1588, *the Armada* was defeated. Only half the ships of *the Armada* returned to Spain. It was a great victory for England.

The Elizabethan age¹ was one of the greatest periods of English literature. **Edmund Spenser**², **Christopher Marlowe**³ and **William Shakespeare**⁴ were only a few of the many writers who created their great works at that time. Elizabeth's court became a centre of culture for English musicians, poets, scholars and artists. The English were proud of their country and their queen.

¹ The Elizabethan age [ɪˌlɪzəˈbiːθənˈeɪdʒ] — Елизаветинский век

² Edmund Spenser ['edməndˈspensə] — Эдмунд Спенсер

³ Christopher Marlowe ['krɪstəfəˈmɑːlou] — Кристофер Марло

⁴ William Shakespeare ['wɪljəmˈʃeɪkspiə] — Уильям Шекспир



FRANCIS DRAKE (1540–1596)

Francis Drake, one of the most famous of English sailors and pirates, was born in *Plymouth*¹, a seaport and the largest town in the south of England.

The boy spent much of his time looking at the ships in Plymouth harbour and talking to the seamen. At fifteen he was taken on a small ship and worked there for some years. The boy learned the duties of a sailor very soon and did his work so well that people said that he was a born sailor². When Drake was twenty-five, he was made a captain's mate, and soon after the captain of a ship.

¹ Plymouth ['plɪməθ] — Плимут

² a born sailor — прирождённый моряк

Sea-battles between English and Spanish ships were common at that time. Once a small fleet of six English ships was attacked by Spanish ships in the Atlantic Ocean. Four of the English ships were burnt and only two, one of which was commanded by Drake, came back to England.

Drake demanded that the king of Spain should pay him for the lost ships. Of course, the king of Spain refused to pay. Drake was very angry and declared that he would take all he could from the king of Spain. And he fulfilled his threat. He crossed the Atlantic with two small ships and captured several Spanish ships loaded with gold and silver.

In November 1577 five ships with Francis Drake at the head sailed off from Plymouth. Drake crossed the Atlantic, passed through *the Strait of Magellan*¹ and reached *Cape Horn*², the southernmost point of South America.

After a short rest the ships sailed north all along the west coast of *South, Central and North America*. Leaving *North America*, Drake crossed *the Pacific*³ and visited the island of *Java*⁴, in the south of *Asia*. After that he sailed across *the Indian Ocean* to the *Cape of Good Hope*⁵, where he came in June 1580.

Sailing north along the west coast of *Africa*, Drake visited *the Canary Islands*⁶, then sailed on and in September 1580 he returned to England.

¹ the Strait of Magellan [mæ'gelən] — Магелланов пролив

² Cape Horn ['keɪp'hɔ:n] — мыс Горн

³ the Pacific [pə'sɪfɪk] — Тихий океан

⁴ Java [dʒɑ:və] — Ява

⁵ the Cape of Good Hope — мыс Доброй надежды

⁶ the Canary [kə'neɪnɪ] Islands — Канарские острова



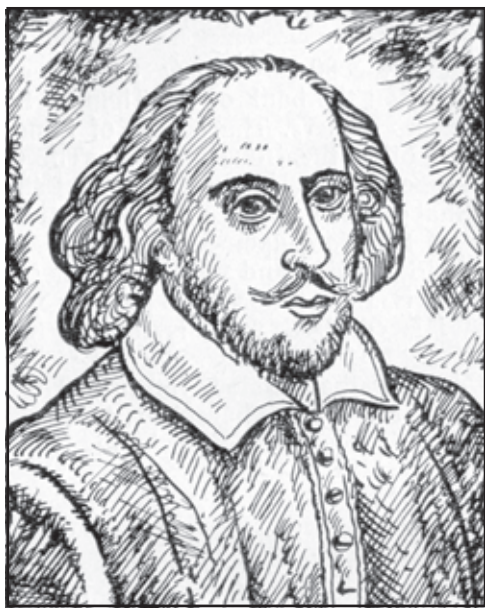
Francis Drake's round-the world voyage

The voyage lasted nearly three years. Drake was the first Englishman who sailed round the world.

In 1588 Francis Drake distinguished himself in the sea-battle against *the Spanish Armada* in the English Channel.

Seven years after the victory over *the Spanish Armada*, in 1595, Drake, at the head of a large fleet, sailed from Plymouth again to attack the Spaniards in *America* and *the West Indies*¹. *The Atlantic* was crossed in a month, but soon afterwards Drake fell ill. In January 1596 he died and was buried in the sea. There is a monument to Francis Drake in Plymouth.

¹ the West Indies ['west'ɪndɪz] — Вест-Индия



WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE (1564–1616)

William Shakespeare was born in 1564, in **Stratford-upon-Avon**¹. He attended Stratford's grammar school, which still stands. The grammar school's curriculum at that time was limited to teaching pupils Latin, both spoken and written. The classical writers studied in the classroom influenced Shakespeare's plays and poetry; some of his ideas for plots and characters came from **Ovid's**² tales, the plays of **Terence**³ and **Plautus**⁴, and Roman history.

¹ Stradford-upon-Avon ['strætfəd ə'pɒn'eɪvən] — Стрэтфорд-на-Эйвоне

² Ovid ['ɒvɪd] — Овидий

³ Terence ['terəns] — Теренций

⁴ Plautus ['plɔ:təs] — Плавт

We do not know when or why Shakespeare left Stratford for London, or what he was doing before becoming a professional actor and dramatist in the capital. He probably arrived in London in 1586 or 1587.

Shakespeare's reputation was established in London by 1592, when his earliest plays were written: *Henry VI*, *The Two Gentlemen of Verona*, and *Titus Andronicus*.

In 1594 Shakespeare joined other actors in forming a new theatre company¹, with **Richard Burbage**² as its leading actor. For almost twenty years Shakespeare was a regular dramatist of this company and wrote on the average two plays a year. Burbage played the main roles, such as *Richard III*³, *Hamlet*⁴, *Othello*⁵ and *Lear*⁶.

In 1599 the company of actors with which Shakespeare worked built a new theatre, *the Globe*⁷. It was built on the south bank of the Thames⁸. *The Globe* theatre is most closely associated with Shakespeare's plays. Two of his plays, *Henry V*⁹ and *Julius Caesar*¹⁰, were almost certainly written during the year in which *the Globe* opened.

Some of Shakespeare's most famous tragedies were written in the early 1600s. They include *Hamlet*,

¹ a theatre company — театральная труппа

² Richard Burbage [ˈrɪtʃədˈbɜːbɪdʒ] — Ричард Бербидж

³ Richard III — Ричард III

⁴ Hamlet [ˈhæmlɪt] — Гамлет

⁵ Othello [ouˈθelou] — Отелло

⁶ Lear [lɜː] — Лир

⁷ the Globe [ɡləʊb] — Глобус

⁸ the Thames [tɛmz] — Темза

⁹ Henry V — «Генрих V»

¹⁰ Julius Caesar [ˈdʒʊljəsˈsiːzə] — «Юлий Цезарь»

Othello, *King Lear* and *Macbeth*¹. His late plays, often known as romances, written between 1608 and 1612, include *Cymbeline*², *The Winter's Tale*³ and *The Tempest*⁴.

Around 1611 Shakespeare left London and returned to Stratford. He died in Stratford at the age of fifty-two on April 23, 1616, and was buried in *Holy Trinity Church*⁵.

Shakespeare's greatness lies in his humanism. He created a new epoch in world literature. For nearly four centuries Shakespeare has remained one of the best known playwrights and poets in the world. Every new generation of people finds in his works something important. As his contemporary *Ben Jonson*⁶ once said, Shakespeare "*belongs not to the century, but to all times.*"

¹ *Macbeth* [mæk'beθ] — «Макбет»

² *Cymbeline* ['sɪmbəlɪ:n] — «Цимбелин»

³ *The Winter's Tale* — «Зимняя сказка»

⁴ *The Tempest* ['tempɪst] — «Буря»

⁵ *Holy Trinity Church* ['həʊli'trɪnɪti'tʃə:tʃ] — церковь Святой Троицы

⁶ *Ben Jonson* ['ben'dʒɒnsn] — Бен Джонсон



Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658)

The centuries-long rivalry between the Crown and Parliament came to an open fight in the 17th century.

The king of England was **Charles I**, a young man who wanted to rule over England without Parliament. He needed money for wars, but Parliament refused to give it. In 1642 Charles I tried to arrest some members of Parliament, but could not do it. Then he left Parliament and never came back as a king. Members of Parliament decided to build up an army to fight against the king, and gave money to teach the soldiers. But they understood that courage alone was not enough to win battles. It was necessary to have a strong leader who would train the army and lead it. Such a leader was found. It was **Oliver Cromwell**¹.

¹ Oliver Cromwell [ˈɒlɪvəˈkrɒmwəl] — Оливер Кромвель

Cromwell was a member of Parliament. He was a country gentleman, a rough man, unskilful as a speaker, but known for his strength of character and his deep sincerety and religious feeling.

Cromwell trained his soldiers in complete obedience, filled them with the desire to fight for freedom, Parliament and religion. His famous order was: "*Trust in God and keep your powder dry.*"

Many thousands of soldiers were killed during *the Civil War*. In 1644 a Scottish army of 20,000 men came to help Cromwell. In the battle near the town of York the Parliamentary army won a victory and the king's army was defeated. Charles I was brought to trial in London and accused of having made war on his people and of being an enemy of his country. He was found guilty¹ and sentenced to death. In January 1649 Charles was beheaded. In the same month the Parliamentary government came to power and proclaimed England a republic. Cromwell got the title of **Lord Protector**.

Cromwell ruled the country firmly, but he did not like to be contradicted, and finally dismissed Parliament. During the last years of his life he became a dictator who ruled the country without the council of the people. **The English Republic**, the first republic in Europe, did not justify the hopes of the people.

In September 1658 Oliver Cromwell died. The political instability that followed his death led to the demand for the restoration of monarchy. In 1660 the newly elected Parliament invited **Charles II**, the son of the executed king, to occupy the English throne.

¹ was found guilty — был признан виновным



John Milton
(1608–1674)

John Milton¹ was born in a Puritan family in London. At the age of seventeen he went to **Cambridge**. After taking his degree, he returned home and spent six more years studying poetry, philosophy, music and languages. He mastered Greek and Latin literature, learned French, Italian and Spanish and studied the latest theories of science. Then he travelled in France and Italy. In 1639 he came back and joined the struggle for the Puritan cause.

In 1649 **Charles I** was executed, and **Cromwell** became ruler of England. Milton became **Foreign Secretary**² to Cromwell. He worked day and night, writ-

¹ John Milton ['dʒɒn'mɪltən] — Джон Мильтон

² Foreign ['fɔɪn] Secretary — министр иностранных дел

ing, in Latin, countless letters to foreign rulers, reading and translating their replies.

At the age of forty-three Milton had a great misfortune: he became completely blind. Still further disasters came upon him: Cromwell died and in 1660 **Charles II**, son of the executed Charles I, was brought back from France to be King of England. Everything that the Puritans had fought for was overthrown. The Puritan leaders were imprisoned and put to death. Milton escaped death, but he left London and retired to a little cottage about twenty miles from London. And here, lonely and blind, and in disgrace, he wrote, or rather dictated to his daughters, his greatest work — the poem *Paradise Lost*¹. The subject of the poem is the fall of **Lucifer**² (Satan) and the fall of man. It tells of Satan's revolt and of the war in Heaven that followed. Satan was defeated and cast down to *Hell*³. Here, in darkness and pain, he formed, with the other fallen angels⁴, a mighty empire and planned revenge. In the form of a serpent he came to *Paradise* to bring evil into the world. **Adam** and **Eve** were tempted⁵ and fell, and *Paradise* was lost.

The greatness of the poem lies not in the story, but in the power of the language, in the music of the verse, and in the noble spirit that inspires the whole work.

In 1671 two more great works followed *Paradise Lost*: the long poem *Paradise Regained*⁶ and the dra-

¹ *Paradise Lost* ['pærədəis'lɒst] — «Потерянный рай»

² *Lucifer* ['lu:sɪfə] — Люцифер

³ *Hell* [hel] — ад

⁴ with the other fallen angels ['eɪndʒəlz] — с другими падшими ангелами

⁵ *Adam* ['ædəm] and *Eve* [i:v] were tempted ['temptɪd] — Адам и Ева были подвергнуты искушению

⁶ *Paradise Regained* ['rɪ'geɪnd] — «Возвращённый рай»

ma *Samson Agonistes*¹. We feel that in the figure of **Samson** Milton sees himself. Samson is blind, like Milton; his cause, like Milton's, is defeated and his enemies are triumphant. But, like Milton, he is a rebel, proud and courageous, and although he is blind, disgraced and a slave, he can still serve God's purpose. In doing this he brings about his own death; but his death is his triumph.

Milton died in 1674. He is buried in London, not far from the street where he was born.

¹ Samson Agonistes ['sæmsn, ægə'nɪstɪ:s] — Самсон-борец



Isaac Newton (1642–1727)

Sir Isaac Newton¹ was born in a small village in *Lincolnshire*² in the family of a poor farmer.

Since childhood the boy was fond of science. He began his first experiments at school. After school he studied at *Cambridge University*, where, still a student, he formulated *the binomial theorem*³.

Newton devoted all his life to scientific experimentation. Among his discoveries was *the law of decomposition of light*⁴. He proved that the white light

¹ Isaac Newton ['aɪzək'nju:tən] — Исаак Ньютон

² Lincolnshire ['lɪŋkənʃɪə] — Линкольншир

³ the binomial theorem [baɪ'nəʊmjəl'θiərəm] — бином Ньютона

⁴ the law of decomposition [di:kəmpe'ziʃn] of light — закон разложения света

of the sun is made up of rays of light of all the colours of the rainbow.

Newton's greatest discovery was certainly *the Law of Universal Gravitation*¹. It is described in his book *Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*². The fundamental principle of the book is that "*every particle of matter is attracted by every other particle of matter with a force inversely proportional to the square of their distances apart*"³. Applying the principle of gravitation, Newton proved that the power which guides the moon around the earth and the planets around the sun is *the force of gravity*⁴. The fact that the earth is flattened at the poles because of rotation was also explained by the law of universal gravitation.

Newton was highly honoured by his countrymen. In 1703 he was elected **President of the Royal Society**⁵.

Much later, in the 20th century, another great scientist, **Albert Einstein**⁶, who had a very high opinion of Newton's scientific achievements, wrote these words about him: "*Nature to him was an open book, whose letters he could read without effort.*"

Sir Isaac Newton died in 1727 and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

¹ the Law of Universal [junɪ'vɜ:səl] Gravitation [ˌgrævɪ'teɪʃn] — Закон всемирного тяготения

² Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy — «Математические начала натуральной философии»

³ every particle of matter is attracted by every other particle of matter with a force inversely [ɪn'vɜ:slɪ] proportional [prə'pɔ:ʃnəl] to the square of their distances apart — каждая частица материи притягивается каждой другой частицей материи с силой, обратно пропорциональной квадрату расстояния между ними

⁴ the force of gravity [grævɪti] — сила притяжения

⁵ the Royal Society — Королевское научное общество

⁶ Albert Einstein ['ælbət'aɪnstəɪn] — Альберт Эйнштейн



Bonnie Prince Charlie (1720–1788)

The story begins in 1688, when **James II**, the last of the Stuart kings, was driven off the throne of England. James went abroad and never returned to England. But he had many followers in England who sympathized with him and wanted him back on the English throne. In 1715, his son **James Edward** (whom the English called **the Old Pretender**¹) made an unsuccessful attempt to get back the throne. Another attempt was made by James II's grandson, the Young Pretender² **Charles Edward**, whom the Scots called **Bonnie Prince Charlie**³.

¹ the Old Pretender [pri'tendə] — Старый претендент

² the Young Pretender — Молодой претендент

³ Bonnie ['bɒni] Prince Charlie — красивый принц Чарли

It was in 1745. Charles was a real prince of romance¹: young (he was twenty-five when he landed in Scotland), handsome, tall and fair², brave and adventurous. He was coming, he said, to win the crown of England and place it at his father's feet. He wanted to invade England from Scotland. He was sure of support of the Scots, or at least *the Highlanders*³. *The Highlands* was the wild home of the poor but courageous men to whom loyalty to their king was a passion. They were adventurous, romantic men who loved fighting and danger. The Stuarts had originally come from Scotland, and to the Highlanders the Stuarts were a symbol for which they were prepared to fight and die.

Charles sailed from France aboard a small French ship. With him was a big French warship, *the Elizabeth*, of sixty-eight guns, loaded with the weapons with which he hoped to defeat the English. In the sea they were met by a British warship, which opened fire on *the Elizabeth*. For five hours a battle went on and both ships were damaged. The English ship turned for England and *the Elizabeth* turned for France. Charles, with only six followers, determined to go on. He landed on the west coast of Scotland, where he was met by 800 Highlanders.

They marched to Edinburgh. More Highlanders joined Charles's army as it marched southwards. News of the approaching forces caused terror in Edinburgh. The English soldiers who were there withdrew in pan-

¹ a real prince of romance [rə'mæns] — настоящий романтический принц

² fair [fɛə] — белокурый

³ the Highlanders ['haɪləndəz] — «хайлендеры», обитатели высокогорных районов Шотландии

ic. Edinburgh surrendered, and Charles entered in triumph.

Then the invasion of England began. Charles was quickly moving to the south. There was panic in London. A ship was prepared to take King George II to Hanover¹. But suddenly Charles's army stopped. His wild Highlanders, finding themselves in the heart of England, missed their families² and decided to go home.

For months Charles was hunted through the Highlands. A huge reward was offered to anyone who would capture him dead or alive, but the Highlanders did not betray him. Finally they managed to get him to the coast, where a ship was waiting to take him to France and safety.

¹ Hanover ['hænəvə] — Ганновер

² missed their families — соскучились по своим семьям



James Cook (1728–1779)

James Cook¹ was born in *Yorkshire*² on October 27, 1728. At the age of eighteen he took his first voyage as an apprentice on board a ship. In 1755 he enlisted in *the Royal Navy*³ as an able seaman and was sent to the American coast. While charting⁴ the coast of *Newfoundland*⁵, Cook mastered the skills of a mapmaker.

Cook's first round-the-world voyage took place in 1768–1771. On board *the Endeavour*⁶ he sailed round

¹ James Cook ['dʒeɪmz'kuk] — Джеймс Кук

² Yorkshire ['jɔ:kʃɪə] — Йоркшир

³ the Royal Navy — Королевский военно-морской флот

⁴ while charting — нанося на карту

⁵ Newfoundland ['nju:fəndlənd] — Ньюфаундленд

⁶ *the Endeavour* [m'devə] — «Усилие»

Cape Horn¹ and explored **the South Pacific**². He discovered several islands in **the South Pacific**, sailed around both islands of **New Zealand**³ and explored the eastern coast of **Australia**⁴.

The second voyage (1772–1775) was undertaken in search of **the Southern Continent**. There were two ships: *the Resolution*⁵ commanded by **James Cook**, and *the Adventure*⁶ commanded by **Tobias Furneaux**⁷. The second voyage demonstrated the outstanding skills and experience of Cook as a seaman and a captain. Cook did more than any other man of his time to promote the health of his crew. In those times lots of sailors on long voyages died of *scurvy*⁸ because of the lack of vitamins in food and bad hygiene. Cook made his men wash every day and air their beds; he tried to get as much fresh food as he could; he made his men eat sauerkraut. His second voyage lasted three years and eighteen days, they sailed into the stormiest seas on earth, through uncharted⁹ southern seas filled with ice. Out of 112 men Cook lost four, among whom only one died of an illness.

The purpose of Cook's third voyage (1776–1779) was to look for **the Northwest Passage**¹⁰ (between **the Atlantic** and **the Pacific Oceans**) from the Pacific side.

¹ Cape Horn ['keɪp hɔːn] — мыс Горн

² the South Pacific ['sauθ pə'sɪfɪk] — южная часть Тихого океана

³ New Zealand ['njuː'ziːlənd] — Новая Зеландия

⁴ Australia [ɔː'streɪljə] — Австралия

⁵ *the Resolution* [ˌrezə'lʊːʃn] — «Решение»

⁶ *the Adventure* [əd'ventʃə] — «Приключение»

⁷ Tobias Furneaux [tə'baɪəs'fəːnou] — Тобиас Ферно

⁸ scurvy [skɜːvɪ] — цинга

⁹ uncharted ['ʌn'tʃɑːtɪd] — не нанесенные на карту

¹⁰ the Northwest Passage ['nɔːθ'west'pæsɪdʒ] — Северо-западный проход

Cook set out from England on *the Resolution*, in company with **Captain Clerke**¹ on *the Discovery*². They sailed around **Africa** and across **the Indian Ocean** into **the Pacific**, then turned north to find the passage. They sailed round the tip of **the Alaska Peninsula**³, through **the Bering Strait**⁴ and into **the Arctic Ocean**⁵, where they were stopped by thick ice. After spending there as much time as he could, Cook turned south to reload and repair the ships for the next year.

But he never returned to the Bering Strait. Captain Cook met his death on **the Hawaiian Islands**⁶ where he and his crew were attacked by the natives on February 14, 1779.

¹ Clerke [kla:k] — Кларк

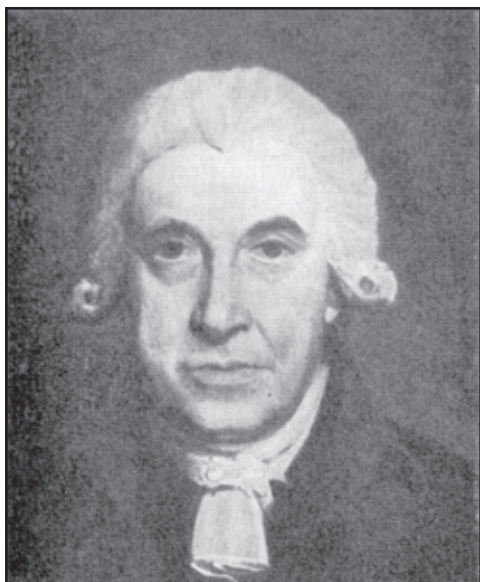
² *the Discovery* [dis'kʌvəri] — «Открытие»

³ the Alaska [ə'læskə] Peninsula [pə'nɪnsjələ] — полуостров Аляска

⁴ the Bering Strait ['berɪn'streɪt] — Берингов пролив

⁵ the Arctic Ocean [ˈɑːktɪk'ouʃn] — Северный Ледовитый океан

⁶ the Hawaiian Islands [hə'waɪən'aɪləndz] — Гавайские острова



**James Watt
(1736–1819)**

James Watt¹ was born in *Scotland*. He moved to *Glasgow*² in 1754, where he learned the trade of instrument maker, and also studied steam technology.

A primitive *steam-engine*³ already existed in Watt's time. It had been invented by **Thomas Newcomen**⁴ at the beginning of the 18th century. But *the Newcomen engine* was not universal: it could work only as a pump.

In 1763, while repairing *a Newcomen engine*, James Watt found that he could greatly improve the machine. His invention of **the separate condenser**⁵ and

¹ James Watt ['dʒeɪmz 'wɒt] — Джеймс Уатт

² Glasgow ['glɑːsgəʊ] — Глазго

³ steam-engine — паровая машина

⁴ Thomas Newcomen ['tɒməs 'njuːkəmən] — Томас Ньюкомен

⁵ the separate condenser — отдельный конденсатор

the introduction of **crank movements**¹ made steam engines more efficient. He also made some other improvements, and the new steam engine was manufactured at Birmingham in 1774. Several other inventions followed, including **the double-acting engine**², **the centrifugal governor for automatic speed control**³, and **the pressure gauge**⁴.

With his inventions James Watt provided some most important components of early industrial revolution.

James Watt introduced the term "*horse power*"⁵. The power unit, *the watt*⁶, is named in his honour.

¹ crank movements — коленчатые механизмы

² the double-acting engine — машина двойного действия

³ the centrifugal [ˌsenˈtrɪfʊɡəl] governor for automatic speed control — центробежный регулятор для автоматического управления скоростью

⁴ the pressure gauge [ˈpreʃəˈɡeɪdʒ] — манометр

⁵ horse power — лошадиная сила

⁶ the power unit, the watt — единица мощности, ватт



Robert Burns (1759–1796)

The great Scottish poet **Robert Burns**¹ was born in the family of a poor farmer. He was the eldest of seven children. He spent his youth working on his father's farm, but in spite of his poverty he was extremely well-read: his father employed a tutor for Robert and his younger brother **Gilbert**². At 15 Robert wrote his first verse, *My Handsome Nell*.

When his father died in 1784, Robert and his brother became partners in the farm. However, Robert was more interested in the romantic nature of poetry than in the hard work of ploughing. He was thinking of leaving his farm and going away to the warmer and

¹ Robert Burns ['rɒbət 'bɜ:nz] — Роберт Бернс

² Gilbert ['gɪlbət] — Гилберт

sunnier climate of **the West Indies**¹. At the same time he continued writing poetry.

But he did not go to **the West Indies**. His first book *Poems Chiefly in the Scottish Dialect*² (a set of poems essentially based on a broken love affair³) was published and was highly praised by the critics. This made him stay in Scotland. He moved to Edinburgh. The artists and writers of Scotland's capital enthusiastically received the "**Ploughman Poet**". In a few weeks he was transformed from a local hero to a national celebrity.

Robert Burns travelled much about Scotland collecting popular songs. He discovered long forgotten songs and wrote his own verses. Robert Burns's poetry was inspired by his deep love for his motherland, for its history and folklore. His beautiful poem *My Heart's In The Highlands*, full of colourful descriptions, is a hymn to the beauty of Scotland's nature and to its glorious past.

Burns's poetry is closely connected with the national struggle of the Scottish people for their liberation from English oppression, the struggle that had been going on in Scotland for many centuries. His favourite heroes were **William Wallace**⁴, the leader of the uprising against the English oppressors, and **Robert Bruce**⁵, who defeated the English army and later became king of Scotland.

¹ the West Indies ['west 'ɪndɪz] — Вест-Индия

² *Poems Chiefly in the Scottish Dialect* — «Стихи главным образом на шотландском диалекте»

³ essentially based on a broken love affair [ə'feə] — в основном на тему разбитой любви

⁴ William Wallace ['wɪljəm 'wɒləs] — Уильям Уоллес

⁵ Robert Bruce ['rɒbət 'bruːs] — Роберт Брюс

Robert Burns died at the age of 37 of heart disease caused by the hard work he had done when he was young. On the day of his burial more than 10,000 people came to pay their respect to the great bard. On the anniversary of his birth, January 25, Scots both at home and abroad celebrate Robert Burns. And not only Scots. Robert Burns's birthday is celebrated annually by the lovers of poetry in many countries of the world.



Horatio Nelson (1758–1805)

Horatio Nelson¹ entered *the Royal Naval College*² in January 1771 at the age of twelve. He studied excellently and passed his lieutenant's examination more than a year under the official age in 1777.

Nelson's bravery as a naval commander was never doubted by his contemporaries. He always led his men by his own example. He first made his name at the battle of *St. Vincent*³ in February 1797, during which he captured two enemy ships. During the wars against France in the 1790s he took part in many sea battles and lost his right arm and the sight in his right eye.

¹ Horatio Nelson [hə'reiʃiə 'neln] — Горацио Нельсон

² the Royal Naval College — Королевский военно-морской колледж

³ St. Vincent [snt'vinsənt] — Сент Винсент

Besides his personal bravery, Nelson was a skilful commander enjoying great love and devotion of the men who served under him: they were ready to die for him.

Nelson took daring but calculated risks. He openly disobeyed his superiors when he thought it necessary. At the battle of **Copenhagen**¹ in 1801 *the Commander-in-Chief*² **Admiral Sir Hyde Parker**³, thought that the British were losing, and he hoisted the signal⁴ on his flagship⁵: “*Stop fighting*”. Nelson, on his ship, put the telescope to his blind eye and exclaimed: “*I really do not see the signal!*” He continued fighting until *the Danish*⁶ surrendered.

Nelson sailed from England for the last time in 1805, as *Commander-in-Chief of the British fleet* to meet France and Spain at **Cape Trafalgar**⁷, the most south-westerly point of Spain.

At Nelson’s instruction, the famous signal was hoisted on the flagship: “*England expects that every man will do his duty*”.

As the battle raged around, Nelson was on deck. A musket ball⁸ fired from a French ship struck him in the left shoulder and pierced one of his lungs. The wound was mortal. He died a few hours after that. But before he died he learned that he had won a great victory.

Admiral Nelson is Britain’s national hero. A tall column crowned with his statue stands in **Trafalgar Square** in London, in memory of this great man.

