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GREAT BRITAIN:
GEOGRAPHY, POLITICS, CULTURE

Рекомендовано Ученым советом федерального государственного бюджетного образовательного учреждения высшего профессионального образования «Оренбургский государственный университет» в качестве учебного пособия для студентов, обучающихся по программам высшего профессионального образования по направлению подготовки 032700.62 Филология

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Учебное пособие предназначено для бакалавров 1 курса направления подготовки 032700.62 Филология, профиль «Зарубежная филология», изучающих английский язык как основной иностранный.

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Содержание

Введение…… 6
1 The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland: country and people…… 7
1.1 Geographical position…… 7
1.2 Names…… 7
1.3 Statistics…… 8
1.4 General knowledge about four countries and their people…… 9
1.5 National symbols of the UK and four countries ……... 12
1.6 Exercises…… 19
2 History of Britain: from Early Britain to the Middle Ages…… 23
2.1 Britain B.C…… 23
2.2 Early Britain. The Celtic Tribes…… 23
2.3 The Roman Conquest of Britain…… 24
2.4 Roman influence in Britain …… 25
2.5 The Middle Ages. The Anglo-Saxon Conquest of Britain …… 26
2.6 The Norman Invasion ……... 27
2.7 The medieval period (1066 – 1485)…… 28
2.8 Exercises…… 29
3 History of Britain: from the Middle Ages to the Modern Times…… 34
3.1 The late Middle Ages (13^{th} – 15^{th} century)…… 34
3.2 The sixteenth century…… 35
3.3 The seventeenth century…… 37
3.4 The eighteenth century…… 39
3.5 The nineteenth century…… 41
3.6 The twentieth century…… 43
3.7 Exercises…… 44
4 Geography……..... 48
4.1 Geographical position of the UK…… 48

4.2 The four countries (landscape, economy)…… 48
4.2.1 England…… 48
4.2.2 Scotland…… 50
4.2.3 Wales…… 51
4.2.4 Northern Ireland…… 52
4.3 The islands of the UK…… 52
4.3.1 The Islands of England…… 52
4.3.2 The Islands of Scotland…… 53
4.3.3 The Isle of Man…… 54
4.4 Climate in the UK..... 55
4.5 Vegetation and Wildlife in the UK…… 56
4.6 Exercises…… 56
5 Political structure of the UK…… 61
5.1 British monarchy (myths, reality, role)…… 61
5.2 The royal family…… 63
5.3 Political structure and style of democracy…… 67
5.4 The Government (the executive power: the cabinet, Prime Minister, civil service, local government authorities)…… 69
5.5 Exercises…… 71
6 Parliament in the UK…… 76
6.1 Introduction (functions, the place, the structure of Parliament)…… 76
6.2 The House of Commons…….. 76
6.3 The House of Lords…… 79
6.4 Political parties in the UK…… 80
6.5 General elections…… 81
6.6 Exercises…… 83
7 Mass Media…… 87
7.1 The Press…… 87
7.2 Radio and Television…… 92
7.3 Exercises…… 95

8 Religion in Modern British Life…… 102
8.1 Exercises…… 107
9 Education in Great Britain…… 109
9.1 Characteristics of education in Great Britain…… 109
9.2 Compulsory education (nursery school, primary school, secondary school) 111
9.3 Types of schools…… 113
9.3.1 State Schools…… 113
9.3.2 Fee Paying Schools (Independent Schools)…… 113
9.4 Higher education in Great Britain…… 114
9.5 Types of universities…… 115
9.6 World-known educational centers: Oxford and Cambridge. Student life… 117
9.7 Exercises…… 120
Список использованных источников…… 125
Приложение А Географические названия…… 128

Введение

Целью освоения дисциплины «География и культура страны основного иностранного языка» является получение представление о географии, государственном устройстве, культуре, быте, традициях народов, говорящих на изучаемом языке, основываясь на концептуальных и культурологических типах информации о странах изучаемого языка, их истории, социально-культурных особенностях, традициях и быте, а также о языке как отражении и фиксации культуры и о культуре сквозь призму языка. Учебное пособие содержит страноведческий материал об истории, географии, политической жизни, культуре Великобритании, а также контрольные вопросы, тесты и задания для практических занятий по дисциплине «География и культура страны основного иностранного языка».

Изучение дисциплины необходимо для реализации требований, установленных в федеральном государственном образовательном стандарте высшего профессионального образования по направлению подготовки 032700.62 Филология (профиль Зарубежная филология).

Курс рассчитан на 72 часа аудиторной и самостоятельной работы, из которых 34 часа отводится на проработку и повторение лекционного материала учебников и учебных пособий, подготовку к практическим занятиям, коллоквиумам, рубежному контролю и зачету.

Данное учебное пособие разработано в соответствии с рабочей программой дисциплины и предназначено для изучения разделов 1 – 5: «Введение в курс «География и культура страны изучаемого языка», «Государственное устройство, национальные символы Соединенного королевства Великобритании и Северной Ирландии», «Особенности географического положения Соединенного королевства Великобритании и Северной Ирландии», «СМИ, образование, здравоохранение и религия» и «Государственное устройство».

1 The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland: country and people

1.1 Geographical position

On the map you can see that the UK lies to the north-west of Europe. There are 2 large islands and several smaller ones. Collectively they are known as the British Isles. The largest island is called Great Britain. The other large one is called Ireland. Ireland is divided into Northern Ireland (Ulster) and the Irish Republic. The UK also includes more than 5000 smaller islands.

Politically speaking there are 2 states in the British Isles. The first is the Irish Republic or Eire, which governs the most part of Ireland and the other state controls the rest of the British Isles. Its official name is The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Its geographical position is advantageous as it is washed by the Atlantic Ocean in the west, the North Sea in the east. Great Britain is separated from the continent by the English Channel and the Strait of Dover.

On the one hand the kind of isolation of the country makes its geographical position different from European countries; on the other hand it has influenced the formation of the main characteristic feature of British people. That is their love for privacy.

