

МІЖРЕГІОНАЛЬНА
АКАДЕМІЯ УПРАВЛІННЯ ПЕРСОНАЛОМ



МАУП

НАВЧАЛЬНА ПРОГРАМА
дисципліни
“МІЖНАРОДНА ТА ПОЛІТИЧНА ІСТОРІЯ
ВЕЛИКОЇ БРИТАНІЇ ХХ СТОЛІТТЯ”
(для магістрів)

МАУП

Київ 2007

Підготовлено професором кафедри міжнародних відносин *І. А. Хижняком*

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(протокол № 2 від 06.09.06)

Схвалено Вченою радою Міжрегіональної Академії управління персоналом



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Хижняк І. А. Навчальна програма дисципліни “Міжнародна та політична історія Великої Британії ХХ століття” (для магістрів) – К.: МАУП, 2006. – 22 с.

Навчальна програма містить пояснювальну записку, тематичний план, зміст дисципліни “Міжнародна та політична історія Великої Британії ХХ століття”, питання для самоконтролю, а також список літератури.

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управління персоналом (МАУП),
2007

ПОЯСНЮВАЛЬНА ЗАПИСКА

У цій програмі зроблено спробу висвітлити базові проблеми міжнародної та політичної історії Великої Британії ХХ століття. Програма складена відповідно до вимог підготовки магістрів за спеціальністю “Країнознавство” напряму “Міжнародні відносини” Міністерства науки та освіти України, а також Українсько-Арабського інституту міжнародних відносин ім. Аверроеса МАУП.

Основна мета курсу:

- висвітлити міжнародну та політичну історію Великої Британії з урахуванням лінгвістичних особливостей мови країни в сучасний період;
- зосередити основну увагу на міжнародному значенні історичного і політичного розвитку країни протягом останнього століття і дотепер;
- дати імпульс до концептуального усвідомлення семантичних змін в англомовній суспільно-політичній лекції, які сталися останніми роками;
- заохотити до самостійних роздумів про логіку та закономірності визначення місця і ролі Великої Британії в системі розвитку міжнародних відносин протягом ХХ — початку ХХІ ст.

Здобуті знання при вивченні дисципліни є базовими для подальшого поглиблення знань зі спеціальних і галузевих дисциплін, пов’язаних з проблемами міжнародної і політичної історії країн західноєвропейського та північноамериканського регіонів.

Ще одна базова мета цього професійно орієнтовного лінгвокраїнознавчого курсу полягає в опануванні специфіки практики еволюційних процесів розвитку міжнародних відносин у контексті їх синтезу з комплексом глобальних політичних взаємодій на міжнародній арені протягом ХХ — початку ХХІ ст.

Для ефективного засвоєння знань основних проблем курсу і долучення студентів до роботи над першоджерелами та аналізу зовнішньополітичних документів у програмі передбачений відповідний список основної та додаткової літератури. Це сприяє усвідомленому, глибокому засвоєнню логіки та методології майбутнього наукового дослідження при підготовці висококваліфікованих фахівців у галузі країнознавства міжнародних відносин.

BRIEF OUTLINE OF CONTENTS AND GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE

The programme is an attempt to outline the international and political history of Great Britain in the 20th century. It was compiled in strict accordance with the syllabus and curriculum requirements for Ukrainian and Arab Institute of International Relations and the Chair of International Relations.

The outline of English international and political history is intended:

- to serve as a background for international, historical, political and scientific as well as linguistic studies of Great Britain;
- to make a study of English wordstock in its international, political and historical development;
- to arise students' interest in semantic changes that words undergo in the course of time;
- to investigate changes that take place in the system of European international relations within the period of the 20th century, beginning the 21 one.

Likewise the information thus provided might be found necessary in cases where international historical, political and scientific background is required to facilitate conclusions concerning prevalent stylistic preferences characteristic of certain periods or certain conventional ways and modes of expression.

The international relations, political and scientific information may be found especially useful by those, whose interest takes them to the domain of contemporary international and political history of Great Britain. Concise as it necessarily is, and dealing only with the more events and phenomena, circumstances and ideas, the course might nevertheless provide data necessary for the clarification of modern British international and political background, the social need and cultural significance of various global commitments.

The list of books used is recommended for the benefit of students undertaking independent research. It is also meant to suggest further reading to everyone interested in the problems discussed here.