¹ Copenhagen [ˌkoupnˈheɪɡən] — Копенгаген

² the Commander-in-Chief’ — главнокомандующий

³ Hyde Parker [ˈhaɪdˈpɑːkə] — Гайд Паркер

⁴ hoisted [ˈhɔɪstɪd] the signal — поднял сигнал

⁵ on his flagship — на своём флагманском корабле

⁶ the Danish [ˈdeɪnɪʃ] — датчане

⁷ Cape Trafalgar [keɪp trəˈfælgə] — мыс Трафальгар

⁸ a musket ball — мушкетная пуля



George Gordon Byron (1788–1824)

George Gordon Byron¹, one of the greatest poets of England, was born in London in an old aristocratic but poor family. After the death of his father in 1791, his mother took him to *Aberdeen*² in *Scotland*, where the boy spent his childhood. At the age of ten he inherited the title of Lord and returned to England. He lived in the family castle which was situated near *Nottingham*³ close to the famous *Sherwood Forest*. He studied at *Harrow*⁴, then at *Cambridge Universi-*

¹ George Gordon Byron ['dʒɔːdʒ 'ɡɔːdn 'baɪərən] — Джордж Гордон Байрон

² Aberdeen [ˌæbə'diːn] — Эбердин

³ Nottingham ['nɒtɪŋəm] — Ноттингем

⁴ Harrow ['hærou] — Хэрроу (знаменитая школа, многие из выпускников которой стали впоследствии выдающимися личностями)

ty. When he was 21, he became a member of the House of Lords. In 1809 he travelled abroad and visited Portugal¹, Spain, Albania², Greece³ and Turkey⁴. He returned home in 1811.

His speeches in the House of Lords in defence of *the Luddites*⁵ and the oppressed Irish people caused universal irritation. When he and his wife parted after an unhappy marriage, his enemies seized this opportunity and began to persecute him. The poet was accused of immorality and had to leave his native country.

In May 1816 Byron went to **Switzerland**⁶, where he made friends with his great contemporary, the poet **Percy B. Shelley**⁷. At the end of 1816 he went to **Italy**, where he became actively engaged in the movement for the liberation of Italy from Austrian rule⁸. In the summer of 1823 he went to **Greece** to fight for the liberation of that country from Turkish oppression.

Byron's creative work is usually divided into four periods.

During **the London period** (1812–1816) he wrote the first two cantos of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*⁹, his famous lyrics *Hebrew Melodies*¹⁰, and *Oriental*¹¹ poems.

¹ Portugal ['pɔ:tjuəəl] — Португалия

² Albania [æl'beɪnjə] — Албания

³ Greece [gri:s] — Греция

⁴ Turkey ['tɜ:kɪ] — Турция

⁵ the Luddites ['lʌdaɪts] — луддиты

⁶ Switzerland ['swɪtsələnd] — Швейцария

⁷ Percy B. Shelley ['pɜ:sɪ 'bi: 'ʃelɪ] — Перси Б. Шелли

⁸ Austrian ['ɔ:striən] rule — австрийское владычество

⁹ *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* ['tʃaɪld 'hærəldz 'pɪlgrɪmɪdʒ] — «Паломничество Чайлд-Гарольда»

¹⁰ *Hebrew Melodies* ['hi:bru: 'melədɪz] — «Еврейские мелодии»

¹¹ *Oriental* [ɔɪ'entl] — восточные

In the **Swiss**¹ period (1816 May – October) Byron wrote the third canto of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*, *The Prisoner of Chillon*², and the philosophic drama *Manfred*³.

During the **Italian period** (1816–1823), which is considered to be the most important and mature one, he wrote the last canto of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*, and the novel in verse *Don Juan*⁴, in which he gave a great satirical panorama of the European social life of his time.

During the short months of the **Greek period** (1823–1824) Byron wrote little: just some lyrical poems, one of which is *On this Day I Complete my Thirty-sixth Year*⁵. The poet's thirty-sixth year was to be his last: he fell seriously ill and died on April 19, 1824. Deeply mourned all over Greece, he became a symbol of liberation struggle and a Greek national hero.

¹ Swiss [swɪs] — швейцарский

² *The Prisoner of Chillon* ['ʃɪlən] — «Шильонский узник»

³ *Manfred* ['mænfred] — «Манфред»

⁴ *Don Juan* ['dɒn 'dʒuən] — «Дон Жуан»

⁵ *On this Day I Complete my Thirty-sixth Year* — «В этот день я завершаю свой тридцать шестой год»



Walter Scott (1771–1832)

Sir Walter Scott¹, a Scottish writer, a born storyteller and master of dialogue, one of the greatest historical novelists, was born in Edinburgh. His father was a lawyer and his mother — the daughter of a professor of medicine.

In his childhood he heard from his grandparents many stories and legends of the past. The boy had a great interest for these stories. He also learned many songs and legends of the Highlands. Some of his ancestors had fought on the side of **Prince Charles Edward Stuart (Bonnie Prince Charlie)** when he was trying to seize the throne. This gave the young boy

¹ Walter Scott ['wɒltə 'skɒt] — Вальтер Скотт

that life-long love for the Highlanders and their country which is evident in much of his writing. Scott himself said, “*I had a very strong prejudice in favour of the Stuart family, which I had originally got from the songs and tales of the Highlanders*”.

In 1778, at the age of seven, the boy went to the famous *Royal High School of Edinburgh*¹, where he became very good at Latin. In 1783, when he was twelve, he entered *Edinburgh University*, where he remained for two years. During this time he learned Italian, Spanish and French. Later, in 1789–1792, he studied arts and law.

Scott made himself famous as a poet and — to a much greater extent² — as the author of numerous historical novels.

Scott's work shows the influence of the 18th century Enlightenment. He believed that every human was basically decent, regardless of class, religion, politics or ancestry. Tolerance is a major theme in his historical works. His novels express the belief of the author in the need for social progress that does not reject the traditions of the past. He was the first novelist to portray peasant characters sympathetically and realistically, and was equally just to merchants, soldiers, and even kings.

Scott often wrote about the conflicts between different cultures. *Ivanhoe*³ (1791) deals with the struggle between Normans and Saxons, and *The Talisman*⁴ describes the conflict between Christians and Mus-

¹ the Royal High School of Edinburgh ['edɪnbərə] — Королевская средняя школа Эдинбурга

² to a much greater extent — в гораздо большей степени

³ *Ivanhoe* ['aɪvənhoʊ] — «Айвенго»

⁴ *The Talisman* ['tælɪsmən] — «Талисман»

lims¹. The novels devoted to Scottish history deal with clashes between the new commercial English culture and the older Scottish culture.

Scott's knowledge of history is remarkable, and his descriptions of historical events are very talented. His works are translated into many languages of the world.

¹ Muslims ['muslimz] — мусульмане



Queen Victoria (1819–1901)

Queen Victoria¹ is the longest-reigning monarch in English history. She came to the throne as a young woman in 1837 and reigned until her death in 1901.

Victoria married her German cousin, **Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg**² but he died at the age of forty-two in 1861. She could not get over her sorrow at his death, and for a long time refused to be seen in public.

This was a dangerous thing to do. Newspapers began to criticize her, and some people even doubted the value of the monarchy. Many radicals believed that as a result of developing democracy it was time for monarchy to die.

The Queen's advisers persuaded her to take more interest in the life of the kingdom. She did so, and she soon became extraordinary popular. At the time when monarchy was losing its place as an integral part of the British governing system, Victoria managed to establish it as a respected and popular institution.

¹ Queen Victoria [vɪk'tɔːrɪə] — королева Виктория

² Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg ['ælbət əv 'sæks'kouɪə:g] — принц Альберт Сакс-Кобургский

One important step back to popularity was the publication in 1868 of the Queen's book *Our Life in the Highlands*. The book was the Queen's own diary of her life with Prince Albert and her family in her castle in the Scottish Highlands. It delighted the public, in particular the growing middle class. They had never before known anything of the private life of the monarch, and they enjoyed reading about it. They were impressed by the fact that the Queen wrote about her servants as if they were members of her family.

The democratic British liked and respected the example of family life which the Queen had given them; they saw that the Queen and her family shared their own moral and religious values. By her book Victoria touched people's hearts. She succeeded in showing the newly industrialized nation that the monarchy was a connection with the glorious history of the country. Quite suddenly, the monarchy was out of danger. It had never been safer than now, when it had lost most of its political power. "*We have come to believe that it is natural to have a virtuous sovereign,*" wrote one of the critics.

Queen Victoria was also popular in Europe. She became known as the *Grandmother of Europe* after marrying members of her family into many royal houses of Europe. Among her grandchildren were **Emperor William II**¹ of Germany, and **Alexandra**², wife of **Tsar Nicholas II**¹ of Russia.

¹ Emperor William II [ˈempərə ˈwɪljəm ðəˈsekənd] — император Вильгельм II

² Alexandra [ˌæliɡˈzɑːndrə] — Александра

³ Tsar Nicholas II [ˈtsɑː ˈnikələs ðəˈsekənd] — царь Николай II



Charles Dickens (1812–1870)

Charles Dickens¹ was born in 1812, in the family of a clerk. He got his primary education at a small school in *Chatham*², and from his mother who was a well-educated woman.

In the 1821 the Dickens family moved to London. Mr. Dickens was heavily in debt and finally was taken to a *debtors' prison*³. Charles got a job at a *black-ing factory*⁴ in the East End of London. This was the most unhappy time of all his life. Later he learned shorthand and did some reporting in the House of

¹ Charles Dickens [tʃɑ:lz 'dɪkɪnz] — Чарльз Диккенс

² Chatham [tʃætəm] — Чэтем

³ a debtors' ['detəz] prison — долговая тюрьма

⁴ a blacking factory — фабрика, изготавливающая ваксу (крем для чистки обуви)

Commons for newspapers¹. Being a reporter, he went all over the country, getting news, writing stories and meeting people.

In 1833 Dickens wrote a number of sketches, which were published under the title **Sketches by Boz**². And in 1836 he suddenly became famous. It happened like this. A firm of publishers³ had a number of pictures by a humorous artist. They wanted to get some short texts to illustrate them, so that the pictures and articles could appear together in a magazine in fortnightly parts. Someone suggested giving the job to the young newspaper reporter **Charles Dickens**. Dickens liked the job and took it, and that is how the book *Pickwick Papers*⁴ came into being. The book is about *Mr. Pickwick* and his three friends, who decide to travel about England and send to *the Pickwick club* in London an account of their journeys and their observations of the people they meet on these journeys. The humour of the book consists in the absurd situations which *Mr. Pickwick* and his friends get into. The book was a great success with the reading public, and Dickens at once became the most popular novelist of his time.

The rest of the writer's life is a story of work without rest. He wrote novel after novel. At the same time he was editing newspapers and magazines, visiting **America, Italy, Switzerland**⁵, **France**; giving readings from his books to huge crowds of people.

¹ did some reporting in the House of Commons for newspapers — занимался репортёрской работой в палате общин

² *Sketches by Boz* ['sketʃɪz baɪ 'bɔːz] — «Очерки Боза»

³ a firm of publishers — издательская фирма

⁴ *Pickwick Papers* ['pɪkwɪk 'peɪpəz] — «Записки Пиквикского клуба»

⁵ Switzerland ['swɪtsəlænd] — Швейцария

In Dickens's novels we find a sharp criticism of social injustice. He had seen so much evil as a child, that he burned with the desire to fight it. So, in *Oliver Twist*¹ he attacks the cruel workhouse treatment of children, in *Nicholas Nickleby*² the evils of badly-run schools³, in *Little Dorrit*⁴ the tragedy of the debtors' prison, in *Bleak House*⁵ the slowness of the law.

Critics often say that Dickens made his characters unreal, strange, non-true to life. However, thanks to the writer's great talent, these characters become alive in his pages. They were real enough for Dickens. And so we believe in his characters because he believed in them himself. He shows us a great moving picture of everyday life and everyday people.

The strain of the writer's continual work brought about his sudden death in 1870. He lies buried in *Westminster Abbey*, but as he wished it, with nothing on the stone except his name "*Charles Dickens*."

¹ *Oliver Twist* ['ɒlɪvə 'twɪst] — «Оливер Твист»

² *Nicholas Nickleby* ['nɪkələs 'nɪklɪ] — «Николас Никльби»

³ badly-run schools — плохо организованные школы

⁴ *Little Dorrit* ['lɪtl 'dɔːrɪt] — «Крошка Доррит»

⁵ *Bleak House* ['bli:k ,haus] — «Холодный дом»



Florence Nightingale (1820–1910)

Florence Nightingale¹ was born in a very rich family. She got a very good education. She knew music, art, literature, Latin and Greek. She fluently spoke Italian, French and German. But ever since she was a child, she had nursed the villagers and the sick dogs and cats and horses round her home and wanted to be a professional nurse. She read books on nursing, reports of medical societies, histories of hospitals. She spent some time working as a nurse in hospitals in France and Germany. Finally she became superintendent of *an Establishment for Gentlewomen during Illness*² in *Harley Street*, the fashionable street of London's most famous doctors.

¹ Florence Nightingale ['flo:rəns 'naɪnɪŋgeɪl] — Флоренс Найтингейл

² an Establishment for Gentlewomen during Illness — Заведение для содержания женщин благородного происхождения во время болезни (*больница*)

During the **Crimean War**¹ (1853–1856) disturbing reports began to come to England of the terrible conditions in the hospitals where wounded soldiers were being treated. The chief hospital, at **Scutari**² in **Turkey**³, was an old, half broken building with a lot of rats and mice. But even this horrible place was overcrowded. There were not enough beds, and men were lying on the floor. There were no clean shirts or bedclothes.

In that terrible situation **Sidney Herbert**⁴, *the Minister for War*⁵, wrote to Florence Nightingale, asking her to go to the Crimea with a group of nurses. It took Florence Nightingale a week to get ready, and with thirty-eight nurses she sailed for Scutari.

When she arrived at Scutari, she found the conditions even worse than the reports had stated. She found that everything was lacking⁶: furniture, clothes, towels, soap, knives, plates. There were no bandages, very few medicines, and almost no food. Luckily, she had brought with her large quantities of food and medical supplies. Everywhere she met with inefficiency and confusion; the officials in charge⁷ could not, or did not want to help her. She often worked for twenty-four hours on end⁸, dressing wounds⁹, helping surgeons in their operations. She and her nurses got down on their knees and scrubbed the floors

¹ the Crimean [kraɪ'miən] War — Крымская война

² Scutari ['sku:təri] — Скутари

³ Turkey ['tɜ:kɪ] — Турция

⁴ Sidney Herbert ['sɪdni 'hɜ:bət] — Сидней Герберт

⁵ the Minister for War — военный министр

⁶ everything was lacking — была нехватка всего

⁷ the officials [ə'fɪʃjəlz] in charge — администрация

⁸ for twenty-four hours on end — сутками напролёт

⁹ dressing wounds [wu:ndz] — забинтовывая раны

and walls. She organized the cooking of the men's food and the washing of their clothes.

In 1855 she was made *inspector of all the hospitals* in the Crimea. It meant long, uncomfortable journeys in snow, rain and cold. She ruined her health, but refused to go home until the last soldier went. Only when peace was declared in 1856, she returned home — an invalid for life¹.

But she lived fifty-four years longer. Though she could not leave her house, she worked as much as she had done at Scutari. She changed the whole system of hospital organization of the army. She wrote books on nursing. She started *the Nightingale Training School for Nurses*² at *St. Thomas's Hospital*³, now one of the finest in the world.

Florence Nightingale lived a long and glorious life. She died in 1910 at the age of 90.

¹ an invalid for life — пожизненный инвалид

² the Nightingale Training School for Nurses — Школа Флоренс Найтингейл для медсестёр

³ St. Thomas's Hospital — Больница святого Томаса



Captain Robert Scott (1868–1912)

In June 1910 **Captain Robert Scott**¹ set sail on board *the Terra Nova*² and started for the south. He wanted to reach *the South Pole*. When the ship got to **Australia**³, Scott received the news that the Norwegian⁴ explorer **Amundsen**⁵ was also on the way south to reach the South Pole.

Arriving at the place in **the Antarctic**⁶ called **Cape Evans**⁷, Captain Scott and his crew started for **the Pole**.

¹ Captain Robert Scott ['kæptn 'rɒbət 'skɒt] — капитан Роберт Скотт

² *the Terra Nova* ['terə 'nouvə] — «Терра Нова»

³ Australia [ɔ:'streɪljə] — Австралия

⁴ Norwegian [nɔ:'wi:dʒən] — норвежский

⁵ Amundsen [ɑ:'mʌndsen] — Амундсен

⁶ the Antarctic [æn'tɑ:ktɪk] — Антарктика

⁷ Cape Evans ['keɪp 'i:vnz] — мыс Эванс

First they had to cross **the Barrier**¹, a great plain of ice of nearly 500 miles, and climb a huge glacier. When they reached the foot of the glacier, the dogs and some of the men went back, but three sledges, each pulled by four men, went on.

It was a terrible journey. It was bitterly cold, the snow was so soft that they sank to their knees in it, and the heavy sledges were very difficult to pull.

Scott watched the men carefully. He had decided that the final part of the journey — 150 miles — would be made by four men and himself. These were the men he chose: **Doctor E. Wilson**², **Lieutenant Bowers**³, **Captain L. Oates**⁴ and **Edgar Evans**⁵.

On January 3, 1912, when the South Pole was 150 miles away, the five heroes said good-bye to their friends and went on, five brave men who would never again see living faces except one another's. For thirteen months nothing was heard of them, but from Scott's diaries we know all about their last days.

On January 18 they reached the Pole, frost-bitten⁶, hungry and weak. And at the Pole they saw a tent with the Norwegian flag flying above it. **Amundsen** had been there a month before.

Bitterly disappointed, Scott and his companions set out on the return journey. It was 950 miles to the ship. Their strength was going⁷ and the food was running short⁸. Their sleeping bags were covered with

¹ the Barrier ['bæriə] — Барьер

² Doctor E. Wilson ['wɪlsn] — доктор Уилсон

³ Lieutenant Bowers [leɪtənənt 'baʊəz] — лейтенант Бауэрс

⁴ Captain L. Oates [outs] — капитан Оутс

⁵ Edgar Evans ['edgə 'i:vnz] — Эдгар Эванс

⁶ frost-bitten — обмороженные

⁷ Their strength was going — их силы иссякали

⁸ the food was running short — пища подходила к концу

ice. Evans was the first to lose his strength. When he could no longer walk, the group stopped. They did not leave Evans till his death. Without Evans the party moved a little quicker, but the weather grew worse. Oates was the second man who lost his strength. He knew that he was slowing the progress of his friends. He said to them, "*I am going outside and may be some time*¹". He never came back².

At last they came to a spot only eleven miles from the place where they had left a store of food and fuel, but the storm was so violent that they could not go on. Scott and his companions died there in their tent.

Eight months later *a search party*³ found that silent tent. They were lying in their sleeping bags as they had died. On the sledges near the tent there were rocks for scientific study, which they had brought back from the Pole. In that last painful march they had not forgotten that they were scientists.

¹ I am going outside and may be some time — Я выйду и, возможно, задержусь на некоторое время

² He never came back — Он так и не вернулся

³ a search party — поисковая партия



Ernest Rutherford (1871–1937)

Ernest Rutherford¹ was born in *South Island, New Zealand*, in the family of English settlers. He was sent to primary school when he was five. During his studies in the secondary school, he distinguished himself in physics. Later he went to *Cambridge*, where he continued scientific research. After graduation he occupied *a research chair in physics*² at *Montreal University*³ in Canada⁴ and lectured at leading universities in the United States and Britain. Later on he worked at *Manchester University*⁵.

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- ¹ Ernest Rutherford ['ɜːnɪst 'rʌðəfəd] — Эрнест Резерфорд
² occupied a research chair in physics — занимал кафедру исследовательской физики
³ Montreal [ˌmɒntʁi'ɔːl] University — Монреальский университет
⁴ Canada ['kænədə] — Канада
⁵ Manchester University — Манчестерский университет

Rutherford's famous work is *The Scattering of Alpha and Beta Particles of Matter and the Structure of the Atom*¹.

The atoms had always been regarded as the smallest indivisible units of which matter was composed². Rutherford's research showed that the atom is made up of smaller parts and that its structure is very complex. The structure of the atom resembles the solar system, with a central nucleus and a number of electrons revolving around it. Rutherford showed that the atom can be bombarded by neutrons so that the electrons can be thrown off and the nucleus itself can be broken, or "*split*." In the process of splitting the nucleus, matter is converted into energy³.

The splitting of the atom has opened to man a new and enormous source of energy. At the same time, however, it has brought about a threat of a destructive nuclear war, during which humanity can kill itself and destroy the planet. That is why it is so important for the people of the world to concentrate their efforts on establishing good understanding and lasting peace on earth.

¹ *The Scattering of Alpha and Beta Particles of Matter and the Structure of the Atom* — «Рассеивание альфа и бета частиц материи и структура атома»

² of which matter was composed — из которых состоит материя

³ matter is converted into energy — материя преобразуется в энергию



Winston Churchill (1874–1965)

Sir Winston Churchill¹, the eldest son of aristocrat Lord **Randolph Churchill**², was born on November 30, 1874. He is best known for his courageous leadership as **Prime Minister** for Great Britain when he led the British people from the danger of defeat to victory during *the Second World War*.

He graduated from **the Royal Military College**³ in **Sandhurst**⁴. As a war correspondent he was captured during **the Boer War**⁵ in **South Africa**. After his escape he joined *the Conservative Party*. Since then he was taking an active part in Britain's political life, occupying a number of important posts in the government.

¹ Winston Churchill ['wɪnstən 'tʃɜ:tʃɪl] — Уинстон Черчилль

² Randolph ['rændəlf] Churchill — Рэндольф Черчилль

³ the Royal Military College — Королевский военный колледж

⁴ Sandhurst ['sændhə:st] — Сэндхерст

⁵ the Boer [bouə] War — Бурская война

Churchill succeeded **Chamberlain**¹ as **Prime Minister** in 1940, and during the Second World War he successfully secured military aid and moral support from the United States. He travelled endlessly during the war, establishing close ties with the leaders of other nations and co-ordinated a military strategy which finally brought about Hitler's defeat.

His tireless efforts gained admiration from all over the world. Yet during the 1945 elections he was defeated by the Labour Party, which ruled until 1951. Churchill regained his power in 1951 and led Britain once again until 1955, when ill health forced him to resign.

He spent most of his last years writing (*The History of the English-speaking People*) and painting. In recognition of his historical studies he was given *the Nobel Prize for Literature* in 1953. In 1963 the US Congress made Winston Churchill *an honorary American citizen*.

Sir Winston Churchill died in 1965 at the age of 90. His death marked the end of an era in British history.

¹ Chamberlain [ˈtʃeɪmbəlɪn] — Чемберлен



Agatha Christie (1890–1976)

In *St. Mary's Churchyard*¹, *Cholsey, Berkshire*², forty-seven miles west of London, lies **Lady Mallowan**³ — **Dame Agatha Christie**⁴. She was, and is, known to millions of people throughout the world as *the Queen of Crime* or, as she preferred, *the Duchess of Death*.

Agatha Christie was born in 1890 in *Torquay*⁵ in England. Her father was called **Frederick Miller**⁶, so she was born as **Agatha Miller**. In 1914 she married **Archie Christie**⁷.

¹ St. Mary's Churchyard — кладбище при церкви святой Марии

² Cholsey ['tʃoulzɪ], Berkshire ['bɜ:kʃɪə] — Чолси, Беркшир

³ Lady Mallowan ['mælouən] — леди Мэллоуэн

⁴ Dame Agatha Christie ['deɪm 'æɡəθə 'krɪsti] — кавалерственная дама Агата Кристи

⁵ Torquay ['tɔ:ki:] — Торкей

⁶ Frederick Miller ['fredrɪk 'mɪlə] — Фредерик Миллер

⁷ Archie Christie ['ɑ:tʃɪ 'krɪsti] — Арчи Кристи

During *the First World War* Agatha worked at a hospital, and that experience was useful later on when she started writing detective stories. Her first book was published in 1920. It was *The Mysterious Affair at Styles*¹, and was met by the reading public with interest. But Agatha's really great popularity came in 1926, when she published her masterpiece, *The Murder of Roger Ackroyd*².

In the same year, 1926, Agatha surprised the public by suddenly disappearing for a few days after her husband wanted a divorce. She was soon found to be staying in a hotel under an assumed name³. Her disappearance is still a mystery!

After the divorce she married a British archaeologist, **Max Mallowan**⁴. This marriage proved to be a happy one. Agatha wanted to stop using her former husband's name. But her publishers said that it would not be wise because the name of *Agatha Christie* had already become well known to the public. So she remained *Agatha Christie* to her readers for the rest of her life.

Agatha Christie wrote nearly seventy novels in her career, and more than a hundred short stories. Her most famous characters are **Hercule Poirot**⁵ and **Miss Marple**⁶.

Hercule Poirot first appeared in 1920. Poirot has become a legend all over the world: the huge mous-

¹ *The Mysterious* [mɪs'tɪəriəs] *Affair at Styles* [stɑɪlz] — «Таинственная история в имении Стайлс»

² *The Murder of Roger Ackroyd* ['rɒdʒə 'ækroɪd] — «Убийство Роджера Экройда»

³ under an assumed name — под вымышленным именем

⁴ Max Mallowan ['mæks 'mælouən] — Макс Мэллоуэн

⁵ Hercule Poirot ['ɛəkju:l pwa:'rou] — Эркюль Пуаро

⁶ Miss Marple [mɑ:pl] — мисс Марпл

tache, the egg-shaped head, his high opinion of himself, and his great ability to solve complicated mysteries thanks to his knowledge of human psychology.

Miss Marple is an English spinster and lives in the English village of *St. Mary Mead*¹. She does not look like a detective at all, but always succeeds where the police have failed. Instead of using a magnifying glass looking for clues, she uses her instinct and knowledge of human nature. As Miss Marple herself once said, "*Human Nature is the same everywhere*".

In March 1962 a UNESCO² report stated that Agatha Christie was now the most widely read British author in the world, with Shakespeare³ coming second.

¹ St. Mary Mead [snt'mɛəri 'mi:d] — Сент Мэри Мид

² UNESCO [ju'neskou] — ЮНЕСКО

³ Shakespeare ['ʃeɪkspiə] — Шекспир



Margaret Thatcher (1925–)

Margaret Thatcher¹ is the second daughter of a grocer and a dressmaker, who became the first woman in European history to be elected Prime Minister. Then she became the first British **Prime Minister** in the twentieth century who won three consecutive terms². At the time of her resignation in 1990, she was the longest-serving Prime Minister of Britain since 1827. Some people consider her a true political revolutionary because she broadened the base of the Conservative Party, including the middle class along with the wealthy aristocracy.

Margaret Thatcher was born on October 13, 1925, in *Lincolnshire*³, *England*. She was a clever child. Early in life she decided to become a member of Par-

¹ Margaret Thatcher ['mɑ:gərit 'θætʃə] — Маргарет Тэтчер

² three consecutive [kən'sekjʊtɪv] terms — три последовательных срока

³ Lincolnshire ['lɪŋkənʃɪə] — Линкольншир

liament. She was educated at *Somerville College*¹ and at *Oxford University*. She earned a *master of arts degree*² from Oxford in 1950 and worked for a short time as a research chemist. In 1950 she married **Denis Thatcher**³, a director of a paint firm. After her marriage she specialized in tax law⁴.

In the 1959 elections Thatcher won a seat in Parliament. Because of her debating skills⁵ she soon became prominent among other politicians. In 1974 she became the leader of the Conservative Party.

When the Conservatives won a decisive victory in the 1979 general elections, Thatcher became *Prime Minister*. As *Prime Minister* she limited government control, giving individuals greater independence from the state and ending government interference in the economy. Thatcher became known as *the Iron Lady* because of her strict control over her cabinet and the country's economic policies.

During her third term Thatcher continued *the "Thatcher revolution"* by returning education, health care and housing to private control.

Margaret Thatcher resigned from office in 1990. Margaret Thatcher is certainly an outstanding figure in Britain's political life. According to political observers, she brought long-needed changes to British government and society.