1.2 Names

The official name of the country is The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

It has several shorter names:

– The United Kingdom – used at European vision of Song Contest, at the United Nations and in the European Parliament;

– the UK – used in every day speech;

– Great Britain – heard in the Olympic Games;

– GB is written on stickers on cars;

– Britain – used in writing and speaking;

– Albion – a word used in some poems. It was the original Roman name for Britain. It may come from the Latin word *albus*, meaning white. The white chalk cliffs around Dover on the south coast are the first thing to be seen when you cross the sea from the European land.

– Britannia – the name that Romans gave to their southern British province (which covered the area of present-day England).

1.3 Statistics

The UK occupies the territory of 244 830 sq. km. Its population (statistical data of 2007) is 61 million people (table 1).

Table 1

Countries	**Population, mln**	**Nationalities, %**
England	51,1	The English – 81,5
Scotland	5,1	The Scotts – 9,6
Wales	3	The Welsh – 1,9
Northern Ireland	1,8	The Irish – 2,4
UK total	61	Others – 2,8

Compare with the following data: population of Russia – 142 mln; population of Germany – 81,8 mln; population of France – 65,4 mln.

Languages which are spoken in the UK are English, Scottish, Welsh, Scottish Gaelic and Irish.

The capital of the UK is London. The largest cities are London (7,64 mln.), Birmingham (2,27 mln.), Manchester (2,250 mln.).

The UK is a constitutional monarchy. The head of state is the Queen – Elizabeth II.

The currency unit is Great Britain pound (GBP), which consists of 100 pence.

The statistics shows that the country is not large, but the majority of people lives in England (the part of island conquered by Anglo-Saxons) and speaks English. The other parts of the UK (Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland) are much smaller than the dominant one.

1.4 General knowledge about four countries and their people

There are 4 countries that the UK consists of. They are England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. England is the largest and most populated part of the UK. The capital of England and the UK is London.

Scotland is the most northern of four countries in the UK. It occupies the territory of about 80 thousand sq. km. and is not so densely populated as England. The capital of Scotland is Edinburgh.

Another constituent part of the UK is Wales, situated along the western side of the island. The capital of Wales is Cardiff.

Northern Ireland is the smallest part of the UK and occupies the north-east of the island of Ireland, only one-sixth of its territory. The capital of Northern Ireland is Belfast.

There are four nations on the British Isles: English, Welsh, Scottish and Irish. They are different.

If you remember from history of Britain, the four nations were different racially. The people in Ireland, Wales and highland Scotland belonged to Celtic Race; those in England and lowland Scotland were mainly of Germanic origin. This difference was reflected in the languages they spoke. People in the Celtic areas spoke Celtic languages: Irish, Gaelic, Scottish Gaelic, Welsh. People in the Germanic areas

spoke Germanic dialects (including the one which has developed into modern English). The nations tended to have different economic, social and legal systems.

In 1800 the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland became a single state when the Irish Parliament was joined with the Parliament for England, Scotland, and Wales in Westminster. However, in 1922, most of Ireland became a separate state.

Today these differences have not completely disappeared. People of 4 nations feel their identity very strongly. It is safest to use Britain when you talk about where they live and British as the adjective to describe their nationality.

The signs of national identity of people who live in four countries of the UK are the following (see table 2).

Characteristic names (both surnames and first names). The prefix 'Mac' or 'Mc' in surnames (such as McCall, MacCarthy, MacDonald) is always either Scottish or Irish. The prefix 'O' (as in O'Brien, O'Hara) is distinctly Irish. The prefix 'P' can be found in many Welsh surnames (Prichard). A very large number of surnames (for example, Davis, Evans, Jones, Lloyd, Morgan, Price, Rees, Williams) suggest Welsh origin. The most common surname in both England and Scotland is actually 'Smith'.

The prefix 'Mac' means 'son of' and people with this name usually feel they belong to the same family or clan. 'O' means 'the family of'. The Prefix 'P' comes from the Welsh word 'ap (or ab)', which also means 'son of'. Thus for example a Welsh surname Prichard is the same as English Richardson (the son of Richard).

First names can also be indicative. The Scottish form of 'John' is 'Ian' and its Irish form is 'Sean' (although all three names are common throughout Britain).

There are also nicknames for Scottish, Irish and Welsh men. For example, you can address a Scottish friend as 'Jock', whatever his first name is. Irishmen are called 'Paddy' or 'Mick' and Welshmen are known as 'Dai' or 'Taffy'. If the person is not a friend the nickname can sound rather insulting.

National dress. Perhaps the most famous national costume in Britain is the Scottish kilt with its distinctive tartan pattern. The kilt is a woolen skirt with a lot of vertical pleats. The kilt is worn around the waist, with the pleats at the back and the

ends crossed over at the front and secured with a pin. Each Scottish Clan or family has its own distinctive tartan pattern, made up of different colours.

Sometimes tartan trousers or trews are worn instead of a kilt.

Women do not have their own distinctive national dress in Scotland, although tartan fabrics are widely used in clothing, and the kilt is also worn by women.

Although England is a country rich in folklore and traditions, it has no definite 'national' costume. The most well-known folk costumes are those of the Morris dancers. During the summer months people can see them in many country villages performing folk dances that once held ritualistic and magical meanings associated with the awakening of the earth.

The costume varies from team to team, but basically consists of white trousers, a white shirt, a pad of bells worn around the calf of the leg, and a hat made of felt or straw, decorated with ribbons and flowers. The bells and ribbons are said to banish harm and bring fertility.

Welsh National dress is not as famous as Scottish National dress. Still they do have a National women's costume, in fact there isn't really a National costume for men although recently a tartan has been created and tartan trousers or kilts are often worn.

The Welsh National Costume for women was designed by an influential lady, Lady Llanover, who lived in Gwent South Wales.