THEMATIC PLAN OF THE COURSE
“INTERNATIONAL AND POLITICAL HISTORY OF GREAT
BRITAIN IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY”

№	Names of Content Modules and Units
1	2
I	Content Module 1. Home and Foreign Policies of Great Britain Early the Twentieth Century Unit 1. Liberal Reforms Unit 2. The First World War, 1914–1918
II	Content Module 2. British Foreign Policy Toward States of Versailles System Unit 3. Paris Peace Conference, 1919 Unit 4. Inter-War Years Unit 5. The Munich Agreement and Its Failure
III	Content Module 3. Britain in the Second World War, 1939–1945 Unit 6. Origins of War Unit 7. Britain in War Actions Unit 8. Conferences of the “Big Three” Unit 9. Results of the War
IV	Content Module 4. Britain and the World Since 1945. Empire into Commonwealth Unit 10. The World Late 1940 – The 1950s Unit 11. Defense Policy Unit 12. Empire into Commonwealth
V	Content Module 5. British Membership in the European Community Unit 13. Britain and the 1957 Treaty of Rome. The Creation of the Common Market Unit 14. Differences and Difficulties with the European Community (EC)
VI	Content Module 6. International and Political Development in 1960s–1980s Unit 15. Reasons for the Rapid Demise Of British Empire Unit 16. Basic Commitments in British Foreign Policy

1	2
VII	Content Module 7. Sources of Thatcher Conservative Upsurge Unit 17. Conservatism and the Rise of Margaret Thatcher Unit 18. Thatcher's Assertive Role for the Nation in Foreign Policy
VIII	Content Module 8. Britain Foreign Commitments within the System of "Pluralistic Unipolarity" of the World Politics Unit 19. Major's Claim Towards Closer Co-operation with European Partners Unit 20. Britain New Role in New Europe and in "Pluralistic Unipolar" Cosmopolitan World the World Politics
Total 54 Hours	

SYLLABUS

Content of the Course

"INTERNATIONAL AND POLITICAL HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY"

Content Module 1. Home and Foreign Policies of Great Britain Early the Twentieth Century

Unit 1. *Liberal Reforms.* The Liberals securing a record majority, capturing all the industrial areas with the exception of Chamberlains strong hold of the Birmingham district. A successful adoption of a Trade Disputes Act far more favourable to the workers than the Government had originally intended. The series of social reforms associated with the name of Lloyd George.

[1; 9; 11–14; 17; 21]

Unit 2. *The First world War 1914–1918.* In June 1914 in Sarajevo a Serb murdered the heir to the Austrian Empire. After the beginning of the war Great Britain's more close approximation than any other of the great powers to the idea of a liberal state. Almost unlimited free trade character of its commercial system. The role of the small British Expeditionary Force in halting the main German advance into northern France at Mons in August, then at the Marne in September 1914. The battles between the principal Allies (France, Britain and Russia together with Japan in

the Far East, joined by Italy in May 1915) and the opposing Central Powers (Germany and Austria – Hungary, joined by Ottoman Turkey in November 1914). British involvement into different First World War warfares. British major naval strategy, based on a blockade of supplies to Germany which produced serious shortages and food riots in Germany by the end of the war. German attempts to blockade Britain by unrestricted submarine warfare. Anglo – French failures on the seafront. British creation a mass Army to fight the main enemy land power on the main land front for the first and only time in its history. The Great War became to be a unique social and psychological trauma for Britain with her no peace time tradition of mass conscript Army. America’s declaration of war on Germany (6 April, 1917). This year appeared to be the bleakest one of the war for Allies. The signing of Brest-Litovsk peace as well as the decisive British victory at Amiens on 8 August 1918-basic data witch convinced Germany to seek peace. Britain’s getting major gains out of the ending the naval threat by the surrender of the German fleet and the territorial and military restrictions placed on Germany.

[1; 9; 11–14; 17; 21]

Content Module 2. British Foreign Policy Toward States of Versailles System

Unit 3. *Paris Peace Conference, 1919.* Britain’s great weakening in absolute terms and particularly in its debts to America when the last dominated the Paris Peace Conference. The production by five month-long Peace Conference of 1919–1920 that concluded World War I the Treaty Versailles with Germany. Its denial Germany any influence on the settlement and giving rise to late claims that it had produced a “dictated peace”. Its becoming a source of contention in international relations throughout the inter-war years. Britain’s major gain to end the naval threat by the surrender of the German fleet. The territorial and military restrictions placed on Germany. The setting up of the League of Nations and the placing of the former German colonies under League of Nations, many of them effectively under British control.

