

ОМСКАЯ ГУМАНИТАРНАЯ АКАДЕМИЯ

# Лингвострановедение

*Учебное пособие для студентов направления подготовки высшего  
образования – бакалавриата  
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Учебное пособие позволяет познакомиться с основными административными единицами Великобритании. В главах описывается географическое положение, флаги, гербы, символы, а также язык, исторические личности и многое другое.

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## Chapter I.

### THE STATE OF MANY NAMES AND FACES

#### Brainstorm.

*Can you distinguish among The British Isles, The UK, Great Britain, Britain and England?*

#### To be more precise



*The British Isles* is a traditional geographical term used to identify the group of islands off the northwest coast of Europe consisting of Great Britain, Ireland and the many smaller adjacent islands. These islands form an archipelago of more than 6,000 islands off the west coast of Europe – totalling 315,134 km<sup>2</sup> of land. The British Isles consists of the following islands:

- Great Britain (England, Scotland and Wales)
- Northern Ireland (part of the United Kingdom)
- The Isle of Man

An island in the Irish Sea

- **Ireland** (the Republic of Ireland)

A country west of England across the Irish Sea (not part of the United Kingdom)

- **The Orkney and Shetland Islands**

Islands off the northeast coast of Scotland

- **Hebrides** (including the Inner Hebrides, Outer Hebrides and Small Isles) All are islands off the northwest coast of Scotland

- **The Isle of Wight**

An island off the southern coast of England

- **Isles of Scilly**

An island off the southwest coast of England

- **Lundy Island**

An island off the southwest coast of England

- **The Channel Islands**

A group of small islands in the English Channel, off the coast of Normandy, France. The principal islands of the group include **Jersey**, **Guernsey**, **Alderney** and **Sark**.

NB (Underlined belong to the UK)

Great Britain is a group of islands lying off the western coast of Europe, comprising the main territory of the United Kingdom. Great Britain is also used as a political term describing the combination of England, Scotland, and Wales, the three nations which together make up all the main island's territory.

“Great Britain” is also widely used as a synonym for the country properly known as the “United Kingdom”. This is wrong as the United Kingdom includes Northern Ireland in addition to the three countries of Great Britain. Over the centuries, Great Britain has evolved politically from three independent states (England, Scotland, and Wales) through two kingdoms with a shared monarch (England and Scotland), a single all-island Kingdom of Great Britain, to the situation following 1801, in which Great Britain together with the whole island of Ireland constituted the larger United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (UK). The UK then became the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland in the 1920s, when Ireland regained independence.

Sometimes people use the shorten name Britain instead of Great Britain, to mean the same thing, but really Britain only refers to England and Wales. The name Britain goes back to Roman times when they called England and Wales "Britannia" (or "Britannia Major", to distinguish from "Britannia Minor", i.e. Brittany in France). The Roman province of Britannia only covered the areas of modern England and Wales. The area of modern Scotland was never finally conquered.

England is the biggest country in the UK and occupies most of the southern two thirds of Great Britain. The total area of England is 130,410 sq km (50, 352 sq mi).

## **Comprehension**

### **Answer the following questions:**

1. What is Great Britain?
2. Is Britain the same as Great Britain?
3. Which countries are in Great Britain?
4. What is the origin of the word “Britain”?
5. How many “Britains” do you know?
6. Where is the UK?
7. What countries make up the UK?
8. What is the official name of the UK?
9. What is the biggest part of the UK?

10. When did the country get its official name the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland?

### Exercises

**1. Find all geographical names mentioned in the text on the map and discover possible information about these places. Present it like a story, report or project work.**

**2. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text above:**

географический термин

эволюционировать, развиваться

соседние

независимые государства

архипелаг (группа островов)

монарх

прибрежные острова

составлять, образовывать

охватывающий

обретать снова; восстанавливать

правильно именуемый

сокращенное название

включать в себя

уходить корнями

в течение столетий

различать, распознавать

## Chapter II.

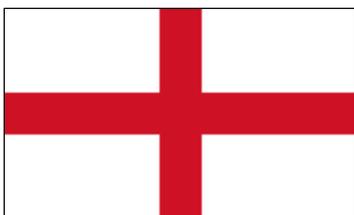
### MERRY OLD ENGLAND

#### The symbols

##### Brainstorm.

*Think of the United Kingdom. Write down four words you associate the UK with. Compare your list with your group mates' ones.*

The **national symbols of England** are flags, icons or cultural expressions that are emblematic, representative or otherwise characteristic of England or English culture. As a rule, these national symbols are cultural icons that have emerged out of English folklore and tradition, meaning few have any official status. However, most if not all maintain recognition at a national or international level, and some, such as the Royal Arms of England, have been codified in heraldry, and are established, official and recognised symbols of England.



The **Flag of England** is the St George's Cross. The red cross appeared as an emblem of England during the Middle Ages and the Crusades and is one of the earliest known emblems representing England.

It achieved status as the national flag of England during the 16th century. Saint George became the patron saint of England in the 13th century, and the legend of Saint George slaying a dragon dates from the 12th century. The exact origins of the Flag of England are unclear and there are multiple supporting theories, though it is known that the flag appeared during the Middle Ages. The first theory states that the flag was adopted during the Crusades. At the beginning of the Crusades, St George's red cross on white was already associated with England. Although the Pope decided English crusaders would be distinguished by wearing a white cross on red, and French crusaders a red cross on white (Italian knights were allocated a yellow cross on a white back-

ground). English knights soon decided to claim instead “their” cross of red on white, like the French. In January 1188, in a meeting between Henry II of England and Philip II of France, the two rivals agreed to exchange flags (France later changed its new white cross on red for a white cross on a dark blue flag). Some French knights carried on using the red cross however, and as English knights wore this pattern as well, the red cross on white became the typical crusader symbol regardless of nationality.



**The Royal Banner of England** is the English banner of arms, that features the Royal Arms of England. This Royal Banner differs from England's national flag, St George's Cross, in that it does not represent any particular area or land, but

rather symbolises the sovereignty vested in the rulers thereof. Despite their close association with England, the appearance of lions on coats of arms was originally derived from the House of Normandy, which arrived on the English shores in the form of William the Conqueror in 1066. The number of lions varied initially between the Norman pair, and the single splendid golden beast on a red ground adopted by Henry II in 1158. When Richard I the Lionheart came to the throne in 1189, the emblem was revised again to depict not one but three majestic creatures. Many historians feel that the Three Lions are the true symbol of England. The Lion is a national animal of England. Lion was the nickname of England's medieval warrior rulers with a reputation for bravery, such as Richard I of England, known as Richard the Lionheart. Lions are frequently depicted in English heraldry, either as a device on shields themselves, or as supporters. They also appear in sculpture, and sites of national importance, such as Trafalgar Square. The lion is used as a symbol of English sporting teams, such as the England national football team.



**The Tudor rose**, which takes its name from the Tudor dynasty, was adopted as a national emblem of England around the time of the Wars of the Roses as a symbol of peace. It is a syncretic symbol in that it merged the white rose of the Yorkists and the red rose

of the Lancastrians – cadet branches of the Plantagenets who went to war over control of the royal house. It is also known as the Rose of England.



**St Edward's Crown** was one of the English Crown Jewels and remains one of the senior British Crown Jewels, being the official coronation crown used in the coronation of first English, then British, and finally Commonwealth realms monarchs. As such, two-dimensional representations of the crown are used in coats of arms, badges, and various other

insignia throughout the Commonwealth realms to indicate the authority of the reigning sovereign.



**The oak** is the national tree of England, representing strength, beauty and survival through trials. As such, it is the perfect representation of this enduring country. King Charles II escaped parliamentarians after his father was executed and hid in an old oak tree. Since then, this escape has been called the Royal Oak and is a well-known account for many locals. strength and endurance. The Major Oak is an

800–1000 year old oak in Sherwood Forest, famed as the alleged principal hideout of Robin Hood.

## **The Union Flag of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland**



It is called **the Union Flag** because it symbolises the administrative union of the countries of the United Kingdom. It is made up of the individual Flags of three of the Kingdom's countries all united under one Sovereign - the countries of 'England', of 'Scotland' and of 'Northern Ireland' (since 1921 only Northern Ireland has been part of the United Kingdom). As Wales was not a Kingdom but a Principality it could not be included on the flag.

The flag of the UK is sometimes wrongly called the *the Union Jack*, but Union Flag is actually the correct name as it only becomes a “Jack” when flown from a ship's jack mast. There are many coats of arms used in the UK and GB – in theory the arms of Queen Elizabeth should be used for the UK, but Scotland uses its own version and many English regions as well as Wales and Northern Ireland present their own version. None of these has been pictured.

### **The English Language**

English is spoken practically all over the world. It is spoken as the mother tongue in Great Britain, the United States of America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. A lot of people speak English in China, Japan, India, Africa and other countries. It is one of 6 official languages of the United Nations. It is studied as a foreign language in many schools.

England's history helps to understand the present condition of English. Many English words were borrowed from the language of Angles and Saxons. Hundreds of French words came into English. These French words didn't crowd out corresponding Anglo-Saxon words. There exist “act” and “deed”, “beautiful” and “pretty”, “form” and “shape”.

Many new words were brought by traders and travellers. These words came from all parts of the world: “umbrella” –from Italian, “skates” - from Dutch, “tea” – from Chinese, “cigar” – from Spanish.

Many of the new English words - especially new scientific ones – have been made from Latin and Greek words instead of English ones. “Telephone” for instance, was made from Greek words “far” and “talk”.

Some of the English words of today are derivatives. One way of creating new words is to put together two or more older English words. For example, the words “railway”, “football”, “newspaper” were made in this way.

The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic

speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders – mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from England and their language was called Englisc – from which the words England and English are derived.

### **Old English (450–1100 AD)**

“Anglo-Saxon” is the term applied to the English-speaking inhabitants of Britain up to the time of the Norman Conquest, when the Anglo-Saxon line of English kings came to an end. The people who were conquered in 1066 had themselves arrived as conquerors more than six centuries earlier. Before that time, Britain had been inhabited by Celtic peoples: the Scots and Picts in the north, and in the south various groups which had been united under Roman rule since their conquest by the emperor Claudius in A.D. 43. By the beginning of the fifth century the Roman Empire was under increasing pressure from advancing barbarians, and the Roman garrisons in Britain were being depleted as troops were withdrawn to face threats closer to home. In A.D. 410, the same year in which the Visigoths entered and sacked Rome, the last of the Roman troops were withdrawn and the Britons had to defend themselves. Facing hostile Picts and Scots in the north and Germanic raiders in the east, the Britons decided to hire one enemy to fight the other: they engaged Germanic mercenaries to fight the Picts and Scots. It was during the reign of Martian that the newly-hired mercenaries arrived. These were from three Germanic nations situated near the northern coasts of Europe: the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. They succeeded quickly in defeating the Picts and Scots and then sent word to their homes of the fertility of the island and the cowardice of the Britons. The invading Germanic tribes spoke similar languages, which in Britain developed into what we now call Old English. Old English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words *be*, *strong* and *water*, for example, derive from Old English. Old English was spoken until around 1100. The great epic poem of Old

English is *Beowulf*; the first period of extensive literary activity occurred in the 9th century. Old English had three genders (masculine, feminine, neuter) for nouns and adjectives; nouns, pronouns, and adjectives were also inflected for case. Old English had a greater proportion of strong (irregular) verbs than does Modern English, and its vocabulary was more heavily Germanic.