The Welsh costume consists of a tall hat, a long frilled white cap worn under the hat, a white blouse, a red flannel shawl, a long skirt made of wool with a black and white chequered pattern, a starched white apron sometimes edged with lace, black woolen stockings, and black shoes.

Early Irish dress, based on Gaelic and Norse costumes, consisted of trews for men, worn with a fringed cloak, or a short tunic for both men and women, worn with a fringed cloak. Saffron yellow is an important feature of Irish costume. This style of dressing was prohibited in the 16th century to suppress the distinctive Irish dress and so overcome Irish reluctance to become part of England. A strong tradition of wearing this folk costume is not observed in Northern Ireland today.

The traditional Irish costume is now associated with the bright flamboyant costumes worn by traditional Irish dancers.

N**ational character.** There are certain stereotypes of national character which are well-known in different countries.

British people are considered to be reserved, polite, well-bred and they love privacy. People of each country (England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland) have their own characteristic features that make them different from each other.

The English are said to be cold, polite, quiet, but possessing a great sense of humour, a special 'English type' of humour, often difficult to understand for foreigners. The English are known to be very conservative in their political and social views.

The Scots have a reputation for being careful with money; they are more self-conscious about their nationality than the Englishmen. The Welsh are highly-gifted in the art of poetry and drama. They speak fluently and confidently. The Welsh are a nation of singers. The Irish are supposed to be great talkers.

National musical instruments. The harp is a musical instrument of both Ireland and Wales. The bagpipes are regarded as distinctively Scottish (though a smaller type is also used in traditional Irish music). The Northumbrian small pipes are considered to be English.

The four nations who live in the UK differ from each other, perhaps that is why when they are asked who they are they are proud to answer – at first they are the English (or the Welsh, or Scotsmen or the Irish) and only then they are the British or the citizens of the UK.

1.5 National symbols of the UK and four countries (the national flag; the Coats of Arms, the national anthem, national holidays and national emblems)

Flag is a visiting card of any country, which symbolizes its sovereignty and reflects its history. In the 14-th century the first national flag was St George's cross –

a red cross on a white background, as St George is a patron saint of England.

The 17th century was time when relations between England and Scotland changed. These two countries were united by Jacob Stuart in 1603. The national symbols had to be changed. It was necessary to combine two crosses: a red cross on a white background of St George's flag and a white cross on a blue background (St Andrew's cross – flag of Scotland). This new flag was created and became national in 1606 and was called 'Union Jack'.

On the 1st of January in 1801 the union of England and Ireland was claimed. It was necessary to make changes in the National flag and Emblem. This time the flag got new red diagonal lines from St Patrick's cross. Since 1801 the flag wasn't changed and it's possible to see it on the flags of former British colonies.

So the national flag of the UK is The Union Jack. It is the combination of the cross of St. George, of St. Andrew, of St. Patrick.

The origin of the term 'Union Jack' is uncertain. It may come from the name of Jacob Stuart (James I) who originated the first union in 1603. Jack is a short name of Jacob. Another alternative is that the name may be derived from a jack, a small flag at the bowsprit flown only by ships of the Royal Navy during the reign of Charles II (1660 – 1685); the term 'jack' once meant small.

The Welsh dragon does not appear on the flag because when the first Union Flag was created in 1606, Wales was already united with England from the 13th century. Wales was a Principality instead of a Kingdom.

In November 2007, a Welsh MP, Ian Lucas, asked parliament why Wales is not represented in the Union Jack. He thought it wrong, that the British flag, so-called Union Jack, includes now flags only of three countries – England, Scotland and Northern Ireland. In his opinion, in new design of a flag there should be a symbol of Wales – a red dragon. Now you can see Ian Lucas' version of the Union flag with Wales represented.

Representatives of conservative party declared that his initiative would not receive support. However the minister of culture of Great Britain – laborite Margaret

Hodzh supported the idea of changing the design of the British flag. But till now this question hasn't been discussed in the government.

The Coat of Arms of the UK is one of the national symbols (picture 1).

On the left, the shield is supported by the English Lion. On the right it is supported by the Unicorn of Scotland. (The unicorn is chained because in mediaeval times a free unicorn was considered a very dangerous beast (only a virgin could tame a unicorn).

The Royal Arms we see today appeared over nine centuries ago, when Richard the Lion heart chose three lions to represent England.



Picture 1 – The Coat of Arms of the UK

The main element of the Arms is the shield which is divided into four quarters.

The first and fourth quadrants represent England and contain three gold lions passant (in plain English, three gold lions with their right forepaws raised and their heads facing the viewer on a red field; the second quadrant represents Scotland contains a red lion rampant on a gold field; the third quadrant represents Ireland and contains the gold harp of Ireland on a blue field. Wales is not represented on the shield and Coat of Arms because it was recognized as a Principality.

The Royal Coat of Arms contains the motto of British Monarchs and the motto of the Order of the Garter. The motto of the Sovereign is ‘Dieu et mon Droit’ (French for ‘God and my right’).

The motto was first used by King Richard I in 1198 and adopted as the royal motto of England in the time of Henry VI. The motto appears below the shields of the Royal Coat of Arms.

The motto of the Order of the Garter is ‘Honi soit qui mal y pense’ (French for ‘Evil to him who evil thinks’). Order of the Garter was the highest order of English knighthood, founded by Edward III in 1344. According to the tradition, the garter (a piece of elastic worn round the top of a stocking or sock in order to prevent it from slipping down) was that of the Countess of Salisbury, which the king placed on his own leg after it fell off while she was dancing with him. The king’s comment to those present, ‘Honi soit qui mal y pense’ (shame be to him who thinks evil of it), was adopted as the motto of the order.

The national **anthem** is ‘God Save the Queen’. The British National Anthem originated in a patriotic song first performed in 1745. It became known as the National Anthem from the beginning of the nineteenth century.

On official occasions the first verse is sung, as follows:

God save our gracious Queen!
Long live our noble Queen!
God save the Queen!
Send her victorious,
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign over us,
God save the Queen.