¹ Somerville ['sʌməvɪl] College — Сомервильский колледж

² a master of arts degree — степень магистра гуманитарных наук

³ Denis Thatcher ['denɪs 'θætʃə] — Денис Тэтчер

⁴ tax law — налоговое законодательство

⁵ debating skills — полемическое искусство

SUPPLEMENT

THE BRITISH MONARCHS

Dynasty	Monarch	Years of life	Years of reign
Saxon kings [ˈsæksən ˈkɪŋz]	Alfred the Great [ˈælfɹəd ðəˈɡreɪt]	849–899	871–899
	Edward the Elder [ˈedwəd ðəˈeldə]	?–924	899–924
	Athelstan [ˈæθəlstən]	892–939	924–939
	Edmund I [ˈedmənd ðəˈfəːst]	921–946	939–946
	Edred [ˈedrəd]	?–955	946–955
	Edwy the Fair [ˈedwɪ ðəˈfeə]	944–959	955–959
	Edgar the Peaceful [ˈedgə ðəˈpiːsful]	944–975	959–975
	Edward the Martyr [ˈedwəd ðəˈmɑːtə]	963–978	975–978
	Aethelred [ˈæθəlred]	968–1016	978–1016
	Edmund II [ˈedmənd ðəˈsekənd]	981–1016	1016
Danish kings [ˈdeɪniʃ ˈkɪŋz]	Canute [ˈkəˈnjuːt]	994–1035	1016–1035
	Harold Harefoot [ˈhærəld ˈhæfʊt]	?–1040	1035–1040
	Hardecanut [ˈhɑːdəkəˈnjuːt]	1019–1042	1040–1042
Saxon kings [ˈsæksən ˈkɪŋz]	Edward the Confessor [ˈedwəd ðə kənˈfesə]	1002–1066	1042–1066
	Harold II [ˈhærəld ðəˈsekənd]	1020–1066	1066
Norman kings [ˈnɔːmən ˈkɪŋz]	William the Conqueror [ˈwɪljəm ðəˈkɒŋkərə]	1028–1087	1066–1087
	William II [ˈwɪljəm ðəˈsekənd]	1060–1100	1087–1100
	Henry I [ˈhenrɪ ðəˈfəːst]	1068–1135	1100–1135

continued

Dynasty	Monarch	Years of life	Years of reign
Norman kings [nɔ:mən 'kɪŋz]	Stephen [ˈsti:vən]	1097–1154	1135–1154
Plantagenet [plæn'tædʒənɪt]	Henry II [ˈhenrɪ dʊ'sekənd]	1133–1189	1154–1189
	Richard I the Lion-Heart [ˈri:tʃəd dʊ'fə:st dʊ'laɪən'hɑ:t]	1157–1199	1189–1199
	John Lackland [dʒɒn 'lækələnd]	1167–1216	1199–1216
	Henry III [ˈhenrɪ dʊ'θɔ:d]	1207–1272	1216–1272
	Edward I [ˈedwəd dʊ'fə:st]	1239–1307	1272–1307
	Edward II [ˈedwəd dʊ'sekənd]	1284–1327	1307–1327
	Edward III [ˈedwəd dʊ'θɔ:d]	1312–1377	1327–1377
	Richard II [ˈrɪtʃəd dʊ'sekənd]	1367–1400	1377–1399
Lancaster [ˈlæŋkəstə]	Henry IV [ˈhenrɪ dʊ'fɔ:θ]	1367–1413	1399–1413
	Henry V [ˈhenrɪ dʊ'fɪfθ]	1387–1422	1413–1422
	Henry VI [ˈhenrɪ dʊ'sɪksθ]	1421–1471	1422–1461
	Edward IV [ˈedvəd dʊ'fɔ:θ]	1442–1483	1461–1483
York [jɔ:k]	Edward V [ˈedvəd dʊ'fɪfθ]	1470–1483	1483
	Richard III [ˈrɪtʃəd dʊ'θɔ:d]	1452–1485	1483–1485
	Henry VII [ˈhenrɪ dʊ'sevənθ]	1457–1509	1485–1509
Tudor [ˈtju:də]	Henry VIII [ˈhenrɪ dɪ'reɪtθ]	1491–1547	1509–1547
	Edward VI [ˈedwəd dʊ'sɪksθ]	1537–1553	1547–1553
	Mary I [ˈmeəri dʊ'fə:st]	1516–1558	1553–1558

Dynasty	Monarch	Years of life	Years of reign
Tudor [ˈtjuːdə]	Elizabeth I [ˈlɪzəbəθ ðəˈfəːst]	1533–1603	1558–1603
Stuart [stjuət]	James I [dʒeɪmz ðəˈfəːst]	1566–1625	1603–1625
	Charles I [ˈtʃɑːlz ðəˈfəːst]	1600–1649	1625–1649
	REPUBLIC		1649–1660
	Charles II [ˈtʃɑːlz ðəˈsekənd]	1630–1685	1660–1685
	James II [dʒeɪmz ðəˈsekənd]	1633–1701	1685–1688
	William III [ˈwɪljəm ðəˈθəːd]	1650–1702	1689–1702
	and Mary II [ˈmɛəri ðəˈsekənd]	1662–1694	1689–1694
Hanover [ˈhænəvə]	Anne [æn]	1665–1714	1702–1714
	George I [dʒɔːdʒ ðəˈfəːst]	1660–1727	1714–1727
	George II [dʒɔːdʒ ðəˈsekənd]	1683–1760	1727–1760
	George III [dʒɔːdʒ ðəˈθəːd]	1738–1820	1760–1820
	George IV [dʒɔːdʒ ðəˈfɔːθ]	1762–1830	1820–1830
	William IV [ˈwɪljəm ðəˈfɔːθ]	1765–1837	1830–1837
	Victoria [vɪkˈtɔːrɪə]	1819–1901	1837–1901
	Edward VIII [ˈedwəd ðəˈsevnθ]	1841–1910	1901–1910
	George V [dʒɔːdʒ ðəˈfɪfθ]	1865–1936	1910–1936
	Edward VIII [ˈedwəd ɪrˈeɪtθ]	1894–1972	1936
Windsor [ˈwɪnzə] (after 1914)	George VI [dʒɔːdʒ ðəˈsɪksθ]	1895–1952	1936–1952
	Elizabeth II [ˈlɪzəbəθ ðəˈsekənd]	1926–	1952–

LIST OF PROPER NAMES

Adam Smith	[ˈædəmˈsmɪθ]	Адам Смит
Adolf Hitler	[ˈædəlfˈhɪtlə]	Адольф Гитлер
Agatha Christie	[ˈæɡəθəˈkrɪstɪ]	Агата Кристи
Albert of Saxe Coburg	[ˈælbət əvˈsæksˈkoubə:g]	Альберт Сакс-Кобургский
Alexandra	[.ælgɪˈzɑ:ndrə]	Александра
Alfred the Great	[ˈælfɾəd ðəˈɡreɪt]	Альфред Великий
Amundsen	[ˈɑ:məndsen]	Амундсен
Anne	[æn]	Анна
Anne Boleyn	[ˈbulɪn]	Анна Болейн
Archie Christie	[ˈɑ:tʃɪˈkrɪstɪ]	Арчи Кристи
Arthur Cadbury	[ˈɑ:θəˈkædbəri]	Артур Кэдбери
Arthur Wellington	[ˈwelɪŋtən]	Артур Веллингтон
Asser	[ˈæsə]	Ассер
Beatles	[ˈbi:tlz]	Битлы
Ben Jonson	[ˈbenˈdʒɒnsn]	Бен Джонсон
Benito Mussolini	[beˈni:touˌmusəˈli:ni]	Бенито Муссолини
Bernard Shaw	[ˈbə:nədʃə:]	Бернард Шоу
Boadicea	[ˌbouədɪˈsiə]	Бoadисея
Bonnie Prince Charlie	[ˈbɒniˈprɪnsˈtʃɑ:lɪ]	Красивый принц Чарли
Bowers	[ˈbauəz]	Бауэрс
Calvin	[ˈkælvɪn]	Кальвин
Canute	[kəˈnju:t]	Канут
Catherine	[ˈkæθrɪn]	Екатерина
Catherine Howard	[ˈhauəd]	Екатерина Говард
Chamberlain	[ˈtʃeɪmbəlɪn]	Чемберлен
Charles	[tʃɑ:lz]	Чарльз
Charles Darwin	[ˈdɑ:wɪn]	Чарльз Дарвин
Charles Dickens	[ˈdɪkɪnz]	Чарльз Диккенс
Charles Edward Stuart	[ˈedwədˈstjuət]	Чарльз Эдуард Стюарт

Charles James Fox ['dʒeɪmz'fɒks] Чарльз Джемс Фокс
 Chaucer ['tʃɔ:sə] Чосер
 Christopher Marlowe ['krɪstəfə'mɑ:lou] Кристофер Марло
 Christopher Wren [ren] Кристофер Рэн
 Chuck Berry ['tʃʌk'beri] Чак Берри
 Claudius ['klɔ:dʒəs] Клавдий
 Clerke [kla:k] Клерк
 Constantine ['kɒnstəntaɪn] Константин
 David Livingstone ['deɪvɪd'lɪvɪŋstən] Дэвид Ливингстон
 Denis Thatcher ['denɪs'θætʃə] Денис Тэтчер
 Eaton De Valera ['i:tən də və'leərə] Итон де Валера
 Edgar Evans ['edgə'i:vnz] Эдгар Эванс
 Edmund Spenser ['edmənd'spensə] Эдмунд Спенсер
 Edward ['edwəd] Эдуард
 Edward the Confessor [kən'fesə] Эдуард Исповедник
 Egbert ['egbət] Эгберт
 Einstein ['aɪnstəɪn] Эйнштейн
 Elizabeth [ɪ'lɪzəbəθ] Елизавета
 Elizabeth Fry [fraɪ] Елизавета Фрай
 Elvis Presley ['elvɪs'prezli] Элвис Пресли
 Erasmus [ɪ'ræzməs] Эразм
 Ernest Rutherford ['ɜ:nɪst'rʌðəfəd] Эрнест Резерфорд
 Florence Nightingale ['flɔ:rəns'naitɪŋgeɪl] Флоренс Най-
 тингейл
 Francis Bacon ['frænsɪs'beɪkən] Фрэнсис Бэкон
 Francis Drake [dreɪk] Фрэнсис Дрейк
 Francis Ferdinand ['fə:dnənd] Франц Фердинанд
 Frederick Miller ['fredrɪk'mɪlə] Фредерик Миллер
 Friedrich Engels ['fri:drɪk'ɛŋgəlz] Фридрих Энгельс
 Geoffrey ['dʒefri] Джеффри
 Geoffrey Chaucer ['tʃɔ:sə] Джеффри Чосер
 George [dʒɔ:dʒ] Джордж
 George Gordon Byron ['gɔ:dn'baɪərən] Джордж Гордон
 Байрон

George Harrison ['hærɪsn] Джордж Гаррисон
 Gilbert ['gɪlbət] Гилберт
 Guy Fawkes ['gaɪ'fɔ:ks] Гай Фокс
 Hadrian ['heidriən] Адриан
 Harold ['hærəld] Гарольд
 Henry ['henri] Генри, Генрих
 Henry Bolingbroke ['bɒlɪŋbrʊk] Генри Болингброк
 Horatio Nelson [hə'reɪʃiə'nɛlsn] Горацио Нельсон
 Hyde Parker ['haɪd'pɑ:kə] Гайд Паркер
 Isaac Newton ['aɪzək'nju:tn] Исаак Ньютон
 Jack Straw ['dʒæk'strɔ:] Джек Стро
 James [dʒeɪmz] Джеймс
 James Cook [kʊk] Джеймс Кук
 James Watt [wɒt] Джеймс Уатт
 Jane Seymour ['si:mə:] Джейн Сеймур
 Johann Gutenberg ['jɔhən'gu:tənbə:g] Иоганн Гутенберг
 John [dʒɒn] Джон
 John Bunyan ['bʌnjən] Джон Баньян
 John Hawkins ['hɔ:kɪnz] Джон Хокинс
 John Lennon ['lenən] Джон Леннон
 John Milton ['mɪltən] Джон Милтон
 John Wesley ['wesli] Джон Уэсли
 Judith ['dʒu:diθ] Джудит
 Julius Caesar ['dʒu:lɪəs'si:zə] Юлий Цезарь
 Karl Marx ['kɑ:l'mɑ:ks] Карл Маркс
 Lord Chatham ['lɔ:d'tʃætəm] Лорд Чэтем
 Lord Grey [greɪ] Лорд Грей
 Louis XIV ['lu:ɪ dɒ'fɔ:ti:nθ] Луи XIV
 Mahatma Gandhi [mə'hɑ:tmə'gændi] Махатма Ганди
 Mallowan ['mæləʊən] Мэллоуэн
 Margaret ['mɑ:gərɪt] Маргарет
 Margaret Thatcher ['θætʃə] Маргарет Тэтчер
 Martin Luther ['mɑ:tn'lu:θə] Мартин Лютер
 Mary ['mɛəri] Мэри

Matilda [mə'tɪldə] Матильда
 Max [mæks] Макс
 Napoleon [nə'pouljən] Наполеон
 Nicholas II of Russia ['nikələs ðə'sekənd əv'ɪlʃə] Нико-
 лай II, царь России
 Oates [outs] Оутс
 Oliver Cromwell ['ɒlɪvə'krɒmwəl] Оливер Кромвель
 Ovid ['ɒvɪd] Овидий
 Palmerston ['pɑ:məstn] Пальмерстон
 Paul McCartney ['pɔ:l mə'ka:tni] Пол МакКартни
 Percy B. Shelley ['pɜ:sɪ'bi:'ʃeli] Перси Б. Шелли
 Philip ['fɪlɪp] Филипп
 Plantagenet [plæn'tædʒɪnɪt] Плантагенет
 Plautus ['plɔ:təs] Плавт
 Pope Gregory ['pəʊp'ɡregəri] Папа Григорий
 Pope John Paul II ['pəʊp'dʒɒn'pɔ:l ðə'sekənd] Папа Иоанн
 Павел II
 Randolph ['rændəlf] Рэндольф
 Richard ['rɪtʃəd] Ричард
 Richard Burbage ['bɜ:bɪdʒ] Ричард Бэрбедж
 Richard the Lion Heart ['laɪən'ha:t] Ричард Львиное
 Сердце
 Ringo Starr ['rɪŋɡou'stɑ:] Ринго Старр
 Robert ['rɒbət] Роберт
 Robert Bruce [bru:s] Роберт Брюс
 Robert Burns [bɜ:nz] Роберт Бернс
 Robert Owen [ouən] Роберт Оуэн
 Robert Peel [pi:l] Роберт Пиль
 Robert Scott [skɒt] Роберт Скотт
 Robert Walpole ['wɒlpoul] Роберт Уолпол
 Sidney Herbert ['sɪdni'hɜ:bət] Сидней Герберт
 Simon Bolivar ['saɪmən bɒ'li:vɑ:] Симон Боливар
 Sophia ['soufiə] Софья
 St. Andrew [snt'ændru:] Св. Эндрю

Stephen [sti:vɪn] Стивен
 St. George [snt'dʒɔ:dʒ] Св. Георгий
 St. Patric [snt'pætrɪk] Св. Патрик
 Stuart [stjuət] Стюарт
 Suetonius [swi:'tounjəs] Светоний
 Terence ['terəns] Теренций
 Thomas Becket ['tɒməs'bekɪt] Томас Бекет
 Thomas More [mɔ:] Томас Мор
 Thomas Newcomen ['nju:kəməɪn] Томас Ньюкомен
 Tobias Furneaux [tə'baɪəs'fə:nou] Тобиас Ферно
 Tony Blair ['tounɪ'bleɪ] Тони Блэр
 Tudor ['tju:də] Тюдор
 Victoria [vɪk'tɔ:riə] Виктория
 Walter Raleigh ['wɔ:ltə'rɔ:lɪ] Уолтер Роли
 Walter Scott [skɒt] Вальтер Скотт
 Wat Tyler ['wɒt'taɪlə] Уот Тайлер
 William ['wɪljəm] Уильям
 William Booth [bu:ð] Уильям Бутс
 William Caxton ['kækstɒn] Уильям Кэкстон
 William Harvey ['hɑ:vɪ] Уильям Гарвей
 William of Orange ['ɔrɪndʒ] Вильгельм Оранский
 William Pitt [pɪt] Уильям Питт
 William Shakespeare ['ʃeɪkspiə] Уильям Шекспир
 William the Conqueror ['kɒŋkərə] Вильгельм Завое-
 ватель
 William II of Germany ['dʒɜ:məni] Вильгельм II, импе-
 ратор Германии
 William Wallace ['wɒləs] Уильям Уоллес
 Wilson ['wɪlsn] Уилсон
 Winston Churchill ['wɪnstn'tʃɜ:tʃɪl] Уинстон Черчилль
 Wolsey ['wulzɪ] Вулси

LIST OF GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES

Aberdeen	[,æbə'di:n]	Эбердин
Afghanistan	[ə'fɡænistən]	Афганистан
Africa	['æfrɪkə]	Африка
Alaska Peninsula	[ə'læskə pə'nɪnsjələ]	полуостров Аляска
Albania	[æl'beɪnjə]	Албания
Anglesey	['æŋɡlsɪ]	Энглси
Antarctic	[æn'tɑ:kɪk]	Антарктика
Antwerp	['æntwə:p]	Антверпен
Aragon	['ærəɡən]	Арагон
Arctic Ocean	['ɑ:kɪk'ouɪn]	Северный Ледовитый океан
Ascot	['æskət]	Эскот
Asia	['eɪʒə]	Азия
Atlantic Ocean	[ət'læntɪk'ouɪn]	Атлантический океан
Australia	[ɔ:'streɪljə]	Австралия
Austria	['ɔ:striə]	Австрия
Austria-Hungary	['ɔ:striə'hʌŋɡəri]	Австро-Венгрия
Balkans	['bɔ:lkənz]	Балканы
Baltic	['bɔ:ltɪk]	Балтика
Belfast	[bel'fɑ:st]	Белфаст
Belgium	['beldʒəm]	Бельгия
Bengal	[beŋ'ɡɔ:l]	Бенгалия
Ben Nevis	['ben'neɪvɪs]	Бен Невис
Bering Strait	['berɪŋ'streɪt]	Берингов пролив
Berkshire	['bɑ:kʃɪə]	Беркшир
Berlin	[bə:'lɪn]	Берлин
Birmingham	['bɜ:mɪŋəm]	Бирмингем
Boston	['bɒstn]	Бостон
Bosworth	['bɒzwəθ]	Босуорт
Bristol	['brɪstəl]	Бристоль
Bristol Channel	['brɪstəl'tʃænl]	Бристольский пролив
Britain	[brɪtn]	Британия

Britannia [brɪ'tænjə] Британия
 Brittany ['brɪtəni] Бретань (область на севере
 Франции)
 British Commonwealth of Nations ['brɪtɪʃ'kɒmənwelθ əv
 'neɪʃnz] Британское содружество наций
 British Empire ['empraɪə] Британская империя
 British Isles [aɪləz] Британские острова
 Caledonian Canal [ˌkælɪ'doʊnjən kə'næl] Каледонский
 канал
 California [ˌkælɪ'fɔːnjə] Калифорния
 Cambridge ['keɪmbɪdʒ] Кембридж
 Canada ['kænədə] Канада
 Canary Islands [kə'neəri'aɪləndz] Канарские острова
 Canterbury ['kæntəbəri] Кентерберри
 Cape Evans ['keɪp'iːvɪnz] мыс Эванс
 Cape Horn [hɔːn] мыс Горн
 Cape of Good Hope ['gʊd'hoʊp] мыс Доброй надежды
 Cape Trafalgar [trə'fælgə] мыс Трафальгар
 Cardiff ['kɑːdɪf] Кардифф
 Carlisle [kɑː'lɪl] Карлайл
 Central Lowlands ['sentrəl'ləʊləndz] Центральная низ-
 менность
 Central Plain of Scotland ['pleɪn əv'skɒtlənd] Централь-
 ная Шотландская равнина
 Ceylon [si'lɒn] Цейлон
 Chatham ['tʃætəm] Чэтем
 China ['tʃaɪnə] Китай
 Cholsey ['tʃəʊlsɪ] Чолси
 Clyde [klaɪd] Клайд
 Clydeside ['klaɪdsaɪd] Клайдсайд
 Colchester ['kəʊltʃɪstə] Колчестер
 Copenhagen [ˌkəʊpən'heɪɡən] Копенгаген
 Cornwall ['kɔːnwəl] Корнуолл
 Coventry ['kɒvəntri] Ковентри

Crimea [kraɪ'miə] Крым
 Culloden [kə'lɒdn] Каллоден
 Cumberland ['kʌmbələnd] Кемберленд
 Cumbrian Mountains ['kʌmbriən] Кембрийские горы
 Czechoslovakia [ˌtʃekoslou'vækjə] Чехословакия
 Dardanelles [ˌdɑːdə'nelz] Дарданеллы
 Denmark ['denma:k] Дания
 Devonshire ['devənʃɪə] Девоншир
 Dorchester ['dɔːtʃɪstə] Дорчестер
 Dublin ['dʌblɪn] Дублин
 Dunkirk [dʌn'kə:k] Дюнкерк
 East Anglia ['iːst'æŋɡliə] Восточная Англия
 Edinburgh ['edɪnbərə] Эдинбург
 Egypt ['iːdʒɪpt] Египет
 Eire ['eərə] Эйре
 England ['ɪŋɡlənd] Англия
 English Channel ['ɪŋɡlɪʃ'tʃænl] Английский пролив
 (Ла Манш)
 Epsom ['epsəm] Эпсом
 Essex ['esɪks] Эссекс
 Europe ['juərəp] Европа
 Flanders ['flɑːndəz] Фландрия
 France [frɑːns] Франция
 Geneva [dʒɪ'ni:və] Женева
 Germany ['dʒɛməni] Германия
 Gibraltar [dʒɪ'brɔːltə] Гибралтар
 Grampians ['græmpjənz] Грампианские горы
 Great Britain ['ɡreɪt'brɪtn] Великобритания
 Greece [ɡriːs] Греция
 Gulf of Mexico ['ɡʌlfəv'meksɪkou] Мексиканский залив
 Gulf Stream ['ɡʌlfstri:m] Гольфстрим
 Hanover ['hænəvə] Ганновер
 Harrow ['hærou] Хэрроу
 Hastings ['heɪstɪŋz] Гастингс

Hawaiian Islands [hɑ:'waɪjən'aɪləndz] Гавайские острова
 Hebrides ['hebrɪdi:z] Гебриды
 Henley ['henlɪ] Хэнли
 Highlands ['haɪləndz] Хайленд (высокогорная область Шотландии)
 Hiroshima [ˌhɪrəʃɪ:mə] Хиросима
 Holland ['hɒlənd] Голландия
 Holy Roman Empire ['houli'roumən'empraɪə] Священная Римская империя
 Hong Kong ['hɒŋ'kɒŋ] Гонконг
 India ['ɪndiə] Индия
 Indian Ocean ['ɪndiən'ouʃn] Индийский океан
 Inverness [ˌɪnvə'nes] Инвернес
 Iraq [ɪ'ra:k] Ирак
 Ireland ['aɪələnd] Ирландия
 Irish Republic ['aɪrɪʃ ˈrɪˌpʌblɪk] Ирландская республика
 Irish Sea [si:] Ирландское море
 Isle of Man ['aɪl əv'mæn] остров Мэн
 Isle of Wight [waɪt] остров Уайт
 Israel ['ɪzreɪəl] Израиль
 Italy ['ɪtəli] Италия
 Japan [dʒə'pæn] Япония
 Java ['dʒɑ:və] Ява
 Kent [kent] Кент
 Lake District ['leɪk'dɪstrɪkt] Озёрный край
 Lancashire ['læŋkəʃɪə] Ланкашир
 Lancaster ['læŋkəstə] Ланкастер
 Leeds [li:dz] Лидс
 Liverpool ['lɪvərpuːl] Ливерпуль
 London ['lʌndən] Лондон
 Lough Neagh ['lɒx'nei] Лох Ней
 Luxembourg ['lʌksəmbə:g] Люксембург
 Madras [mə'drɑ:s] Мадрас
 Maldon ['mɔ:ldən] Молдон

Manchester ['mæntʃɪstə] Манчестер
 Manchuria [mæn'tʃuəriə] Манчжурия
 Marne [mɑ:n] Марна
 Mediterranean Sea [ˌmedɪtə'reɪnjən'si:] Средиземное море
 Mercia ['mɜ:ʃjə] Мерсия
 Mersey ['mɜ:zi] Мерсей
 Middle East ['mɪdl'i:st] Средний восток
 Midlands ['mɪdləndz] Мидленд
 Montreal [ˌmɒntri'ɔ:l] Монреаль
 Moscow ['mɒskou] Москва
 Nagasaki [ˌnægə'sa:ki] Нагасаки
 Naseby ['neɪzbɪ] Нэсби
 Netherlands ['neðələndz] Нидерланды
 Newcastle ['nju:'kɑ:sl] Ньюкасл
 Newfoundland ['nju:fəndlənd] Ньюфаундленд
 Newport ['nju:pɔ:t] Ньюпорт
 New Zealand ['nju:'zi:lənd] Новая Зеландия
 Norfolk ['nɔ:fək] Норфолк
 Normandy ['nɔ:məndɪ] Нормандия
 North America ['nɔ:θ ə'merɪkə] Северная Америка
 Northern Ireland ['nɔ:ðən'aɪələnd] Северная Ирландия
 North Sea ['nɔ:θ'si:] Северное море
 Northumberland [nɔ:'θʌmbələnd] Нортумберленд
 Northumbria [nɔ:'θʌmbriə] Нортумбрия
 Norway ['nɔ:weɪ] Норвегия
 Norwich ['nɔ:ɪdʒ] Норидж
 Nottingham ['nɒtɪŋəm] Ноттингем
 Nottinghamshire ['nɒtɪŋəmʃɪə] Ноттингемшир
 Orkney Islands ['ɔ:kni'aɪləndz] Оркнейские острова
 Ottoman Empire ['ɒtəmən'empraɪə] Османская империя
 Oxford ['ɒksfəd] Оксфорд
 Pacific Ocean [pə'sɪfɪk'ouʃn] Тихий океан
 Pakistan [ˌpɑ:ki'stɑ:n] Пакистан
 Palestine ['pælistain] Палестина

Paris ['pærɪs] Париж
 Pennines ['penaɪnz] Пеннинские горы
 Plymouth ['plɪməθ] Плимут
 Poland ['pəʊlənd] Польша
 Portugal ['pɔ:tʃʊɡəl] Португалия
 Prussia ['prʌʃə] Пруссия
 Quebec [kwɪ'bek] Квебек
 Roman Empire ['rəʊmən'empraɪə] Римская империя
 Rome [rəʊm] Рим
 Russia ['rʌʃə] Россия
 Salisbury Plain ['sɔ:lzbəri'pleɪn] Солсберийская равнина
 Sandhurst ['sændhə:st] Сэндхерст
 Scandinavia [ˌskændɪ'neɪvjə] Скандинавия
 Scotland ['skɒtlənd] Шотландия
 Scutari ['sku:təri] Скутари
 Serbia ['sə:biə] Сербия
 Severn ['sevən] Северн
 Sheffield ['ʃefi:ld] Шеффилд
 Sherwood Forest ['ʃə:wud'fɔ:rist] Шервудский лес
 Shetland Islands ['ʃetlənd'aɪləndz] Шетландские острова
 Sindh [sɪnd] Синдх
 Singapore [ˌsɪŋgə'pɔ:] Сингапур
 Snowdon ['snəʊdən] Сноудон
 Southern Uplands of Scotland ['sʌðən'ʌpləndz əv'skɒtlənd]
 Южно-Шотландская возвышенность
 South Pole ['sauθ'pəʊl] Южный полюс
 Soviet Union ['souvjet'ju:niən] Советский Союз
 Spain [speɪn] Испания
 St. Albans [snt'ɔ:lbənz] Сент Олбанс
 St. George's Channel [snt'dʒɔ:dʒɪz'tʃænl] пролив
 Св. Георгия
 Stonehenge ['stəʊnhendʒ] Стоунхендж
 Strait of Dover ['streɪt əv'dəʊvə] Дуврский пролив (Па
 Де Кале)

Strait of Magellan [mə'gelən] Магелланов пролив
 Stratford-upon-Avon ['strætʃəd ə'pən'eivn] Стрэтфорд-
 на-Эйвоне
 St. Vincent [snt'vinsnt] Сент Винцент
 Suez Canal ['su:iz kə'næl] Суэцкий канал
 Sussex ['sʌsɪks] Суссекс
 Switzerland ['switsələnd] Швейцария
 Thames [temz] Темза
 Torquay ['tɔ:'ki:] Торкей
 Trafalgar [trə'fælgə] Трафальгар
 Trent [trent] Трент
 Turkish Empire ['tɜ:kɪ'empəɪə] Турецкая империя
 Turkey ['tɜ:kɪ] Турция
 Tyne [taɪn] Тайн
 Ulster ['ʌlstə] Ольстер
 United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ire-
 land [ju'naitɪd'kɪŋdəm əv'greɪt'brɪtn ənd'nɔ:ðən'aɪələnd]
 Объединённое королевство Великобритании и Се-
 верной Ирландии
 United States of America [ju'naitɪd'steɪts əv ə'merɪkə] Сое-
 динённые Штаты Америки
 USSR ['ju:'es'es'ɑ:] СССР
 Utrecht ['ju:trekt] Утрехт
 Wales [weɪlz] Уэльс
 Waterloo [ˌwɒtə'lu:] Ватерлоо
 Wessex ['wesɪks] Уэссекс
 West Indies ['west'ɪndɪz] Вест-Индия
 Westmorland ['westmələnd] Уэстморленд
 York [jɔ:k] Йорк
 Yorkshire ['jɔ:kʃɪə] Йоркшир