[1–4; 8–14; 19; 21–23]

Unit 4. *Inter-War Years.* British insufficient influence to prevent a reparations burden, which was to inflict severe damage on the German economy, creating conditions favourable to the later rise of Nazism, and precipitate the depression. The inability of successive British Governments to deliver “aland fit for heroes” for its nation. Baldwin’s

Chancellor of the Exchequer, Winston Churchill's emergence in the British homefront. Economist's John Maynard Keynes's warnings that the country old remedies of economy and restriction would make the depression worse. His arguments in his *General Theory of Employment Interest and Money* for a greater degree of state intervention in the management of the economy. The inter-war years left Germany weak but with a strong sense of grievance and the impact of depression. This all led it to a strong belief that the losses suffered in World War I had been excessive and futile, contributing to the inter-war policy of appeasement. Entering the War late, the USA secured the maximum profits with minimum damage.

[1–4; 8–14; 19; 21–23]

Unit 5. *The Munich Agreement and Its Failure.* British non-intervention in the Spanish Civil War and in the Sino-Japanese War policy to be paralleled by a policy of appeasement towards Adolf Hitler. Massive rearming of Germany in pursuit of his territorial ambitions. Baldwin's succession of MacDonald and his acquiescence in Italy's invasion of Abyssinia. Italy's taking leave the League of Nations, now reduced to impotence. Hitler's incorporation Austria in Germany and demands of the part of Czechoslovakia. The treaty signed in Munich gave Hitler leave to annex so much of Czechoslovakia that the rest was defenseless. Unacceptability to Britain of further German aggression in Eastern Europe for it gave the Germans control over resources large enough to allow them to dominate Europe. Nevertheless the acquiescence in aggression was to become appeasement. On 23 August of 1939 Germany and the Soviet Union signed the Treaty of Alliance a Non-Aggression Pact (the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact), agreeing secretly to partition Poland, and invaded it on 1 September. The final failure of Appeasement pursuit by Britain and France Churchill's becoming the spokesman and the counselor of those who believed that was time to prepare in earnest for a probable war. Winston Churchill as the charismatic head of a National Coalition Government whose bulldog persistence and heroic speeches provided the inspiration needed in the backs – against – the – wall mood of the time.

[1–4; 8–14; 19; 21–23]

Content Module 3. Britain in the Second World War, 1939–1945

Unit 6. *Origins of War.* Britain's and France's declaration war on Germany. Although Hitler did not expect it, Germany is widely accepted as being responsible for the outbreak of war. Britain and France took no

military action to defend Poland. French strategy was based chiefly on the defense of the Maginot Line and British strategy on support of France. Up to a point the Second World War resembled the First. But the differences were easier to see than the resemblances. The powers were differently grouped: Italy and Japan were on the German side; the USSR remained neutral until the Germans attacked. The Second World War lasted even longer than the other. It pressed harder on the civilian populations.

[2–8; 11–16; 20–23]

Unit 7. *Britain in War Actions.* Though the island was not invaded, the population was more directly involved than in any former war. Of all the states opposed to Germany Great Britain was the only one which fought throughout the war. The Germans swooped on Norway and Denmark (April 1940). Weak and ill-found British forces tried too late to defend positions on the Norwegian coast. The British Expeditionary Force was ferried back from Dunkirk. The German air forces engaged the RAF (Royal Air Force) in the Battle of Britain (July 1940). From July to September 1940 under Hugh Dowding's Leadership RAF Fighter Command engaged enemy formations, inflicting sufficiently severe losses to convince the Germans that they had failed to secure air supremacy. On 20 August 1940 Churchill proclaimed the Battle won. FGR openly supported Churchill, and in March 1941 instituted Lend lease allowing Britain virtually unlimited access to America war materials. Their meeting on board warships off Newfoundland for the Atlantic Charter declaration. Fighting spread all over the world. The Pacific was as vital a theatre as Europe. Britain's main naval campaign for the next two years was the Battle of the Atlantic against unrestricted German submarine warfare, and its main land campaign was in North Africa to prevent Field Marshal Rommel capturing Suez. Britain also encouraged Resistance movements. On 22 June 1941 Germany attacked the Soviet Union, and on 12 July 1941 Britain and the Soviet Union signed a Treaty of Mutual Assistance. The Eastern Front saw the heaviest and most barbaric land fighting of the war, occupying two-thirds of all the German armed forces. On 7 December the Japanese attacked the American Pacific Fleet at Pearl Harbor in the Hawaiian Islands. Next day America and Britain declared war on Japan, and on 11 December, just as German forces were repulsed from the outskirts of Moscow, Germany and Italy declared war on America. Early 1942 saw the German-Italian-Japanese Axis at the height of its power. Nevertheless, after three years of victories, the involvement of the US and the USSR together with Britain meant that the Axis could not possibly win a long war.