The National Anthem is played:

– whenever the Queen makes a public appearance;
– by the British Broadcasting Corporation every night before closedown;
– at the end of all Remembrance Day services;
– Medal ceremonies for Team GB (representing all countries);

– England and Northern Ireland football matches (the Scottish use Flower of Scotland, the Welsh use Land of my Fathers).

The UK does not celebrate one particular **national holiday**. Each country of the UK has its own national day, which is celebrated in the honour of its patron saint.

The national day of England is St. George's Day, celebrated on the 23^{d} of April in the honour of St. George, the patron saint of England.

He is known as the conqueror of a dragon. According to the legend in the neighborhood of some pagan town there was a dragon which killed people just for fun. Every day he was brought a new victim: a young boy or girl. When it was time for a governor's daughter, St George was passing by and he decided to save the girl. And he did it. According to some versions the dragon was struck down with a pray and became obedient. It believed in the power of kindness and the girl brought it to the town. The citizens of the town were so delighted by the power of religion, that were christened. St George was known to be a knight in a white cape with a red cross on it.

This holiday is not a bank holiday and people work on this day. The flag of England is raised on St George's Day, some people wear a red rose or clothes with the images of the English flag.

The national day of Wales is St. David's Day, celebrated on the 1st of March in honour of St David, the patron saint of Wales.

He was a Celtic monk, who lived in the sixth century. He spread the word of Christianity across Wales. The most famous story about Saint David tells how he was preaching to a huge crowd and the ground is said to have risen up, so that he was standing on a hill and everyone had a better chance of hearing him.

St David's Day is commemorated by the wearing of daffodils or leeks. On St David's Day, some children in Wales dress in their national costume. The national flag of Wales, depicting a fiery red dragon against a green and white background, is also flown.

The national day of Scotland is St Andrew's Day, celebrated on the 30th of November. St. Andrew was one of Christ's twelve apostles. Some of his bones are

said to have been brought to what is now St. Andrews in Fife during the 4th century. Since medieval times the X-shaped cross upon which St. Andrew was supposedly crucified has been the Scottish national symbol.

The national day of Northern Ireland and Republic of Ireland is St. Patrick's Day, celebrated on the 17th of March. Saint Patrick was a patron saint of Ireland and the founder of Irish Christian church. They say he lived in the end of 4th – in the beginning of 5th centuries. The most famous story about Saint Patrick is him driving the snakes from Ireland. The day is marked by the wearing of shamrocks.

St Patrick's Day is celebrated with parades in the large cities; people wear the green and drink Guinness traditional drink of Ireland). Guinness is another symbol of St Patrick's day.

National days are not celebrated in the same extent as National Days are in a number of other countries. Only St Patrick's Day in Northern Ireland (and the republic of Ireland) and St Andrew's Day in Scotland (from 2007) are taken as an official holiday. All the other national days are normal working days.

Each of the constituent countries of the United Kingdom has a traditional **national floral symbol**. The national emblem of the United Kingdom is the red rose.



The national flower of England is rose. The flower has been adopted as England's emblem since the time of the Wars of the Roses – Civil wars (1455 – 1485) between the royal house of Lancaster (whose emblem was a red rose) and the royal house of York (whose emblem was a white rose).



The national flower of Wales is the daffodil, which is traditionally worn on St. David's Day. The vegetable called leek is also considered to

be a traditional emblem of Wales. There are many explanations of how leek came to be adopted as the national emblem of Wales. One is that St David advised the Welsh, on the eve of battle with the Saxons, to wear leeks in their caps to distinguish a friend from an enemy. According to another legend St. David ate only bread and leek.



The national flower of Scotland is the thistle, a prickly-leaved purple flower which was first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defense. According to the legend it saved the country from enemies. Once a boat with Scandinavian Vikings landed on the Scottish shore in order to rob Celtic villages. A group of Scottish soldiers moved to meet the enemy on their way to the village and in the evening the Scots decided to spend night in the field because they didn't expect Vikings attack at night. But cunning enemies wanted to kill all Scotts when they were sleeping, so Vikings walked barefoot to move quiet. But one of them stepped on a thistle and shouted with pain. It awoke the Scotts and they could fight with Vikings. Since then it became a symbol of Scotland. It is used as an amulet of good luck.



The national flower of Northern Ireland is the shamrock, a three-leaved plant similar to clover. An Irish tale tells of how Patrick used the three-leafed shamrock to explain the Trinity. He used it in his sermons to represent how the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit could all exist as separate elements of the same entity. His followers adopted the custom of wearing a shamrock on his feast day.

1.6 Exercises

Exercise 1 Can you answer these questions?

1) What is the official name of Britain?

2) Which are the biggest and the smallest countries of the UK?

3) What animals are represented on the national Coat of Arms?

4) What is the name of the national flag?

5) What saints patronize each country of the UK?

6) What are the national plant symbols of each country of the UK?

7) Who is the head of the state?

8) What is the national currency unit in Great Britain?

Exercise 2 Test yourself: choose the most suitable answer.

1 A patron Saint of England is…:

a) St George;

a) St Patrick;

b) St David;

c) St Andrew.

2 A symbolic plant of Wales is…:

a) A red rose;

b) Leek / a daffodil;

c) Thistle;

d) Shamrock.

3 Who is the current monarch?

a) King George;

b) Queen Elizabeth II;

c) Queen Elizabeth I;

d) Queen Elizabeth III;

4 What country is not presented on the National Coat of Arms?

a) Scotland;

b) Northern Ireland;

c) Wales;

d) England.

5 What is the national currency of the UK?

a) The euro;

b) The dollar;

c) The pound;

d) The ruble.

6 What animal is presented on the National Coat of Arms?

a) A dog;

b) A snake;

c) A Horse;

d) A Unicorn.

7 What is the national motto of the UK?

a) Be strong;

b) God and my right;

c) In God we trust;

d) God save the Queen.