ENGLISH-RUSSIAN VOCABULARY

A

- abbey** ['æbi] *n* аббатство
abbreviation [əˌbriːvi'eɪʃn] *n* сокращение
ability [ə'bɪlɪtɪ] *n* способность
able [eɪbl] *a* способный
aboard [ə'bo:d] *adv* на борту, на борт
abolish [ə'bɒlɪʃ] *v* отменять
above [ə'bʌv] *prep* над
abroad [ə'brɔ:d] *adv* за границей
absence ['æbsəns] *n* отсутствие
absolute ['æbsəlut] *a* абсолютный
absolutely [ˌæbsə'lu:tli] *adv* абсолютно
absurd [əb'sɜ:d] *a* абсурдный
abundant [ə'bʌndənt] *a* изобильный
accent ['æksənt] *n* акцент, произношение
accept [ək'sept] *v* принимать
accompany [ə'kʌmpəni] *v* сопровождать
according to [ə'kɔ:diŋ tə] в соответствии с
account [ə'kaunt] *n* счет, отчет
accusation [ˌækju'zeɪʃn] *n* обвинение
accuse [ə'kju:z] *v* обвинять
achieve [ə'tʃi:v] *v* достигать
achievement [ə'tʃi:vmənt] *n* достижение
acre ['eɪkə] *n* акр
across [ə'krɒs] *prep* через
act [ækt] *v* действовать; *n* акт, действие
action [ækʃn] *n* действие
actively ['æktɪvli] *adv* активно
add [æd] *v* добавлять
addition [ə'dɪʃn] *n*: in addition вдобавок
administration [ədˌmɪnɪ'streɪʃn] *n* администрация, управление
admiral ['ædmɪrəl] *n* адмирал
admiration [ˌædmɪ'reɪʃn] *n* восхищение
admire [əd'maɪə] *v* восхищаться

adult ['ædʌlt] *n* взрослый
advance [əd'vɑ:ns] *v* наступать, продвигаться вперед
advanced [əd'vɑ:nst] *pp* передовой
advantage [əd'vɑ:ntɪdʒ] *n* преимущество
adventurer [əd'ventʃərə] *n* искатель приключений
adventurous [əd'ventʃərəs] *a* любящий приключения
advice [əd'vaɪs] *n* совет
advisable [əd'vaɪzəbl] *a* целесообразный
adviser [əd'vaɪzə] *n* советник
affairs [ə'feəz] *n* дела
affect [ə'fekt] *v* влиять
afford [ə'fɔ:d] *v* позволять
afraid [ə'freɪd]: be afraid бояться
aftereffect [ˌɑ:ftərə'fekt] *n* последствия
age [eɪdʒ] *n* возраст, век
agrarian [ə'grɛɪən] *a* аграрный, сельскохозяйственный
agree [ə'gri:] *v* соглашаться
agreement [ə'gri:mənt]: in agreement with в согласии с
agricultural [ˌægrɪ'kʌltʃərəl] *a* сельскохозяйственный
aid [eɪd] *n* помощь
aim [eɪm] *n* цель
air [ɛə] *n* воздух; *v* проветривать
aircraft ['ɛəkra:ft] *n* самолет, авиация
air force ['ɛə, fɔ:s] военно-воздушные силы
air-raid ['ɛə'reɪd] *n* воздушный налет
alarm [ə'la:m] *n* тревога; *v* тревожиться
alarmed [ə'la:md] *pp* встревоженный
alcohol ['ælkəhəl] *n* алкоголь
alive [ə'laɪv] *a* живой
alliance [ə'laɪəns] *n* союз
allow [ə'laʊ] *v* позволять, разрешать
all-powerful ['ɔ:l'paʊəfʊl] *a* всемогущий
ally [ə'laɪ] *n* союзник; *v* вступить в союз
almost ['ɔ:lmu:st] *adv* почти
alongside [ə'lɔ:ŋsaɪd] *adv* рядом, бок-о-бок
altar ['ɔ:ltə] *n* алтарь
alteration [ˌɔ:ltə'reɪʃn] *n* изменение, переделка

although [ˌɔ:l'dəʊ] *adv* хотя
altogether [ˌɔ:ltə'geðə] *adv* всего
amaze [ə'meɪz] *v* изумлять
amateur ['æmətə] *n* любитель (не профессионал)
ambitious [æm'biʃəs] *a* честолюбивый
among [ə'mʌŋ] *prep* среди
amount [ə'maʊnt] *n* количество
amphitheatre [ˌæmfi'thiətə] *n* амфитеатр
anarchy ['ænəkɪ] *n* анархия
ancestor ['ænsəstə] *n* предок
ancestry ['ænsəstri] *n* происхождение, предки
ancient ['eɪnʃnt] *a* древний
anger ['æŋɡə] *n* гнев
angry ['æŋɡri] *a* сердитый
animal ['æniməl] *n* животное
anniversary [ˌæni'vɜ:səri] *n* годовщина
announce [ə'naʊns] *v* объявлять
annual ['ænjuəl] *a* ежегодный
annually ['ænjuəli] *adv* ежегодно
antiquity [æn'tɪkwɪti] *n* древность, античность
apart [ə'pɑ:t] *adv* отдельно
ape [eɪp] *n* человекообразная обезьяна
appear [ə'piə] *v* появляться
appearance [ə'piərəns] *n* появление, внешность
apple [æpl] *n* яблоко
apply [ə'plai] *v* применять
appoint [ə'pɔɪnt] *v* назначать
apprentice [ə'prentɪs] *n* ученик, подмастерье
approach [ə'prəʊtʃ] *v* приближаться; *n* приближение, подход
approval [ə'pru:vəl] *n* одобрение
approve [ə'pru:v] *v* одобрять
approximately [ə'prɒksɪmɪtli] *adv* приблизительно
arable ['ærəbl] *a* пахотная (земля)
archaeologist [ˌɑ:kɪ'ələdʒɪst] *n* археолог
archbishop ['ɑ:tʃbɪʃəp] *n* архиепископ
archer ['ɑ:tʃə] *n* лучник

architect ['ɑ:kɪtɛkt] *n* архитектор
architecture [ˌɑ:kɪ'tektʃə] *n* архитектура
archway ['ɑ:tweɪ] *n* арка
area ['ɛəriə] *n* площадь, территория
argue ['ɑ:gju] *v* спорить
aristocracy [ˌæri'stɒkrəsi] *n* аристократия
aristocrat [ə'rɪstəkræt] *n* аристократ
aristocratic [ə,rɪstə'krætɪk] *a* аристократический
arithmetic [ə'riθmətɪk] *n* арифметика
arm [ɑ:m] *n* рука; *v* вооружать
armed [ɑ:md] *pp* вооруженный
armed forces [ɑ:md'fɔ:sɪz] вооруженные силы
armour ['ɑ:mə] *n* доспехи, броня
arms [ɑ:mz] *n* оружие
army ['ɑ:mi] *n* армия
arrest [ə'rest] *n* арест; *v* арестовывать
arrival [ə'raɪvəl] *n* прибытие
arrive [ə'raɪv] *v* прибывать
arrow ['ærou] *n* стрела
art [ɑ:t] *n* искусство
artist ['ɑ:tɪst] *n* художник
ascend [ə'send] *v* подниматься, восходить
ash [æʃ] *n* ясень
aspect ['æspekt] *n* аспект
assemble [ə'sembl] *v* собирать
associate [ə'sousiɛɪt] *v* ассоциировать, связывать
association [ə,sousi'eɪʃn] *n* ассоциация
as soon as [əz'su:n əz] как только
as to ['æz tə] что до, что касается
astronomy [ə'strɒnəmi] *n* астрономия
as well as [əz'wel əz] так же как и
athletics [æθ'letɪks] *n* атлетика
at last [ət'la:st] наконец
atom ['ætəm] *n* атом
attach [ə'tætʃ] *v* присоединять
attack [ə'tæk] *v* атаковать, нападать; *n* атака, нападение
attainment [ə'teɪnmənt] *n* достижение

attempt [ə'temt] *n* попытка; *v* пытаться
attend [ə'tend] *v* посещать
attendant [ə'tendənt] *n* сопровождающий
attention [ə'tenʃn] *n* внимание
attitude ['ætɪtʃud] *n* отношение
attract [ə'trækt] *v* привлекать
aunt [ɑ:nt] *n* тетка
author ['ɔ:θə] *n* автор
authority [ɔ:'θɔ:riti] *n* авторитет
automatically [ˌɔ:tə'mætɪkəlɪ] *adv* автоматически
avenue ['ævənju] *n* авеню
avoid [ə'vɔɪd] *v* избегать
awaken [ə'weɪkən] *v* будить
awakening [ə'weɪkənɪŋ] *n* пробуждение

В

backwards ['bækwədz] *adv* назад
bagpipe ['bæɡpaɪp] *n* волынка
baker ['beɪkə] *n* булочник
balance ['bæləns] *n* баланс, равновесие; *v* удерживать
 равновесие
band [bænd] *n* оркестр
bandage ['bændɪdʒ] *n* бинт
bank [bæŋk] *n* банк; берег реки
banker ['bæŋkə] *n* банкир
bank notes ['bæŋk, nɒts] банкноты
banquet ['bæŋkwɪt] *n* банкет
barbaric [bɑ:'bærɪk] *a* варварский
bard [bɑ:d] *n* бард, бродячий музыкант
barley ['bɑ:lɪ] *n* ячмень
baron ['bærən] *n* барон
barrack ['bærək] *n* барак
barrel ['bærəl] *n* бочка
base [beɪs] *n* база, основание; *v* базироваться, осно-
 вываться
based on ['beɪst'ɒn] основанный на
basic ['beɪsɪk] *a* основной

basically ['beɪsɪkəli] *adv* в основном, главным образом
basin [beɪsn] *n* бассейн
basis ['beɪsɪs] *n* базис
basket ['bɑːskɪt] *n* корзина
bath [bɑːθ] *n* ванна
baths [bɑːθs] *n* бани
battle [bætl] *n* битва
battlefield ['bætlfiːld] *n* поле боя
beach [bi:tʃ] *n* морской берег, пляж
beads [biːdz] *n* бусы
bear [beə] *n* медведь
bearskin cap ['beəskin,kæp] шапка из медвежьей
 шкуры
beast [biːst] *n* зверь
beat [bi:t] *v* бить
beaten [biːtn] *см.* beat
beautifully ['bjʊːtɪfʊli] *adv* красиво
beauty ['bjʊːti] *n* красота
became [br'keɪm] *см.* become
become [br'kʌm] (became, become) *v* становиться
bedclothes ['bedkləʊðz] *n* постельное бельё
beech [bi:tʃ] *n* бук
beer [biə] *n* пиво
befall [br'fɔːl] (befell, befallen) *v* случаться с
befallen [br'fɔːln] *см.* befall
befell [br'fel] *см.* befall
began [br'gæn] *см.* begin
begin [br'gɪn] (began, begun) *v* начинать
begun [br'gʌn] *см.* begin
behaviour [br'heɪvjə] *n* поведение
behead [br'hed] *v* обезглавить
behind [br'hænd] *prep* за, позади
belief [br'liːf] *n* вера, убеждение
believe [br'liːv] *v* верить
bell [bel] *n* звонок, колокол
belong [br'lɒŋ] *v* принадлежать
below [br'ləʊ] *adv* внизу

benefit ['benɪfɪt] *n* польза, выгода; *v* давать пользу, выгоду

berry ['berɪ] *n* ягода

beside [bɪ'saɪd] *prep* около

besides [bɪ'saɪdz] *adv* кроме того

betray [bɪ'treɪ] *v* предавать

beyond [bɪ'jɒnd] *prep* за пределами

bible [baɪbl] *n* библия

bicycle ['baɪsɪkl] *n* велосипед

bill [bɪl] *n* счет; законопроект

birch [bɜ:tʃ] *n* береза

bird [bɜ:d] *n* птица

birth [bɜ:θ] *n* рождение

give birth рождать

birthday ['bɜ:θdeɪ] *n* день рождения

bishop ['bɪʃɒp] *n* епископ

bitter ['bɪtə] *a* горький

bitterly ['bɪtəli] *adv* горько

bitterness ['bɪtənɪs] *n* горечь

blackbird ['blækbɜ:d] *n* дрозд

blacken [blækən] *v* чернить, покрывать черной краской

blacksmith ['blæksmiθ] *n* кузнец

blame [bleɪm] *v* обвинять

blew [blu:] *см.* blow

blind [blaɪnd] *a* слепой

block [blɒk] *v* загромождать

blond [blɒnd] *a* белокурый

blood [blʌd] *n* кровь

blow [blou] (blew, blown) *v* дуть

blown [bloun] *см.* blow

boar [bɔ:] *n* кабан

board [bɔ:d] *n*: on board на борт, на борту

go aboard a ship [ə'bɔ:d ə'ʃɪp] сесть на корабль

boast [bəʊst] *v* хвастать

boat [bəʊt] *n* лодка, корабль

boat race ['bəʊt'reɪs] лодочные гонки

body ['bɒdi] *n* тело; группа

boiled [bɔɪld] *pp* варёный
boldly ['bouldli] *adv* смело
bomb [bɒm] *n* бомба; *v* бомбить
bombard [bɒm'ba:d] *v* бомбардировать, обстреливать
bombing raid ['bɒmɪŋ'reɪd] воздушный налет
bonfire ['bɒnfɪə] *n* костёр
boots [buts] *n* сапоги
border ['bɔ:də] *n* граница; *v* граничить
born [bɔ:n] *pp*: be born родиться
borrow ['bɒrou] *v* брать в долг
bought [bɔ:t] *см.* buy
bouquet ['bukeɪ] *n* букет
bourgeoisie ['buəʒwa:zi:] *n* буржуазия
box [bɒks] *n* коробка, ящик
boxing ['bɒksɪŋ] *n* бокс
braces ['breɪsɪz] *n* подтяжки
branch [brɑ:ntʃ] *n* ветка, ветвь, ответвление, отрасль
brass [brɑ:s] *n* латунь
brave [breɪv] *a* храбрый
bravely ['breɪvli] *adv* храбро
bravery ['breɪvəri] *n* храбрость
bread [bred] *n* хлеб
break [breɪk] (broke, broken) *v* ломать, разбивать
break away ['breɪk ə'veɪ] оторваться, отделиться
break out ['breɪk'aut] разразиться
bred [bred] *см.* breed
breed [bri:d] (bred, bred) *v* разводить
brick [brɪk] *n* кирпич
bright [braɪt] *a* яркий
brightly ['braɪtli] *adv* ярко
brilliant ['brɪljənt] *a* блестящий
bring [brɪŋ] (brought, brought) *v* приносить, приводить, приводить
bring up ['brɪŋ'ʌp] (brought up, brought up) *v* воспитывать
broad [brɔ:d] *a* широкий
broaden [brɔ:dn] *v* расширять

broadleaf ['brɔːdliːf] *a* широколиственный
broke [brɒk] *см.* break
broken [brɒkn] *см.* break
broken [brɒkn] сломанный, разбитый
bronze [brɒnz] *n* бронза
brooch [brʊtʃ] *n* брошка
broth [brɔːθ] *n* бульон
brought [brɔːt] *см.* bring
budget ['bʌdʒɪt] *n* бюджет
build [bɪld] (built, built) *v* строить
built [bɪlt] *см.* build
burial ['beriəl] *n* похороны, захоронение
burn [bɜːn] *v* гореть, жечь
bury ['beri] *v* хоронить, прятать
busy ['bɪzi] *a* (о человеке) занятый; (о месте) оживлённый
butcher ['bʊtʃə] *n* мясник
butter ['bʌtə] *n* масло
buttonhole ['bʌtnhəʊl] *n* петля (на одежде)
buy [baɪ] (bought, bought) *v* покупать
by and by ['baɪ ənd 'baɪ] постепенно, со временем, вскоре

С

calculated ['kælkjuleɪtɪd] *pp* рассчитанный
call [kɔːl] *v* звать, называть; *n* зов, призыв
call for призывать к
came [keɪm] *см.* come
camp [kæmp] *n* лагерь
campaign [kæm'peɪn] *n* кампания
canal [kə'næl] *n* канал
candle [kændl] *n* свеча
cannibalism ['kænɪbəlɪzəm] *n* каннибализм, людоедство
cannon ['kænən] *n* пушка
capital city ['kæpɪtəl'sɪti] столица
captain's mate ['kæptɪnz'meɪt] помощник капитана
capture ['kæptʃə] *v* захватить в плен

care [kɛə] *n* забота
careful ['kɛəfʊl] *a* заботливый, аккуратный, осторожный
carefully ['kɛəfʊli] *adv* аккуратно, осторожно
cargo ['kɑ:gou] *n* груз
carol ['kærəl] *n* рождественская песнь
carpenter ['kɑ:pɪntə] *n* плотник
carriage ['kæridʒ] *n* карета, экипаж
carry ['kæri] *v* носить, возить
carry out выполнять
cart [kɑ:t] *n* телега
case [keɪs] *n*: in case в случае
cast down ['kɑ:st'daʊn] *v* сбросить вниз
castle ['kɑ:sl] *n* замок
catch [kætʃ] (caught, caught) *v* ловить, поймать
cathedral [kə'thi:drəl] *n* собор
cattle driver ['kætl,draɪvə] погонщик скота
cattle-farming ['kætl,fɑ:mɪŋ] *n* скотоводство
caught [kɔ:t] *см.* catch
cause [kɔ:z] *n* причина; *v* причинять, вызывать
cave [keɪv] *n* пещера
celebrate ['selɪbreɪt] *v* праздновать
celebration [ˌselɪ'breɪʃn] *n* празднование
celebrity [sɪ'lebrɪti] *n* знаменитость
central ['sentrəl] *a* центральный
centralization [ˌsentrəlaɪ'zeɪʃn] *a* централизация
central nucleus ['sentrəl'nju:klɪəs] центральное ядро
century ['sentʃəri] *n* век, столетие
certain [sə:tn] *a* определённый
chalk [tʃɔ:k] *n* мел
challenge ['tʃælɪndʒ] *n* вызов; *v* бросать вызов
chamber ['tʃeɪmbə] *n* комната, палата (в парламенте)
championship ['tʃæmpɪənʃɪp] *n* чемпионат
change [tʃeɪndʒ] *n* перемена; *v* менять
channel [tʃænl] *n* канал, пролив
chapel ['tʃæpəl] *n* часовня
character ['kærəktə] *n* характер, литературный герой
(персонаж)

characteristic [ˌkærəktəˈrɪstɪk] *a* характерный
charge [tʃɑ:dʒ] *v* обвинять, предъявлять обвинение
chariot [ˈtʃæriət] *n* колесница
charter [ˈtʃɑ:tə] *n* хартия
cheap [tʃi:p] *a* дешёвый
cheaply [ˈtʃi:plɪ] *adv* дёшево
cheese [tʃi:z] *n* сыр
chemical industry [ˈkemɪklˈɪndəstri] химическая про-
 мышленность
chemist [ˈkemɪst] *n* химик
chemistry [ˈkemɪstri] *n* химия
cherry [ˈtʃerɪ] *n* вишня
chicken [ˈtʃɪkɪn] *n* цыпленок, курица
chicken farm [ˈtʃɪkɪnˌfɑ:m] *n* птицеферма
chief [tʃi:f] *a* главный; *n* вождь
childbirth [ˈtʃaɪldbə:θ] *n* роды
chimes [tʃaɪmz] *n* колокола
chimney [ˈtʃɪmni] *n* труба
choice [tʃɔɪs] *n* выбор
choir [kwaɪə] *n* хор
cholera [ˈkɒləərə] *n* холера
choose [tʃu:z] (chose, chosen) *v* выбирать
chose [tʃouz] *см.* choose
chosen [tʃouzn] *см.* choose
Christian [ˈkrɪstjən] *a* христианский
Christianity [ˌkrɪstɪˈænɪti] *n* христианство
Christmas [ˈkrɪsməs] *n* Рождество
church [tʃə:tʃ] *n* церковь
cinema [ˈsɪnɪmə] *n* кино
circle [sə:kl] *n* круг
circulation [ˌsə:kjuˈleɪʃn] *n* циркуляция
citizen [ˈsɪtɪzn] *n* гражданин
civil [ˈsɪvɪl] *a* гражданский
civilization [ˌsɪvɪlaɪˈzeɪʃn] *n* цивилизация
civilized [ˈsɪvɪlaɪzd] *pp* цивилизованный
civil rights [ˈsɪvɪlˈraɪts] гражданские права
civil war [ˈsɪvɪlˈwɔ:] гражданская война

claim [kleɪm] *υ* претендовать, заявлять права на
clan [klæn] *n* клан
clash [klæʃ] *n* столкновение; *υ* столкнуться
classical ['klæsɪkəl] *a* классический
clay [kleɪ] *n* глина
clean [kli:n] *a* чистый
clear [kliə] *a* чистый; *υ* чистить, очищать от
clerk [kla:k] *n* клерк
climate ['klaɪmɪt] *n* климат
climb [klaɪm] *υ* взбираться, влезать
cliff [klɪf] *n* скала
cloak [klouk] *n* плащ
close [klous] *a* близкий
closely ['kləʊslɪ] *adv* близко, тесно
cloth [klɒθ] *n* сукно
clothes [kləʊðz] *n* одежда
clothing ['kləʊðɪŋ] *n* одежда
clothmaker ['klɒθmeɪkə] *n* сукнодел, мастер по изготовлению сукна
clothmaking industry ['kləʊθmeɪkɪŋ'ɪndəstri] *n* суконная промышленность
cloud [klaʊd] *n* облако
club [klʌb] *n* клуб
clue [klu:] *n* ключ (*к тайне*)
coachman ['kəʊtʃmən] *n* кучер
coal [kəʊl] *n* уголь
coast [kəʊst] *n* берег
coastline ['kəʊstlaɪn] *n* береговая линия
coat [kəʊt] *n* пальто, куртка
cobbler ['kɒblə] *n* сапожник
code of law ['kəʊd əv 'lɔ:] *n* свод законов
coffee-house ['kɒfɪhaʊs] *n* кофейня
coin [kɔɪn] *n* монета
coincide [ˌkəʊn'saɪd] *υ* совпадать
collapse [kə'læps] *υ* обрушиваться, обваливаться
collar ['kɒlə] *n* воротник
collect [kə'lekt] *υ* собирать

collection [kə'lekʃn] *n* коллекция
college ['kɒlɪdʒ] *n* колледж
collide [kə'laid] *v* сталкиваться
colonial [kə'lounjəl] *a* колониальный
colonialism [kə'lounjəlɪzəm] *n* колониализм
colonist ['kɒlənist] *n* колонист
colonize ['kɒlənaɪz] *v* колонизировать
colony ['kɒləni] *n* колония
colourful ['kʌləfʊl] *a* красочный
column ['kɒləm] *n* колонна
combat ['kɒmbæt] *n* сражение
combine [kəm'baɪn] *v* соединять, объединять
come into being ['kʌm ɪntə'biːɪŋ] появляться
comfortable ['kʌmfətəbl] *a* удобный
command [kə'mɑːnd] *n* команда; *v* командовать
commander [kə'mɑːndə] *n* командир
commander-in-chief [kə'mɑːndə ɪn'tʃiːf] главнокомандующий
commemorate [kə'meməreɪt] *v* ознаменовывать
commerce ['kɒməːs] *n* коммерция
commercial [kə'mɜːʃəl] *a* коммерческий
commission [kə'mɪʃn] *v* поручить (работу)
committee [kə'mɪtɪ] *n* комитет
common ['kɒmən] *a* общий, простой
common people простые люди
community [kə'mjuːnɪtɪ] *n* община
companionship [kəm'pænjənʃɪp] *n* товарищество
company ['kʌmprəni] *n* компания, труппа
comparatively [kəm'pærətɪvli] *adv* сравнительно
compare [kəm'preə] *v* сравнивать
comparison [kəm'pærɪsn] *n* сравнение
competition [ˌkɒmpɪ'tɪʃn] *n* соревнование, конкуренция
complete [kəm'pliːt] *v* завершать; *a* завершённый, полный
completely [kəm'pliːtli] *adv* полностью
comprehensive school [ˌkɒmprə'hensɪv'skuːl] всесторонняя школа

concentrate ['kɒnsəntreɪt] *v* концентрировать
concentration camp [ˌkɒnsən'treɪʃn'kæmp] концентра-
 ционный лагерь
concern [kən'sə:n] *v*: as concerns что касается
concert ['kɒnsət] *n* концерт
conclude [kən'klu:d] *v* заключать, завершать
condensation [ˌkɒndən'seɪʃn] *n* конденсация
condition [kən'dɪʃn] *n* условие
confirm [kən'fə:m] *v* подтверждать
confusion [kən'fju:ʒn] *n* смятение, переполох, нераз-
 бериха
coniferous [kou'nɪfərəs] *a* хвойный
connect [kə'nekt] *v* соединять
connection [kə'nekʃn] *n* связь
conquer ['kɒŋkə] *v* завоёвывать
conquest ['kɒŋkwɪst] *n* завоевание
conservative [kən'sə:vətɪv] *a* консервативный
consider [kən'sɪdə] *v* рассматривать, считать
considerably [kən'sɪdəərəblɪ] *adv* значительно
consist [kən'sɪst] *v* состоять
conspirator [kən'spɪrətə] *n* конспиратор, заговорщик
constant ['kɒnstənt] *a* постоянный
constantly ['kɒnstəntli] *adv* постоянно
constituency [kən'stɪtjuənsɪ] *n* избирательный округ
constitute ['kɒnstɪtjut] *v* составлять
constitution [ˌkɒnstɪ'tju:ʃn] *n* конституция
constitutional [ˌkɒnstɪ'tju:ʃnəl] *a* конституционный
constitutional acts конституционные акты
contain [kən'teɪn] *v* содержать
contemporary [kən'tempərəri] *n* современник
content(s) ['kɒntent(s)] *n* содержание
continent ['kɒntɪnənt] *n* континент
continental [ˌkɒntɪ'nentəl] *a* континентальный
continual [kən'tɪnjuəl] *a* постоянный
continually [kən'tɪnjuəli] *adv* постоянно
continue [kən'tɪnju] *v* продолжать
continuous [kən'tɪnjuəs] *a* продолжающийся

contradict [ˌkɒntrəˈdɪkt] *υ* возражать
contradictions [ˌkɒntrəˈdɪkʃnz] *n* противоречия
contribution [ˌkɒntriˈbjʊːʃn] *n* вклад
convenient [kənˈviːnjənt] *a* удобный
conveniently [kənˈviːnjəntli] *adv* удобно
conventions [kənˈvenʃnz] *n* условности, обычаи
conversation [ˌkɒnvəˈseɪʃn] *n* разговор
convert [kənˈvɜːt] *υ* превращать, обращать
convince [kənˈvɪns] *υ* убеждать
cool [kuːl] *a* прохладный
co-operation [kou,ɔpəˈreɪʃn] *n* сотрудничество
co-ordinate [kouˈɔːdɪneɪt] *υ* координировать, согласо-
 вывать
copper [ˈkɒpə] *n* медь
copy [ˈkɒpi] *υ* копировать; *n* копия, экземпляр
corporation [ˌkɔːpəˈreɪʃn] *n* корпорация
correspondent [ˌkɒrɪˈspɒndənt] *n* корреспондент
corresponding [ˌkɒrɪˈspɒndɪŋ] *a* соответствующий
cost [kɒst] (cost, cost) *υ* стоить
cottage [ˈkɒtɪdʒ] *n* коттедж, домик
council [ˈkaʊnsəl] *n* совет
count [kaʊnt] *υ* считать; *n* граф
countless [ˈkaʊntlɪs] *a* бесчисленный
counter [ˈkaʊntə] *n* прилавок
country [ˈkʌntri] *n* страна
countryman [ˈkʌntrɪmən] *n* соотечественник
countryside [ˈkʌntrɪsaɪd] *n* загородная местность
county [ˈkaʊnti] *n* графство (административная едини-
 ца в Англии)
coup d'état [ˈkuːderˈtɑː] *n* переворот
courage [ˈkʌrɪdʒ] *n* смелость
courageous [kəˈreɪdʒəs] *a* смелый
course [kɔːs] *n*: in the course of в ходе
court [kɔːt] *n* двор; королевский двор; суд
cousin [kʌzn] *n* двоюродный брат, двоюродная сестра
cover [ˈkʌvə] *υ* покрывать
cow [kau] *n* корова

cowhouse ['kauhaus] *n* коровник
cradle [kreɪdl] *n* колыбель
craft [krɑ:ft] *n* ремесло
craftsmanship ['krɑ:ftsmənʃɪp] *n* занятие ремеслом
crane [kreɪn] *n* кран
cream [kri:m] *n* крем, сливки
create [kri'eɪt] *v* создавать
creative work [kri'eɪtɪv'wɜ:k] творческий труд
crew [kru:] *n* команда (корабля)
cricket ['krɪkɪt] *n* крикет
crime [kraɪm] *n* преступление
criticize ['krɪtɪsaɪz] *v* критиковать
crops [krɒps] *n* зерновые культуры, всходы, урожай
cross [krɒs] *n* крест; *v* пересекать
crowd [kraʊd] *n* толпа; *v* толпиться
crown [kraʊn] *n* корона; *v* увенчивать
cruel [kruəl] *a* жестокий
cruelly ['kruəli] *adv* жестоко
cruelty ['kruəlti] *n* жестокость
crusade [kru'seɪd] *n* крестовый поход
crush [krʌʃ] *v* разрушать, крушить; *n* разгром
cultivate ['kʌltɪveɪt] *v* культивировать
cultivated ['kʌltɪveɪtɪd] *pp* культурный
cultural ['kʌltʃərəl] *a* культурный
culture ['kʌltʃə] *n* культура
custom ['kʌstəm] *n* обычай
customer ['kʌstəmə] *n* покупатель, клиент
cut [kʌt] (cut, cut) *v* резать
cut down срубить (деревья)
cybernetics [saɪbə'netɪks] *n* кибернетика