[2–8; 11–16; 20–23]

Unit 8. Conferences of the “Big Three”. The advantage now lay with the Allies. Churchill and Roosevelt agreed a policy of defeating Germany before Japan, and together with Stalin as the “Big Three” co-ordinated strategy in a series of Conferences throughout the war. The first meeting of the “Big Three”, Churchill, US President Roosevelt and Soviet leader Stalin, was held from 28 November to 1 December 1943 at Tehran, Iran. They discussed arrangements for the opening of the Second Front in May 1944. On 6 June 1944 in Operation Overlord the Allies opened their long-awaited Second Front in Normandy, the start of the liberation of France. At Christmas time the last major German offensive of the war through the Ardennes was defeated. In the spring 1945 the inexorable advance was resumed on both Eastern and Western Fronts. The Second of the “Big Three” Summits was held from 4–12 February 1945 in Yalta, the Soviet Union. It was crucial for deciding the shape of post-war Europe at a point when victory over Nazi Germany was virtually assured. In April 1945 Soviet troops reached Berlin, linking with American troops at Torgau at the end of the month and cutting Germany in two. German forces surrendered unconditionally to the Allies in Italy on 2 May and in Germany itself on 7 May 1945. The last of the “Big Three” wartime Conferences was held in a suburb of Berlin from 17 July-2 August 1945 after the end of World War II in Europe. America was represented by President Truman, and Britain’s new Prime Minister Attlee took over from Churchill after 27 July. The major issue was the future of Germany: it was agreed to give Poland a westward extension of the pre-war borders of the line of the Oder – Neisser rivers; reparations were also agreed.

[2–8; 11–16; 20–23]

Unit 9. Results of the War. Mass bombing raids and naval blockade had rendered Japan’s position hopeless when the dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki on 6 and 9 August 1945, together with a Soviet declaration of war and invasion of Manchuria on 8 August, led to Japan’s surrender on 14 August. Total British and Imperial war dead were under half a million, of which only 144 000 were British soldiers. In contrast the Soviet Union, which ended the war with its massive armies dominating Eastern Europe, lost almost 27 million dead and the total on all sides was nearly 60 million. Other aspects of World War II were virtually identical to the earlier war, especially the creation of Home Front and command economy and the acceptance of economic dependence on America. Britain (and the British Empire, the countries of which also declared war without hesitation) was the only country to fight against Germany – and later

Japan-from the war's to its end, and without itself being attacked first. Since the seventeenth century Britain has been preoccupied with the Balance of Power in Europe and within its Empire. It now faced in entirely new situation, a major turning-point in history as 1945 confirmed the judgment of 1918. Virtually bankrupt, it began its slow but steady retreat from Empire, granting independence and partition to India in 1947 and increasingly surrendering its global responsibilities to America. Apart from this, with Eastern and Central Europe under Soviet control and the onset of the Cold war, Britain's new military and international commitments were increasingly dictated by the NATO Alliance to defend Western Europe.

[2–8; 11–16; 20–23]

Content Module 4. Britain and the World Since 1945. Empire into Commonwealth

Unit 10. *The World Late 1940s – The 1950s.* Long before the surrender of Germany in May and of Japan in August 1945, it became clear that Britain would not be able to compete on equal terms after the war with Soviet and American superpowers. Both these countries had vastly greater military might than Britain. The world was quickly dividing itself into two hostile camps, with a numerically large but politically weak “non-aligned” group of nations in the middle. But although weak economically, Britain still had great power expectations. She was one of only five nations (along the USA, USSR, China and France) to have a permanent seat on the UN Security Council, she presided over a vast empire and she was shortly to become (in 1952) the world's third nation (after the USA and USSR) to possess nuclear weapons. A number of factors was responsible, principally the stabilizing (if not destroying) of cold war relations with the Soviet Union.