8 What country is called Eire?

a) The republic of Ireland;

b) Northern Ireland;

c) Wales;

d) England.

9 When is St David's Day usually celebrated?

a) March 1;

b) November 30;

c) March 17;

d) April 23.

10 What is the English flag called?

a) Union Patrick;

b) Union Jack;

c) Lines and Crosses;

d) Uncle Sam.

Exercise 3 Complete the table 2 with necessary information.

Table 2 – Symbols of Identity

Name	**England**	**Wales**	**Scotland**	**Northern Ireland**
Capital				
Population				
Patron Saint				
Flag				
Plant				
Animal				
Surnames	The most common Smith	Davis, Evans, Jones, Rees	Prefix ‘Mac ‘Mc’ MacDonald Smith	Prefix ‘Mac’Mc’ Prefix ‘O’ O’Hara
First names	John		Ian	Sean
Nick names Only by friends		Dai Taffy	Jock	Paddy Mick
Clothes				
Musical instrument				
Characteristics Stereotypes of national character		The Welsh –	The Scots –	The Irish-
Old names of the countries (Roman names)	These names are used today in scholarly	Cambria	Caledonia	Hibernia Erin-poetic name

Name	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland
	classifications and the names of organizations			The Emerald Island

Did you know?

- There are over 30,000 John Smiths in Britain.

- After the 1745 rebellion, led by Bonnie Prince Charlie, the government made it illegal for Scotsmen to wear kilts. The ban remained in force until 1832.

- English (official) and Gaelic are the main languages of Scotland.

- The official animal of Scotland is Unicorn.

- The motto of Scotland is 'No one provokes me with impunity'.

- Scottish surnames are divided in two main categories, namely Gaelic names and Germanic names.

- The official languages of Ireland are Irish and English.

- The most popular purchases made by tourists in Ireland are blackthorn walking sticks, Guinness glasses, Waterford Crystal and Aran Isle sweaters.

- The Welsh are the direct descendants of the Roman-era inhabitants of England and Wales, who were displaced and confined to the hilly and rocky western fringe of Britain by the Anglo-Saxons in the 5th and 6th centuries. The English name for Wales originates from the Germanic word Walha, meaning stranger or foreigner, which is related to the word Gaul. The French and Italian word for "Wales" is Galles, while the Spanish is Gales.

- Welsh, a Brythonic Celtic language, is ancestral tongue of Welsh people. Nowadays 750,000 people claiming a self-reported competence in Welsh (21,7% of the population of Wales).

2 History of Britain: from Early Britain to the Middle Ages

2.1 Britain B.C.

About three thousand years B.C. many parts of Europe including the British Isles, were inhabited by a people called the Iberians. The Iberians used stone weapons and tools. They could polish stone and make smooth objects of stone.

In some parts of modern Britain one can see a number of huge stones standing in a circle. These are the monuments left by the earliest inhabitants of the country. The best-known stone-circle named Stonehenge dates from between 1900 and 1600 B. C. The stones are 8.5 metres high and weigh about 7 tons.

No one can tell how these large stones were moved, or from what places they were brought. Stonehenge is still a mystery to scientists.

There are a lot of legends connected with the Stonehenge. Some believed that the early British kings, killed by their enemies, were buried here; others think that Druids made it to house their pagan rites. Some say it was used for sun worship. It may have been a Temple for some form of worship – or a Court of Justice – or a Hall for ceremonial meetings of tribal chiefs.

2.2 Early Britain. The Celtic Tribes

During the period from the 6th to the 3rd century B. C. a people called the Celts spread across Europe from the east to the west. Some Celtic tribes – the Iberians, the Picts, the Scots and the Britons –invaded Britain. The Picts penetrated into the mountains on the North; the Scots settled in the North beside the Picts. Powerful Celtic tribes, the Britons, held most of the country, and the southern half of the island was named Britain after them. The Iberians were unable to fight back the attacks of the Celts and were driven westwards into the mountains what is now Wales.

The Greeks were the first to mention the British Isles. They wrote about the Phoenicians, great sailors and traders, who used to come to the British Isles for tin.

They called the British Isles the Tin Islands.

Julius Caesar described the country and its inhabitants in his 'Commentaries on the Gallic War'. He tells us that the Celts were tall and blue-eyed. They wore long moustaches but no beards.

In the 1st century B. C. they lived in tribes, and were ruled by chiefs, or kings, whom all the tribesmen obeyed. In war-time the Celts wore skins and painted their faces with a blue dye to look fierce. They were armed with swords and spears. The Celts fought fiercely in the battle.

2.3 The Roman Conquest of Britain

Two thousand years ago while the Celts were still living in tribes the Romans were the most powerful people in the world. Roman society was divided into the class of slaves and the class of slave-owners. The slave-owners put down the uprisings of the slaves with the help of the army. The army also helped the slave-owners to protect their riches against foreign enemies and to conquer new lands and to seize more slaves. The Romans conquered all the countries around the Mediterranean Sea.

In 55 B. C. a Roman army of 10,000 men with Julius Caesar at the head crossed the Channel and invaded Britain. The Celts saw their ships approaching and rushed to attack the invaders in the sea. Their hair and moustaches were dyed red and their legs and arms were painted blue. With loud shouts they attacked the Romans and the well-armed Romans had to retreat to Gaul (France).

In 54 B. C, Caesar again came to Britain, this time with larger forces (25,000 men). The Celts fought bravely for their independence but they were not strong enough, in spite of their courage, to beat the Roman. The Romans defeated the Celts in several battles. Some of the chiefs submitted and promised to pay tribute to Rome. But the promised tribute was not paid.

Nearly a hundred years later, in 43 A. D. a Roman army invaded Britain and

conquered the South-East. The Celts fought fiercely against the Romans who never managed to become masters of the whole island. They were unable to conquer the Scottish Highlands. From time to time the Picts and the Scots from the North managed to invade the Roman part of the island and burn their villages.