### **Middle English (1100–1500)**

In 1066 William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy (part of modern France), invaded and conquered England. The new conquerors (called the Normans) brought with them a kind of French, which became the language of the Royal Court, and the ruling and business classes. For a period there was a kind of linguistic class division, where the lower classes spoke English and the upper classes spoke French. In the 14th century English became dominant in Britain again, but with many French words added. This language is called Middle English. It was the language of the great poet Chaucer (c1340–1400), but it would still be difficult for native English speakers to understand today.

### **Modern English**

#### **Early Modern English (1500–1800)**

Towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter. From the 16th century the British had contact with many peoples from around the world. This, and the Renaissance of Classical learning, meant that many new words and phrases entered the language. The invention of printing also meant that there was now a common language in print. Books became cheaper and more people learned to read. Printing also brought standardization to English. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the dialect of London, where most publishing houses were, became the standard. In 1604 the first English dictionary was published.

## **Late Modern English (1800-Present)**

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

## **THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND**

### **Prehistory**

Britain was part of the continent of Europe until the end of the last Ice Age (6,000 BC). It became an island when the lower-lying land under the present-day English Channel was flooded. The island was covered by dense woods full of wild animals and birds. The early inhabitants of Britain were small groups of hunters, gatherers, and fishermen. About 3000-2000 BC, tribes of dark-haired people called Iberians began to arrive. They were initially hunters and then also shepherds. The earliest structures at Stonehenge were built about 3,000 BC by the Iberian people, though there is still controversy as to who constructed the megalithic tombs (long barrows). The main structure of Stonehenge may date from the end of the Neolithic or the beginning of the Bronze Age. Stonehenge was probably a place of worship and a celestial calendar made of giant stones. Archeologists have recently established that the stones were transported by sea from Wales. After 700 BC new invaders appeared in Britain. They were called *Celts*. The Celtic conquerors were technically more advanced than the Iberians. They were rural farming, hunting, and herding tribes ruled by local chieftains. The first wave of the Celtic invasion of Britain consisted mostly of the tribes of Gaels and Goidels whose descendants still live in Ireland and Scotland. Two centuries later a second wave of Celts arrived. These tribes are known as Cymri and Brythons and their descendants can be found in Wales. The Celtic tribes, unlike the Iberians, waged constant war with each other. They built gigantic earthworks for defence. These forts, such as one at Maiden Castle near Dorchester, were fortified settlements

usually constructed on remote hill tops. They did not appear until the Iron Age. The centres of Celtic civilisation lay in the South and South-East of the island. The Celts were pagan people and their religion was known as “animism”, a Latin word for “spirit.” They had a caste of ruler priests called Druids. The Celtic language survives today in modern Gaelic (Scotland), Irish, and Welsh.

### **Roman Britain (c. 55 BC – c. AD 440).**

Julius Caesar invaded southern Britain in 55 and 54 BC and wrote in *De Bello Gallico* that the population of southern Britannia was extremely large and shared much in common with the Belgae of the Low Countries. Coin evidence and the work of later Roman historians have provided the names of some of the rulers of the disparate tribes and their machinations in what was Britannia. Until the Roman Conquest of Britain, Britain's British population was relatively stable, and by the time of Julius Caesar's first invasion, the British population of what was western old Britain was speaking a Celtic language generally thought to be the forerunner of the modern Brythonic languages. After Julius Caesar abandoned Britain, it fell back into the hands of the Britons and the Belgae.

The Romans began their second conquest of Britain in 43 AD, during the reign of Claudius. They annexed the whole of what would become modern England and Wales over the next forty years and periodically extended their control over much of lowland Scotland. The Romans began to organise Britain as a province, which they called Britannia. A number of towns grew up during the Roman occupation, e.g. Lindum (Lincoln), Verulamium (St Albans), Camulodunum (Colchester), York (Eboracum), and Glevum (Gloucester). For some reason London (Londinium) never acquired municipal status although it soon became one of the most important trading centres in Northern Europe. Roman rule was resisted by some Celtic leaders. Among them was the Queen of the Iceni, Boudicca (Boadicea), who led a rising against the Romans in southern Britain in AD 61. The Roman occupation of Britain lasted almost 400 years. During that period the Celtic rural aristocracy became completely Romanised.

The Romans introduced their customs, language, agriculture and eventually, in the 4th century, Christianity. However, when the Romans withdrew after 410 AD few permanent effects of their rule remained. One which did was a fine network of roads which later became the basis for the main roads of modern Britain.

### **The Anglo-Saxons, Celts, Vikings and the Dark Ages**

In the wake of the breakdown of Roman rule in Britain around 410, present day England was progressively settled by Germanic groups. Collectively known as the Anglo-Saxons, these included Jutes from Jutland together with larger numbers of Saxons from northwestern Germany and Angles from what is now Schleswig-Holstein.

They first invaded Britain in the mid-5th century, continuing for several decades. The Jutes appear to have been the principal group of settlers in Kent, the Isle of Wight and parts of coastal Hampshire, while the Saxons predominated in all other areas south of the Thames and in Essex and Middlesex, and the Angles in Norfolk, Suffolk, the Midlands and the north.

The population of Britain dramatically decreased after the Roman period. The reduction seems to have been caused mainly by plague and smallpox. It is known that the plague of Justinian entered the Mediterranean world in the 6th century and first arrived in the British Isles in 544 or 545, when it reached Ireland.

The Dark Ages were times when history was oral, and the local Celts and the Anglo-Saxon and Viking invaders all used songs, sagas and oral poetry to record and retell events. Much became lost; of what remains, there is a complex mix of history, legend and myth, King Arthur and his knights being just one example of inadequate historical source evidence. What is now England was progressively settled by successive, and often complementary waves of Germanic tribesmen. Among them were the Angles, Saxons and Jutes together with many other tribes who had been partly displaced on mainland Europe. Increasingly the Celtic population was pushed westwards and northwards. The settlement of England

(alternately, the invasion of England) is known as the Saxon Conquest or the Anglo-Saxon settlement.

In the decisive Battle of *Deorham*, in 577, the Celtic people of Southern Britain were separated into the South-West nation of Cornwall and Devon and the Welsh by the advancing Saxons.

Beginning with the raid in 793 on the monastery at *Lindisfarne*, Vikings made many raids on England.

The Saxons founded a settlement beside the River Sheaf, (later to become Sheffield in South Yorkshire) and it was near there that Egbert of Wessex received the submission of *Earned of Northumbria* in 829 and so became the first Saxon overlord of all England.

Having started with plundering raids, the Vikings later began to settle in England and trade, eventually ruling *the Danelaw* from the late 9th century. There are many traces of Vikings in England today, for instance many words in the English language; the similarity of Old English and Old Norse led to much borrowing. The major Viking settlement was in York, capital of the Kingdom of York.

There were four major Kingdoms of England: Northumbria, Mercia, Wessex and East Anglia. There were also many other minor kingdoms.

The Kingdoms were powerful institutions and were characterised by many personalities recorded by history, but usually only after the record-keeping Normans took over, so much of their history is debatable. One example is the story of the wife of Earl *Leofric*, the ruler of Mercia. According to legend in 1057, his wife Lady Godiva agreed to her husband's proposition that he would reduce high level of taxes only if she rode naked on horseback through Coventry's marketplace. According to later versions of the story, nobody watched except peeping Tom, who was struck blind. Some buildings survive in Coventry from Leofric and Godiva's reign, with many fragments of detail, but the earliest surviving record of the ride dates back to Roger of Wendover who died in 1236 and so was a historian rather than a journalist.

## The Norman Invasion

*The Normans* were Viking and Slav settlers in France who had become the ruling elite, displacing the Gallic and Celtic tribes of France from power. Some series of disputes between the Normans and the English resulted in the invasion of England. The defeat of King Harold Godwinson at the Battle of Hastings in 1066 at the hands of William of Normandy (the Conqueror), later styled William I of England (c. 1027–87) and the subsequent Norman takeover of Saxon, Celtic and Viking England led to a major turning-point in the history of the small, isolated, island state. He introduced Norman institutions and customs (including feudalism) and instigated the Domesday Book. The Normans kept written records and recorded all aspects of life in England. In 1086 William ordered the compilation of the *Domesday Book*, a survey of the entire population and their lands and property for tax purposes. This remains the most comprehensive survey of a country in medieval Europe.

William governed England directly through his *sheriffs* (the word originates from *shire* and *reeve*) and indirectly through the feudal contract with his vassals. The basic unit of administration was the Saxon *shire* which the Normans called *county*. The lowest unit was the lord's manor which had its own court. The manorial system was the foundation of feudalism in England.

During the reign of Henry II (1154–89) the Anglo-Norman state reached its zenith. Henry ruled a vast feudal empire in England and France. In France he had more land there than the French king whose vassal he was. Henry introduced several administrative reforms in England. He is regarded as the founder of English *Common Law*.

Henry II's successor was Richard (1189-99), nicknamed the Lionheart, who spent most of his time out of England on crusades. After Richard's death, the English throne was taken by his brother John who was one of the most unpopular kings of England. He lost his French possessions and for that reason was nicknamed Lackland. He quarrelled with the barons who forced him to sign the *Great Charter (Magna Carta)* in 1215, in which he promised to limit the Crown's power and give all freemen the

right to a fair and legal trial. This was the first successful step in English history towards limiting the power of the king.

During the reign of Henry III, in 1258, the nobles under the leadership of Simon de Montfort elected a council called *the parliament* (from French: *parler* = to discuss). The role of this “parliament” was to supervise the king’s government and particularly the Treasury.