[1; 3; 5; 7–9; 11–14; 17–22]

Unit 11. *Defense Policy.* Emergence of NATO (1949) did not lead to any immediate reinforcement of British troops in Europe. This complacent picture was overturned rudely by a series of events from the late 1940s. The successful testing by the USSR of an atomic bomb in 1949 ended the Western monopoly of nuclear weapons much earlier than had been anticipated. The invasion by North Korea of the South was interpreted in both London and Washington as a Soviet – inspired move to divert Western resources to the Far East, leaving the front door open in Europe to

further Soviet advance. Europe became indisputably the focus for defence planning, the question of the organization and structure of the West's defence effort became paramount. Other profound changes were meanwhile occurring in Britain's defence thinking. Britain exploded its own atomic bomb at the Monte Bello islands off Western Australia in October 1952. The explosion came as the culmination of a six-year operation initiated by a secret decision of the Attlee Government in 1946 that Britain should not be left out of the race and should become a nuclear power. Other preparations were well advanced on Britain's own hydrogen bomb, initiated in 1952 and tested in May 1957. Consistent with the new policy, Britain also came to rely more on arrangements for collective security and multilateral treaties. With NATO and WEU in place in Western Europe, Britain built up the Central Treaty Organization (CENTO), or Baghdad Pact, to defend the Middle East against possible Soviet invasion from the North. This pact consisted of Turkey, Iran, Iraq, and Pakistan but in reality it never had much substance and shortly fell apart. In September 1954 Britain acceded to another loose mutual defence arrangement, the South Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO), which consisted of the UK, the USA, France, Australia, New Zealand, Thailand, The Philippines and Pakistan. With NATO, CENTO and SEATO, the Soviet Union and China were effectively encircled by anti-communist alliances. President Nasser's of Egypt unilateral nationalization of Suez Canal, which was jointly owned by Britain and France. In July 1956, he placed both nations in dilemma: to do nothing might be seen as a sign of weakness by their colonial empires, to respond with force might invite international condemnation. The military operation in November 1956 backfired badly, and Britain and France found themselves isolated on the world stage. Most painful for Britain, her old ally the USA was one of the strongest opponents of military action. It proved to be one of Britain's last major overseas operations, until the Falklands War in 1982.

[1; 3; 5; 7–9; 11–14; 17–22]

Unit 12. *Empire into Commonwealth.* The story of Britain's Empire and the gaining of independence by former colonial territories is of central importance to an understanding of post-war British history and politics. To consider the causes of decolonisation, it is necessary to distinguish two separate entities within the British Empire. Commonwealth countries, formerly Dominions, were totally self-governing and recognised as such since the Statute of Westminster in 1931, but they accepted Britain's

monarch as their head of state and followed Britain's lead in defence and foreign affairs: these were, in 1945, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Eire and South Africa. The second "part" of the empire was the colonies. The empire as a whole was based on four main elements: 1. Partnership with the Commonwealth. 2. Dependence on India. 3. Dominance in the Middle East. 4. The Key importance of Britain itself. In the early 1950s Australia and New Zealand joined in the so-called ANZUS pact with the USA, from which Britain was excluded, and in general both countries, as well as Canada, began to look more to the USA for protection than to Britain. The pace of decolonisation quickened substantially from 1957. That year saw the first grants of independence since 1948, to Malaya and Ghana. In the mid-1950s independence for the bulk of the colonies was still perceived as many years away. The British Government tried various expedients, including that of trying to link several colonial together in a series of "federations", but such device broke down in the face of internal pressure for independence. The Thatcher Government obtained a significant victory for the British prestige with its negotiations of an agreement for legal independence of South Rhodesia, later renamed Zimbabwe, in spring 1980. Commonwealth issues receded in importance until 1985–1986 when the problems of South Africa and her policy of racial apartheid threatened to split the group. The Thatcher Government refused to impose any financial or trade relations upon South Africa.