2.4 Roman influence in Britain

To defend their province the Romans placed their legions in Britain. Straight roads were built so that the legions might march quickly, whenever they were needed, to any part of the country. These roads were made so well that they lasted a long time and still exist today. Bridges of stone were constructed wherever a road crossed a river. Besides, to guard the province against the Picts and Scots who lived in the hills of Scotland, a high 'Hadrian's Wall' with forts was built in the North.

The civilized Romans were city dwellers, and as soon as they had conquered Britain they began to build towns, splendid villas, public baths as in Rome itself. Every Roman town had a drainage system and a good supply of pure water. Great tracts of forests were cleared, swamps were drained, and cornfields took their place.

But together with a high civilization the Romans brought exploitation and slavery to the British Isles. Rich Romans had villas in the country with large estates, which were worked by slaves. Prisoners of war were sent to the slave-market in the Roman Empire. The Romans made the free Celts clean forests, drain swamps, build roads, bridges and walls for defence. The noble Celts adopted the mode of life of their conquerors. They lived in rich houses and spoke Latin, the language of the Romans. But ordinary Celts lived in their tiny huts, they spoke their native Celtic tongue and they didn't understand the language of their rulers.

The Romans remained in Britain for about four centuries and during that time Britain was a Roman province, governed by Roman governors and protected by Roman legions.

In the 4th century the uninterrupted struggle of slaves against their owners

greatly weakened the Roman Empire. Early in the 5th century the Roman legions were recalled from Britain to defend the central provinces of the Roman Empire from the attacks of the barbarian Germanic tribes. They never returned to Britain.

Though the Romans lived for four centuries in Britain, their language didn't influence the English language. There are only several place names of Roman origin: Chester, Lancaster, Gloucester, which are variant of the Roman word castra (a military camp).

2.5 The Middle Ages. The Anglo-Saxon Conquest of Britain

After the Roman legions left Britain the Celts remained independent but not for long. From the middle of the 5th century they had to defend the country against the attacks of Germanic tribes from the Continent. The Saxons and the Angles began to migrate to Britain. At first they only came to plunder. They landed from their boats, drove off the cattle, seized the stores of corn, and were off again to sea before the Celts could attack them. But after some time they returned again and again in larger numbers, and began to conquer the country.

The British natives fought fiercely against the invaders and it took the Angles and the Saxons more than a hundred and fifty years to conquer the country. The Celts went to the mountains in the west of the isle (now Wales) and settled there. In the course of the conquest many of the Celts were killed, some were taken prisoners and made slaves or had to pay tribute to the conquerors.

In the southern and the south-eastern parts of the country the Saxons formed a number of kingdoms – Sussex (the land of the South Saxons), Wessex (the land of the West Saxons, and Essex (the land of the East Saxons). Further north were the settlements of the Angles who had conquered the greater part of the country. In the North they founded Northumbria, Mercia was formed in the Middle, and East Anglia – in the east of England. The new settlers disliked towns, preferring to live in small villages. During the war they destroyed the Roman towns. The art of road-making

was lost for many hundreds of years.

The Saxons and the Angles gradually united into one people and made up the majority of the population in Britain. Their customs, religion and language became predominant. Only the Celts who remained independent in the West, Scotland and Ireland spoke their native tongue. The conquerors called them 'welsh' which means foreigners.

In 829 under the rule of King Egbert all the small Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were united to form one kingdom which was called England from that time on.

Soon Anglo-Saxons had to defend their country against new enemies. The enemies were the Vikings who came from Scandinavia. In the 9th century they settled the extreme north and west of Scotland and some coastal regions of Ireland. King Alfred, Saxon king of Wessex fought them in the battle, but he couldn't drive them away and had to let them have part of the country, called Danelaw.

2.6 The Norman Invasion

In the 11th century the Normans, a mixed Scandinavian and French people, living in the North of France, began to attack the coasts of England from Normandy. The English king who died in 1066 had no children and William, the Duke of Normandy, being a relative of the died king, wanted to become the king of England. So he began preparation for a war to fight for the Crown.

The Normans' army was much larger than Anglo-Saxon forces and they were greatly superior in quality. The Anglo-Saxon army consisted mainly of free peasants who fought on foot. Not all of them had weapons, many had pitchforks and axes. The Normans were well armed.

The Normans crossed the Channel in big sailing-boats and landed in the south of England, fought with Anglo-Saxons and won the victory. The battle between the Normans and the Anglo-Saxons took place on the 14th of October 1066 at a little village Hastings. William, Duke of Normandy, became the king of England and was

called William the Conqueror, who ruled England for 21 years.

2.7 The medieval period (1066 – 1485)

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

The Normans introduced the strong system of government that's why the Anglo-Norman kingdom was the most powerful political force in the British Isles. The authority of the English monarch gradually extended to other parts of these islands in the next 210 years. By the end of the thirteenth century, a large part of eastern Ireland was controlled by Anglo-Norman lords in the name of the English king and the whole of Wales was under his direct rule (at which time the custom of naming the monarch's eldest son the 'Prince of Wales' began). Scotland managed to remain politically independent in the medieval period, but was obliged to fight occasional wars to do so.

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

Despite English rule, northern and central Wales was never settled in great

numbers by Saxon or Norman. As a result the (Celtic) Welsh language and culture remained strong. The Anglo-Norman lords of eastern Ireland remained loyal to the English king but, despite laws to the contrary, mostly adopted the Gaelic language and customs.

By the end of this period there was a cultural split in Scotland between the lowlands, where the way of life and language was similar to that in England, and the highlands, where (Celtic) Gaelic culture and language prevailed.

Parliament appeared in this period in England. The word 'parliament' comes from the French word parler (to speak), and was first used in England in the thirteenth century to describe an assembly of nobles called together by the king. In 1295, the Model Parliament set the pattern for the future by including elected representatives from urban and rural areas.

2.8 Exercises

Exercise 1 Can you answer these questions?