*The Hundred Years' War* was begun in 1337 over the claim of King Edward III to the throne of France. It was perhaps the last feudal and the first national war in modern Europe. During the war both opposing sides became aware of their distinct nationality. The unity of medieval Christendom was broken. In fact, although the war lasted from 1337 to 1453, the English and the French only waged war sporadically. England defeated France spectacularly at the famous battles of Crecy (1346), Poitiers (1356) and Agincourt (1415), but eventually England lost her French possessions. Thus the effect of the war was national consolidation among the English and the French. The English conquered Calais and kept it for two hundred years. From here they could trade with the manufacturing towns in Flanders which bought English wool and later cloth. Almost at the same time *the Black Death (bubonic plague)* killed more than a third of the population of England.

In 1381 the peasants, encouraged by the religious reformer *John Wycliffe*, rose against their barons in bloody revolt. Soon a new series of civil wars started, called *the Wars of the Roses* (1455-85) waged between the House of York, whose emblem was a white rose, and the House of Lancaster, whose emblem was a red rose.

### Exercises

**1. Carefully read each statement. If the statement is true according to information in the book, write T after it, if it is false, write F. Try to give reasons why a statement is false.**

1. The flag of the UK is called the Union Jack.
2. Snowdon is the highest mountain in the UK.
3. The Thames is the longest river in the UK.

4. It is in 4 p.m. in London when it is 5 p.m. in Poland.
5. Descendants of the Celts can be found in Wales and Ireland today.
6. Cockney is a London slang of the upper classes.
7. The Vikings began to appear in the British Isles in the 10th century.
8. Charles I succeeded Queen Elizabeth I.
9. Wellington was the British commander at the Battle of Trafalgar.
10. The first steam engine was invented by George Stephenson.

**2. Complete the sentences below, choosing one of three possibilities: a, b, or c.**

1. Stonehenge was an ancient place of ...  
a) worship b) war c) pilgrimage
2. Jules Caesar made ... expeditions to Britain.  
a) two c) three c) four
3. The Battle of Hastings happened in ...  
a) 1016 b) 1066 c) 1225
4. How many wives did Henry VIII have?  
a) 4 b) 5 c) 6
5. King ... was executed in 1649.  
a) James I b) James II c) Charles I
6. How many American colonies did Britain have before the American War of Independence?  
a) 10 b) 13 c) 50
7. The Act of Union of 1800 united Great Britain with ...  
a) Scotland b) Ireland c) Wales
8. Queen Victoria was crowned as Empress of ... in 1876.  
a) India b) China c) Africa
9. Who was the British Prime Minister at the outbreak of the Second World War?  
a) Winston Churchill b) Neville Chamberlain c) Clement Attlee
10. Mrs. Thatcher was replaced as Prime Minister by ...  
a) John Major b) Tony Blair c) Gordon Brown

**3. Search the Internet and available books and prepare yourself for a class discussion on one of the following topics:**

1. Look at the map of Great Britain and discuss its characteristic geographical features.

2. Which parts of Britain would like to visit and why?

3. Discuss Britain's colonial expansion in the 18th and 19th centuries.

4. English as a language of international communication.

**4. Prepare a presentation on one of the following topics:**

1. Anglo-Saxon Britain.

2. Tudor England.

3. The Battle of Britain.

**5. Write an essay.**

Would you prefer to live in a monoculture or in a multi-ethnic and multicultural society? Why?

## Chapter III.

### SCOTLAND

#### The symbols

##### Brainstorm.

*Think of Scotland. Write down four words you associate it with.  
Compare your list with your group mates' ones.*



The **Flag of Scotland**, also known as **Saint Andrew's Cross** or **The Saltire**, is the national flag of Scotland. According to legend, the Christian apostle and martyr Saint Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland, was crucified on an X-shaped cross at Patras, (Patrae), in Achaea. Use of the familiar iconography of his martyrdom, showing the apostle bound to an X-shaped cross, first appears in the Kingdom of Scotland in 1180 during the reign of William I. Use of a simplified symbol associated with Saint Andrew which does not depict his image, namely the saltire, or *crux decussata*, (from the Latin *crux*, 'cross', and *decussis*, 'having the shape of the Roman numeral X'), has its origins in the late 14th century; the Parliament of Scotland decreed in 1385 that Scottish soldiers should wear a white Saint Andrew's Cross on their uniform, both in front and behind, for the purpose of identification.



The **Unicorn** is used as a heraldic symbol of Scotland. In Celtic Mythology the Unicorn of Scotland symbolized innocence and purity, healing powers, joy and even life itself. It was also seen as a symbol of masculinity and power. It was thought of as a wild, fierce, bold, proud and intelligent, impossible to capture alive, freedom-loving creature. Historians believe that written accounts of Unicorns appear as early as the first century AD.

In the 16th Century, King James IV of Scotland became King James VI & I when he married Margaret Tudor of England, assumed the English throne and became King of the whole of Great Britain. This new country - Great Britain - needed a new Royal Coat of Arms, and it was designed with the Unicorn of Scotland on the right, and the English Lion on the left. This symbolized the union of the two countries, but the actual union was not friendly, and this conflict was immortalized in the well-known British Nursery Rhyme ‘The Lion & The Unicorn’:

“The lion and the unicorn  
Were fighting for the Crown;  
The lion chased the unicorn  
All around the town.  
Some gave them white bread,  
and some gave them brown  
Some gave them plum cake  
And drummed them out of town”.



**Thistle** is the floral emblem of Scotland and has been recognized as a Scottish symbol for centuries, and the most popular and well-known legend surrounding this choice dates back around 800 years. This legend describes how, in the 13th Century, Norse invaders attempted a surprise night-raid on the King Alexander III's army in Northern Scotland. They didn't want to wake the sleeping Scots, so the Vikings crept barefooted across the Scottish landscape. But they didn't know that this area was overgrown with Scottish Thistles, and when an unlucky Norseman happened to step on the vicious thorns of this native plant, he cried loudly! The Scottish army sprang into action, and were victorious in battle. Naturally superstitious and big on symbolism, the Scots declared the Thistle to have been their savior, and this humble plant became a celebrity.



The **Scottish kilt** is a knee-length garment with pleats at the rear, originating in the traditional dress of men in the Scottish Highlands. The word '*kilt*' likely comes from the Nordic word '*kjalta*' meaning 'tuck up around the body', which was first recorded in the 9th century. Centuries before the first Scottish kilt was seen, tribes from Northern Ireland wore a tunic and a cloak. The Vikings and Romans also wore tunic type garments. It's thought that the kilt may have evolved from this style of dress, being modified over time to suit the climate and lifestyle of the hardy, warlike inhabitants of the Scottish Highlands. Since the 19th century it has become associated with the culture of Scotland in general, or with Celtic (and more specifically Gaelic) heritage. It is most often made of woollen cloth in a tartan pattern. Although the kilt is most often worn on formal occasions and at Highland games and sports events, it has also been adapted as an item of fashionable informal male clothing in recent years, returning to its roots as an everyday garment.

Read more: The Scottish Thistle - A National Symbol of Scotland <http://www.scottish-at-heart.com/scottish-thistle.html#ixzz1VMJuoYgK>

Read more: Unicorn Of Scotland – A National Scottish Symbol <http://www.scottish-at-heart.com/unicorn-of-scotland.html#ixzz1VMGrVJct>

### **The History of Scotland (Alba)**

The name *Scotland* is derived from the Latin *Scoti*, the term applied to Gaels, people from what is now Scotland and Ireland, and the Dál Riata (also *Dalriada* or *Dalriata* – a Gaelic kingdom on the western coast of Scotland) who have been thought previously to have originated from Ireland and migrated to western Scotland. The Romans called these northern lands *Caledonia*.

The early inhabitants of Scotland were called *Picts* to mean “painted or tattooed people” because they painted their foreheads. Picts built settlements in the Orkney and Shetland Islands and the Northern Highlands. In the 6th century, Gaelic speaking people – Scots - arrived in the Highlands from Ireland. Historically they emerged from an amalgamation of the Picts and Gaels, incorporating neighbouring Britons to the south as well as invading Germanic peoples such as the Anglo-Saxons and the Norse. Robert Louis Stevenson described the Scots invasion in his famous poem ‘A Galloway Legend’ referring to heather ale. *Scoti* or *Scotti* was the generic name used by the Romans to describe those who sailed from Ireland to conduct raids on Roman Britain. It was thus synonymous with the modern term *Gaels*. In the 5th century, these raiders established the kingdom of Dál Riata along the west coast of Scotland. As this kingdom expanded in size and influence, the name was applied to all its subjects – hence the modern terms *Scot*, *Scottish* and *Scotland*.

Christianity was brought to south-west Scotland by St. Ninian in 397. In the following two centuries other missionaries spread the Faith throughout the country. The Norsemen appeared in the 8th century and occupied the Hebrides, Orkney and Shetland Islands. Next the Scots and Picts merged and formed the Kingdom of Alba, later known as Scotia.

### **Some famous Kings of Scotland**

**King Duncan I** (1034–1040) united all the lands and formed a single Kingdom of Scotland. He was murdered by Macbeth (1040–57), who was also killed and succeeded by Malcolm III (1057–1093). Malcolm’s wife, Margaret, introduced an English-speaking court and English-speaking clergy. However, relations with England were not good. The reign of King Alexander III (1249–1286) is regarded as the “Golden Age” because it was stable and prosperous. The Norsemen were expelled from the Hebrides. After the death of Alexander border warfare with England became active.

**Robert the Bruce** (1274–1329) is the famous Scottish king, who in the 13th century fought against King Edward I and won the struggle for Scottish independence. He reestablished Scotland as a separate kingdom,

negotiating the Treaty of Northampton in 1328. It was a peace treaty between the Kingdoms of England and Scotland. It brought an end to the First War of Scottish Independence, which had begun with the English invasion of Scotland in 1296. The document was written in French, and is held by the National Archives of Scotland in Edinburgh. The treaty lasted only five years because it was unpopular with many English nobles, who viewed it as humiliating. In 1333 the Treaty was overturned by Edward III, after he had begun his personal reign, and the Second War of Scottish Independence continued until a lasting peace was established in 1357.

During the Hundred Years War Scotland supported France. In revenge, the English invaded the Scottish lowlands many times. In 1482, Edward IV's army occupied Edinburgh. The Scottish kings tried to introduce a centralised monarchy as the Tudors had done in England, but they could never achieve their aim. When the Protestant Reformation spread in Europe, Scotland soon adopted it in its Calvinist form. However, the Scots did not give the authority over the Scottish Protestant Church (*Kirk*) to their monarch, Mary also known as **Mary Stuart** or Mary I of Scotland, because she was a Catholic. Therefore, the Scottish Church was governed by a General Assembly. King James VI, the son of Mary, inherited the English throne on the death of Queen Elizabeth. However, the Scots retained their Parliament until 1707 when they were united with England.

In the 18th century, Scotland suffered several Jacobite revolts in favour of the Stuarts. The English army subdued the Scots with great cruelty.