D

daily ['deɪli] *a* ежедневный
dairy-farming ['dɛəri,fɑ:mɪŋ] *n* молочное хозяйство
damage ['dæmɪdʒ] *v* разрушать; *n* разрушение
damaging ['dæmɪdʒɪŋ] *a* разрушительный
damp [dæmp] *a* сырой

danger ['deɪndʒə] *n* опасность
dangerous ['deɪndʒərəs] *a* опасный
daring ['dɛərɪŋ] *a* смелый, отчаянный, отважный
dark [dɑ:k] *a* тёмный
darkness ['dɑ:knis] *n* темнота
date back to ['deɪt'bæk tə] восходить к
deal [di:l] *v* иметь дело с
death [deθ] *n* смерть
debates [di'beɪts] *n* дебаты
debt [det] *n* долг
decade [di'keɪd] *n* десятилетие
decay [di'keɪ] *n* упадок
decent ['di:sənt] *a* приличный
decide [di'saɪd] *v* решать
decision [di'sɪʒn] *n* решение
decisive [di'saɪsɪv] *a* решительный
deck [dek] *n* палуба
declaration [ˌdeklə'reɪʃn] *n* заявление
declare [di'kleə] *v* заявлять
declare war объявлять войну
decline [di'klaɪn] *v* приходить в упадок
decorate ['dekəreɪt] *v* украшать
decrease [di'kri:s] *v* уменьшаться
dedication [ˌdedɪ'keɪʃn] *n* преданность
deed [di:d] *n* дело
deep [di:p] *a* глубокий
deepen ['di:pən] *v* углублять
deeply ['di:pli] *adv* глубоко
deer [diə] *n* олень
defeat [di'fi:t] *v* побеждать; *n* поражение
defence [di'fens] *n* защита
defend [di'fend] *v* защищать
defender [di'fendə] *n* защитник
definite ['defɪnɪt] *a* определённый
degree [di'gri:] *n* степень
delegate ['delɪɡɪt] *n* делегат
delight [di'lait] *n* восторг; *v* восторгаться

deliver [də'livə] *v* доставлять
delta ['deltə] *n* дельта
demand [dr'mɑ:nd] *v* требовать; *n* требование
democracy [dr'mɒkrəsi] *n* демократия
democratic [demə'krætɪk] *a* демократический
demonstrate ['demənstreɪt] *v* демонстрировать
densely populated ['densli, pɒpjʊ'leɪtɪd] плотно населённый
density ['densɪtɪ] *n* плотность
depart [dr'pɑ:t] *v* уходить, уезжать
department [dr'pɑ:tmənt] *n* отдел, отделение
department store [stɔ:] универсам
depend [dr'pend] *v* зависеть
dependent [dr'pendənt] *a* зависимый
deposed [dr'pouzɪd] *pp* смещённый
deposits [dr'pɒzɪts] *n* залежи
depression [dr'preʃn] *n* депрессия, угнетенное состояние, впадина
deprive [dr'praɪv] *v* лишать
descendant [dr'sendənt] *n* потомок
describe [dr'skraɪb] *v* описывать
description [dr'skrɪpʃn] *n* описание
desert ['dezət] *n* пустыня
design [dr'zain] *n* проект; *v* проектировать
desire [dr'zaɪə] *n* желание
despise [dr'spaɪz] *v* презирать
despotic [dr'spɒtɪk] *a* деспотический
destination [dr'stɪ'neɪʃn] *n* место назначения
destroy [dr'strɔɪ] *v* разрушать
destruction [dr'strʌkʃn] *n* разрушение
destructive [dr'strʌktɪv] *a* разрушительный
detail ['di:teɪl] *n* деталь, подробность
detective [dr'tektɪv] *n* детектив; *a* детективный
determination [dr,tə'mɪ'neɪʃn] *n* решимость
determine [dr'tə:mɪn] *v* решиться
determined [dr'tə:mɪnd] *pp* решительный
develop [dr'veləp] *v* развивать
developed [dr'veləpt] *pp* развитый

development [dɪ'veləpmənt] *n* развитие
devil ['devɪl] *n* дьявол
devote [dɪ'vəʊt] *v* посвящать, отдавать себя
devotion [dɪ'vəʊʃn] *n* преданность
diagonal [daɪ'æɡənəl] *a* диагональный
dialect ['daɪələkt] *n* диалект
diary ['daɪəri] *n* дневник
dictate [dɪk'tet] *v* диктовать
dictator [dɪk'tetə] *n* диктатор
dictionary ['dɪkʃənəri] *n* словарь
die [daɪ] *v* умирать
differ ['dɪfə] *v* отличаться
difference ['dɪfərəns] *n* разница, отличие
different ['dɪfərənt] *a* разный, различный, отличающийся (не такой)
difficult ['dɪfɪkəlt] *a* трудный
difficulty ['dɪfɪkəlti] *n* трудность
dig [dɪɡ] (dug, dug) *v* копать
dignity ['dɪɡnɪti] *a* достоинство
diminish [dɪ'mɪnɪʃ] *v* уменьшаться
direction [dɪ'rekʃn] *n* направление
directly [dɪ'rektlɪ] *adv* прямо
director [dɪ'rektə] *n* директор
dirty ['dɜ:tɪ] *a* грязный
disadvantage [ˌdɪsəd'vɑ:ntɪdʒ] *n* невыгодное, неблагоприятное положение
disagree [ˌdɪsə'ɡri:] *v* не соглашаться
disagreement [ˌdɪsə'ɡrɪmənt] *n* разногласия
disappear [ˌdɪsə'piə] *v* исчезать
disappearance [ˌdɪsə'piərəns] *n* исчезновение
disappointed [ˌdɪsə'pɔɪntɪd] *pp* разочарованный
disappointment [ˌdɪsə'pɔɪntmənt] *n* разочарование
disapprove [ˌdɪsə'pru:v] *v* не одобрять
disaster [dɪ'zɑ:stə] *n* бедствие, несчастье
disastrous [dɪ'zɑ:stɹəs] *a* бедственный, губительный
discipline ['dɪsɪplɪn] *n* дисциплина
discontent [ˌdɪskən'tent] *n* неудовлетворённость

discover [dis'kʌvə] *υ* открывать
discovery [dis'kʌvəri] *n* открытие
discuss [dis'kʌs] *υ* обсуждать
discussion [dis'kʌʃn] *n* обсуждение
disease [di'zi:z] *n* болезнь
disgrace [dis'greis] *n* опала
disgraced [dis'greist] *pp* опальный, в опале
dish [diʃ] *n* блюдо
dishonesty [di'sɒnisti] *n* нечестность
dislike [dis'laɪk] *υ* не любить
dismiss [dis'mɪs] *υ* распускать
disobedience [ˌdisə'bi:djəns] *n* непослушание
disobey [ˌdisə'bei] *υ* не слушаться
dissatisfied [ˌdis'sætɪsfaid] *pp* неудовлетворённый
dissolve [dis'sɒlv] *υ* растворять
distance ['dɪstəns] *n* расстояние
distinct [dis'tɪŋkt] *a* отчётливый
distinguish [dis'tɪŋwɪʃ] *υ* отличать, различать
district ['dɪstrɪkt] *a* район
disturbing [dis'tɜ:bɪŋ] *a* тревожный
ditch [dɪtʃ] *n* канава, ров
divide [di'vaɪd] *υ* делить
divine [di'vaɪn] *a* божественный
division [di'vɪʒn] *n* деление, отделение
divorce [di'vɔ:s] *n* развод; *υ* разводиться
document ['dɒkjumənt] *n* документ
dogma ['dɒgmə] *n* догма
domestic [də'mestɪk] *a* домашний
dominate ['dɒmɪneɪt] *υ* доминировать
dominion [də'mɪnjən] *n* доминион (зависимая от чего-либо или кого-либо территория)
double [dʌbl] *a* двойной; *υ* удваивать
doubt [daʊt] *υ* сомневаться; *n* сомнение
downstairs ['daʊnstəʊz] *adv* вниз, внизу
drain [dreɪn] *n* водосток, канализация
drainpipe ['dreɪnpaɪp] *n* водосточная труба
drank [dræŋk] *см.* drink

draw [drɔ:] (drew, drawn) *υ* тянуть, притягивать, рисовать, чертить
drawback ['drɔ:bæk] *n* недостаток
drawbridge ['drɔ:brɪdʒ] *n* подъёмный мост
drawn [drɔ:n] *см.* draw
dress [dres] *n* платье; *υ* одеваться
dressmaker ['dresmeɪkə] *n* портниха
drew [dru:] *см.* draw
drink [drɪŋk] (drank, drunk) *υ* пить
drive [draɪv] (drove, driven) *υ* гнать, погонять, вести машину
driven [drɪvɪn] *см.* drive
drop [drɒp] *υ* капать
drove [draʊv] *см.* drive
drug [drʌg] *n* наркотик
drug taker ['teɪkə] наркоман
drum [drʌm] *n* барабан
drunk [drʌŋk] *см.* drink
dry [draɪ] *a* сухой
due to ['dju:tə] из-за
dug [dʌg] *см.* dig
duke [dju:k] *n* герцог
duty ['dju:tɪ] *n* долг, обязанность
dynasty ['dɪnəstɪ] *n* династия

Е

earl [ɜ:l] *n* граф
earn [ɜ:n] *υ* зарабатывать
earth [ɜ:θ] *n* земля
earthen ['ɜ:θən] *a* земляной
earthenware ['ɜ:θənweə] *n* фаянс, керамика
easily ['i:zɪli] *adv* легко
east [i:st] *n* восток
eastern ['i:stən] *a* восточный
eastward ['i:stwəd] *adv* к востоку
easy ['i:zi] *a* лёгкий

eclipse ['eɪklɪps] *n* затмение
economic [ˌɪkə'nɒmɪk] *a* экономический
economically [ˌɪkə'nɒmɪkəlɪ] *adv* экономически
economist ['ɪkənəmɪst] *n* экономист
economy ['ɪkənəmi] *n* экономика
edit ['edit] *v* редактировать
educate ['edʒukeɪt] *v* обучать, давать образование
educated ['edʒukeɪtɪd] *pp* образованный
education [ˌedʒu'keɪʃn] *n* образование
effectively [ɪ'fektɪvli] *adv* эффективно
efficient [ɪ'fɪʃənt] *a* эффективный
effort ['efət] *n* усилие
egg [eg] *n* яйцо
elect [ɪ'lekt] *v* выбирать
election [ɪ'lekʃn] *n* выборы
electron [ɪ'lektrən] *n* электрон
electronic [ˌɪlek'trɒnɪk] *a* электронный
electronics [ˌɪlek'trɒnɪks] *n* электроника
elementary [ˌelɪ'mentəri] *a* элементарный
elk [ɛlk] *n* лось
elm [ɛlm] *n* вяз
embassy ['embəsi] *n* посольство
embrace [ɪm'breɪs] *v* охватывать
emerge [ɪ'mə:dʒ] *v* возникать
emigrant ['emɪgrənt] *n* эмигрант
emigration [ˌemɪ'greɪʃn] *n* эмиграция
emotional [ɪ'məʊʃnəl] *a* эмоциональный
emphasis ['emfəsis] *n* ударение, упор
empire ['empaɪə] *n* империя
employ [ɪm'plɔɪ] *v* нанимать, давать работу
employer [ɪm'plɔɪə] *n* наниматель, работодатель
empty ['emptɪ] *a* пустой; *v* впадать (о реке)
enclose [ɪn'klaʊz] *v* огораживать, обносить изгородью
enclosures [ɪn'klaʊzəz] *n* огораживание
encourage [ɪn'kʌrɪdʒ] *v* поощрять
end [end] *n* конец

endanger [ɪn'deɪndʒə] *v* подвергать опасности
endlessly ['endlɪslɪ] *adv* бесконечно
enemy ['enɪmɪ] *n* враг
energetic [ˌenə'dʒetɪk] *a* энергичный
engage [ɪn'geɪdʒ] *v* нанимать, занимать
engaged [ɪn'geɪdʒd] *pp*: be engaged быть занятым
engine ['endʒɪn] *n* мотор
enjoy [ɪn'jɔɪ] *v* наслаждаться
enlarge [ɪn'la:dʒ] *v* увеличивать
enlighten [ɪn'laɪtən] *v* просвещать
enlightenment [ɪn'laɪtənmənt] *n* просвещение
enlist [ɪn'list] *v* поступать на военную службу
enormous [ɪ'nɔ:məs] *a* огромный
enormously [ɪ'nɔ:məsli] *adv* чрезвычайно
enough [ɪ'nʌf] *adv* довольно
ensure [ɪn'ʃʊə] *v* обеспечивать
enter ['entə] *v* вступать, поступать
entertain [ˌentə'teɪn] *v* развлекать
entertainment [ˌentə'teɪnmənt] *n* развлечение
enthusiastically [en.θʤu:zɪ'æstɪkəli] *adv* с энтузиазмом
entire [ɪn'taɪə] *a* весь, целый
entirely [ɪn'taɪəli] *adv* полностью
entrance ['entrəns] *n* вход
entry ['entri] *n* запись
envy ['envɪ] *n* зависть; *v* завидовать
epidemic [ˌepɪ'demɪk] *n* эпидемия
epoch ['i:pək] *n* эпоха
equal ['i:kwəl] *a* равный
equality [i:'kwɒlɪti] *n* равенство
equally ['i:kwəli] *adv* на равных правах
equatorial [ˌekwə'tɔ:riəl] *a* экваториальный
equipment ['kwi:pmənt] *n* оборудование
era ['ɪərə] *n* эра
erect ['ɪrekt] *v* воздвигать
escape ['ɪskeɪp] *n* побег; *v* бежать, спастись
especially [ɪ'speʃəli] *adv* особенно

essence ['esəns] *n* сущность
essentially [ɪ'senʃəli] *adv* в основном, в сущности
establish [ɪ'stæblɪʃ] *v* устанавливать, основывать
established order [ɪ'stæblɪʃt'ɔ:də] установленный порядок
estate [ɪ'steɪt] *n* поместье
estuary ['estjuəri] *n* эстуарий
eternal [ɪ'tə:nəl] *a* вечный
eve [i:v] *n* канун
event [ɪ'vent] *n* событие
eventually [ɪ'ventʃuəli] *adv* в конце концов
evident ['evidənt] *a* очевидный
evil ['i:vəl] *n* зло
evolution [ˌevə'lu:ʃn] *n* эволюция
exactly [ɪg'zæktli] *adv* точно
example [ɪg'zɑ:mpl] *n* пример
exceed [ɪ'ksi:d] *v* превосходить
excellent ['eksələnt] *a* отличный
excellently ['eksələntli] *adv* отлично
except [ɪk'sept] *adv* кроме
exception [ɪk'sepʃn] *n* исключение
exchange [ɪks'tʃeɪndʒ] *n* биржа; *v* обменивать
exciting [ɪk'saɪtɪŋ] *a* захватывающий
exclaim [ɪks'kleɪm] *v* восклицать
excuse [ɪks'kju:z] *v* извинять
execute ['eksəkju:t] *v* казнить
execution ['eksəkju:ʃn] *n* казнь
executive [ɪg'zekjutɪv] *a* исполнительный
executive body исполнительный орган
exhibit [ɪ'gzɪbɪt] *n* экспонат
exhibition [ˌeksɪ'brɪʃn] *n* выставка
exile ['eksail] *n* ссылка, изгнание
exist [ɪ'gzɪst] *v* существовать
existence [ɪ'gzɪstəns] *n* существование
expand [ɪks'pænd] *v* расширяться
expansion [ɪks'pænsɪn] *n* распространение, экспансия

expect [ɪks'pekt] *v* ожидать, рассчитывать
expensive [ɪks'pensɪv] *a* дорогой
experience [ɪks'pɪəriəns] *n* опыт
experiment [ɪks'perɪmənt] *n* эксперимент
experimentation [ɪks,perɪmənt'eɪʃn] *n* эксперимен-
 тирование
explain [ɪks'pleɪn] *v* объяснять
explanation [ˌeksplə'neɪʃn] *n* объяснение
explode [ɪks'pləʊd] *v* взрываться
explore [ɪks'plɔ:] *v* исследовать
explorer [ɪks'plɔ:rə] *n* исследователь
export ['eksɜ:t] *n* экспорт; *v* экспортировать, вывозить
exporter [eks'pɔ:tə] *n* экспортёр
express [ɪks'pres] *v* выражать
extend [ɪks'tend] *v* расширяться, простираться
extent [ɪks'tent] *n*: to some extent до некоторой степени
extension [ɪks'tenʃn] *n* расширение, распространение
extinct [ɪks'tɪŋkt] *a* вымерший
extra ['ekstrə] *a* дополнительный
extraordinary [ɪks'trɔ:dɪnəri] *a* чрезвычайный
extremely [ɪks'tri:mli] *adv* очень, исключительно
eye [aɪ] *n* глаз

F

façade [fə'sa:d] *n* фасад
face [feɪs] *n* лицо; *v* встречаться
factor ['fæktə] *n* фактор
factory ['fæktəri] *n* фабрика
faculty ['fækəlti] *n* факультет
fail [feɪl] потерпеть неудачу
fair [feə] *a* прекрасный, справедливый; *n* ярмарка
fairly ['fæəli] *adv* прекрасно, справедливо
fairness ['fɛənis] *n* справедливость
faith ['feɪθ] *n* вера
faithfully ['feɪθfʊli] *adv* верно, преданно
fall [fɔ:l] (fell, fallen) *v* падать

fall ill заболеть
fallen [fɔːln] *см. fall*
fame [feɪm] *п известность*
famine ['fæmɪn] *п голод*
famous ['feɪməs] *а известный*
fancy clothes ['fænsɪ'kloʊðz] маскарадный костюм
farm [fɑːm] *п ферма; v заниматься сельским хозяйством*
farmer ['fɑːmə] *п крестьянин, фермер*
farmhouse ['fɑːmhaʊs] *п фермерский дом*
farming land ['fɑːmɪŋ'lænd] культивируемая земля
 (земля которую обрабатывают)
farmland ['fɑːmlænd] *п обрабатываемая земля*
fashion [fæʃn] *п мода*
fashionable ['fæʃnəbl] *а модный*
fast [fɑːst] *а быстрый*
fasten [fɑːsn] *в прикреплять*
fatal [feɪtl] *а фатальный*
favour ['feɪvə] *п: in favour of в пользу*
favourite ['feɪvərɪt] *а любимый*
fear [fiə] *п страх; в бояться*
fearless ['fiəlis] *а бесстрашный*
feast [fiːst] *п пир*
feature ['fi:tʃə] *п черта*
fed [fed] *см. feed*
feed [fi:d] (fed, fed) *в кормить*
feel [fi:l] (felt, felt) *в чувствовать*
feeling ['fi:lɪŋ] *п чувство*
feet [fi:t] *см. foot*
fell [fel] *см. fall*
felt [felt] *см. feel*
fence [fens] *п забор*
feudal ['fjuːdəl] *а феодальный*
feudalism ['fjuːdəlɪzəm] *п феодализм*
field [fi:ld] *п поле*
fierce [fiəs] *а свирепый*
fiercely ['fiəsli] *adv свирепо*

fight [faɪt] (fought, fought) *υ* бороться, драться

fight off отбивать

fight [faɪt] *n* борьба

fighter ['faɪtə] *n* борец

figure ['fɪɡə] *n* фигура, цифра

fill [fɪl] *υ* наполнять

filling ['fɪlɪŋ] *n* начинка

finally ['faɪnəli] *adv* в конце

finance [faɪ'næns] *n* финансы; *υ* финансировать

financial [faɪ'nænʃl] *a* финансовый

financially [faɪ'nænʃli] *adv* в финансовом отношении

financier [faɪ'nænʃiə] *n* финансист

find [faɪnd] (found, found) *υ* находить

fine [faɪn] *a* чудесный; *υ* штраф

finger ['fɪŋɡə] *n* палец

fiord [fjɔ:d] *n* фиорд

fire [faɪə] *n* огонь; *υ* стрелять

open fire открыть огонь

fireworks ['faɪəwɜ:ks] *a* фейерверк

firmly ['fɜ:mlɪ] *adv* твёрдо

fisher ['fɪʃə] *n* рыболов

fit [fɪt] (fit, fit) *υ* подходить, годиться, быть впору

fixed [fɪkst] *pp* установленный, закреплённый

fixed price [praɪs] твёрдая цена

flat [flæt] *a* плоский

flattened [flætnd] *pp* выровненный

fled [fled] *см.* flee

flee [fli:] (fled, fled) *υ* бежать, спастись бегством

fleet [fli:t] *n* флот

flew [flu:] *см.* fly

floor [flɔ:] *n* пол, этаж

flow [flou] *υ* течь

flower [flauə] *n* цветок

flown [floun] *см.* fly

fluently ['fluəntli] *adv* бегло

fly [flai] (flew, flown) *υ* летать

fog [fɒg] *n* туман
folklore ['fouklɔ:] *n* фольклор
folk music ['fouk'mju:zɪk] народная музыка
follow ['fɒləʊ] *v* следовать за
follower ['fɒləʊə] *n* последователь
following ['fɒləʊɪŋ] *a* следующий
fond [fɒnd] *a*: be fond of любить
food [fu:d] *n* пища
foodstuffs ['fu:dstʌfs] *n* продукты питания
foot [fu:t] (*мн. ч.* feet) нога, фут
 on foot пешком
forbade [fə'beɪd] *см.* forbid
forbid [fə'bɪd] (forbade, forbidden) *v* запрещать
forbidden [fə'bɪdn] *см.* forbid
force [fɔ:s] *n* сила; *v* заставлять силой
foreign ['fɔ:ɪn] *a* иностранный
foreigner ['fɔ:ɪnə] *n* иностранец
forest ['fɔ:rɪst] *n* лес
forgave [fə'geɪv] *см.* forgive
forget [fə'get] (forgot, forgotten) *v* забывать
forgive [fə'gɪv] (forgave, forgiven) *v* прощать
forgiven [fə'gɪvn] *см.* forgive
forgot [fə'gɒt] *см.* forget
forgotten [fə'gɒtn] *см.* forget
fork [fɔ:k] *n* вилка
form [fɔ:m] *v* формировать
formal ['fɔ:məl] *a* формальный, официальный
formation [fɔ:'meɪʃn] *n* образование
former ['fɔ:mə] *a* бывший
formerly ['fɔ:məli] *adv* прежде
formulate ['fɔ:mjuleɪt] *v* сформулировать
fort [fɔ:t] *n* форт
fortification [fɔ:tɪfɪ'keɪʃn] *n* укрепленный пункт
fortified ['fɔ:tɪfaɪd] *pp* укрепленный
fortify ['fɔ:tɪfaɪ] *v* укреплять
fortress ['fɔ:trɪs] *n* крепость

fortunate ['fɔ:tʃənɪt] *a* удачливый, везучий
forwards ['fɔ:wədz] *adv* вперёд
fought [fɔ:t] *см.* fight
found [faund] *см.* find
found [faund] *v* основывать
foundation [faun'deɪʃn] *n* основание, фундамент
founder ['faundə] *n* основатель
fox [fɒks] *n* лиса
free [fri:] *a* свободный; *v* освобождать
freedom ['fri:dəm] *n* свобода
freely ['fri:lɪ] *adv* свободно
freeman ['fri:mæn] *n* свободный человек
freeze [fri:z] (froze, frozen) *v* замерзать
frequent ['fri:kwənt] *a* частый
frequently ['fri:kwəntli] *adv* часто
fresh [freʃ] *a* свежий
friar [fraɪə] *n* нищенствующий монах
friendly ['frendli] *a* дружеский, дружелюбный
friendship ['frendʃɪp] *n* дружба
frightened ['fraɪtənd] *pp* испуганный
frontier ['frʌntɪə] *n* граница, приграничные районы
froze [frouz] *см.* freeze
frozen [frouzn] *см.* freeze
fruit [fru:t] *n* фрукт
fuel [fjuəl] *n* горючее
fulfil [ful'fɪl] *v* выполнять
full [ful] *a* полный
function ['fʌŋkʃn] *n* функция; *v* функционировать
fundamental [ˌfʌndə'mentl] *a* фундаментальный, ос-
 новной
funeral ['fju:nərəl] *n* похороны
fur [fə:] *n* мех
furniture ['fɜ:nɪtʃə] *n* мебель
future ['fju:tʃə] *a* будущий

G

- gain** [geɪn] *n* выигрыш; *v* выигрывать
gallery ['gæləri] *n* галерея
game [geɪm] *n* игра
garden [gɑ:dn] *n* сад
garland ['gɑ:lənd] *n* гирлянда
gas [gæs] *n* газ
gate [geɪt] *n* ворота
gateway ['geɪtweɪ] *n* ворота
gather ['gæðə] *v* собирать
general ['dʒenərəl] *n* генерал, а общий, всеобщий
generate ['dʒenəreɪt] *v* генерировать, вырабатывать
generation [ˌdʒenə'reɪʃn] *n* поколение
gentle [dʒentl] *a* ласковый, мягкий, пологий (о склоне)
gentry ['dʒentri] *n* мелкопоместное дворянство
geographical [ˌdʒɪə'græfɪkl] *a* географический
geographically [ˌdʒɪə'græfɪklɪ] *adv* географически
geometry [dʒɪ'ɒmɪtri] *a* геометрия
get [get] (got, got) *v* доставать, получать, попадать
get rid of ['get'ɪd əv] избавиться от
ghost [gəʊst] *n* призрак
giant [dʒaɪənt] *a* огромный, гигантский
gift [ɡɪft] *n* дар
gilded ['ɡɪldɪd] *pp* позолоченный
glacier ['glæsjə] *n* ледник
glamorous ['glæməərəs] *a* шикарный
glamour ['glæmə] *n* блеск, очарование, волшебство
glass [glɑ:s] *n* стекло, стакан
glorious ['glɔ:riəs] *a* славный
glory ['glɔ:ri] *n* слава
god [ɡɒd] *n* бог
gold [ɡəʊld] *n* золото
goldsmith ['ɡəʊldsmɪθ] *n* золотых дел мастер
goods [ɡu:dz] *n* товары
goods train товарный поезд
got [ɡɒt] *см.* get

govern ['gʌvən] *v* управлять
governor ['gʌvənə] *n* губернатор
graceful ['greɪsful] *a* изящный
gradually ['grædʒuəli] *adv* постепенно
graduate ['grædʒueɪt] *v* оканчивать (*учебное заведение*)
grand [grænd] *a* величественный
grandson ['grændsʌn] *n* внук
grave [greɪv] *a* мрачный; *n* могила
gravitation [ˌgrævɪ'teɪʃn] *n* гравитация
gravity ['grævɪtɪ] *n* притяжение
gravy ['greɪvɪ] *n* соус
graze [greɪz] *v* пастись
greatly ['greɪtli] *adv* очень, в большой степени
greatness ['greɪtnɪs] *n* величие
greengrocer ['griːnˌɡrouəsə] *n* зеленщик
greeting ['griːtɪŋ] *n* приветствие
grew [gruː] *см.* grow
grocer ['ɡrouəsə] *n* бакалейщик
group [gruːp] *n* группа
grow [ɡrou] (*grew, grown*) *v* расти, выращивать
grown [ɡroun] *см.* grow
grown-up ['ɡroun'ʌp] *a* взрослый
growth [ɡrouθ] *n* рост
guarantee [ˌɡærən'tiː] *v* гарантировать
guard [ɡɑːd] *n* охрана; *v* охранять
guerrilla [ɡə'rɪlə] *n* партизан
guide [ɡaɪd] *n* гид; *v* вести
guiding principles ['gaɪdɪŋ'prɪnsɪplz] руководящие
 принципы
guild [ɡɪld] *n* гильдия
guilty ['ɡɪltɪ] *a* виноват
guitar [ɡɪ'tɑː] *n* гитара
gun [ɡʌn] *n* пистолет, пушка
gunpowder ['ɡʌnˌpaʊdə] *n* порох
guy [ɡaɪ] *n* парень
gymnasium [dʒɪm'neɪzjəm] *n* гимнастический зал

gymnastics [dʒɪm'næstɪks] *n* гимнастика

Н

hair [hɛə] *n* волосы

haircut ['hɛəkʌt] *n* стрижка

hall [hɔ:l] *n* зал, прихожая

hand-copier ['hænd'kɔpiə] *n* переписчик

handle ['hændl] *v* обращаться

hand-made ['hænd,meɪd] *a* сделанный вручную

handsome ['hændsəm] *a* красивый

handwork ['hændwə:k] *n* ручная работа

handwritten ['hændrɪtn] *a* рукописный

hang [hæŋ] (*hung, hung*) *v* висеть, вешать

happen [hæpən] *v* случаться

happiness ['hæpɪnɪs] *n* счастье

harbour ['hɑ:bə] *n* гавань

hard [hɑ:d] *a* твердый

hard-boiled egg ['hɑ:dbɔɪld'eg] яйцо вкрутую

hard work ['hɑ:d'wə:k] упорная работа

hardworking ['hɑ:d,wə:kɪŋ] *a* трудолюбивый, прилежный

hare [hɛə] *n* заяц

harvest ['hɑ:vɪst] *n* жатва, урожай

hat [hæt] *n* шляпа

hate [heɪt] *v* ненавидеть

hatred ['heitrɪd] *n* ненависть

head [hed] *n* голова; *v* возглавлять

headline ['hedlaɪn] *n* заголовок

health [helθ] *n* здоровье

health care ['helθ,kɛə] здравоохранение

healthy ['helθɪ] *a* здоровый

hear [hiə] (*heard, heard*) *v* слышать

heard [hɜ:d] *см.* hear

heart [hɑ:t] *n* сердце

heat [hi:t] *n* тепло, жара

heating ['hi:tɪŋ] *n* отопление, отопительная система

heaven [hevɪn] *n* небеса
heavily ['hevɪli] *adv* тяжело
heavy ['hevi] *a* тяжёлый
heavy industry ['hevi'ɪndəstri] тяжёлая промышленность
hedge [hedʒ] *n* живая изгородь
hedgehog ['hedʒhɒg] *n* ёж
heel [hi:l] *n* пятка
height [haɪt] *n* высота, рост
heir [ɛə] *n* наследник
heiress ['ɛərɪs] *n* наследница
held [held] *см.* hold
helmet ['helmit] *n* шлем
help [help] *n* помочь; *v* помогать
herd [hə:d] *n* стадо
hereditary [hɪ'redɪtəri] *a* наследственный
herring ['herɪŋ] *n* селёдка
hid [hɪd] *см.* hide
hidden [hɪdn] *см.* hide
hide [haɪd] (*hid, hidden*) *v* прятать
hiding place ['haɪdɪŋ,pleɪs] укрытие
high [haɪ] *a* высокий
higher education ['haɪə,edʒu'keɪʃn] высшее образование
highland ['haɪlənd] *a* высокогорный; *n* высокогорные районы Шотландии
highly ['haɪli] *adv* высоко, в высокой степени
highway ['haɪweɪ] *n* шоссе
hill [hɪl] *n* холм
hill-range ['hɪləreɪndʒ] *n* гряда холмов
hilly ['hɪli] *a* холмистый
hip [hɪp] *n* бедро
hire [haɪə] *v* нанимать
historian [hɪ'stɔ:riən] *n* историк
historically [hɪ'stɔ:ɪkəli] *adv* исторически
history ['hɪstəri] *n* история
hit [hɪt] (*hit, hit*) *v* ударять

hold [hould] (held, held) *υ* держать, проводить
hold back ['hould'bæk] отражать (нападение)
holiday ['hɒlɪdɪ] *n* праздник, каникулы
hollow ['hɒləʊ] *a* пустой; *n* дупло
holy ['həʊli] *a* святой
homeless ['həʊmlɪs] *a* бездомный
honest ['ɒnɪst] *a* честный
honorary ['ɒnərəri] *a* почетный
honour ['ɒnə] *n* честь
hood [hu:d] *n* капюшон
hope [haʊp] *n* надежда; *υ* надеяться
horrible ['hɒrəbl] *a* ужасный
horse [hɔ:s] *n* лошадь
horseback ['hɔ:sbæk]: on horseback верхом
horse-racing ['hɔ:s,reɪsɪŋ] *n* скачки
horserider ['hɔ:s,raɪdə] *n* всадник
hot [hɒt] *a* горячий, жаркий
however [haʊ'evə] *adv* однако же, как бы то ни было
huge [hju:dʒ] *a* огромный
human being ['hju:mən'bi:ɪŋ] *n* человек
humanism ['hjumənɪzəm] *n* гуманизм
humanity [hju'mænɪtɪ] *n* человечество
humid ['hju:mɪd] *a* влажный
humorous ['hjumərəs] *a* юмористический
humour ['hju:mə] *n* юмор
hung [hʌŋ] *см.* hang
hunt [hʌnt] *υ* охотиться; *n* охота
hunter ['hʌntə] *n* охотник
hurry ['hʌrɪ] *υ* спешить
husband ['hʌzbənd] *n* муж
hygiene ['haɪdʒi:n] *n* гигиена
hymn [hɪm] *n* гимн