1) Who were the first to inhabit the British Isles?
2) Which part of the British Isles was named Britain and why?
3) When did the army of Julius Caesar first invade Britain?
4) What was the function of 'Hadrian's Wall' during the Roman conquest?
5) What kingdoms were formed by the Germanic tribes?
6) When did the Norman invasion to Britain begin?
7) When did the first Parliament appear?

Exercise 2 Test yourself: choose the most suitable answer.

1 What ancient tribes inhabited the British Isles B.C.?

a) the Celts;
b) the Saxons;
c) the Angles;

d) the Vikings.

2 Which part of the British Isles was named Britain?

a) Southern;

b) Northern;

c) Western;

d) Eastern.

3 Together with a high civilization the Romans brought… to the country.

a) Slavery;

b) Culture;

c) Destruction;

d) Christianity.

4 The Saxons formed several kingdoms in the…. part of Britain?

a) north-eastern;

b) south-eastern;

c) south-western;

d) western.

5 What led the Anglo-Saxons kingdoms to unification?

a) idea about wealth;

b) task of defending the country;

c) cold weather;

d) good relations.

6 When did the Norman invasion to England begin?

a) 1066;

b) 829;

c) 1576;

d) 1606.

7 Who became the king of England after the Norman invasion?

a) William the Conqueror;

b) King Egbert;

c) Henry IV;

d) Henry VIII.

8 The Normans spoke …and it was the language of the upper classes.

a) English;

b) German;

c) French;

d) Russian.

9 What is the most mysterious monument of the British past?

a) Ben Nevis;

b) Stonehenge;

c) Hadrian Wall;

d) Big Ben.

10 What was Robin Hood famous for?

a) He was a very handsome man.

b) He was the Norman's leader.

c) He helped poor people.

d) He was one of the British kings.

Exercise 3 Complete the gaps in the text with the appropriate forms of the verbs given on the right.

Roman Roads

Within four years of invading Britain in AD 47, the Romans had built over 1,000 miles of roads!

When they first _____, the Roman Army had to use the old grass and mud track ways which the Britons____. These track ways were sometimes thousands of years old and often ____up and down hills for reasons that nobody could remember. They ____very difficult to travel along. **Arrive** **Use** **Go** **Be**

The Roman Army _____better roads because it had to be able to move quickly to areas of trouble to keep the Britons under control. The Roman generals needed good **Need**

roads so that they _____ ____orders to the Roman soldiers who might be stationed in forts as far away as Hadrian's Wall. The roads were also important for moving supplies of food and weapons to the soldiers. In times of peace, good safe roads _____more trade and more trade meant more taxes for the Emperor.	**Can, send** **mean**
The army _____the important task of planning and building roads. These roads always _____ perfectly straight, they sometimes zigzagged up hills and often avoided obstacles. However, long stretches of Roman roads did run straight and this is what Roman roads _____for.	**give** **not run** **remember**

Exercise 4 Read the text and answer the questions:

1. List the reasons why the Roman Army built roads.
2. Which of these reasons do you think is the most important?
3. Explain in your own words what a Groma was and how it was used to build straight roads.
4. Why were Roman roads quick and safe to travel on?
5. Why was the surface of a Roman road curved?

So how did the Romans manage to build such straight roads?

Roman engineers used an instrument called a Groma. This was a pair of boards fastened together into a cross shape. Lines with weights were hung from each corner so that they could get a straight line by lining up the weights with a pole a hundred meters or so away. In forest areas they built fires in a straight line and used the smoke as markers for the Groma.

Once the road had been planned the Roman soldiers dug two ditches on either side of the road to act as drains. The earth from these ditches was piled into the centre and rammed down. Stones were then gathered from the local area and laid down in

different layers until they formed a hard surface that could take the weight of heavy carts. The surface of a Roman road was shaped into a camber so that rain water would run off into the ditches.

Roman roads were very quick and safe to travel large distances. The Roman soldiers were not the only people to use them. Merchants used them to carry goods all over the Roman Empire. The Romans built Britain's first proper roads. After the Romans left they were allowed to decay because people forgot how to rebuild and repair them. People continued to use the roads the Roman Army had built until 1745. Many modern roads are built along the original routes planned out by the Romans.

Did you know?

- Silburry Hill, in the English county of Wiltshire, is the largest man-made earthen mound in Europe. It was built about 4750 years ago.

- The stone circle at Avebury is the largest in the world. It was built between 5300 and 4600 years ago and covers 11 ha (28 acres). The outer circle is surrounded by a bank and ditch long of 1,5 km (1 mile).

- The so-called British Imperial system of measurement (English units in the USA) has its roots in Roman units. The Romans also counted in feet, which they divided in 12 inches (unciae in Latin, from which the English word is derived). 5 feet made a pace, and 1000 paces (mille passus) became a mile in English. The Roman gallon was the congius (worth 0,92 U.S. gallons). The word pint comes from Latin picta ("painted"), via the Old French pinte, and corresponded to a painted mark on a vessel indicating this measure. Other units like the pound only evolved in the Middle Ages.

- Colchester in Essex is the oldest recorded town in Britain, as well as the first Roman town and Roman capital of Britain. Colchester Castle has the largest keep ever built in Europe, having a land area 50% bigger than the Tower of London.

- The Fossdyke, connecting the River Trent at Torksey to Lincoln, is the oldest canal in Britain. It was built by the Romans around 120 CE and is still navigable today.

3 History of Britain: from the Middle Ages to the Modern Times

3.1 The late Middle Ages (13th – 15th century)

The fourteenth century was disastrous for Britain as well as most of Europe, because of the effect of wars and plagues (Black Death). Probably one-third of British population died of plague. Whole villages disappeared, and some towns were almost completely deserted until the plague itself disappeared. Plagues killed sheep and other animals in the century. It resulted in years of famine and by the end of the 13th century the population in Britain decreased from 4 mln. people to 2 mln. It only began to grow again in the second half of the fifteenth century.