In the 19th century the historical novels of Walter Scott helped to create a romantic image of Scotland not only in England but throughout Europe. Queen Victoria spent much of the year at her residence in the Highlands, Balmoral Castle, and this helped to make the monarchy more popular in Scotland.

The Industrial Revolution affected Scotland in the 19th century. Coal mines and factories were built around Glasgow and Edinburgh. In the 20th century, Scottish nationalism was reborn. The *Scottish Nationalist Party* (SNP) emerged in the 1970s, winning seats in the House of Commons in 1974. Its policy was to work towards the independence of Scotland.

However, a referendum in 1979 showed that only one third of the Scottish electorate favoured a separate Scottish state. In 1999, Scotland, like Wales and Northern Ireland, was granted limited self-government after a referendum on devolution.

### Language

It is curious that there are two official languages in Scotland, *Scots* (also known as *Lallans* or *Lowland Scots*) and *Scots Gaelic*, in addition to the de facto language, English, which does not have official status.

**Scottish English** refers to the varieties of English spoken in Scotland. The main, formal variety is called **Scottish Standard English** or **Standard Scottish English (SSE)**. Scottish Standard English may be defined as “the characteristic speech of the professional class (in Scotland) and the accepted norm in schools”. IETF language tag for “Scottish Standard English” is en-Scotland.

In addition to distinct pronunciation, grammar and expressions, Scottish English has distinctive vocabulary, particularly pertaining to Scottish institutions such as the Church of Scotland, local government and the education and legal systems.

Scottish English resulted from language contact between Scots and the Standard English of England after the 17th century. The resulting shifts to English usage by Scots-speakers resulted in many phonological compromises and lexical transfers, often mistaken for mergers by linguists unfamiliar with the history of Scottish English. Furthermore, the process was also influenced by inter dialectal forms, hypercorrections and spelling pronunciations.

Convention traces the influence of the English of England upon Scots to the 16th-century Reformation and to the introduction of printing. Printing arrived in London in 1476, but the first printing press was not introduced to Scotland for another 30 years. Texts such as the Geneva Bible, printed in English, were widely distributed in Scotland in order to spread Protestant doctrine.

King James VI of Scotland became King James I of England in 1603. Since England was the larger and richer of the two Kingdoms, James

moved his court to London in England. The poets of the court therefore moved south and “began adapting the language and style of their verse to the tastes of the English market”. To this event McClure attributes “the sudden and total eclipse of Scots as a literary language”. The continuing absence of a Scots translation of the Bible meant that the translation of King James into English was used in worship in both countries.

The Acts of Union 1707 amalgamated the Scottish and English Parliaments. However the church, educational and legal structures remained separate. This leads to important professional distinctions in the definitions of some words and terms. There are therefore words with precise definitions in Scottish English which have either no place in English English or have a different definition.

The speech of the middle classes in Scotland tends to conform to the grammatical norms of the written standard, particularly in situations that are regarded as formal. Highland English is slightly different from the variety spoken in the Lowlands in that it is more phonologically, grammatically, and lexically influenced by a Gaelic substratum. Similarly, the English spoken in the North-East of Scotland tends to follow the phonology and grammar of Doric.

Although pronunciation features vary among speakers (depending on region and social status), there are a number of phonological aspects characteristic of Scottish English:

1. Scottish English is a rhotic accent, meaning /r/ is typically pronounced in the syllable coda. The phoneme /r/ may be a postalveolar approximant [ɹ], as in Received Pronunciation or General American, but speakers have also traditionally used for the same phoneme a somewhat more common alveolar tap [ɾ] or, now very rare, the alveolar trill [r] (hereafter, ⟨r⟩ will be used to denote any rhotic consonant).

2. There is a distinction between /w/ and /hw/ in word pairs such as *witch* and *which*.

3. Vowel length is generally regarded as non-phonemic, although a distinctive part of Scottish English is the Scots vowel length rule (Scobbie et al. 1999). Certain vowels (such as /i/, /u/, and /æ/) are generally long but

are shortened before nasals and voiced plosives. However, this does not occur across morpheme boundaries so that *crude* contrasts with *crewed*, *need* with *knead* and *side* with *sighed*.

#### Scotticisms:

- *What a dreich day!* meaning “What a dull, miserable, overcast day” (of weather).

- *I'm feeling quite drouthy* meaning “I'm feeling quite thirsty”.

- *That's a right (or real) scunner!* meaning “That's extremely off-putting”.

- *It's a fair way to Skye from here* meaning “It's a good distance to Skye from here”.

- *The picture still looks squint* meaning “The picture still looks askew/awry”.

- *You'd better just caw canny* meaning “You'd better just go easy/Don't overdo it”.

- *His face is tripping him* meaning “He's looking fed up”

- *Just play the daft laddie* meaning “Act ingenuously/feign ignorance”

- *You're looking a bit peely-wally* meaning “You're looking a bit off-colour”.

- *That's outwith my remit* meaning “It's not part of my job to do that”.

Scottish English has inherited a number of lexical items from Scots, which are less common in other forms of standard English.

General items are *wee*, the Scots word for small (also common in New Zealand English, probably under Scottish influence); *bairn* for child (from Common Germanic, cf modern Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, Icelandic, Faroese *barn*, West Frisian *bern* and also used in Northern English dialects); *bonnie* for pretty, attractive, (or good looking, handsome, as in the case of Bonnie Prince Charlie); *braw* for fine; *muckle* for big; *spail* for splinter, *snib* for bolt, *pinkie* for little finger, *janitor* for school caretaker (these last two are also standard in American English), *outwith*, meaning 'outside of'; *cowp* for tip or spill, *fankle* for a tangled mess. *Kirk* for church has parallels in other Germanic languages (cf *kirche* which was also found in archaic names of some ancient churches in e.g. London). Examples of

culturally specific items are *Hogmanay*; *caber*, *haggis*, *bothy*; *scone*; *oat-cake*; *tablet*; *rone* (roof gutter); *teuchter*, *ned*, *numpty* (witless person; now more common in the rest of the UK) and *landward* (rural); *It's your shot* for “It's your turn”; and the once notorious but now redundant *tawse*.

The diminutive ending “-ie” is added to nouns to indicate smallness, as in *laddie* and *lassie* for a young boy and young girl. Other examples are *peirie* (child's wooden spinning top) and *sweetie* (piece of confectionery). The ending can be added to many words instinctively, e.g. *bairn* (see above) can become *bairnie*, a small shop can become a *wee shoppie*.

The use of “How?” meaning “Why?” is distinctive of Scottish, Northern English and Northern Irish English. “Why not?” is often rendered as “How no?”

There is a range of (often anglicised) legal and administrative vocabulary inherited from Scots e.g. *depute* /'dɛpjut/ for *deputy*, *proven*/'prɔ:vən/ for *proved* (standard in American English), *interdict* for “injunction” and *sheriff-substitute* for “acting sheriff”. In Scottish education a *short leet* is a list of selected job applicants, and a *remit* is a detailed job description. *Provost* is used for “mayor” and *procurator fiscal* for “public prosecutor”.

Often, lexical differences between Scottish English and Southern Standard English are simply differences in the distribution of shared lexis, such as *stay* for “live” (as in: *where do you stay?*).

The progressive verb forms are used rather more frequently than in other varieties of standard English, for example with some stative verbs (*I'm wanting a drink*). The future progressive frequently implies an assumption (*You'll be coming from Glasgow?*).

In some areas perfect aspect of a verb is indicated using “be” as auxiliary with the preposition “after” and the present participle: for example “He is after going” instead of “He has gone” (this construction is borrowed from Scottish Gaelic).

The definite article tends to be used more frequently in phrases such as *I've got the cold/the flu*, *he's at the school*, *I'm away to the kirk*.

Speakers often use prepositions differently. The compound preposition *off of* is often used (*Take that off of the table*). Scots commonly say

*I was waiting on you* (meaning “waiting for you”), which means something quite different in Standard English.

In colloquial speech *shall* and *ought* are scarce, *must* is marginal for obligation and *may* is rare. Here are other syntactical structures:

- *What age are you?* for “How old are you?”
- *My hair is needing washed* or *My hair needs washed* for “My hair needs washing” or “My hair needs to be washed”.
- *I'm just after telling you* for “I've just told you”.
- *Amn't I invited?* For *Am I not invited?*

Note that in Scottish English, the first person declarative *I amn't invited* and interrogative *Amn't I invited?* are both possible. Contrast English language in England, which has *Aren't I?* but no contracted declarative form. (All varieties have *I'm not invited*.)

Almost all residents of Scotland speak English, although many speak various Scots dialects which differ markedly from Standard English. Some 1.5 million are believed to speak Lallans to some extent, again with a range of dialects and approximately 2 % of the population use Scots Gaelic as their language of every-day use, primarily in the northern and western regions of the country.

Linguists usually split Lallans into 5 distinct dialects, North, Central, South, Island and Ulster. The core and their variations is called *the Older Scottish Tongue* and the Oxford University Press spent 65 years (1937-2002) producing the definitive dictionary for the language in 12 .

Scots (or Lallans meaning lowlands) is a Germanic language used in lowland and central Scotland, and parts of Northern Ireland and border areas of the Republic of Ireland, where it is known as *Ulster Scots* or *Ullans*. On the whole, Scots descends from a form of Anglo-Saxon with influence from the Vikings, Dutch and Flemish. Scots also has loan words resulting from contact with Gaelic.

Nobody considers the education system as an objective to produce people able to read, write, and speak Scots as an autonomous alternative to English. The use of Scots in the media is scant and is usually reserved for niches where local dialect is deemed acceptable e.g. comedy, Burns Night,

or representations of traditions and old times. Serious use for the likes of news, encyclopaedias, documentaries etc. rarely occurs in Scots, although the Scottish Parliament website offers some information in Scots.

Such writers as Robert Burns and Robert Louis Stevenson used *Lallans* to refer to the Scots language. Before the Treaty of Union in 1707, Scots was the state language of Scotland used for all government business. Even after the Union, Scots continued in use by the Scottish courts for much of the 18th century.

**Some examples of Scottish words:**

- **Auld** – Old
- **Aye** – Yes
- **Bonnie** – Beautiful
- **Braw** – Good or Nice
- **Dinnae** – Don't
- **Eejit** – Idiot
- **Glen** – Valley
- **Greet** – Cry
- **Ken** – Know
- **Loch** – Lake
- **Lum** – Chimney
- **Noo** – Now

*Scottish Gaelic*, is a member of one branch of Celtic languages. The branch includes Scottish Gaelic, Irish and Manx, and is distinct from the other branch, which includes Welsh, Cornish, and Breton. Gaelic is the traditional language of the Gaels, the Celtic ethnic group now mainly in the Scottish Highlands, and the historical language of most of Scotland. Scottish Gaelic should not be confused with Scots, which refers to the Anglic language variety traditionally spoken in the Lowlands of Scotland.