I

ice [aɪs] *n* лёд
idea [aɪ'diə] *n* идея

ideal [aɪ'diəl] *a* идеальный
illiterate [ɪ'lɪtərɪt] *a* неграмотный
illness ['ɪlnɪs] *n* болезнь
illustrate ['ɪlʌstreɪt] *v* иллюстрировать
image ['ɪmɪdʒ] *n* образ
imitation [ˌɪmɪ'teɪʃn] *n* имитация, подражание
immediately [ɪ'miːdʒətli] *adv* немедленно
immoral [ɪ'mɔərəl] *a* аморальный
immorality [ˌɪmə'rælɪti] *n* аморальность
immortal [ɪ'mɔːtl] *a* бессмертный
import [ɪm'pɔːt] *n* импорт; *v* импортировать, ввозить
importance [ɪm'pɔːtəns] *n* важность
important [ɪm'pɔːtənt] *a* важный
imported [ɪm'pɔːtɪd] *pp* ввозимый
impossible [ɪm'pɔːsɪbl] *a* невозможный
impossibly [ɪm'pɔːsɪbli] *adv* невозможно
impress [ɪm'pres] *v* производить впечатление
imprison [ɪm'prɪzn] *v* заключать в тюрьму
improve [ɪm'pruːv] *v* улучшать
improved [ɪm'pruːvd] *pp* улучшенный
improvement [ɪm'pruːvmənt] *n* улучшение
inclination [ˌɪnklɪ'neɪʃn] *n* склонность
include [ɪn'kluːd] *v* включать
income ['ɪnkəm] *n* доход
increase [ɪn'kriːs] *v* увеличивать
increasingly [ɪn'kriːsɪŋli] *adv* всё больше и больше
indeed [ɪn'diːd] *adv* в самом деле, действительно
indented [ɪn'dentɪd] *pp* изрезан
independence [ˌɪndə'pendəns] *n* независимость
independent [ˌɪndə'pendənt] *a* независимый
independently [ˌɪndə'pendəntli] *adv* независимо
individual [ˌɪndɪ'vɪdʒuəl] *a* индивидуальный; *n* индивид-
 дуум, человек
indivisible [ˌɪndɪ'vɪzɪbl] *a* неделимый
industrial [ɪn'dʌstriəl] *a* промышленный
industrialist [ɪn'dʌstriəlɪst] *n* промышленник

industrialization [ɪnˌdʌstriəlaɪ'zeɪʃn] *n* индустриализация
industrialized [ɪnˌdʌstriəlaɪzd] *pp* промышленный
industry ['ɪndəstri] *n* промышленность
inefficiently [ˌɪnə'fɪʃəntli] *adv* неэффективно, недоста-
точно

infant school ['ɪnfənt'sku:l] школа для самых маленьких
infectious [ɪn'fekʃəs] *a* инфекционный, заразный
inflation [ɪn'fleɪʃn] *n* инфляция
influence ['ɪnfluəns] *n* влияние
influential [ˌɪnflu'enʃəl] *a* влиятельный
information [ˌɪnfə'meɪʃn] *n* информация
inhabit [ɪn'hæbɪt] *v* населять
inhabitant [ɪn'hæbɪtənt] *n* обитатель
inherit [ɪn'herɪt] *v* наследовать
inheritor [ɪn'herɪtə] *n* наследник
initiative [ɪ'nɪʃətɪv] *n* инициатива
injustice [ɪn'dʒʌstɪs] *n* несправедливость
inland ['ɪnlənd] *a* расположенный внутри страны
innovation [ˌɪnə'veɪʃn] *n* нововведение
insist [ɪn'sɪst] *v* настаивать
instability [ˌɪnstə'bɪlɪti] *n* нестабильность, неустой-
чивость

instance ['ɪnstəns]: for instance например
instead of [ɪn'sted əv] вместо
inspire [ɪn'spaɪə] *v* вдохновлять
instruction [ɪn'strʌkʃn] *n* инструкция
instrument ['ɪnstrʊmənt] *n* инструмент
insurance [ɪn'ʃʊərəns] *n* страхование
integral ['ɪntəgrəl] *a* неотъемлемый, существенный
integral part ['ɪntəgrəl'pa:t] неотъемлемая часть
intellectually [ˌɪntə'lektʃuəli] *adv* интеллектуально
intelligent [ɪn'telɪdʒənt] *a* разумный
interfere [ˌɪntə'fɪə] *v* вмешиваться
interference [ˌɪntə'fɪərəns] *n* вмешательство
international [ˌɪntənæʃnəl] *a* международный
interpret [ɪn'tə:prɪt] *v* интерпретировать
interrupt [ˌɪntə'rʌpt] *v* прерывать

introduce [ˌɪntrə'dju:s] *υ* представлять
introduction [ˌɪntrə'dʌkʃn] *n* введение
invade [ɪn'veɪd] *υ* вторгаться, захватывать
invader [ɪn'veɪdə] *n* захватчик
invasion [ɪn'veɪʒn] *n* вторжение
invention [ɪn'venʃn] *n* изобретение
invent [ɪn'vent] *υ* изобретать
invest [ɪn'vest] *υ* вкладывать деньги
invisible [ɪn'vɪzɪbl] *a* невидимый
invite [ɪn'vaɪt] *υ* приглашать
involve [ɪn'vɒlv] *υ* вовлекать
irritation [ˌɪrɪ'teɪʃn] *n* раздражение
iron [aɪən] *n* железо
ironically [aɪ'rɒnɪklɪ] *adv* иронически
island ['aɪlənd] *n* остров
isolated [aɪsə'leɪtɪd] *pp* изолированный

J

jacket ['dʒækɪt] *n* жакет, пиджак
jam [dʒæm] *n* варенье
jeweller ['dʒuələ] *n* ювелир
job [dʒɒb] *n* работа
join [dʒɔɪn] *υ* присоединяться
joint [dʒɔɪnt] *a* объединённый; *n* часть разрубленной туши (нога, лопатка и т. д.)
journey ['dʒə:nɪ] *n* путешествие
judge [dʒʌdʒ] *υ* судить; *n* судья
judicial [dʒu'dɪʃl] *a* судебный
judicial body [dʒu'dɪʃl'bɒdɪ] судебный орган
junior school ['dʒu:nɪə'sku:l] начальная школа
jury ['dʒuəri] *n* присяжные заседатели
just [dʒʌst] *a* справедливый
justify ['dʒʌstɪfaɪ] *υ* оправдывать

K

keen [ki:n] *a* острый, тонкий

keep [ki:p] (kept, kept) *υ* держать, хранить
kept [kept] *см.* keep
key [ki:] *п* ключ
kill [kɪl] *υ* убивать
kind [kaɪnd] *а* добрый; *п* вид, род
king [kɪŋ] *п* король
kingdom ['kɪŋdəm] *п* королевство
knee [ni:] *п* колено
knew [nju:] *см.* know
knife [naɪf] *п* нож
knight [naɪt] *п* рыцарь
know [nou] (knew, known) *υ* знать
knowledge ['nɒlɪdʒ] *п* знание
known [noun] *см.* know

L

labourer ['leɪbərə] *п* работник
lack [læk] *п* нехватка; *υ* иметь недостаточно чего-нибудь
lad [læd] *п* парень
laid [leɪd] *см.* lay
lain [leɪn] *см.* lie
lake [leɪk] *п* озеро
land [lænd] *п* земля; *υ* приставать к берегу
landless ['lændlɪs] *а* не имеющий земли
landlord ['lændlɔ:d] *п* лэндлорд, землевладелец
landowner ['lænd,ounə] *п* землевладелец
landscape ['lændskeɪp] *п* ландшафт
language ['læŋgwɪdʒ] *п* язык
lantern ['læntən] *п* фонарь
last [lɑ:st] *υ* продолжаться
lasting peace ['lɑ:stɪŋ'pi:s] прочный мир
latitude ['lætɪtju:d] *п* широта
laugh [lɑ:f] *υ* смеяться
law [lɔ:] *п* закон, право
lawful ['lɔ:ful] *а* законный

lawyer ['lɔːjə] *n* юрист
lay [leɪ] (laid, laid) *v* класть, возлагать
lay [leɪ] *см.* lie
lay out (*a park*) разбивать (*парк*)
layer ['leɪə] *n* слой
lead [led] *n* свинец
lead [li:d] (led, led) *v* вести
leader ['liːdə] *n* вождь, руководитель
leadership ['liːdəʃɪp] *n* руководство
leading principles ['liːdɪŋ'prɪnsɪplz] руководящие принципы
learn [lə:n] (learnt, learnt) *v* учить, узнавать
learned man ['lə:nɪd'mæn] учёный человек
learnt [lə:nt] *см.* learn
least [li:st]: at least по крайней мере
leather ['leðə] *n* кожа
leave [li:v] (left, left) *v* оставлять, покидать, уезжать
lecture ['lektʃə] *n* лекция; *v* читать лекцию
led [led] *см.* lead
left [left] *см.* leave
left [left] *a* левый
left-wing ['left'wɪŋ] *a* левый (о политическом движении)
legal ['li:gəl] *a* законный
legion ['li:dʒən] *n* легион
legislative ['ledʒɪslətɪv] *a* законодательный
legislature ['ledʒɪslətʃə] *n* законодательство
leisure ['leɪzə] *n* отдых, свободное время
lend [lend] (lent, lent) *v* давать взаймы
length [lenθ] *n* длина
lent [lent] *см.* lend
lesser ['lesə] *a* меньший
level ['levəl] *n* уровень
liberal ['lɪbərəl] *a* либеральный
liberalism ['lɪbərəlɪzəm] *n* либерализм
liberation [lɪbə'reɪʃn] *n* освобождение
liberty ['lɪbəti] *n* свобода

library ['laɪbrəri] *n* библиотека
lie [laɪ] (lay, lain) *v* лежать
life [laɪf] *n* жизнь
lift [lɪft] *n* лифт; *v* поднимать
light [laɪt] *n* свет; *v* освещать
lighting ['laɪtɪŋ] *n* освещение
like [laɪk] *v* любить, нравиться
like [laɪk] *prep* как
likely ['laɪklɪ] *a* похоже
limit ['lɪmɪt] *v* ограничивать
limited ['lɪmɪtɪd] *pp* ограниченный
line [laɪn] *n* линия, строчка
liner ['laɪnə] *n* лайнер
link [lɪŋk] *n* связующее звено
lion cub ['laɪən'kʌb] *n* львёнок
list [lɪst] *n* список
listen [lɪsn] *v* слушать
listener ['lɪsnə] *n* слушатель
literacy ['lɪtərəsɪ] *n* грамотность
literate ['lɪtərɪt] *a* грамотный
literature ['lɪtrətʃə] *n* литература
load [ləʊd] *v* грузить; *n* груз
loaded ['ləʊdɪd] *pp* нагруженный
local ['ləʊkəl] *a* местный
located [lə'keɪtɪd] *pp*: were located были расположены
lock [lɒk] *n* замок; *v* запирать
locksmith ['lɒksmɪθ] *n* слесарь
logic ['lɒdʒɪk] *n* логика
lonely ['ləʊnli] *a* одинокий
long-standing ['lɒŋ'stændɪŋ] *a* давний
look for ['lʊk fɔ:] *v* искать
look after ['lʊk ɑ:ftə] *v* присматривать, ухаживать
loophole ['lu:pəʊl] *n* бойница, амбразура
lose [lu:z] (lost, lost) *v* терять
loss [lɒs] *n* потеря
lost [lɒst] *см.* lose

lot [lɒt]: a lot много
loudly ['laʊdli] *adv* громко
lover ['lʌvə] *n* любитель, возлюбленный
low [lou] *a* низкий
low-cost ['lou'kɒst] *a* дешёвый
lowland ['loulənd] *n* низменность
low-paid ['loupeɪd] *a* низкооплачиваемый
loyalty ['lɔɪəlti] *n* верность, преданность
luckily ['lʌkɪli] *adv* к счастью
lungs [lʌŋz] *n* лёгкие

М

machine [mə'ʃi:n] *n* машина
machinery [mə'ʃi:nəri] *n* машины
made [meɪd] *см.* make
magical ['mædʒɪkəl] *a* волшебный
magnificent [mæg'nɪfɪsnt] *a* великолепный
magnifying glass ['mæɡnɪfaɪŋ'ɡlɑ:s] увеличительное
стекло
main [meɪn] *a* главный
mainly ['meɪnli] *adv* главным образом
maintain [meɪn'teɪn] *v* поддерживать, сохранять,
содержать в хорошем состоянии
maintaining [meɪn'teɪnɪŋ] *n* содержание в хорошем
состоянии
major ['meɪdʒə] *a* главный
majority [mə'dʒɔrɪti] *n* большинство
make sure ['meɪk'ʃʊə] убедиться
make up ['meɪk'ʌp] (made up, made up) *v* составлять
manage ['mænɪdʒ] *v* удаваться
manners ['mænəs] *n* хорошие манеры
mansion ['mænsən] *n* особняк
manufacture [ˌmænju'fæktʃə] *v* производить
manufacturer [ˌmænju'fæktʃərə] *n* производитель
map [mæp] *n* карта
mapmaker ['mæpməɪkə] *n* картограф

march [ma:tʃ] *n* поход; *v* шагать, идти маршем
marijuana [ˌmæriˈhwa:nə] *n* марихуана
marine [məˈri:n] *a* морской
marked [ma:kt] *pp* обозначенный, отмеченный
market ['ma:kit] *n* рынок
marketplace ['ma:kitpleɪs] *n* рынок
marriage ['mæriɪdʒ] *n* супружество, семейная жизнь
married ['mæriɪd] *pp* женат, замужем
marry ['mæri] *v* жениться, выходить замуж
martyr ['ma:tə] *n* мученик
massive ['mæsɪv] *a* массивный
master ['ma:stə] *n* мастер, хозяин; *v* овладеть
masterpiece ['ma:stəpi:s] *n* шедевр
material [məˈtɪəriəl] *n* материал; *a* материальный
mathematics [ˌmæθəˈmætɪks] *n* математика
matter ['mætə] *n* материя
mature [məˈtʃuə] *a* зрелый
maze [meɪz] *n* лабиринт
meadow ['medou] *n* луг
meal [mi:l] *n* еда, прием пищи
mean [mi:n] (meant, meant) *v* иметь в виду, подразумевать
meaning ['mi:nɪŋ] *n* значение
means [mi:nz] *n*: by means of при помощи
meant [ment] *см.* mean
meanwhile ['mi:nwaɪl] *adv* между тем; тем временем
measure ['meɪʒə] *n* мера
meat [mi:t] *n* мясо
medical supplies ['medɪkəl səˈplaɪz] медицинские принадлежности
medicine ['medsɪn] *n* медицина; лекарство
medieval [ˌmediˈi:vəl] *a* средневековый
meet [mi:t] (met, met) *v* встречать
member ['membə] *n* член
memory ['meməri] *n* память
mention ['menʃn] *v* упоминать

merchant ['mætʃənt] *n* купец
merciless ['mɜ:sɪlɪs] *a* безжалостный
merry ['merɪ] *a* веселый
met [met] *см.* meet
metal ['metəl] *n* металл
method ['meθəd] *n* метод
mice [maɪs] *см.* mouse
middle [mɪdl] *n* середина
middle class ['mɪdl'kla:s] средний класс
midnight ['mɪdnait] *n* полночь
might [maɪt] *n* мощь
mighty ['maɪtɪ] *a* мощный
mild [maɪld] *a* мягкий
military ['mɪlɪtəri] *a* военный
milk [mɪlk] *n* молоко
mince pies ['mɪns'paɪz] сладкие пирожки с начинкой
из фруктов
mind [maɪnd] *n* ум
mine [maɪn] *n* шахта; *v* добывать (что-нибудь из-под
земли)
miner ['maɪnə] *n* шахтер
mineral resources ['mɪnərəl rɪ'sɔ:sɪz] полезные иско-
паемые
miniature ['mɪnjətʃə] *n* миниатюра
minimal ['mɪnɪməl] *a* минимальный
minister ['mɪnɪstə] *n* министр
minor ['maɪnə] *a* меньший, малый
minstrel ['mɪnstrel] *n* менестрель
miraculous [mɪ'rækjələs] *a* чудесный
mirror ['mɪrə] *n* зеркало
miserable ['mɪzərəbl] *a* несчастный
misery ['mɪzəri] *n* нищета, несчастье
misfortune [mɪs'fɔ:tʃən] *n* неудача
missionary ['mɪʃnəri] *n* миссионер
mistake [mɪs'teɪk] *n* ошибка
mistletoe ['mɪsltu:] *n* омела

mix with ['miks wið] смешиваться с
mixed forest ['mɪkst'fɔrɪst] смешанный лес
mixture ['mɪkstʃə] *n* смесь
moat [məʊt] *n* ров
modern ['mɒdən] *a* современный
modest ['mɒdɪst] *a* скромный
modification [ˌmɒdɪfɪ'keɪʃn] *n* модификация, видо-
 изменение
moisture ['mɔɪstʃə] *n* влага
mole [məʊl] *n* крот
monarch ['mɒnək] *n* монарх
monarchy ['mɒnəki] *n* монархия
monastery ['mɒnəstəri] *n* монастырь
money ['mʌni] *n* деньги
monk ['mʌŋk] *n* монах
monopoly [mə'nɒpəli] *n* монополия
monument ['mɒnjumənt] *n* памятник
moon [mu:n] *n* луна
moor [muə] *n* пустынная местность поросшая вереском
mor [mɔp] *n* швабра
moral ['mɔrəl] *a* моральный
mortal ['mɔ:təl] *a* смертный
mostly ['məʊstli] *adv* большей частью
motherland ['mʌðələnd] *n* родина
motor-bike ['məʊtəbaɪk] *n* мотоцикл
motor-car ['məʊtəkɑ:] *n* машина
motor-cycle ['məʊtəsaɪkl] *n* мотоцикл
mountain ['maʊntɪn] *n* гора
mountainous ['maʊntɪnəs] *a* гористый
mourn [mɔ:n] *v* оплакивать
mouse [maʊs] (*мн. ч. mice*) мышь
moustache [mə'sta:ʃ] *n* усы
mouth [maʊθ] *n* устье
move [mu:v] *v* двигаться
movement ['mu:vmənt] *n* движение
MP ['em'pi:] член парламента

mud [mʌd] *n* грязь
multiply ['mʌltɪplaɪ] *v* увеличивать
murder ['mɜːdə] *v* убивать; *n* убийство
music ['mjuːzɪk] *n* музыка
musical ['mjuːsɪkl] *n* мюзикл
musician ['mjuːzɪʃn] *n* музыкант
mystery ['mɪstəri] *n* тайна

N

nail [neɪl] *n* гвоздь
narrator [nə'reɪtə] *n* рассказчик
narrow ['nærou] *a* узкий
nation [neiʃn] *n* нация
national ['næʃnəl] *a* национальный
nationalism ['næʃnəlɪzm] *n* национализм
nationalized ['næʃnəlaɪzd] *pp* национализированный
native ['neɪtɪv] *a* родной; *n* коренной житель
natural ['nætʃərəl] *a* естественный
naturally ['nætʃərəli] *adv* естественно
nature ['neɪtʃə] *n* природа
naval ['neɪvəl] *a* военно-морской
navigable ['nævɪgəbl] *a* доступный для навигации
navy ['neɪvi] *n* военно-морской флот
nearby ['niəbaɪ] *adv* поблизости
nearly ['niəli] *adv* почти
necessary ['nesəsəri] *a* необходимый
necklace ['neklɪs] *n* ожерелье
need [niːd] *n* нужда; *v* нуждаться
negative ['negətɪv] *a* отрицательный
neighbour ['neɪbə] *n* сосед
neighbouring ['neɪbəɪŋ] *a* соседский
nephew ['nevjuː] *n* племянник
nest [nest] *n* гнездо; *v* гнездиться, строить гнезда
network ['netwɜːk] *n* сеть
neutral ['njuːtrəl] *a* нейтральный
neutralize ['njuːtrəlaɪz] *v* нейтрализовать

neutron ['nju:trən] *n* нейтрон
newly ['nju:lɪ] *adv* вновь
news [nju:z] *n* новости
nickname ['nikneɪm] *n* прозвище
nightfall ['naɪtɆ:l] *n* наступление ночи
nobility [nou'bilɪtɪ] *n* знать
noble [nəubl] *a* благородный; *n* дворянин
noise [nɔɪz] *n* шум
nonconformist ['nɒnkən'fɔ:mɪst] *a* нонконформистский, раскольнический
non-true to life ['nɒn'tru:tə'laɪf] нереальный, нежизненный
north [nɔ:θ] *n* север
north-western ['nɔ:θ'westən] *a* северо-западный
Northwest ['nɔ:θwest] *a* северо-западный
noticeable ['nəʊtɪsəbl] *a* заметный
novel ['nɒvəl] *n* роман
novelist ['nɒvəlɪst] *n* романист
nowadays ['naʊədeɪz] *adv* в наше время
nuclear ['nju:klɪə] *a* ядерный
number ['nʌmbə] *n* число, номер; *v* насчитывать
numerous ['nju:mərəs] *a* многочисленный
nurse [nɜ:s] *n* няня, медицинская сестра; *v* ухаживать за больными

O

oak [ouk] *n* дуб
oats [aʊts] *n* овес
obedience [ə'bi:djəns] *n* послушание
obey [ə'beɪ] *v* слушаться
observation [ˌɒbzə'veɪʃn] *n* наблюдение
observe [əb'sə:v] *v* наблюдать
observer [əb'sə:və] *n* наблюдатель
obvious [ˌɒvɪəs] *a* очевидный
occupation [ˌɒkjʊ'reɪʃn] *n* занятие, оккупация
occupy ['ɒkjʊpaɪ] *v* занимать, оккупировать

occur [ə'kə:] *v* случаться, происходить
ocean [ouʃn] *n* океан
oceanic climate [ouʃɪ'ænik'klaɪmɪt] океанический
 климат
offend [ə'fend] *v* обижать
offer ['ɒfə] *v* предлагать; *n* предложение
officer ['ɒfɪsə] *n* офицер, чиновник
official [ə'fɪʃəl] *a* официальный; *n* официальное лицо
officially [ə'fɪʃəli] *adv* официально
often [ɒfn] *adv* часто
old-fashioned ['ould'fæʃnd] *a* старомодный
open [oupn] *a* открытый; *v* открывать
open-air ['oupn'ɛə] *a* на открытом воздухе
openly ['oupnli] *adv* открыто
opera ['ɒprə] *n* опера
operation [ˌɒpə'reɪʃn] *n* операция
opinion [ə'pɪnjən] *n* мнение
opium ['oupiəm] *n* опиум
opportunity [ˌɒpə'tju:nɪti] *n* возможность, представившийся случай
oppose [ə'prouz] *v* противостоять
opposed [ə'prouzd]: be opposed to быть против
opposite ['ɒpəzɪt] *a* противоположный
opposition [ˌɒpə'zɪʃn] *n* оппозиция
oppress [ə'pres] *v* притеснять
oppression [ə'preʃn] *n* притеснение
oppressor [ə'presə] *n* угнетатель, притеснитель
orangery ['ɒrɪndʒəri] *n* оранжерея
orchard ['ɔ:tʃəd] *n* фруктовый сад
order ['ɔ:də] *v* приказывать, заказывать; *n* приказ, заказ
 in order для того чтобы
ordinary ['ɔ:dnəri] *a* обычный, обыкновенный
ore [ɔ:] *n* руда
organ ['ɔ:gən] *n* орган
organization [ˌɔ:gənəɪ'zeɪʃn] *n* организация

organize ['ɔ:gənaɪz] *v* организовывать
origin ['ɔrɪdʒɪn] *n* происхождение
original [ə'rɪdʒɪnəl] *a* оригинальный, первоначальный
originally [ə'rɪdʒɪnəli] *adv* оригинально, первоначально
originate [ə'rɪdʒɪneɪt] *v* происходить
orthodox ['ɔ:θədɒks] *a* православный
otherwise ['ʌðəwaɪz] *adv* иначе
otter ['ɒtə] *n* выдра
outbreak ['aʊtbreɪk] *n* вспышка
outlet ['aʊtlet] *n* выход
outnumber [aʊt'nʌmbə] *v* превосходить числом
outpost ['aʊtpəʊst] *n* аванпост
outside ['aʊtsaɪd] *adv* вне, снаружи, наружу
outskirts ['aʊtskə:ts] *n* предместья
outstanding [aʊt'stændɪŋ] *a* выдающийся
oven [ʌvən] *n* духовка
overboard ['əʊvəbɔ:d] *adv* за борт, за бортом
overcrowded [əʊvə'kraʊdɪd] *a* переполненный
overhang [əʊvə'hæŋ] (overhung, overhung) *v* нависать
overhung [əʊvə'hʌŋ] *см.* overhang
overlook [əʊvə'lʊk] *v* выходить окнами на, господствовать над
overnight [əʊvə'nait] *adv* на ночь
overseas [əʊvə'si:z] *a* заморский
overthrew [əʊvə'θru:] *см.* overthrow
overthrow [əʊvə'θrou] (overthrew, overthrown) *v* свергнуть
overthrown [əʊvə'θroun] *см.* overthrow
owing to ['əʊɪŋ tə] благодаря, из-за, вследствие
own [aʊn] *a* собственный; *v* владеть
ownership ['əʊnəʃɪp] *n* владение