[1; 3; 5; 7–9; 11–14; 17–22]

Content Module 5. British Membership in the European Community

Unit 13. *Britain and the 1957 Treaty of Rome.* The Creation of the Common Market. During the first fifteen years after the war, Britain remained detached from proposals to effect to a closer union. Attempts of British Government to join the Common Market. Revision of main conceptions of economic policies in overseas countries. In order to stand an economic confrontation with the Common Market Britain founded "A European Association of Free Trade" with Sweeden, Norway, Denmark, Switzeland, Austria, Portugal as member countries. But this association proved to be devoid of any organizational potential to stand competition with the existing world. That's why the British government gave energy and mind to pave the way for the Common Market. Great Britain was unwilling to join the Coal and steel Community in 1952. Nor did Britain

take part in the talks in Messina in Sicily in 1950. As a result it led to the 1957 Treaty of Rome and the creation of the Common Market. Neither the Labour nor Conservative Party was keen on economic integration.

[1; 3–8; 10–22]

Unit 14. *Differences and Difficulties with the European Community (EC)*. Britain applied unsuccessfully twice for the EEC but to her anger de Gaulle, the French President, first vetoed Britain's application in January 1963, arguing that Britain was insufficiently free of overseas ties, especially to the USA. A second attempt was made by the Labour Government of Harold Wilson in 1967, which was subjected to a second French veto in 1969. The third attempt proved successful and in January a Treaty admitting Britain into the EEC was signed; in January 1973 she joined along with Ireland and Denmark. The EC that Britain joined in 1973 was far more than an economic club. Britain's future in the Community was called into question, however, shortly after her joining it. Labour returned to power in February 1974 and was deeply divided over Europe. The Thatcher Government tried to establish a role in Europe and in Commonwealth which would not only confirm the prominence of British influence in those groupings but also protect British economic and diplomatic interests. In 1981 the Labour Party Manifesto called for Britain's withdrawal from the European Community. The most widely discussed change in the terms of Community membership is the Single European Act, which was passed in the UK Parliament in 1986 and which came into force Community – wide in 1987. John Major's accession to power in November 1990 marked a more favourable attitude towards closer co-operation with European partners. Most differences and difficulties with the EU (EC) arise from a fundamental disagreement over whether the EN should become integrated into a supranational federal Europe, or a confederation based on co-operation between nation-states. British opposition to European federalism is deeply rooted in British Political philosophy, history, politics and culture. Following the resounding victory of Tony Blair's Labour Party in the election of 1 May, 1997, the question was immediately raised: would the new Government be significantly more positive about integration? It is being very unlikely that the UK would join a single currency in the life time of the new Parliament.

[1; 3–8; 10–22; 24]

Content module 6. International and Political Development in 1960s–1980s

Unit 15. *Reasons for the Rapid Demise of British Empire.* The dispute erupted at the Commonwealth Conference of Heads of Government in October 1987 in Vancouver, Canada. Thatcher accused the banned anti-apartheid movement, the African National Congress, of being “terrorists”, while leaders such as Robert Mugabe of Zimbabwe and Kenneth Kaunda of Zambia accused the Prime Minister of sacrificing all moral interests for the sake of greed and British trade with South Africa. Even non-African leaders such as Brian Mulroney of Canada and Bob Hawke of Australia publicly joined in condemnation of British policy. Tensions reached new peaks when in the summer of 1989 British cricketers announced their intention to take part in a “rebel” tour of South Africa. The release from prison of the black African ANC leader, Nelson Mandela. Mrs. Thatcher welcomed his release, but refused to support the maintenance of economic sanctions of the De Klerk regime. Basic reasons for the rapid demise of the British Empire: **1. The British economy. 2. Britain’s eclipse as a superpower. 3. Nationalist movements.**

[5–12; 14–16; 19–22]