Scottish Gaelic occupies a special place in Scottish culture, and is recognised by many Scots, regardless of whether they speak Gaelic, as being a priceless part of the nation's culture, though others may view it

primarily as a regional language. Gaelic has a rich oral tradition, having been the language of the bardic culture of the Highland clans for several centuries. The language suffered as the Highlanders and their traditions were persecuted, especially after the Highland Clearances, but despite lingering prejudices, the language is now achieving greater cultural and official recognition. Outside of Scotland, dialects of the language known as Canadian Gaelic exist in Canada on Cape Breton Island and isolated areas of the Nova Scotia mainland. You may come across bilingual road signs, street names, business and advertisement signage (in both Gaelic and English), they are gradually being introduced throughout Gaelic-speaking regions in the Highlands, Islands and Argyll. In many cases, this has simply meant re-adopting the traditional spelling of a name.

### **Study an example in Scottish Gaelic:**

- **Tha mi a' fuireach ann an Alba** – I live in Scotland

Read more: Scottish Sayings & Scottish Phrases <http://www.scottish-at-heart.com/scottish-sayings.html#ixzz1VN9o>

### **Culture, lifestyles and sport**

Scots have always resisted attempts at English domination and they have preserved their national identity since the Union with England in 1707. Scotland is united with England by the fact that it is part of the United Kingdom with one monarch, Parliament at Westminster and currency. However, there are significant differences between the two countries in culture.

Scottish literature includes works written in English, Scots and Scottish Gaelic. The most outstanding classical Scottish authors include the national poet **Robert Burns** (1759–1796), Sir **Walter Scott** (1771–1832), **Robert Louis Stevenson** (1850–94), **Sir Arthur Conan Doyle** (1859–1930). One of the most outstanding modern Scottish poets was **Hugh MacDiarmid** (1892–1978), who contributed significantly to the regeneration of the Scots language as a medium for national literature. **Irvine**

**Welsh** is a contemporary Scottish novelist, best known for his novel *Trainspotting*, which was adapted for a highly successful film in 1996.

One of the most interesting and significant developments in British filmmaking in the 1990s was the emergence of a distinctive cinema in Scotland. Apart from *Trainspotting*, Scotland's recent contribution to world cinema includes such films as *Shallow Grave* (directed by Danny Boyle), 1995), *Small Faces* (Gillies Mackinnon, 1996), *Brown* (John Madden, 1997) and *My Name is Joe* (Ken Loach, 1998), and *Ratcatcher* (Lynne Ramsay, 1999).

Many Scottish family names start with “Mac” or “Mc”, which means “son of”, in Gaelic. For instance, MacDonald was originally the son of Donald. Both forms (Mac and Mc) are found. You will also find a number of names with variable spelling, i.e. it is possible to find McFinna and Mcfinnan, and MacFinnan as well as Macfinnan. Whilst the pronunciation is the same, the visitor should be careful to use the correct spelling if addressing a message or letter to someone with such a name.

Scots are very proud of their nationality, culture, and traditions. One of the most characteristic elements of their tradition is the national dress. Men wear the *kilt*, which is a garment like a skirt. To call it a “skirt”, however, is a serious insult to a Scot. The kilt is made of woollen cloth of a chequered pattern, called *tartan*. Under the kilt are a pair of short trousers, called “trews”, made of thick cloth, and similar to schoolboys' short trousers. Some military regiments, many Scottish farmers, and shepherds wear kilts every day. Many other Scots wear it on Sundays, on holidays, and at celebrations, such as a wedding. The kilt as the normal dress of the Highland Scots is known to have existed for over 1,400 years, so as a national dress it has a long and proud tradition.

Bagpipes are also usually associated with Scotland but in fact versions of these instruments are found in other countries as well. The instrument consists of an airtight bag and pipes of three kinds, a blow-pipe, a “chanter” for melody, and “drones” producing the continuous note which is the bagpipes' main characteristic. Scottish music and dances (*ceilidhs*) can be

enjoyed at many folk festivals, one of them being the Skye Gaelic Music Festival.

In popular dance Scotland is famous for country dancing and highland dance. Country dances have the character of ballroom or social dancing, while most Highland dances are connected with ancient Scottish folk customs and they are performed solo. The most famous Highland dances are the Highland Fling, the Sword Dance and the Sean Triubhas. The Highland Fling is a lively dance characterized by flinging movements of the arms and legs. The Sword Dance was traditionally done to prepare for battle. The Sean Triubhas is a Highland dance

that is believed to have originated from the rebellion of 1754, when England banned the Highlanders from wearing kilts. During the dance, the dancer tries to take off English trousers and put on the Scottish kilt.

Another word associated with Scotland is *clan*. In Gaelic, “clan” means an “extended family”. The clan system started in Scotland in the 6th century when the Scots began to divide their lands between their leaders. The clan system had a recognised hierarchy starting with the chief, and down through lesser chieftains to simple clansmen who were sworn to absolute loyalty. Each clan still retains its individual tartan with its own colour pattern.

Scotland is the home of golf, but soccer is the national passion, and England is the favourite opponent. Other sports include hill-walking, skiing, shinty (a Scotch game resembling hockey) and curling. There are also great annual Highland Games held throughout the country during the summer months. In addition, almost every village in Scotland hosts an annual Fair or Fete.

Traditional Scottish food includes **haggis**, perhaps the best known Scottish delicacy, consisting of consisting of a mixture of the minced heart, lungs and liver of a sheep or calf mixed with suet, onions, oatmeal and seasonings and boiled in the stomach of the slaughtered animal. Other foods include Scotch pies, bannocks (or oatcakes), Scotch Broth or Hotch-Potch, a thick soup or stew of meat traditionally made by boiling mutton, beef, marrow-bone or chicken and vegetables.

## **Exercises**

### **1. Answer the questions.**

1. What are the two main geographical divisions of Scotland?
2. What is the capital of Scotland?
3. What is the highest mountain in Scotland?
4. Who were the Jacobites?
5. Who was the first English monarch to build a residence in the Highlands?

### **2. Test your knowledge of Scotland**

- 1) What's the capital city of Scotland?  
a) Glasgow b) Aberdeen c) Edinburgh
- 2) Scotland used to be an independent state. When did it lose its independence and become part of Great Britain?  
a) 1507 b) 1707 c) 1907
- 3) What colour is the Scottish flag?  
a) Blue with a white cross b) White with a blue cross c) Green with a white cross
- 4) What's the name of the famous lake where a monster is said to live?  
a) Loch Monstro b) Loch Grass c) Loch Ness
- 5) What's the name of the type of skirt that Scottish men sometimes wear?  
a) Kilt b) Scot skirt c) Skilt
- 6) What's the national drink of Scotland?  
a) Vodka b) Gin c) Whisky
- 7) What's the name of the musical wind instrument that is from Scotland?  
a) Wind pipes b) Bag pipes c) Scottish sax
- 8) When did Scotland get its own Parliament?  
a) 1899 b) 1959 c) 1999
- 9) How many languages are spoken in Scotland?  
a) 1 b) 2 c) 3

10) What's the name of Scotland's national poet?

a) Robert Burns b) Robert Louis Stevenson c) Walter Scot

### **3. Discuss with your group:**

- Do you think Scottish Gaelic would be easy to learn?
- Some people think that by the end of the century 90% of the world's 6000 languages will be extinct and there will only be ten languages spoken in the world. Do you think this may happen?
- Do you think it's important to keep minority languages alive? Why / why not?
- How can we try to keep minority languages alive?
- Do you think your native language will ever die?
- Do you think that the growth of 'English as an international language' is helping to kill other languages?
- Do you think the world of technology is helping to kill languages?

**4. Haggis – Scotland's national dish** Scotland's national dish is called '**Haggis**'. The ingredients include:

Sheep's heart

Sheep's liver

Sheep's lungs

Sheep's windpipe

Beef suet

Toasted oatmeal

Herbs and spices.

Method: The ingredients are mixed together and put inside a sheep's stomach. The haggis is boiled before eating .

When is it eaten? Haggis is eaten on special occasions like Burn's Night, a special dinner to celebrate the life of Robert Burns, Scotland's national poet, which is held on January 25th. There is even a special poem called 'To a Haggis' that is read when the national dish is brought to the table. There are now many vegetarian versions of the dish so that everyone can join in the party!

### **Answer the questions:**

- Would you like to try haggis? Why / why not?

- What's your country's national dish?

**Now write a similar description of your national dish.**

Our national dish is called \_\_\_\_\_.

The ingredients include:

Method:

When is it eaten?

**5. Read the extracts from Robert Burns' poems. Find some peculiarities of the Scottish dialect of English.**

**(1) Auld Lang Syne.**

Should auld acquaintance be forgot,

And never brought to mind?

Should auld acquaintance be forgot,

And auld lang syne?

We twa have paddled in the burn,

From morning sun till dine;

But seas between us broad have roared

Since auld lang syne.

**(2) Of A' the Airts the Wind Can Blaw.**

Of a' the airts the wind can blaw,

I dearly like the West,

For there the bonnie lassie lives,

The lassie I lo'e best.

## Chapter IV.

# CYMRU AM BYTH (ENGLISH: “WALES FOREVER” OR “LONG LIVE WALES”)

## The Symbols

### Brainstorm.

*Think of Wales. Write down four words you associate it with.  
Compare your list with your group mates' ones.*



The **Flag of Wales** incorporates the red dragon of Prince Cadwalader along with the Tudor colours of green and white. The early Britons probably used it as a battle standard, after the Roman occupation and that it may derive from a Roman Standard. It was used by Henry

VII at the battle of Bosworth in 1485 after which it was carried in state to St. Paul's Cathedral. The red dragon was then included in the Tudor royal arms to signify their Welsh descent. It was officially recognised as the Welsh national flag in 1959. The British Union Flag incorporates the flags of Scotland, Ireland and England but does not have any Welsh representation. Technically, however, it is represented by the flag of England due to the Laws in Wales act of 1535 which annexed Wales following the 13th century conquest.