Р

pagan ['peɪɡən] *n* язычник
page [peɪdʒ] *n* страница, паж
paid [peɪd] *см.* pay

pain [peɪn] *n* боль
painful ['peɪnfʊl] *a* болезненный
paint [peɪnt] *v* красить, писать красками
painter ['peɪntə] *n* художник
painting ['peɪntɪŋ] *n* живопись, картина
palace ['pælɪs] *n* дворец
paradise ['pærədəɪs] *n* рай
pardon [pɑːdn] *v* прощать; *n* прощение, индульгенция
parents ['peərənts] *n* родители
parish ['pærɪʃ] *n* церковный приход
parliament ['pɑːləmənt] *n* парламент
parliamentarian [ˌpɑːləmənt'etəriən] *a* парламентский
parliamentary monarchy [ˌpɑːlə'mentəri'mɒnəki] парла-
 ментарная монархия
parrot ['pærət] *n* попугай
part [pɑːt] *n* часть; *v* расставаться
particular [pə'tɪkjʊlə] *a* особенный
in particular в особенности
particularly [pə'tɪkjʊləli] *adv* особенно
partly ['pɑːtli] *adv* частично
partner ['pɑːtnə] *n* партнёр
party ['pɑːti] *n* партия
pass [pɑːs] *v* проходить мимо, передавать
pass a bill ['pɑːs ə'bil] принимать законопроект
pass a law ['pɑːs ə'lɔː] принимать закон
passage ['pæsɪdʒ] *n* проход
passenger ['pæsɪndʒə] *n* пассажир
passer-by ['pɑːsə'baɪ] *n* прохожий
passion [pæʃn] *n* страсть
pastime ['pɑːstaim] *n* приятное времяпрепровождение
pasture ['pɑːstʃə] *n* пастбище
patch [pætʃ] *n* заплатка; клочок, небольшой участок
 земли
patron ['peɪtrən] *n* покровитель
pattern ['pætən] *n* узор
pay [peɪ] (paid, paid) *v* платить

payment ['peɪmənt] *n* плата
peace [pi:s] *n* мир
peaceful ['pi:sful] *a* мирный
peak [pi:k] *n* пик, вершина
pear [pɛə] *n* груша
peasant [peznt] *n* крестьянин
peer [piə] *n* пэр
penetrate ['penitreɪt] *v* проникать
peninsula [pə'nɪnsjələ] *n* полуостров
penny [penɪ] *n* пенни
people [pi:pl] люди
per cent [pə'sent] процент
perform [pə'fɔ:m] *v* представлять, ставить спектакль
performance [pə'fɔ:məns] *n* представление, спектакль
period ['piəriəd] *n* период
perish ['periʃ] *v* погибать
permission [pə'mɪʃn] *n* разрешение
persecute ['pə:səkjut] *v* преследовать
person [pə:sn] *n* личность, человек
personal [pə:snəl] *a* личный
persuade [pə'sweɪd] *v* уговорить, убедить
philosopher [fɪ'lɒsəfə] *n* философ
philosophy [fɪ'lɒsəfɪ] *n* философия
physical ['fɪzɪkl] *a* физический
physics ['fɪzɪks] *n* физика
picnic ['pɪknɪk] *n* пикник
picturesque [ˌpɪktʃə'resk] *a* живописный
piece [pi:s] *n* кусок
pierce [piəs] *v* проникать, пронзать
pig [pɪɡ] *n* свинья
pigsty ['pɪgstɑɪ] *n* свинарник
pilgrim ['pɪlɡrɪm] *n* пилигрим
pilgrimage ['pɪlɡrɪmɪdʒ] *n* паломничество
pilot ['paɪlət] *n* пилот, лоцман
pin [pɪn] *n* булавка
pine [paɪn] *n* сосна

pirate ['paɪərɪt] *n* пират
place [pleɪs] *n* место; *v* помещать
plague [pleɪɡ] *n* чума
plain [pleɪn] *n* равнина
planet ['plænɪt] *n* планета
plant [plɑːnt] *n* растение; *v* сажать
plantation [plæn'teɪʃn] *n* плантация
play [pleɪ] *v* играть; *n* пьеса
playwright ['pleɪraɪt] *n* драматург
pleasant [pleznt] *a* приятный
pleasure ['pleʒə] *n* удовольствие
plot [plɒt] *n* замысел (*романа*), заговор
plough [plau] *v* пахать
ploughman ['plaʊmən] *n* пахарь
plum [plʌm] *n* слива
pocket ['rɒkɪt] *n* карман
poet ['pɔɪt] *n* поэт
poetry ['pɔɪtri] *n* поэзия
point [pɔɪnt] *n* место, точка; *v* указывать
pole [pəʊl] *n* шест, полюс
police [pə'liːs] *n* полиция
policy ['pɒlɪsi] *n* политика
political [pə'ltɪkəl] *a* политический
politically [pə'ltɪkəli] *adv* политически
politician [ˌpɒlɪ'tɪʃn] *n* политик
politics ['pɒlɪtɪks] *n* политика
polytheistic [ˌpɒliθi:'ɪstɪk] *a* политеистический,
 верящий во многих богов
poor [puə] *a* бедный
pop culture ['rɒp'kʌltʃə] поп культура
poppy ['rɒpi] *n* мак
popular ['rɒpjulə] *a* популярный
popularity [ˌrɒpjʊ'lærɪti] *n* популярность
population [ˌrɒpjʊ'leɪʃn] *n* население
port [pɔːt] *n* порт
portion [pɔːʃn] *n* порция

portrait ['pɔ:trɪt] *n* портрет
portray [pɔ:'treɪ] *v* изображать
position [pə'zɪʃn] *n* позиция, положение
possession [pə'zeʃn] *n* владение
possessions [pə'zeʃnz] *n* собственность
possibility [ˌpɒsɪ'bɪlɪtɪ] *n* возможность
possible ['pɒsɪbl] *a* возможный
post [pəʊst] *n* пост, почта
postage ['pɒstɪdʒ] *n* почтовые сборы, почтовые расходы
potatoes [pə'tetəʊz] *n* картофель
poverty ['pɒvəti] *n* нищета
power [paʊə] *n* сила, власть
powerful ['paʊəfʊl] *a* сильный, имеющий власть
practical ['præktɪkl] *a* практический
practically ['præktɪklɪ] *adv* практически
practice ['præktɪs] *n* практика; *v* практиковаться
praise [preɪz] *v* хвалить
pray [preɪ] *v* молиться
prayer ['preɪə] *n* молитва
preach [pri:tʃ] *v* проповедовать
predict [pri'dɪkt] *v* предсказывать
predominance [pri'dɒmɪnəns] *n* преобладание
prefer [pri'fə:] *v* предпочитать
prehistoric [ˌprihɪ'stɔ:ɪk] *a* доисторический
prejudice ['predʒədɪs] *n* предрассудок
prepare [pri'reɪ] *v* готовить
presence ['prezəns] *n* присутствие
present ['prezənt] *a* присутствующий, нынешний
present [pri'zent] *v* дарить, предъявлять
present-day ['preznt'deɪ] *a* нынешний, относящийся
 к нашим дням
preserve [pri'zə:v] *v* сохранять
press [pres] *n* пресса
pretext [pri'tekst] *n* предлог
prevail [pri'veɪl] *v* преобладать
prevailing [pri'veɪlɪŋ] *a* преобладающий

prevalence ['prevələns] *n* преобладание
prevent [pri'vent] *v* предотвращать, не давать чему-
нибудь случиться
previously ['pri:viəslɪ] *adv* предварительно
price [praɪs] *n* цена
pride [praɪd] *n* гордость
priest [pri:st] *n* священник
primary ['praɪməɪ] *a* первичный, начальный
primary education ['praɪməɪ,edʒu'keɪʃn] начальное
образование
prime minister ['praɪm'mɪnɪstə] премьер-министр
primitive ['prɪmɪtɪv] *a* примитивный, первобытный
prince [prɪns] *n* принц
princess [prɪn'ses] *n* принцесса
principle ['prɪnsɪpl] *n* принцип
print [prɪnt] *v* печатать
printing ['prɪntɪŋ] *n* книгопечатание
prison [prɪzn] *n* тюрьма
prisoner ['prɪznə] *n* пленник, заключённый в тюрьму
private ['praɪvɪt] *a* частный
privately ['praɪvɪtli] *adv* частным образом
privileged ['prɪvɪlɪdʒd] *pp* привилегированный
prize [praɪz] *n* приз
probably ['prɒbəbli] *adv* вероятно
procedure [prə'si:dʒə] *n* процедура
process ['prəʊses] *n* процесс
procession [prə'seɪʃn] *n* процессия
proclaim [prə'kleɪm] *v* провозглашать
produce [prə'dju:s] *v* производить; *n* продукт
producer [prə'dju:sə] *n* производитель
product ['prɒdəkt] *n* продукт
production [prə'dʌkʃn] *n* производство
profession [prə'feɪʃn] *n* профессия
professional [prə'feɪʃnəl] *a* профессиональный
professor [prə'fesə] *n* профессор
profit ['prɒfɪt] *n* выгода
profitable ['prɒfɪtəbl] *a* выгодный

progressive [prə'gresɪv] *a* прогрессивный
proletariat [ˌprəʊlɪ'tɛəriət] *n* пролетариат
prominent ['prɒmɪnənt] *a* выдающийся
promise ['prɒmɪs] *v* обещать; *n* обещание
promote [prə'maʊt] *v* способствовать, содействовать
pronunciation [prəˌnʌnsɪ'eɪʃn] *n* произношение
proof [pru:f] *n* доказательство
proper ['prɒpə] *a* должный, подобающий
property ['prɒpəti] *n* собственность
propose [prə'pəʊz] *v* предлагать
proprietor [prə'praɪətə] *n* владелец
prosecute ['prɒsɪkjʊ:t] *v* преследовать по закону
prosecution [ˌprɒsɪ'kju:ʃn] *n* судебное преследование
prosperity [prə'sperɪti] *n* процветание
prosperous ['prɒspərəs] *a* процветающий
protect [prə'tekt] *v* охранять
protection [prə'tekʃn] *n* охрана, защита
proud [praʊd] *a* гордый
prove [pru:v] *v* доказывать
provide [prə'vaɪd] *v* снабжать, обеспечивать
province ['prɒvɪns] *n* провинция
psychology [saɪ'kɒlədʒɪ] *n* психология
publication [ˌpʌblɪ'keɪʃn] *n* публикация
publish ['pʌblɪʃ] *v* публиковать
publisher ['pʌblɪʃə] *n* издатель
pudding ['pʊdɪŋ] *n* пудинг
pull [pʊl] *v* тащить
pump [pʌmp] *n* насос
punish ['pʌnɪʃ] *v* наказывать
punishment ['pʌnɪʃmənt] *n* наказание
purely ['pjʊəli] *adv* чисто
purify ['pjʊəɪfaɪ] *v* очищать
Puritanism ['pjʊərɪtənɪzəm] *n* пуританство
purpose ['pɜ:pəs] *n* цель
pursue [pɜ:'sjʊ:] *v* преследовать (цель), заниматься чем-либо

push [puʃ] *v* толкать

push out ['puʃ'aut] выталкивать

put [put] (put, put) *v* класть, ставить

put down ['put'daun] подавлять

put to death ['put tə'deθ] предавать смерти

Q

quality ['kwɒlɪti] *n* качество

quantity ['kwɒntəti] *n* количество

quarrel [kwɔrl] *v* ссориться

quarter ['kwɔ:tə] *n* четверть, квартал

quay [ki:] *n* набережная

queen [kwi:n] *n* королева

quiet [kwaɪət] *a* спокойный, тихий

quietly ['kwaɪətli] *adv* спокойно, тихо

R

rabbit ['ræbit] *n* кролик

race [reis] *n* паса

racial ['reiʃəl] *a* расовый

radical ['rædɪkəl] *a* радикальный

radicalism ['rædɪkəlɪzm] *n* радикализм

radio ['reɪdiəʊ] *n* радио

rage [reɪdʒ] *n* ярость; *v* бушевать

raid [reɪd] *n* налёт; *v* налетать, совершать налёт

railway ['reɪlwei] *n* железная дорога

railway carriage ['reɪlwei'kærɪdʒ] железнодорожный вагон

railway tracks ['reɪlwei'træks] железнодорожные пути

rain [rem] *n* дождь

rainbow ['rembou] *n* радуга

rainfall ['reɪnfɔ:l] *n* осадки

rainy ['reɪni] *a* дождливый

raise [reiz] *v* поднимать

raisins ['reɪzɪnz] *a* изюм

ran [ræn] *см.* run

rang [ræŋ] *см.* ring
range [reɪndʒ] *п* хребет
rapid ['ræpɪd] *а* быстрый
rapidly ['ræpɪdli] *adv* быстро
rare [rɛə] *а* редкий
raspberries ['rɑ:zbɛrɪz] *п* малина
rat [ræt] *п* крыса
rather ['rɑ:ðə] *adv* довольно
rather than ['rɑ:ðə ðən] скорее чем
rationing ['ræʃənɪŋ] *п* распределение, введение норм, рациона
ravine [rə'vi:n] *п* овраг
raw [rɔ:] *а* сырой
ray [reɪ] *п* луч
reach [ri:tʃ] *υ* достигать
readily ['redɪli] *adv* с готовностью
ready ['redɪ] *а* готов
real [riəl] *а* реальный, настоящий
realistically [riə'lɪstɪkəli] *adv* реалистично
realize ['riəlaɪz] *υ* понимать, реализовать
really ['riəli] *adv* действительно
reappear [ˌriə'piə] *υ* вновь появляться
reason [ri:zn] *п* причина, разум
rebel [ri'bel] *υ* восставать
rebel [rebl] *п* повстанец
rebuild [ˌri'bɪld] (rebuilt, rebuilt) *υ* вновь строить, перестраивать
rebuilt [ˌri'bɪlt] *см.* rebuild
recall [ˌri'kɔ:l] *υ* вспоминать
receive [ri'si:v] *υ* получать, принимать
recent [ri:snt] *а* недавний
recite [ri'saɪt] *υ* декламировать
recognition [ˌrekəg'nɪʃn] *п* признание
recognize ['rekəgnaɪz] *υ* узнавать, признавать
reconsider [ˌrɪkən'sɪdə] *υ* пересматривать
reconstruction [ˌrɪkən'strʌkʃn] *п* перестройка, реконструкция

recover [rɪ'kʌvə] *v* поправляться (после болезни)
recovery [rɪ'kʌvəri] *n* поправка (после болезни)
recruit [rɪ'kru:t] *v* набирать (добровольцев в армию)
reduce [rɪ'dju:s] *v* уменьшать
reduction [rɪ'dʌkʃn] *n* уменьшение
refer to [rɪ'fə: tə] *v* ссылаться на, говорить о
reform [rɪ'fɔ:m] *n* реформа; *v* реформировать
reformer [rɪ'fɔ:mə] *n* реформатор
refugee [ˌrefju'dʒi:] *n* беглец, беженец
refuse [rɪ'fju:z] *v* отказываться
regain [rɪ'geɪn] *v* получить обратно, вновь приобрести
regard [rɪ'gɑ:d] *v* рассматривать, считать
regardless of [rɪ'gɑ:dlɪs əv] независимо от
region ['ri:dʒən] *n* район, область
regular ['regjʊlə] *a* регулярный, правильный
regularly ['regjʊləli] *adv* регулярно
reign [reɪn] *v* царствовать; *n* царствование
reinforcement [ˌri:ɪn'fɔ:smənt] *n* подкрепление
reject [rɪ'dʒekt] *v* отказываться
rejoice [rɪ'dʒɔɪs] *v* радоваться
related [rɪ'leɪtɪd]: be related иметь отношение, быть
 родственным
relations [rɪ'leɪʃnz] *n* отношения
relationship [rɪ'leɪʃnʃɪp] *n* отношения
relative ['relətɪv] *n* родственник
relax [rɪ'læks] *v* расслабиться, отдохнуть
relic ['reɪlɪk] *n* реликвия, что-нибудь редкое
relief [rɪ'li:f] *n* облегчение; рельеф
relieve [rɪ'li:v] *v* облегчать
religion [rɪ'lɪdʒən] *n* религия
religious [rɪ'lɪdʒəs] *a* религиозный
reload [rɪ'ləʊd] *v* вновь нагружать
remain [rɪ'meɪn] *v* оставаться
remains [rɪ'meɪnz] *n* остатки
remark [rɪ'mɑ:k] *n* замечание; *v* сделать замечание
remarkable [rɪ'mɑ:kəbl] *a* замечательный

remember [rɪ'membə] *υ* помнить, вспоминать
remembrance [rɪ'membrəns] *n* память, воспоминание
remind [rɪ'maɪnd] *υ* напоминать
remote [rɪ'maʊt] *a* отдалённый
remove [rɪ'mu:v] *υ* убирать
renaissance [rɪ'neɪsəns] *n* ренессанс
renewal [rɪ'njuəl] *n* обновление
rent [rent] *n* рента; *υ* брать напрокат, снимать
 (квартиру)
reorganize [rɪ'ɔ:gənaɪz] *υ* реорганизовать
repair [rɪ'pɛə] *υ* чинить, ремонтировать
replace [rɪ'pleɪs] *υ* перемещать, заменять
reply [rɪ'plaɪ] *n* ответ; *υ* отвечать
report [rɪ'pɔ:t] *n* доклад; *υ* докладывать, сообщать
reporter [rɪ'pɔ:tə] *n* репортёр
reporting [rɪ'pɔ:tɪŋ] *n* занятия репортёрским делом
represent [ˌreprɪ'zent] *υ* представлять, быть представи-
 телем
representation [ˌreprɪzən'teɪʃn] *n* представительство
representative [ˌreprɪ'zentətɪv] *n* представитель
reptile ['reptail] *n* рептилия, пресмыкающееся
republic [rɪ'pʌblɪk] *n* республика
republican [rɪ'pʌblɪkən] *a* республиканский
reputation [ˌrepju'teɪʃn] *n* репутация
rescue ['reskju:] *υ* спасать; *n* спасение
research [rɪ'sə:tʃ] *υ* исследовать; *n* исследование
residence ['rezɪdəns] *n* резиденция
resign [rɪ'zaɪn] *υ* уходить в отставку
resignation [ˌrezɪg'neɪʃn] *n* уход в отставку
resistance [rɪ'zɪstəns] *n* сопротивление
resort [rɪ'zɔ:t] *n* курорт
respect [rɪ'spekt] *n* уважение; *υ* уважать
respected [rɪ'spektɪd] *pp* уважаемый
responsibility [rɪs'pɒnsɪ'bɪlɪtɪ] *n* ответственность
responsible [rɪs'pɒnsɪbl] *a* ответственный
rest [rest] *n* отдых

the rest *остальное, остальные*
restaurant ['restɒrən] *n* ресторан
restoration [,restə'reiʃn] *n* реставрация, восстановление
restore [rɪ'stɔ:] *v* восстанавливать
restriction [rɪ'strɪkʃn] *n* ограничение
result [rɪ'zʌlt] *n* результат; *v* иметь результатом
retain [rɪ'teɪn] *v* сохранять, удерживать
retire [rɪ'taɪə] *v* удалиться от дел
retreat [rɪ'tri:t] *v* отступать; *n* отступление
return [rɪ'tɜ:n] *n*: in return взамен
reunion [rɪ'ju:niən] *n* воссоединение
revenge [rɪ'vendʒ] *n* месть
reverse [rɪ'vɜ:s] *v* перевернуть
revive [rɪ'vaɪv] *v* оживить, вернуть к жизни
revolt [rɪ'vəʊlt] *v* восстать; *n* восстание
revolution [,revə'lʊ:ʃn] *n* революция
revolutionary [,revə'lʊ:ʃnəri] *a* революционный; *n* революционер
revolutionize [,revə'lʊ:ʃnaɪz] *v* революционизировать
revolve [rɪ'vəʊlv] *v* вращаться
reward [rɪ'wɔ:d] *n* награда
ribbon ['rɪbən] *n* лента
rich [rɪtʃ] *a* богатый
ridden [rɪdn] *см.* ride
ride [raɪd] (rode, ridden) *v* ехать, ехать верхом
ridge [rɪdʒ] *n* кряж, хребет
right [raɪt] *a* правый; *n* право
rightly ['raɪtli] *adv* правильно, по праву
right-wing ['raɪt'wɪŋ] *a* правый (о политическом движении)
ring [rɪŋ] (rang, rung) *v* звонить
riot ['raɪət] *n* бунт
rioter ['raɪətə] *n* бунтовщик
rise [raɪz] (rose, risen) *v* подниматься
risen [rɪzn] *см.* rise

risk [risk] *n* риск
rival ['raɪvəl] *n* соперник
rivalry ['raɪvəlɪ] *n* соперничество
river ['rɪvə] *n* река
road [roud] *n* дорога
roast [roust] *v* жарить
rob [rɒb] *v* грабить
robber ['rɒbə] *n* разбойник
robin ['rɒbɪn] *n* малиновка
rock [rɒk] *n* скала
rocky ['rɒki] *a* скалистый
rode [roud] *см.* ride
role [roul] *n* роль
romantic [rə'mæntɪk] *a* романтический
roof [ru:f] *n* крыша
rose [rouz] *см.* rise
rotation [rou'teɪʃn] *n* вращение
rough [ɹʌf] *a* грубый, неровный, неотёсанный
rough weather ['ɹʌfweðə] плохая погода (ветреная, штормовая)
roundabout [ˌraʊndə'baʊt] *n* карусель
route [ru:t] *n* маршрут
row [rou] *v* грести
row [rou] *n* ряд
rowing boat ['rouɪŋ,bout] гребная лодка
royal ['rɔɪəl] *a* королевский
royalty ['rɔɪəltɪ] *n* королевская власть, члены королевской семьи
rubber ['ɹʌbə] *n* резина
rubbish ['ɹʌbɪʃ] *n* мусор
rude [ru:d] *a* грубый
rugby ['ɹʌgbɪ] *n* регби
ruin ['ru:ɪn] *v* разрушать
ruins ['ru:ɪnz] *n* развалины
rule [ru:l] *v* управлять; *n* правление, правило
ruler ['ru:lə] *n* правитель

ruling class ['ru:lɪŋ'kla:s] правящий класс
run [rʌn] (ran, run) *υ* бегать
run races ['rʌn'reɪsɪz] бегать наперегонки
rung [rʌŋ] *см.* ring
rural ['ru:rəl] *а* сельский
rush [rʌʃ] *υ* мчаться
rye [raɪ] *п* рожь

S

sacred ['seɪkrɪd] *а* священный
sacrifice ['sækrɪfaɪs] *п* жертва; *υ* приносить в жертву
saddle [sædl] *п* седло
safe [seɪf] *а* безопасный
safety ['seɪftɪ] *п* безопасность
sail [seɪl] *υ* плавать
sailor ['seɪlə] *п* моряк
saint [seɪnt] *п* святой
sale [seɪl] *п* распродажа
salesman ['seɪlzmən] *п* торговец, продавец
salt [sɔ:lt] *п* соль
salute [sə'lu:t] *υ* отдавать салют
sandals ['sændəlz] *п* сандалии
sandy ['sændɪ] *а* песчаный
sang [sæŋ] *см.* sing
sank [sæŋk] *см.* sink
satirical [sə'tɪrɪkəl] *а* сатирический
satisfied ['sætɪsfaɪd] *pp* удовлетворённый
sauerkraut ['sauəkraut] *п* кислая капуста
save [seɪv] *υ* спасать
save money ['seɪv'mʌni] копить деньги
scale [skeɪl] *п* масштаб
scarce [skɛəs] *а* редкий
scare [skɛə] *υ* пугать
scarlet ['ska:lt] *а* алый
scatter ['skætə] *υ* разбрасывать
scene [si:n] *п* сцена

scenery ['si:nəri] *n* окружающий вид, театральная декорация
scholar ['skɒlə] *n* учёный
science ['saɪəns] *n* наука
scientific [ˌsaɪən'tɪfɪk] *a* научный
scientist ['saɪəntɪst] *n* учёный
scooter ['sku:tə] *n* мотоллер
scrub [skrʌb] *v* скрести
scurvy ['skɜ:vi] *n* цинга
sea [si:] *n* море
seaman ['si:mən] *n* моряк
search [sɜ:tʃ] *n*: in search of в поисках
sea-robber ['si:rɒbə] *n* морской разбойник
seashore ['si:ʃɔ:] *n* морской берег
seat [si:t] *n* место, местопребывание
secondary education ['sekəndəri,edju'keɪʃn] среднее образование
secret ['si:krit] *n* секрет; *a* секретный
sect [sekt] *n* секта
secure [sə'kjʊə] *a* безопасный; *v* обезопасить
seem [si:m] *v* казаться
seize [si:z] *v* схватить
seldom ['seldəm] *adv* редко
selection [si'lekʃn] *n* отбор
self-confident ['self'kɒnfɪdənt] *a* уверенный в себе
self-government ['self'gʌvənmənt] самоуправление
selfishness ['selfɪʃnɪs] *n* эгоизм
self-made man ['selfmeɪd'mæn] человек, добившийся успеха своими собственными силами
self-respect ['self rɪ'spekt] *n* уважение к себе
sell [sel] (sold, sold) *v* продавать
semi-circle ['semi'sə:kl] *n* полукруг
send [send] (sent, sent) *v* посылать
sender ['sendə] *n* тот, кто посылает
senior ['si:nɪə] *a* старший
sense [sens] *n* чувство

sent [sent] *см.* send
sentence ['sentəns] *п* предложение; *в* приговаривать
separate ['sepəreit] *υ* отделять
separate ['seprɪt] *а* отдельный
separated ['sepəreɪtɪd] *pp* отделённый
serf [sə:f] *п* крепостной
serious ['sɪəriəs] *а* серьёзный
seriously ['sɪəriəsli] *adv* серьёзно
serpent ['sə:pənt] *п* змея
servant ['sə:vənt] *п* слуга
serve [sə:v] *υ* служить
service ['sə:vɪs] *п* служба
set [set] (set, set) *υ* устанавливать
set out ['set'aut] отправляться
set up ['set'ʌp] устанавливать
settle [setl] *υ* устраиваться, обосновываться,
 заселять, поселяться
settlement ['setlmənt] *п* посёлок, заселение
settler ['setlə] *п* поселенец
severe [sɪ'viə] *а* свирепый
sewerage ['sjʊərɪdʒ] *п* канализация
shadow ['ʃædou] *п* тень
shake [ʃeɪk] (shook, shaken) *υ* трясти, качать, дрожать
shaken ['ʃeɪkən] *см.* shake
shameful [ʃeɪmful] *а* позорный, постыдный
share [ʃɛə] *υ* делиться; *п* доля
sharp [ʃɑ:p] *а* острый, резкий
shave [ʃeɪv] *υ* бриться
sheep [ʃi:p] *п* овца
sheep-farming ['ʃi:p,fɑ:mɪŋ] *п* овцеводство
sheepskin ['ʃi:pskɪn] *п* овечья шкура
shelter ['ʃeltə] *п* кров; *в* укрываться
shield [ʃi:ld] *п* щит
shift [ʃɪft] *υ* менять, сдвигать
shine [ʃaɪn] (shone, shone) *υ* светить
ship [ʃɪp] *п* корабль; *υ* перевозить

ship-building industry ['ʃɪpbɪldɪŋ'ɪndəstri] кораблестроительная промышленность
shirt [ʃə:t] *n* рубашка
shock [ʃɒk] *n* удар, шок
shocked [ʃɒkt] *pp* шокирован
shocking ['ʃɒkɪŋ] *a* скандальный
shoes [ʃu:z] *n* туфли, ботинки
shoemaker ['ʃu:meɪkə] *n* сапожник
shone [ʃɒn] *см.* shine
shook [ʃuk] *см.* shake
shoot [ʃut] (shot, shot) *v* стрелять
shop [ʃɒp] *n* магазин
shopkeeper ['ʃɒp,ki:pə] *n* продавец, содержатель магазина
shore [ʃɔ:] *n* берег
shorthand ['ʃɔ:θænd] *n* скоропись
shot [ʃɒt] *см.* shoot
shoulder ['ʃouldə] *n* плечо
show [ʃou] (showed, shown) *v* показывать
shown [ʃoun] *см.* show
shrubs [ʃrʌbz] *n* кустарник
sickness ['sɪknɪs] *n* болезнь
side [saɪd] *n* бок, сторона
side by side ['saɪd baɪ'saɪd] бок-о-бок
sigh [saɪ] *v* вздыхать
sight [saɪt] *n* вид, зрение
sightseer ['saɪt,si:ə] *n* тот, кто осматривает достопримечательности
sign [saɪn] *n* подписывать
signal turret ['sɪgnəl'tʌrət] сигнальная башня
significance [sɪg'nɪfɪkəns] *n* значение
silent ['saɪlənt] *a* молчаливый, тихий
silver ['sɪlvə] *n* серебро
similar ['sɪmɪlə] *a* похожий, такой же
similarly ['sɪmɪləli] *adv* похожим образом
simple [sɪmpl] *a* простой