Unit 16. *Basic Commitments in British Foreign Policy.* In their foreign policy all the post-World War II governments of Great Britain had to take into consideration certain factors that characterize the economic and political situation of the country. In the first place, British opportunities for influencing international affairs were drastically limited. Political forces within the country were assuming new attitudes that had to be reckoned with. The theme of Churchill’s speech made in Fulton, USA on 5 March, 1946 was world domination and “association of English-speaking peoples” was the means. Churchill’s formulation of the main points of the policy that was named the “position of strength” policy, ultimatum being one of the favorite features of strategy. In 1947 the so-called “Marshall Plan”, ostensibly a benevolent project meant to improve the economic position of post-war Europe through American financial aid. In Europe the foreign policy of Attley’s Labour government was aimed at utilizing the defeat of Germany and Italy for consolidation of England’s leading role in European affairs. The German problem was a most crucial issue in post-war England. The problem of relations with other countries of Western Europe became increasingly important by the end of the 1960 while British influence in

those countries was most startlingly diminishing. The situation when the Franco-West German relations started deteriorating. Washington and London stated finding more things in common with Bonn. Britain's inability to stabilize her balance of payments and guarantee her economic development proved to be a serious hindrance disabling her from European Economic Community membership. Participating in the Commonwealth influences the foreign policy of a member state, though there cannot be such a thing as an unanimous foreign policy of the Commonwealth. In the foreign policy Great Britain's concern is show mostly for the Commonwealth developing countries. The British government began to realize in the 20th century Great Britain could no longer lead the way as it used to do in the 18th and the 19th centuries.

[5–12; 14–16; 19–22]

Content Module 7. Sources of Thatcher Conservative Upsurge

Unit 17. *Conservatism and the Rise of Margaret Thatcher.* The economic downturn and inflation of the Harold Wilson and James Callaghan years engendered mood of disillusionment. It also strengthened a renewed suspicion of government and its ability to deal effectively with the country's deep-rooted social and political problems. Conservatives, begin long out of power at the national level, were well positioned to exploit this new mood. It was a time when many British people were receptive to their message of more effective government, strong national defense and the protection of traditional values against what were seen as the encroachments of a permissive and often chaotic modern society. This conservative upsurge had many sources. The Thatcher government domestic programme was rooted in his belief that the nation would prosper if the power of the private economic sector was unleashed. A proponent of "supply side" economics, a theory which holds that a greater supply of goods and services is the swiftest road to economic growth. Thatcher sought large tax cuts to promote greater consumer spending, saving and investment. Supply-side economists argued that a tax cut would lead to increased business investment, increased earning and-through taxes on these earnings-increased government revenues.

[3; 7; 9–11; 13–19]

Unit 18. *Thatcher's Assertive Role for the Nation in Foreign Policy.* In The post-war period the chief aim of British foreign policy in Europe as well as in other regions overseas has been the ardent inspirer and active participant of the NATO military alliance. During the armed conflict

between Britain and the Falklands in 1982 she had carried on a very prudent and at the same time aggressive policy to preserve her influence there. Thatcher put forward the so-called “Its Our Land” doctrine of the nineteenth century. The gist of this doctrine was as follows: Great Britain considered to preserve her military presence in all her dominions overseas. Thatcher personally inspired and directed military operations and fully confirmed her political nickname the “Iron Lady”. She also managed to set up new strategic bases in the Latin America. The truth was that these military bases wouldn’t go on to protect effectively British interests in that area but for Thatcher’s government that chronological period was ripe to choose the most preferable time for extraordinary Parliament elections.

[3; 7; 9–11; 13–19]

Content Module 8. Britain’s Foreign Commitments within the System of “Pluralistic Unipolarity” of the World Politics

Unit 19. *Major’s Claim Towards Closer Co-operation with European Partners.* During the election campaign for the European Parliament was fought out in May 1994, the then Prime Minister, John Major, offered his version of the history of the country whose Government he led. The British nation has a monarchy founded by the Kings of Wessex over eleven hundred years ago, a Parliament and Universities formed over seven hundred years ago, a language with its roots in the mists of the time, and the richest vocabulary in the world. This is no recent historical invention: it is the cherished creation of generations, and as the work is to be done to build a new and better Europe, one must never forget the traditions and inheritance of nation’s past. Britain will never be left without the spirit sinking just a little, and it always lifts the heart to set foot here once again. Although no longer a great imperial, Britain may claim to be something greater: the center of a free association of sovereign independent states: Canada, Australia, New Zealand and almost all her former possessions that have become independent since the World War II, including the great republics of India and Pakistan, whose people form the majority of those within this Common – wealth of Nations.