The **Red Dragon**, part of the national flag design, is also a popular Welsh symbol. It is unclear why the Welsh adopted a red dragon as a symbol. Some say that the Red Dragon was originally a griffin on the standard of a Roman legion headquartered in

North Wales. The oldest recorded use of the dragon to symbolise Wales is from the *Historia Brittonum*, written around 820, but it is popularly supposed to have been the battle standard of King Arthur and other ancient Celtic leaders. This myth is likely to have originated from the tale of Merlin's vision of a Red (The Native Britons) and a White (The Saxon Invaders) dragon battling, with the red dragon being victorious. Myrddin explained that the Welsh would ultimately, after a long period of adversity, overcome the foreign invaders, and maintain their language, lands and freedom. Perhaps that is why the Welsh chose the red dragon. Whilst it is unclear why the Welsh adopted a red dragon as a symbol, it is clear that they have used it for some time. The early Britons probably used it as a battle standard, after the Roman occupation and that it may derive from a Roman Standard. For students of the obscure, the English word "Dragon" and the Welsh word "Draig" both come from the same Latin root "draco" for standard

Some say that the Red Dragon was originally a griffin on the standard of a Roman legion headquartered in North Wales, but early came to be associated with the fighting dragons imprisoned by Lludd and Llefelys. The significance of these dragons was pointed out by Myrddin, the Merlin of Arthurian legend. Two dragons, one white, one red, had fought for many years. The white dragon at first prevailed but in the end the red dragon overcame the white. Myrddin explained that the Welsh would ultimately,



after a long period of adversity, overcome the foreign invaders, and maintain their language, lands and freedom. Perhaps that is why the Welsh chose the red dragon. In any case the dragon has become a symbol identified with Wales. A legend recorded by an 8th century historian tells of a fight between a red and a white dragon, which ends with the eventual triumph of the red dragon – representing Wales. Strangely it was only in 1959, the Queen made the Red Dragon on a green and white, the official Welsh flag.

Wales has got two national symbols. These are **the daffodil** and **the leek**.



They are both connected to the Patron Saint of Wales.

According to the legend, during a battle against the Saxons, **St. David** advised his soldiers to wear leeks in their hats so that they could easily be distinguished from their enemies. This is one for those who believe that contemporary culture is all style over substance. The origins of the national flower of Wales appears to be as an attractive interloper, introduced during the 19<sup>th</sup> century, as a replacement for the humble leek. David Lloyd George, the only Welshman to serve as Prime Minister, was a public advocate of the Narcissus (its Latin name) and its appearance in early spring as a symbol of nature's optimism neatly coincides with St David's Day on March 1. A more unusual link is that daffodils are grown commercially in Mid Wales to produce galantamine for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease.

Another link between the leek and St. David is the belief that he had to live on bread and wild leek for several years. This humble root vegetable is cited as a symbol of Wales in William Shakespeare's Henry V. Historical evidence also exists that the Tudor dynasty issued leeks to be worn by their guards on March 1, known as St David's Day in honour of the patron saint of Wales. There is also plenty of entertaining folklore and guesswork why the Welsh are inextricably linked with the leek. The 7<sup>th</sup> century king of Gwynedd, Cadwaladr, is said to have ordered his men into battle wearing them for identification purposes, but whatever the origins, we grow plenty of them and they taste lovely.

However, today each year on St. David's Day the leek is worn in the cap badges of every soldier in every Welsh regiment.

But outside the army, many other Welsh people have substituted the leek by the daffodil, perhaps because it looks more attractive and certainly smells a lot better.

The daffodil is also associated with St. David's Day, due to the fact that it breaks into blossom on that day. Interesting to note that one of the many Welsh names for a daffodil is “Cenhinen Bedr” which means “Peter's leek”.

## **Geography**

Wales is a small country to the west of England. It is rich in natural beauty from the rugged coastline of Pembrokeshire in the South, to the mountains of Snowdonia in the North.

Geographically, it is an irregular-shaped peninsula which juts into the Irish Sea. Its total area is 20,766 sq. km and it has a population of some 3 million. To the east it has a land boundary with England which stretches from the Bristol Channel in the South to Chester in the North. Wales has over 1200 km of coastline, mostly of unspoilt beaches and rugged cliffs to explore, and over 400 castles and ancient monuments to visit. There are beautiful woodlands, rivers and lakes, and there are also magnificent gardens including the National Botanic Garden of Wales.

Geographically Wales is divided into North Wales and South Wales, which have developed independently of each other.

**North Wales** is a land of mountains, lakes and sheep farms, a wild and picturesque region which has long been popular with mountaineers, artists and tourists. Here sheep outnumber people: altogether Wales has a sheep population of some 11 million (15 % of the EU total). The highest mountain is **Snowdon** (1085 m, situated in a breathtakingly beautiful National Park. The eastern rivers – the Dee, Severn and Wye – drain into England.

**South Wales** is a much more industrialised and thickly populated area. About 70 % of the population of Wales lives in the south, and the capital city, **Cardiff**, is located here. This area has steelworks, oil refineries and coal fields. Important industrial cities and ports in South Wales are Newport, Cardiff, Swansea and Tenby.

The National History Museum, situated on the grounds of St Fagans Castle near Cardiff, is Wales' most popular heritage attraction an open-air

museum, which is home to over 40 reerected buildings from different historical periods including houses, a school, a chapel, a post office, a bakery and a grocery store.

### **The History of Wales**

The English words “Wales” and “Welsh” derive from the same Germanic root (singular *Walh*, plural *Walha*), which was itself derived from the name of the Celtic tribe known to the Romans as Volcae and which came to refer indiscriminately to all Celts. The Old English-speaking Anglo-Saxons came to use the term *Wælic* when referring to the Celtic Britons in particular, and *Wēalas* when referring to their lands. The modern names for some Continental European lands (e.g. Wallonia and Wallachia) and peoples (e.g. the Vlachs via a borrowing into Old Church Slavonic) have a similar etymology.

Historically in Britain, the words were not restricted to modern Wales or to the Welsh but were used to refer to anything that the Anglo-Saxons associated with the Britons, including other non-Germanic territories in Britain (e.g. Cornwall) and places in Anglo-Saxon territory associated with Celtic Britons (e.g. Walworth in County Durham and Walton in West Yorkshire), as well as items associated with non-Germanic Europeans, such as the walnut.

Wales covers a relatively small area – only 64 km wide at its narrowest, and with a maximum length of 225 km - but its broken terrain and natural defense made it a difficult land to conquer. The Welsh pride themselves on being the original Britons. The first inhabitants were Iberians, who were later displaced by the Celts in the early Bronze Age (about 2000 BC). After the Roman invasion of England many British Celts took refuge in the Welsh mountains which became a centre of anti-Roman resistance. The leaders of this resistance were the priestly caste of Druids, whose sanctuary on the Isle of Anglesey, on the north-west coast, was destroyed by the Romans in 61 AD. Gradually the Romans brought the country under control in order to exploit its deposits of gold, copper, and lead. After the Romans left Britain in the early 5th century, Wales retained a Romano-Celtic culture

which was largely untouched by the Anglo-Saxons. Christianity was brought to Wales by Celtic missionaries from Ireland and from Brittany, France. Prominent among these was St David, the Welsh patron saint, whose feast-day on the 1<sup>st</sup> of March is the national day. David is said to have lived on a simple diet of leeks and water, and so Welsh people mark this day by wearing a leek in their buttonhole. St David's Cathedral, in the south-west of the country, is one of the most venerable Christian sites in Britain.

Until the early Middle Ages Wales was a disunited country of separate princedoms, but by 1200 a federal unity had been achieved under *LLywelyn*, 'the Great'. Welsh independence was ended by the invasion of the English king Edward I in 1282. The last Welsh Prince of Wales was killed in that year, and in 1301 King Edward gave the title to his own infant son and heir. Since that date it has become traditional for the heir to the throne to bear this title: Prince Charles (invested in 1969) is the twenty-first English Prince of Wales.

Edward I imposed his authority on the country by building a series of massive Norman castles such as those at Harlech and Caernafon, which are now major tourist attractions. In 1284 the Statute of Wales declared Welshmen to be subjects of the English crown and governed by English law. A final rebellion under Owain Glyndwr between 1401 and 1406 was suppressed, and in 1636 England and Wales were proclaimed one kingdom: English was henceforth the official language, and Welsh-speakers were barred from public office. Though the Tudors were Welsh by origin, they neglected the land of their fathers. However, the common people preserved the old culture and language.

A formal Union between England and Wales occurred in 1536. Welsh law was replaced by English law. The use of the Welsh language in the administration of the country was forbidden.

Gradually, many Welsh people stopped speaking their native language. The established Church of England never attracted the mass of the population, but in the 18th century a religious revival inspired by the Methodists evangelical preacher John Wesley, swept through Wales.

Charismatic preachers toured the countryside addressing vast crowds. Nonconformist religion, based on Bible-reading and hymn signing, profoundly influenced Welsh culture until very recent times, which explains why the country has produced so many eloquent preachers, actors, politicians, and opera singers. Perhaps the most famous of Welsh politicians was David Lloyd George, Prime Minister of Britain from 1916 to 1922 and one of the architects of the Allied victory in 1918. His silver-tongued oratory earned him the nickname ‘the Welsh wizard’.

The Industrial Revolution of the early 19th century transformed South Wales into the major coal and iron-producing centre within the British Isles. The landscape of the valleys came to be dominated by mine shafts, and huge docks were built in Cardiff and Swansea to cope with the volume of exports. From 1878 a large steel industry developed as a consequence of the discovery of the Bessemer process of manufacture. In the early 20th century Wales experienced a national revival. Wales saw a revival in its national status. In 1925, a nationalist party *Plaid Cymru* was formed, seeking greater autonomy or independence from the rest of the UK.

In 1999, The National Assembly was set up in Cardiff under the system of devolution to allow home rule in Wales.

### **Language**

The Welsh people call their country **Cymru** ['kimru]. Wales is the land of rocks, mountains and valleys. There is a region in the high Cumbrian Mountains called **Snowdonia**. Its scenery is the pride of Wales. Snowdonia is named after the highest peak of these mountains – Snowdon at 1,085 meters above sea level.

The largest cities in the south of Wales are **Cardiff**, **Swansea** and **Newport**. The greatest concentration of people lives in these cities. Cardiff is the principality's capital and the main seaport and Swansea is its industrial centre. Cardiff has been the capital since 1955.

The largest town in the north of Wales is **Wrexham**.

The Welsh language is spoken widely, especially in the north of the country. It is one of the Celtic languages. It is still the first language for many people.

Wales is often called "the land of song". The Welsh people, especially in rural areas are fond of poetry, singing folk songs and playing the harp. There are a lot of choirs in Wales.

The Welsh are great storytellers. You will hear tales of King Arthur and Merlin the Magician, of kingdoms lost beneath the sea and battles between dragons, of haunted castles and knightly deeds.

Each of the major periods of history has left its mark on Wales, some more attractive than the others. Wales is "the land of castles". And the Normans were the first to build castles here.

Wales is famous for **Eisteddfod** [ai'steðvɔd]. It is the largest and oldest festival of Welsh culture, which is held every year in different areas of Wales. "Eisteddfod" literally means "a sitting" ("eistedd" in Welsh is "to sit"), perhaps a reference to the hand-carved chair traditionally awarded to the best poet or musician in the ceremony "the Crowning of the Bard".