sin [sɪn] *n* грех
since [sɪns] *prep* с
sincerity [sɪn'sɪərɪti] *n* искренность
sinful ['sɪnful] *a* греховный
sing [sɪŋ] (sang, sung) *v* петь
single [sɪŋɡl] *a* единственный, одиночный
sink [sɪŋk] (sank, sunk) *v* тонуть, идти ко дну, погружаться
site [saɪt] *n* место, местонахождение
situated ['sɪtʃuətɪd] *pp* расположен
situation [ˌsɪtʃu'eɪʃn] *n* расположение, ситуация
size [saɪz] *n* размер
sketch [sketʃ] *n* скетч, набросок
skilful ['skɪlful] *a* искусный
skilfully ['skɪlfulɪ] *adv* искусно
skills [skɪlz] *n* навыки, умения
sky [skaɪ] *n* небо
slave [sleɪv] *n* раб
slavery ['sleɪvəri] *n* рабство
sledge [sleɪdʒ] *n* сани
sleeping bag ['sli:pɪŋ,bæɡ] спальный мешок
sleepy ['sli:pɪ] *a* сонный
sleeve [sli:v] *n* рукав
slogan ['sləʊɡən] *n* лозунг
slope [sləʊp] *n* склон
slope down ['sləʊp'daʊn] *v* отлого опускаться
slow [sləʊ] *a* медленный; *v* замедлять
slowness ['sləʊnɪs] *n* медленное движение
slum [slʌm] *n* трущоба
smart [smɑ:t] *a* красивый, умный, сметливый
smell [smel] *n* запах
smelt [smelt] *v* плавить
smoke [sməʊk] *v* курить; *n* дым
smooth [smu:ð] *a* ровный, гладкий
snow [snəʊ] *n* снег
so that ['səʊ ðæt] так что, так чтобы

soap [soup] *n* мыло
so-called ['sou'kɔ:ld] *a* так называемый
social ['souʃəl] *a* социальный
social work ['souʃəl'wɜ:k] общественная работа
society [sə'saɪəti] *n* общество
socks [sɒkʃ] *n* носки
soft [sɒft] *a* мягкий
soil [sɔɪl] *n* почва
solar system ['soulə'sɪstəm] солнечная система
sold [sould] *с.м.* sell
soldier ['souldʒə] *n* солдат
sole [soul] *n* подошва
solitary ['sɒlɪtəri] *a* одинокий
solution [sə'lu:ʃn] *n* решение
solve [sɒlv] *v* решать
son [sʌn] *n* сын
song [sɒŋ] *n* песня
sorrow ['sɒrou] *n* печаль
sound [saund] *n* звук
source [sɔ:s] *n* источник, исток реки
south [sauθ] *n* юг
south-east ['sauθi:st] *n* юго-восток
southern ['sʌðən] *a* южный
southernmost ['sʌðənmoust] *a* самый южный
southwards ['sauθwədʒ] *adv* к югу
south-westerly ['sauθ'westəli] *a* юго-западный
sovereign ['sɒvərən] *n* sovereign
sparsely populated ['spɑ:sli,pɒpju'leɪtɪd] редко населённый
sparrow ['spærrou] *n* воробей
speak [spi:k] (spoke, spoken) *v* разговаривать
speaker ['spi:kə] *n* выступающий, спикер (в парламенте)
spear [spiə] *n* копье
special ['speʃəl] *a* специальный
specialist ['speʃəlɪst] *n* специалист
specialize ['speʃəlaɪz] *v* специализироваться

spectacular [spek'tækjulə] *а* зрелищный
spectator [spek'teɪtə] *п* зритель
speech [spi:tʃ] *п* речь
speed [spi:d] *п* скорость
spell [spel] (spelt, spelt) *υ* правильно писать, говорить
 слово по буквам
spelt [spelt] *см.* spell
spend [spend] (spent, spent) *υ* проводить, тратить
spent [spent] *см.* spend
sphere [sfɪə] *п* сфера
spices ['spaisɪz] *п* пряности
spinner ['spɪnə] *п* прядильщик
spinster ['spɪnstə] *п* старая дева
spirit ['spɪrɪt] *п* дух
spiritual [sprɪ'tɪʃjuəl] *а* духовный
spite [spat]: in spite of несмотря на
splendid ['splendɪd] *а* прекрасный, великолепный
split [splɪt] (split, split) *υ* расщеплять
splitting ['splɪtɪŋ] *п* а расщепление
spoil [spɔɪl] (spoilt, spoilt) *υ* портить
spoilt [spɔɪlt] *см.* spoil
spoke [spouk] *см.* speak
spoken [spoukn] *см.* speak
spoken [spoukn] *pp* разговорный, устный
spoon [spu:n] *п* ложка
spot [spɒt] *п* пятно, место
spread [spred] (spread, spread) *υ* распространять,
 простираться
spread [spred] *п* протяжённость
square [skwɛə] *п* площадь
squire [skwaɪə] *п* сквайр
squirrel ['skwɪrəl] *п* белка
stable [steɪbl] *п* конюшня
staff [stɑ:f] *п* штат, коллектив работников
stage [steɪdʒ] *п* сцена; *υ* ставить на сцене
star [stɑ:] *п* звезда

starling ['sta:lɪŋ] *n* скворец
start [sta:t] *n* старт, начало, отправление
starvation [sta:'veɪʃn] *n* голод
starve [sta:v] *v* голодать
state [steɪt] *v* заявлять; *n* государство
statement ['steɪtmənt] *n* заявление
statesman ['steɪtsmən] государственный деятель
station [steɪʃn] *n* станция
statue ['stætʃu] *n* статуя
status ['steɪtəs] *n* статус
stay [steɪ] *v* оставаться, пребывать
steadily ['steɪdɪli] *adv* прочно, твёрдо, устойчиво
steal [sti:l] (stole, stolen) *v* воровать
steam [sti:m] *n* пар
steam-engine ['sti:m'endʒɪn] *n* паровая машина
steel [sti:l] *n* сталь
steep [sti:p] *a* крутой
steeply ['sti:pli] *adv* круто
step [step] *n* шаг, ступенька
still [stɪl] *a* тихий; *adv* всё ещё
stockings ['stɒkɪŋz] *n* чулки
stole [stoul] *см.* steal
stolen ['stoulən] *см.* steal
stone [stoun] *n* камень
store [stɔ:] *n* склад; *v* запасать, складывать
storm [stɔ:m] *n* буря
stove [stouv] *n* печь
straight [streɪt] *a* прямо
strait [streɪt] *n* пролив
strange [streɪndʒ] *a* странный
strangely ['streɪndʒli] *adv* странно
stranger ['streɪndʒə] *n* незнакомец
strategy ['strætədʒɪ] *n* стратегия
straw [strɔ:] *n* солома
stream [stri:m] *n* поток, ручей
strength [streŋθ] *n* сила

strengthen ['streŋθən] *υ* усиливать
stretch [stretʃ] *υ* простираться, протягиваться
strict [strikt] *a* строгий
strictly ['striktli] *adv* строго
strike [straɪk] (struck, struck) *υ* ударять
strike [straɪk] *n* забастовка
striker ['straɪkə] *n* забастовщик
strong [strɒŋ] *a* сильный
strongly ['strɒŋli] *adv* сильно
struck [strʌk] *см.* strike
structure ['strʌktʃə] *n* структура
struggle [strʌgl] *n* борьба
stubborn ['stʌbəŋ] *a* упрямый, упорный
study ['stʌdi] *υ* изучать
style [stail] *n* стиль
subdivide [ˌsʌbdɪˈvaɪd] *υ* подразделять
subject ['sʌbdʒɪkt] *n* предмет, тема
submarine [ˌsʌbməˈriːn] *n* подводная лодка
submit [səbˈmɪt] *υ* подчиняться
suburb ['sʌbə:b] *n* пригород
suburban [sʌbˈə:bən] *a* пригородный
succeed [səˈksi:d] *υ* преуспевать
success [səˈkses] *n* успех
successful [səˈksesful] *a* успешный
successfully [seˈksesfʊli] *adv* успешно
succession [səˈkseʃn] *n* наследование
successor [səˈkseʃə] *n* последователь, наследник
sudden [sʌdn] *a* внезапный
suffer ['sʌfə] *υ* страдать
sugar ['ʃʊgə] *n* сахар
suggest [səˈdʒest] *υ* предлагать
suit [sju:t] *n* костюм; *υ* подходить
suitable ['sju:təbl] *a* подходящий
sun [sʌn] *n* солнце
sung [sʌŋ] *см.* sing
sunk [sʌŋk] *см.* sink

sunny ['sʌni] *a* солнечный
superintendent [ˌsjupərɪn'tendənt] *n* управляющий, над-
 зиратель
superior [sju'piəriə] *a* высший, превосходящий
supervision [ˌsjupə'viʒn] *n* наблюдение
supplement ['sʌplmənt] *n* дополнение, приложение
supplies [sə'plaiz] *n* запасы, снабжение, припасы
support [sə'pɔ:t] *v* поддерживать
supporter [sə'pɔ:tə] *n* помощник, сторонник
suppress [sə'pres] *v* подавлять
supreme [sju'pri:m] *a* высший
sure [ʃʊə] *a*: be sure быть уверенным
surface ['sɜ:fis] *n* поверхность
surgeon ['sɜ:dʒən] *n* хирург
surprise [sə'praiz] *n* сюрприз, удивление; *v* удивлять
surprised [sə'praizd] *pp* удивлённый
surprisingly [sə'praizɪŋli] *adv* удивительно
surrender [sə'rendə] *v* сдаваться; *n* сдача
surround [sə'raund] *v* окружать
surroundings [sə'raundɪŋz] *n* окружение
survival [sə'vaɪvəl] *n* выживание
surviving [sə'vaɪvɪŋ] *a* оставшийся в живых
swamp [swɒmp] *n* болото
sweep [swi:p] *v* мести, сметать
sweetheart ['swi:tha:t] *n* возлюбленная
swift [swɪft] *a* быстрый
swing [swɪŋ] *n* качели
switch on ['swɪtʃ'ɒn] *v* включать
sword [sɔ:d] *n* шпага, меч
sympathetically [ˌsɪmpə'tetɪkəli] *adv* сочувственно
sympathize ['sɪmpəθaɪz] *v* сочувствовать
synthesizer [ˌsɪnθə'saɪzə] *n* синтезатор
system ['sɪstəm] *n* система

T

tactics ['tæktɪks] *n* тактика

tailor ['teɪlə] *n* портной
take [teɪk] (took, taken) *v* брать
 take care ['teɪk'keə] заботиться
 take off ['teɪk'ɒf] снимать
 take part in ['teɪk'pɑ:t ɪn] принимать участие в
taken [teɪkn] *см.* take
talented ['tæləntɪd] *a* талантливый
tall [tɔ:l] *a* высокий
task [tɑ:sk] *n* задача, задание
taste [teɪst] *v* пробовать; *n* вкус
taught [tɔ:t] *см.* teach
tax [tæks] *n* налог; *v* облагать налогом
taxation [tæks'eɪʃn] *n* налогообложение
teach [ti:tʃ] (taught, taught) *v* учить
teachings ['ti:tʃɪnz] *n* учение
team [ti:m] *n* команда
tea-party ['ti:pa:ti] *n* чаепитие
tear [teə] (tore, torn) *v* рвать
 tear apart ['teər ə'pɑ:t] разорвать на куски
technology [tek'nɒlədʒɪ] *n* технология
teenager ['ti:n,eɪdʒə] *n* тинейджер (мальчик или девочка в возрасте от 13 до 19 лет)
temperate ['temprɪt] *a* умеренный
temperature ['temprɪtʃə] *n* температура
temple [templ] *n* храм
tend [tend] *v* стремиться, иметь тенденцию
tense [tens] *a* напряжённый
tension [tenʃn] *n* напряжение
tent [tent] *n* палатка
term [tə:m] *n* термин
terrible ['terɪbl] *a* ужасный
territory ['terɪtəri] *n* территория
terror ['terə] *n* ужас, террор
test [test] *n* испытание; *v* испытывать
than [ðæn] *adv* чем
theatre ['θiətrə] *n* театр

theme [θi:m] *n* тема
theory ['θiəri] *n* теория
therefore ['ðeəfɔ:] *adv* поэтому
thick [θɪk] *a* толстый, густой
thief [θi:f] *n* вор
thin [θɪn] *a* тонкий, жидкий
think [θɪŋk] (thought, thought) *v* думать
thinker ['θɪŋkə] *n* мыслитель
though [ðəu] *adv* хотя
thought [θɔ:t] *см.* think
thoughtfully ['θɔ:tfʊli] *adv* задумчиво
thoughts [θɔ:ts] *n* мысли, раздумья
threat [θret] *n* угроза
threaten [θretn] *v* угрожать
threw [θru:] *см.* throw
throne [θroun] *n* трон
through [θru:] *prep* сквозь, через
throughout [θru'au] *adv* насквозь, повсеместно
throw [θrou] (threw, thrown) *v* бросать
throw off ['θrou'ɔf] сбрасывать
thrown [θroun] *см.* throw
thunder ['θʌndə] *n* гром
thus [ðʌs] *adv* так, таким образом
tide [taɪd] *n* прилив, отлив
ties [taɪz] *n* связи
tight [taɪt] *a* тесный, плотный
tin [tɪn] *n* олово
tiny ['taɪni] *a* крошечный
tip [tɪp] *n* кончик
tireless ['taɪəlis] *a* неустанный
title [taɪtl] *n* титул, название
toast [təʊst] *n* тост
toga ['təʊgə] *n* тога
tolerance ['tɒlərəns] *n* терпимость
tolerant ['tɒlərənt] *a* терпимый
tomb [tu:m] *n* гробница

took [tuk] *см.* take
tool [tu:l] *н* инструмент
top [tɒp] *н* верх, вершина, верхушка
tore [tɔ:] *см.* tear
torn [tɔ:n] *см.* tear
total [təʊtl] *а* полный, весь
total length ['təʊtl'leŋθ] общая длина
touch [tʌtʃ] *υ* трогать
tour [tuə] *н* тур, поездка
tourist ['tuərist] *н* турист
towards [tə'wɔ:dz] *prep* по направлению к
towel [tauəl] *н* полотенце
tower [tauə] *н* башня
town [taun] *н* город
townsfolk ['taunzfouk] *н* горожане
townspeople ['taunzpi:pl] *н* горожане
trade [treid] *н* торговля, ремесло; *υ* торговать
trade unions ['treid'ju:niənz] профсоюзы
trader ['treidə] *н* торговец
tradesman ['treidzmən] *н* торговец
tradition [trə'diʃn] *н* традиция
traditionally [trə'diʃnəli] *adv* традиционно
traffic ['træfik] *н* дорожное движение
tragic ['trædʒik] *а* трагический
train [trein] *υ* тренировать, обучать
trained [treind] *pp* тренированный, обученный
transform [træns'fɔ:m] *υ* трансформировать
translate [træns'leit] *υ* переводить
translation [træns'leiʃn] *н* перевод
transmit [trænz'mit] *υ* передавать по радио, телевидению
transport ['træns'pɔ:t] *н* транспорт
transport [træns'pɔ:t] *υ* перевозить
trap [træp] *н* ловушка, капкан; *υ* ловить
travel ['trævəl] *υ* путешествовать
traveller ['trævələ] *н* путешественник
treacherously ['tretʃərəsli] *adv* предательски

treason [tri:zn] *n* государственная измена
treasure ['trezə] *n* сокровище
treat [tri:t] *v* обращаться с
treatment ['tri:tmənt] *n* обращение, лечение
treaty ['tri:ti] *n* договор
trench [trentʃ] *n* траншея
trend [trend] *n* направление
trial [traɪəl] *n* суд
triangle ['traɪæŋɡl] *n* треугольник
tribe [traɪb] *n* племя
triumph ['traɪəmf] *n* триумф
triumphant [traɪ'ʌmfənt] *a* победоносный
troops [tru:ps] *n* войска
trouble [trʌbl] *n* беда, хлопоты
trousers ['traʊzəz] *n* брюки
truly ['tru:li] *adv* верно, поистине
trumpeter ['trʌmpɪtə] *n* горнист
try [traɪ] *v* пытаться
tuneless ['tju:nlis] *a* немелодичный
tunic ['tju:nɪk] *n* туника, рубаха
tunnel [tʌnl] *n* туннель
turkey ['tə:kɪ] *n* индейка
turn [tɜ:n] *v* поворачивать; *n* поворот, очередь
 turn down ['tɜ:n'daʊn] отвергнуть
 turn into ['tɜ:nɪntə] превратиться в
turnip ['tɜ:nɪp] *n* репа
tutor ['tju:tə] *n* воспитатель
twice [twais] *adv* дважды
type [taɪp] *n* тип
typical ['tɪpɪkəl] *a* типичный

U

unable [ˌʌn'eɪbl] *a* не в состоянии
uncertainty [ˌʌn'sə:təntɪ] *n* неуверенность
uncle [ʌŋkl] *n* дядя
uncomfortable [ˌʌn'kʌmfətəbl] *a* неудобный

undergo [ˌʌndə'ɡou] (underwent, undergone) *v* подвергаться
undergone [ˌʌndə'ɡɒn] *см.* undergo
undergraduate [ˌʌndə'grædjuit] *n* студент последнего курса
underground railway [ˌʌndə'graund'reilwei] подземная железная дорога
understand [ˌʌndə'stænd] (understood, understood) *v* понимать
understanding [ˌʌndə'stændɪŋ] *n* понимание
understood [ˌʌndə'stu:d] *см.* understand
undertake [ˌʌndə'teɪk] (undertook, undertaken) *v* предпринимать
undertaken [ˌʌndə'teɪkən] *см.* undertake
undertook [ˌʌndə'tuk] *см.* undertake
underwent [ˌʌndə'went] *см.* undergo
uneducated [ˌʌnedʒu'keɪtɪd] *pp* необразованный
unemployed [ˌʌnɪm'plɔɪd] *a* безработный
unemployment [ˌʌnɪm'plɔɪmənt] *n* безработица
unequal [ˌʌn'i:kwəl] *a* неравный
unfair [ˌʌn'feə] *a* несправедливый
unfaithful [ˌʌn'feɪθfʊl] *a* неверный
unfinished [ˌʌn'fɪnɪʃt] *pp* незаконченный
unfortunate [ˌʌn'fɔ:tʃənɪt] *a* неудачливый
unfortunately [ˌʌn'fɔ:tʃənətli] *adv* к несчастью, к сожалению
unfriendly [ˌʌn'frendli] *a* недружелюбный
unhealthy [ˌʌn'helθi] *a* нездоровый
unhappy [ˌʌn'hæpi] *a* несчастный
uniform ['ju:nɪfɔ:m] *n* униформа
unimportant [ˌʌnɪm'pɔ:tənt] *a* неважный
union ['ju:niən] *n* союз
unique [ju:'ni:k] *a* уникальный
unit ['ju:nɪt] *n* единица
unite [ju'nait] *v* объединяться
united [ju'naitɪd] *pp* объединённый

universal [junɪ'vɜ:səl] *a* универсальный, всеобщий
universe ['ju:nɪvɜ:s] *n* вселенная
university [junɪ'vɜ:sɪtɪ] *n* университет
unknown [ˌʌn'nəʊn] *pp* неизвестный
unlike [ˌʌn'lʌk] *conj* непохожий, в отличие от
unmarried [ˌʌn'mærɪd] *pp* неженатый, незамужняя
unpaid [ˌʌn'peɪd] *pp* неоплаченный
unplanned [ˌʌn'plænd] *pp* незапланированный, вне-
 плановый
unpopular [ˌʌn'pɒpjulə] *a* непопулярный
unreal [ˌʌn'riəl] *a* нереальный
unskilful [ˌʌn'skɪlful] *a* неумелый, неквалифици-
 рованный
unsuccessful [ˌʌnsək'sesful] неудачливый, безуспешный
untidy [ˌʌn'taɪdɪ] *a* неопрятный
untouched [ˌʌn'tʌtʃt] *pp* нетронутый
unused [ˌʌn'ju:zd] *pp* неиспользуемый
unusual [ˌʌn'ju:zuəl] *a* необычный
unwillingly [ˌʌn'wɪlɪŋli] *adv* неохотно
unwise [ˌʌn'waɪz] *a* неразумный
upland ['ʌplænd] *n* возвышенность
upper class ['ʌpə'kla:s] высший класс
upright ['ʌpraɪt] *a* вертикальный
uprising [ʌp'raɪzɪŋ] *n* восстание
upstairs ['ʌpstɛəz] *adv* наверху, наверх
upstart ['ʌpstɑ:t] *n* выскочка
upwards ['ʌpwədz] *adv* вверх
urban ['ɜ:bən] *a* городской
use [ju:z] *v* использовать
use [ju:s] *n* польза
useful ['ju:sful] *a* полезный

V

valley ['væli] *n* долина
value ['vælju] *n* ценность
varied ['vɛərɪd] *a* разнообразный

variety [və'raɪəti] *n* разнообразие
various ['vɛəriəs] *a* различный
vassal ['væsəl] *n* вассал
vault [vɔ:lt] *n* свод, склеп
vegetables ['vedʒətəblz] *n* овощи
vegetation [ˌvedʒɪ'teɪʃn] *n* растительность
velvet ['velvət] *n* бархат
verse [vɜ:s] *n* стихи, стихотворение
vertically ['vɜ:tɪkəli] *adv* вертикально
veto ['vi:tou] *n* вето; *v* наложить вето
victorious [vɪk'tɔ:ʃəs] *a* победоносный
victory ['vɪktəri] *n* победа
view [vjʊ:] *n* взгляд, точка зрения
villa ['vɪlə] *n* вилла
village ['vɪlɪdʒ] *n* деревня
villager ['vɪlɪdʒə] *n* деревенский житель
violent ['vaɪələnt] *a* сильный
virtuous ['vɜ:tjuəs] *a* добродетельный
visit ['vɪzɪt] *n* визит; *v* посещать, наносить визит
vivid ['vɪvɪd] *a* яркий
volcanic [vəl'kænɪk] *a* вулканический
volume ['vɔ:lju:m] *n* том
vote [vout] *v* голосовать
voter ['voutə] *n* голосующий
voting ['voutɪŋ] *n* голосование
voyage ['vɔɪdʒ] *n* морское путешествие

W

wage [weɪdʒ] (*a war*) *v* вести (войну)
wages ['weɪdʒɪz] *n* зарплата
waist [weɪst] *n* талия
wandering ['wɒndərɪŋ] *n* скитания
war [wɔ:] *n* война
warehouse ['weəhaʊs] *n* склад
warlike ['wɔ:ləɪk] *a* воинственный
warm [wɔ:m] *a* тёплый

warmth [wɔ:mθ] *n* тепло
warn [wɔ:n] *v* предупреждать
warrior ['wɔ:riə] *n* воин
warship ['wɔ:ʃɪp] *n* военный корабль
wash [wɔ:] *v* мыть(ся)
waste [weist] *v* тратить зря
wastes [weists] *n* отбросы
wasteful ['weistful] *a* расточительный
watch [wɒtʃ] *v* наблюдать, следить
water ['wɔ:tə] *n* вода
waterfall ['wɔ:təfɔ:l] *n* водопад
watermill ['wɔ:təmil] *n* водяная мельница
water supply ['wɔ:tə sə'plai] водопровод
waterway ['wɔ:təwei] *n* водный путь
wave [weɪv] *n* волна
way [wei] *n* путь, способ
weak [wi:k] *a* слабый
weaken ['wi:kən] *v* ослаблять
weakening ['wi:kənɪŋ] *n* ослабление
wealth [welθ] *n* богатство
wealthy ['welθi] *a* богатый, зажиточный
weapon ['wepən] *n* оружие
wear [weə] (wore, worn) *v* носить
wear away ['weər ə'wei] изнашиваться
weasel [wi:zl] *n* горностай
weather ['weðə] *n* погода
weaver ['wi:və] *n* ткач
welcome ['welkəm] *v* приветствовать
well [wel] *n* колодец
well [wel] *adv*: as well as так же как и
well-being ['wel'bi:ɪŋ] *n* благосостояние
west [west] *n* запад
western ['westən] *a* западный
westward ['westwəd] *adv* к западу
wet [wet] *a* мокрый, сырой
wharf [wɔ:f] *n* верфь

wheat [wi:t] *n* пшеница
wheel [wi:l] *n* колесо
whereas ['wɛərəz] *adv* тогда как
wherever ['wɛər'evə] *adv* где бы ни; куда бы ни
whole [houl] *a* весь, целый
wide [waɪd] *a* широкий
widely ['waɪdlɪ] *adv* широко
widespread ['waɪdspred] *a* распространённый
wife [waɪf] *n* жена
wild [waɪld] *a* дикий
will [wɪl] *n* воля
willingly ['wɪlɪŋli] *adv* охотно
win [wɪn] (won, won) *v* выигрывать
wind [wɪnd] *n* ветер
windmill ['wɪndmɪl] *n* ветряная мельница
winner ['wɪnə] *n* победитель
wish [wɪʃ] *v* желать; *n* желание
withdraw [wɪð'drɔ:] (withdrew, withdrawn) *v* вывести,
уводить
withdrawn [wɪð'drɔ:n] *см.* withdraw
withdrew [wɪð'dru:] *см.* withdraw
wolf [wʊlf] *n* волк
won [wʌn] *см.* win
wonder ['wʌndə] *n* чудо
wonderful ['wʌndəfʊl] *a* чудесный
wood [wud] *n* лес, дерево
wooden [wudn] *a* деревянный
woodland ['wudlənd] *n* лесистое место
wool [wu:l] *n* шерсть
woollen ['wu:lən] *a* шерстяной
worn [wɔ:] *см.* wear
workhouse ['wɜ:khaus] *n* работный дом
workshop ['wɜ:kʃɒp] *n* мастерская, цех
world [wɜ:ld] *n* мир
worn [wɔ:n] *см.* wear
worry ['wʌrɪ] *v* беспокоиться, волноваться

worship ['wɜːʃɪp] *υ* поклоняться, отправлять богослужение

worthless ['wɜːθlɪs] *а* никудышный, не имеющий никакой ценности

wound [wuːnd] *п* рана; *υ* ранить

wounded ['wuːndɪd] *pp* раненый

wreath [riːθ] *п* венок

wreck [rek] *υ* разрушать

wrestling ['reslɪŋ] *п* спортивная борьба

written [rɪtɪn] *а* письменный

wrong [rɒŋ] *а* неправильный

Y

yard [jɑːd] *п* двор

youth [juːθ] *п* юность

youthful ['juːθfʊl] *а* юный

Z

zone [zəʊn] *п* зона

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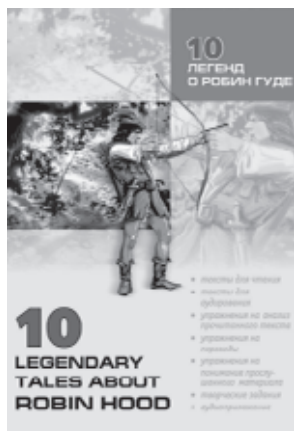
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ЭКЗАМЕН
ПО АНГЛИЙСКОМУ ЯЗЫКУ.
УСТНЫЙ ОТВЕТ — 224 с.**

Книга поможет школьникам, студентам и всем, изучающим английский язык, подготовиться к международным экзаменам, подтверждающим высокий уровень владения английским языком.

В пособии речь идет об одном из самых важных и сложных экзаменационных аспектов — о говорении. Книга состоит из двух разделов. В первом разделе даны сведения о том, что представляет собой устный ответ, и советы, как успешно ответить на вопросы экзаменатора, организовать время, отведенное на ответ, работать с текстом. Второй раздел включает в себя ключи к практическим заданиям, благодаря чему ученики смогут проверить правильность выполнения заданий и оценить уровень своей готовности к экзамену.



10 ЛЕГЕНД О РОБИН ГУДЕ

*Пособие по аналитическому чтению
и аудированию — 176 стр.*

В книгу вошли десять историй о благородном разбойнике Робин Гуде и его друзьях. Истории невероятно увлекательны, забавны и изобилуют интересными подробностями из жизни прославленного героя. Кроме того, истории написаны понятным, простым языком, а упражнения на закрепление новой лексики помогут учащимся запомнить незнакомые слова и выражения.

В книге даны тексты для чтения, анализа и аудирования. Задания к ним очень разнообразны и направлены на развитие навыков детального понимания письменной и устной речи, анализ прочитанного и прослушанного материала, умение грамотно переводить художественный текст. Обилие творческих заданий призвано помочь школьникам преодолеть трудности, возникающие при общении на английском языке, выражать свое мнение, логически мыслить и фантазировать.

Книга предназначена для учеников средней школы. Упражнения и комментарии подготовлены О. В. Акимовой.