[7; 9–11; 13–16; 18–22; 24]

Unit 20. *Britain’s New Role in New Europe and in “Pluralistic Unipolar” Cosmopolitan World.* The realization of inevitability to set up fruitful attempts in stimulating growing influence of Britain in the European Economic Community and retain it’s profitable ties with the

Commonwealth countries. In the 1970s Tory Prime Minister, Edward Heath, led Britain into the brave new world of European Economic Community (now European Union); and though up till now Britain remains as “awkward partner” of Europe, with the 1997 Election of a more “Euro-friendly” New Labour Government of Tony Blair, there has been much speculation that this will end. It is a crucial time now both for the EU and for Britain, when Europe looks to London. It the nearest future Britain will be obviously found in the “heart of Europe” among the leading EU nations. That is the real sense of “pluralistic unipolarity” of contemporary cosmopolitan world. Cosmopolitisation of European as well as world international politics is in progress.

[7; 9–11; 13–16; 18–22; 24]

QUESTIONS FOR TEST

1. When was a Trade Disputes Act adopted?
2. Whose name is the series of social reforms associated with?
3. What year did a Serb murder the heir of the Austrian Empire?
4. What was the historical role of the small British Expeditionary Force?
5. What were the principal Allies in World War 1?
6. What was British major naval strategy based on?
7. When was the Brest-Litovsk peace signed?
8. When was the Paris Peace Conference held?
9. What were the reasons for creation favourable conditions to the later rise of Nazism?
10. Who appeared to be Baldwin’s Chancellor of the Exchequer?
11. Give the name of the author of the General Theory of Employment?
12. Who secured the maximum profits with the minimum damage after entering World War 1?
13. Who was guilty of pursuing a policy of appeasement?
14. What country was taking leave the League of Nations?
15. When did Hitler’s incorporation of Austria happen?
16. When was the Munich Pact signed?
17. Whose charismatic bulldog persistence did provide the inspiration needed in the back- against-the-wall mood of the time?
18. Who declared war on Germany on 3 September 1939?
19. Who became to be responsible for the outbreak of World War II?
20. Did the Second World War resemble the First one?
21. What war did press harder on the civilian population?

22. What year did the Germans swoop on Norway and Denmark?
23. When was the British Expeditionary Force ferried back from Dunkirk?
24. What country was engaged in the Battle of Britain?
25. Who openly supported Churchill in March 1941?
26. What ocean did Germany undertake unrestricted submarine warfare in?
27. What year did Britain and the Soviet Union sign the Treaty of Mutual Assistance?
28. When was the American Pacific Fleet at Pearl Harbor attacked?
29. What year were the German forces repulsed from the outskirts of Moscow?
30. Was the German-Italian-Japanese Axis at its height late 1943 or early 1942?
31. When was the first meeting of the "Big Three" held?
32. What date and year was the Second Front opened by the Allies?
33. When was the second meeting of the "Big Three" held?
34. Whose leaders were deciding the shape of post-war Europe?
35. When was the last meeting of the "Big Three" held?
36. What decision was taken concerning Poland's borders?
37. What Japanese cities were subjected to atomic bomb attack?
38. What was the total British and Imperial dead during World War II?
39. What kind of policy has Britain been preoccupied since the seventeenth century with?
40. Was Britain able to compete on equal terms with the Soviet Union and the USA after the war?
41. When did Britain explode its own atomic bomb?
42. What countries did the CENTO Pact consist of?
43. When did Britain accede to the South Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO)?
44. What military operation did backfire badly for Britain and France?
45. What country was the strongest opponent of the military action that took place in July of 1956?
46. What problem of the story of Britain's Empire is considered to be of central importance?
47. How can one distinguish two separate entities within the British Empire?
48. How many main elements was the Empire based on?
49. What year did the pace of decolonisation quicken substantially from?

50. What was the reason for the Thatcher Government to obtain a significant victory?
51. What purpose was “A European Association of Free Trade” founded?
52. Why was Great Britain unwilling to join the Coal and steel Community?
53. Were the Labor or the Conservative Parties keen on economic integration?
54. How many times did Britain apply unsuccessfully for the EEC?
55. What year did Britain join the EC?
56. When did the Labor Party Manifesto call for Britain’s withdrawal from the European Community?
57. What kind of document was the Single European Act?
58. Why did Thatcher welcome the release from prison the black African ANC leader Nelson Mandela?
59. Why did economic downturn and inflation of the Harold Wilson and James Callaghan years engender a mood of disillusionment?
60. What is the real sense of “pluralistic unipolarity” of contemporary cosmopolitan world?

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