Eisteddfod is actually an association of poets, writers, musicians, artists and individuals who have made a significant and distinguished contribution to the Welsh language, literature, and culture. Competitions of bards and singers take place during Eisteddfod. Its members are known as **druids** who wear long robes. Their leader is always a poet. The colour of their costumes – white, blue or green – is indicative of their various ranks.

**St. David** is the Patron Saint of Wales. March 1st is St. David's Day, the national day of Wales and has been celebrated as such since the 12th century.

The proud and ancient battle banner of the Welsh is called the Red Dragon and consists of a red dragon on a green and white background.

### **Easy Welsh phrases**

And the phrases you should look out for? Hello is the easily-remembered 'helo' and thank you is simply 'diolch'. Here are some more simple words and phrases to get you started:

**Bore da** (Pronounced: Boh-reh dah): Good morning

**Prynhawn da** (Prin-houn dah): Good afternoon

**Nos da** (nohs dah): Good night

**Croeso i Gymru** (Croesoh ee Gum-reeh): Welcome to Wales

**Iechyd da!** (Yeh-chid dah): Cheers!

**Tafarn** (Tav-arn): Pub

**Diolch** (Dee-olch): Thanks

**Da iawn** (Dah ee-aw-n): Very good

A postcard home, all being well, might also contain the phrase ‘**mae'n heulog**’ – it’s sunny.

### **The second official language of Wales**

**Welsh English, Anglo-Welsh, or Wenglish** refer to the dialects of English spoken in Wales by Welsh people. The dialects are significantly modified by Welsh grammar and nouns, and contain a number of unique words. In addition to the distinctive words and grammar, there is a variety of accents found across Wales.

John Edwards has written and spoken entertainingly about a specific form of Welsh English – that found in the south-east area of Wales – as *Wenglish*. Some people, generally outside Wales, use the same word to refer to any form of English spoken in Wales.

#### **Pronunciation and Peculiarities**

Some of the features of Welsh English are

- Distinctive pitch differences giving a “sing-song” effect.
- Lengthening of all vowels is common in strong valleys accents.
- Pronouncing a short 'i' as 'eh' e.g. edit would become 'ed-et' and benefit would be 'benefet'.
- A tendency towards using an alveolar trill /r/ (the 'rolled r') in place of an approximant /ɹ/ (the 'normal English r').
- Yod-dropping does not occur after any consonant, so *rude* and *rood*, *threw* and *through*, *chews* and *choose*, *chute* and *shoot*, for example, are distinct.
- Sometimes adding the word "like" to the end of a sentence for emphasis, or using it as a stop-gaps.

## **Influence of the Welsh language**

As well as straightforward borrowings of words from the Welsh language (*cwtsh*, *brawd*), grammar from the language has crept into English spoken in Wales. Placing something at the start of a sentence emphasises it: “furious, she was”. Periphrasis and auxiliary verbs are used in spoken Welsh, resulting in the English: “He does go there”, “I do do it”, particularly in the so-called Wenglish accent.

There is also evidence of the misappropriation into English sentence forms of Welsh verbs. The Welsh verb *dysgu* (meaning both to learn and to teach) is mistranslated in the common Wenglish form, “He learned me to drive”, in place of the correct English usage, “He taught me to drive”, although the reverse error is not usually heard.

## **Regional accents within Wales**

There is a very wide range of regional accents within Wales.

The sing-song Welsh accent familiar to many English people is generally associated with South Wales. Accents from South Wales can be heard from the actors Richard Burton and (to a lesser extent) Anthony Hopkins, or on recordings of Dylan Thomas. Swansea accents are prominent in the film *Twin Town*. The popular Welsh actress Catherine Zeta-Jones also has a Swansea accent. The singers Shirley Bassey and Charlotte Church, meanwhile, are from Cardiff. The accent of Newport is also distinctive, quite different from that of Cardiff just a few miles down the road.

The accents of North Wales are markedly different. In North West Wales the accent is less sing-song, with a more consistently high-pitched voice and the vowels pressed to the back of the throat. The “R” sound is rolled extensively and the dark L is used at the beginning or middle of words, for example in “lose”, “bloke” and “valley”. The sound IPA:[z] is often pronounced unvoiced (the sound does not exist in Welsh), so “lose” is pronounced the same as “loose”.

In North East Wales, the accent can sound like that of Cheshire or Staffordshire. Scouse-like Liverpool accents are used around Holywell, Queensferry and Flint. Around Wrexham, accents are similar to Scouse and younger people in particular have begun to use more Scouse-like

vocabulary, such as “la”, “lyd” and “kid”. To the ears of an Englishman a Wrexham accent can sound Scouse or just generally like Northern English. Similarly, in eastern parts of South East Wales, accents can have some characteristics of the English West Country accent.

The accents of West-Wales, especially North Carmarthenshire and Ceredigion, are gentler in nature than either the "valleys" or the Northern Welsh accents and are, by repute, one of the more beautiful British accents to listen to. In Pembrokeshire, the accent is highly anglicised, strange as it is so far from England.

An online survey for the BBC ([1]) reported in January 2005 placed the Swansea accent in the bottom ten accents likely to help a career, although “*Cardiff folk ranked only a few places higher*”.

It is worth noting that accents in Wales vary even within a relatively short distance. Within Swansea itself there is a striking difference between the West Swansea accent (which sounds relatively English) compared to the rest of Swansea. The Neath accent is different again. Within Carmarthenshire, there is a noticeable difference between the Carmarthen, Llanelli and Ammanford accents. Llanelli accents tend to be very broad, Ammanford accents tend to have a softer Welsher lilt, while towards Carmarthen there is more of a hint of anglicisation on the accent.

### **Influence outside Wales**

While English accents have affected Anglo-Welsh, it was by no means a one way traffic. In particular, Scouse and Brummie accents have both had extensive Anglo-Welsh input through immigration, although in the former case, the influence of Anglo-Irish is better known.

### **Exercises**

#### **1. Answer the questions:**

1. Which Welsh town was once the 'iron capital of the world' and was the location of the world's first locomotive-hauled railway journey in 1804?

2. Which Welsh actor played a captured U-boat captain in the famous 'Don't tell him, Pike!' episode of *Dad's Army*?

3. On which date is St. David's Day?
4. Set in industrial 19th century Wales, who wrote the novel *Rape of the Fair Country*?
5. What type of business was set up by Welsh entrepreneur Pryce Pryce-Jones in 1861 - it was the world's first of its kind?
6. Which Welshman was Surveyor General of India from 1830 to 1843?
7. Which British movement was formed in 1915 in Llanfair PG, Anglesey?
8. Found on the Welsh bank of the River Wye, name the first Cistercian foundation in Wales?
9. In some schools in the 19th century a piece of wood was hung around the necks of children who spoke Welsh during the school day - which two letters were inscribed in the wood?
10. Name the famous author born in 1916, in Llandaff, Cardiff, to Norwegian parents?
11. Which geological period was named after a Celtic tribe of Wales?
12. What is the name of the highest mountain in Wales?
13. What is the capital of Wales?
14. Who is the patron saint of Wales?
15. What is the National *Eisteddfod*?
16. What sport is popular in Wales?

**2. Read the facts about Wales and try to decide which 5 of the facts are false.**

1. Wales is home to the highest mountain in the UK.
2. Mount Everest, the highest mountain in the world, was named after a Welsh man.
3. Wales has its own language, money and army.
4. The Welsh flag is a white cross on a blue background.
5. One of the most popular sports in Wales is Rugby.
6. The capital city of Wales is Swansea.
7. Song is an important part of Welsh culture and many famous singers come from Wales.
8. Anthony Hopkins, Catherine Zeta Jones and Richard Burton are all famous actors that come from Wales.

9. A traditional Welsh dish, Welsh Rarebit, is made using toast and rabbit.

10. Wales has been politically independent from the rest of the UK since 1282.

11. The longest word in the world is “Llanfairpwllgwyngyllgogerychwyrndrobwlllantysiliogogoch” and it is the name of a place in Wales.

### **3.Find the right answer.**

1. It is an ancient language spoken by the Celts who looked like Vikings and lived in Britain before the arrival of the Romans... (**The Celtic language / the English language**).

2. It is of the Celtic languages spoken by the Irish... (**Gaelic / Germanic**)

3. If we hear somebody speaking very quickly, without any pauses and it takes him little time to begin speaking or writing, we call his speech or writing... (**Fluent / Native**).

4. If we see people who disagree with each other, express their strong feelings and emotions in words and begin to quarrel, we can say that they... (**Argue / Understand**)

5. If somebody saves another person or other people from harm, danger or loss, we can say that somebody ...(**Rescues / Saves**).

## Chapter V.

### NORTHERN IRELAND (ULSTER)

#### The Symbols

##### Brainstorm.

*Think of The Northern Ireland. Write down four words you associate it with. Compare your list with your group mates' ones.*

National symbols may be official and unofficial. Flag and anthem refer to the first group, while floral and fauna emblems, folk costume or some signs are associated with a state by its residents and other nations. However, all of them reflect country's history and traditions.

**Saint Patrick's Saltire** or **Saint Patrick's Cross** is a red saltire (X-shaped cross) on a white field, used to represent the island of Ireland or Saint Patrick the patron saint of Ireland. In heraldic language, it may be blazoned *Argent, a saltire gules*. **Saint Patrick's Flag** (*Bratach Naomh Pádraig*) is a flag composed of Saint Patrick's Saltire.



The red saltire's association with Saint Patrick dates from the 1780s, when the Order of Saint Patrick adopted it as an emblem. This was a British chivalric order established in 1783 by George III. There is some evidence that a similar saltire was occasionally used to represent Ireland before this. It is often suggested that it derives from the arms of the powerful Geraldine or FitzGerald dynasty. Most Irish nationalists reject its use to represent Ireland as a "British invention".

After its adoption by the Order of Saint Patrick, it began to be used by other institutions. When the 1800 Act of Union joined the Kingdom of Ireland with the Kingdom of Great Britain, the saltire was added to

the British flag to form the Union Flag still used by the United Kingdom. The saltire has occasionally served unofficially to represent Northern Ireland and has been considered less contentious than other flags flown there.

### **The Flag of the Government of Northern Ireland (1953-1972)**

The “Ulster Banner” is the official name[citation needed] that was given to the flag, which can be referred to as “the flag of Northern Ireland”, the “Northern Ireland flag”, the “Red Hand Flag” or as the “Ulster Flag” (not to be confused with the provincial Flag of Ulster). The Ulster Banner was the official flag that was used to represent the Government of Northern Ireland from 1953 to 1973. In common with other British flags, any civic status of the flag was not defined in a de jure manner.

In 1924, the Government of Northern Ireland was granted arms by Royal Warrant and had the right to display these arms on a flag or banner. This right was exercised for the Coronation in 1953. Between 1953 and 1972, this flag was the arms of the Government of Northern Ireland. It ceased to have official government sanction when the Parliament of Northern Ireland was dissolved by the British government under the Northern Ireland Constitution Act 1973, but remains the only flag to date which represents Northern Ireland at international level in sport.

The flag is based on the flag of England and the flag of the province of Ulster, with the addition of a crown to symbolise the loyalty of Ulster unionists to the British Monarchy.[citation needed] As with the flag of the province of Ulster, it contains the Red Hand of Ulster at the centre. There is a dispute as to the meaning of the star, with some maintaining it is the Star of David, and others say it represents the six counties that make up

Northern Ireland.

The flag is used within the unionist community, along with the Union Flag. A variation of the flag places the Union Flag in the Canton, and defaced with the red hand and the



outline of a map of Northern Ireland on the Union Flag. It is regularly displayed by fans of the Northern Ireland national football team. It is also used to represent Northern Ireland at the Commonwealth Games, the Northern Ireland national football team.

Northern Ireland as a country with rich culture has its own emblems and symbols that are taken there very seriously. Some of them are well-known everywhere; some are taken for granted by the nation only.



### **Shamrock**

The three-leaved clover or the shamrock is one of Ireland's most recognizable symbols. According to the legend, St. Patrick, the patron of Ireland, illustrated the concept of the Holy Trinity with the help of shamrock during the process of Christianization of the state. Since that time people always wear the plant on Saint Patrick's Day that is the Irish national holiday. Besides, the rival militias also used the shamrock as their emblem during the late 18<sup>th</sup> century events. The nationalist group called the United Irishmen chose green color as their revolutionary one. The shamrock is used in emblems or logos of various organization, firms and establishments.

### **Leprechaun**

The Emerald Isle has its own folklore personage – a leprechaun – a little man (gnome) in green coat and hat who always does mischief and has a hidden pot of gold. Being caught by a man he offers him three wishes to go free. His image is widely used for tourist and television industries.



## **Harp**



The Irish harp or the Gaelic harp has a very long history being a symbol of Ireland. The legends say about magical powers of this instrument (they say it reflects the immortality of the soul) and its first usage by King David as his badge. The harpists were highly trained and regarded professionals who performed their masterpieces for the nobility as it was very difficult to learn how to play this instrument. The harp has been

used on Guinness labels since 1876. It also figures in various mythology stories.

## **Red Hand**



There exists a legend about two contestants who had a rivalry for being the lord of the province of Ulster. The race winner would have become a ruler. When one of them – O'Neill – saw that his woe should have won, he cut his hand off and threw it ahead claiming the rights for the lordship. The red color symbolizes O'Neill's blood. The red hand has been used by both Protestants and Catholics.

## **Geography**

Ireland is separated from Great Britain by the Irish Sea. The island is politically divided into two parts: the Republic of Ireland or Eire and Northern Ireland, which is part of the United Kingdom.

Northern Ireland covers an area of only one sixth of the island of Ireland, but its population is over a third of the total. Northern Ireland, which

roughly corresponds with the ancient province of **Ulster**, consists of the six counties: Antrim, Down, Armagh, Tyrone, Fermanagh, and Londonderry (or Derry). The capital city is Belfast, which has a population of almost half a million, nearly a third of the entire population of the province. The distinctive Ulster accent, markedly different from that of the southern Irish, bears traces of English and Scottish influence.

**Belfast** is the chief port and industrial centre of the province. The city boasts of many fine buildings such as the Royal Courts of Justice, Queens University, and the Royal Parliament Buildings at Stormont. Its prosperity was originally based on its linen industry, but in the 19<sup>th</sup> Century it became a major shipbuilding centre. Shipbuilding is now in sharp decline, and unemployment is high. The famous ship Titanic was built at the Belfast shipyards.

Most of the small lakes and rivers of the south-west drain into Lough Erne, a 50-mile-long waterway which is popular for fishing and boating holidays. The southern part of Northern Ireland is made up of lowlands. The attractive Mourne Mountains are in the south-east. A characteristic feature of Northern Ireland is the greenness of the countryside and the cloudy skies above. The overall weather pattern in Ulster features a high rainfall. Lough Neagh, in the centre of the province, is the largest lake in the British Isles, and yields trout, freshwater herring and eels. Most of the beautiful small lakes and rivers in the south-west of the province drain into Lough Erne, a 50-mile-long waterway which is popular for fishing and boating holidays. Northern Ireland is a fisherman's paradise, and the soft green landscape and rugged, picturesque coast line make it one of the most attractive regions in the island, but tourism has been badly affected by political troubles.

Northern Ireland contains some of the richest farming land in the British Isles. Outside the industrialised area around Belfast, it remains predominantly agricultural. Cattle, sheep, and dairying account for 60% of all farming. The main crops are hay, barley and oats for animal feed, and potatoes. The damp weather does not favour large-scale production of wheat. The flax used for the production of linen is now mainly imported. Cod, herring, mackerel, whiting and shellfish are trawled from the Irish Sea and the Atlantic.

## History

In the early 17th century, as part of their plan to subjugate Ireland, the English government decided to ‘plant’ settlements of English and Scots colonists in Ulster, on land taken away from the native Irish who had remained faithful to the Catholic religion and were regarded as potential rebels. These plantations are the historical cause of the present ethnic and religious divide. The Protestant community, mainly consisting of Presbyterians (of Scots origin), still form a majority in the north, whereas Catholics predominate in the south. The northern Catholics feel little allegiance to the British crown.

Up to the 19th century, Ulster had been regarded as a remote and insignificant part of Ireland and of the British Isles as a whole. Protestants, and especially Presbyterians, made Ulster a province distinctly different from the rest of Ireland. Ulster Protestantism was regarded by Irish Catholics as a foreign and hostile phenomenon. In the early 19th Century Belfast was an almost exclusively Protestant city but an influx of Roman Catholics from the countryside added a significant Roman Catholic minority. Changes in the British economy resulted in the rise of Belfast as the economic centre of Ireland. Religion or rather differences in religion soon became a dominant political force. A clash of identities between “Britishness” and “Irishness” became increasingly apparent.

The proposal by the Liberal government just before World War I to grant ‘Home Rule’ to a united Ireland was bitterly opposed by the more militant Ulster Protestants (also known as ‘Orangemen’ because of their historical association with the Protestant William of Orange, who as William III defeated the Catholic forces of the Stuart king James II in 1690). The Orangemen feared that in a united Ireland they would lose their power and their identity. The World War intervened before Home Rule could be enacted. After the war the southern rebels finally succeeded in obtaining Irish independence by the Anglo-Irish treaty of 1921, but the six counties of Northern Ireland were excluded from the new southern Irish State. The island was partitioned: Ulster remained part of the United Kingdom but with its own Parliament, in which the Protestant parties had a permanent majority. The issue of partition led to a civil war in the south between

those who refused to accept this partition (the founders of the Fianna Fail party) and those who were willing to accept partition as the price of independence (the Fine Gael party).

For nearly fifty years after 1921, power in Northern Ireland was exercised by the Protestant Unionist party which had a permanent majority in the provincial Parliament. The Catholic minority suffered from discrimination and injustice. At the end of the 1960 a Civil Rights Association was formed to campaign for reform of the political system. Their protests led to rioting and sectarian violence, and in 1969 British troops were sent to the province to keep the peace. They were initially welcomed by the Catholic population, but this mood changed after the events of 'Bloody Sunday' (30 January 1972) when 13 Civil Rights protestors were shot dead during a banned demonstration in Londonderry. The anger caused by this event was exploited by the IRA (Irish Republican Army), which now began its campaign of bombing and terror as a means of ending partition. In 1974 there was a brief experiment in 'power-sharing' between the Unionist (Protestant) and Nationalist (Catholic) parties, but this was bitterly opposed by the Protestant Ulster Workers' Council, and later that year direct rule by Westminster was reintroduced.

Since then the opposing parties in Ulster have failed to reach agreement on a new system of government, and effective power has been in the hands of the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland who is a member of the British Cabinet.

From 1971 to 1994 the IRA waged an indiscriminate campaign of terror in Ulster and on the mainland of Britain. Their most sensational coups were the assassination of the Queen's cousin, Earl Mountbatten, in 1979, and the bomb attack at Brighton in 1984, which narrowly missed killing the Prime Minister, Mrs Thatcher. Far more shocking, however, was the killing and maiming of many ordinary citizens going about their daily business. Violence bred violence: extremist Protestant Unionists formed their own para-military organisations to combat the IRA, and both sides carried out 'tit-for-tat' murders, raiding each other's territory.

Ulster was not the only region in Europe to be torn apart by sectarian strife whose causes can be traced back several centuries. The conflict is

not a religious war between Catholics and Protestants, but a conflict between two ethnic groups who inhabit the same territory but are estranged from each other by history, religion and culture. They go to different schools, attend different churches and live in different areas of the same towns and cities. Again and again the vast majority of Ulster people, on both sides of the divide, have voiced their demand for peace, but the politicians have not been able to reach compromise.

In 1994, following many months of secret negotiations, the IRA declared a ceasefire, but the British government refused to allow representatives of Sinn Fein (the political wing of the IRA) to attend all-party peace talks unless they agreed to ‘decommission’ (hand over, or surrender) their arms. This the IRA refused to do so, and the cease-fire ended early in 1996.

A milestone on the road to lasting peace in Northern Ireland was a historic settlement, known as the Good Friday Agreement of 10 April 1998. The Agreement called for Protestants to share political power with the minority Catholics, and it gave the Republic of Ireland a voice in Northern Irish affairs.

In 2005, the IRA stated that it would renounce violence. Soon the executive government, consisting of both unionist and nationalist parties, was created in Northern Ireland.

### **Culture, language, lifestyles and sport**

Apart from English, the languages spoken in Northern Ireland include Ulster Irish and Ulster Scots. Much of traditional Northern Irish food consists of potatoes, lamb based stews; bacon and cabbage, apple pies, wheaten and soda breads, smoked herring and salmon, buttermilk and creamy butter. Potatoes, called “murphys” or “spuds”, are eaten in greater quantities than in the rest of the UK.

The most popular traditional meal in Northern Ireland is the Ulster fry consisting of bacon, eggs, sausages, potato bread and tomatoes. An evening meal is called high tea or “tea”. In general, it will include some hot food, accompanied with a variety of breads and often end with a sweet item such as homemade cake with a cup of tea.

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