Britain and France suffered from the damages of war. In the 1330s England began a long struggle against the French Crown. In France villages were raided or destroyed by passing armies. The war between England and France lasted for 100 years and is known as the Hundred Years War. England fought with Scots and wanted to control Ireland and Wales, both of which were trying to become independent.

During the fourteenth century, towards the end of the Middle Ages, there was a continuous struggle between the king and his nobles. The first crisis came in 1327 when Edward II was deposed and cruelly murdered. Towards the end of the fourteenth century Richard II was the second king to be killed by ambitious lords. He had made himself extremely unpopular by his choice of advisers. Richard II had no children. There were two possible successors. One was the earl of March, the seven-year-old grandson of Edward III's second son. The other was Henry of Lancaster, son of John of Gaunt (the 3d son of Edward III). It was difficult to say which had the better claim to the throne. But Henry was stronger. He won the support of other powerful nobles and took the crown by force. Richard died mysteriously soon after. Henry IV spent the rest of his reign establishing his royal authority. But although he passed the crown to his son peacefully, from that time and half a century later the nobility was divided between those who supported his family, the 'Lancastrians', and those who supported the family of the earl of March, the 'Yorkists'.

During the fifteenth century the throne of England was claimed by representatives of two rival groups. The Lancastrians, whose symbol was a red rose, supported the descendants of the Duke of Lancaster, and the Yorkists, whose symbol was a white rose, supported the descendants of the Duke of York. The struggle for power led to the 'Wars of the Roses' between 1455 and 1485. They ended when Henry VII defeated and killed Richard III at the Battle of Bosworth Field and were followed by a period of stability and strong government.

With the spread of literacy, cultural life in Britain naturally developed also. In the cities, plays were performed at important religious festivals. They were called 'mystery plays' because of the mysterious nature of events in the Bible, and they were a popular form of culture.

The language itself was changing. French had been used less and less by the Norman rulers during the thirteenth century. After the Norman Conquest English (the old Anglo-Saxon language) continued to be spoken by ordinary people but was no longer written. But 'Middle English', the language of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, was very different from Anglo-Saxon. This was partly because it had not been written for three hundred years, and partly because it had borrowed so much from Norman French. By the end of the Middle Ages, English as well as Latin was being used in legal writing, and also in elementary schools.

Education developed enormously during the fifteenth century, and many schools were founded by powerful men. Such universities as Oxford and Cambridge and public schools (Eton and Winchester School) were founded in the middle ages.

3.2 The sixteenth century

The power of the English monarch increased in this period.

The century of Tudor rule (1485 – 1603) is often thought of as a most glorious period in English history. Henry VII built the foundations of a wealthy nation state and a powerful monarchy. His son, Henry VIII, kept a magnificent court, and made

the Church in England truly English by breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church. Finally, his daughter Elizabeth brought glory to the new state by defeating the powerful navy of Spain, the greatest European power of the time. During the Tudor age England experienced one of the greatest artistic periods in its history.

The Tudor dynasty (1485 – 1603) established a system of government departments, staffed by professionals who depended for their position on the monarch. As a result, the feudal barons were no longer needed for fulfilling or making government policy. Parliament was traditionally split into two 'Houses'. The House of Lords consisted of the feudal aristocracy and the leaders of the Church; the House of Commons consisted of representatives from the towns and the less important landowners in rural areas. It was now more important for monarchs to get the agreement of the Commons for policy-making because the newly powerful merchants and landowners (the people with the money) were the members of the House of Commons.

Protestantism rose in England and the direct cause of it was political and personal. Henry VIII is one of the most well-known monarchs in English history, chiefly because he took six wives during his life. Henry VIII wanted a divorce with his first wife Catherine which the Pope (also the king of Spain) would not give him. So in 1531 Henry persuaded the bishops to make him head of the Church in England, and this became law after Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy in 1534. It was a popular decision. Henry was now free to divorce Catherine and marry his new love, Anne Boleyn. He hoped Anne would give him a son to follow him on the throne. He had also previously written a polemic against Protestantism, for which the pope gave him the title Fidei Defensor (Defender of the Faith). The initials FD still appear on British coins today.

Also, by making himself head of the 'Church of England', independent of Rome, all church lands came under his control and gave him a large new source of income.

This rejection of the Roman Church gave a new spirit of patriotic confidence in England. The country became more consciously a distinct 'island nation'. At the

same time, increasing European exploration of the Americas and other parts of the world meant that England was closer to the geographical centre of western civilization instead of being, as previously, on the edge of it. It was in the last quarter of this adventurous and optimistic century that Shakespeare began writing his famous plays.

By the end of the century Protestantism became the majority religion in England. It took a form known as Anglicanism, which was not so very different from Catholicism in its organization and ritual. But in the lowlands of Scotland it took a more idealistic form. Calvinism, with its strict insistence on simplicity and its dislike of ritual and celebration, became the dominant religion. It is from this date that the stereotype of the severe, thrifty Scot developed. However, the Scottish highlands remained and Ireland remained Catholic.

3.3 The seventeenth century

When James I became the first English king of the Stuart dynasty, he was already king of Scotland, so the crowns of these two countries were united. Although their parliaments and administrative and judicial systems continued to be separate, their linguistic differences were lessened in this century. The kind of Middle English spoken in lowland Scotland had developed into a written language known as ‘Scots’. However, the Scottish Protestant church adopted English rather than Scots bibles.

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

During the century Parliament established its supremacy over the monarchy in Britain. Anger grew in the country at the way that the Stuart monarchs raised money, especially because they did not get the agreement of the House of Commons to do so

first. This was against ancient tradition. In addition, ideological Protestantism, especially Puritanism, had grown in England. Puritans thought that many of the practices of the Anglican Church, and also its hierarchical structure were immoral. Some of them thought the luxurious lifestyle of the king and his followers was immoral too.

This conflict led to the Civil War, which ended with complete victory for the parliamentary forces. The king (Charles I) was captured and became the first monarch in Europe to be executed after a formal trial for crimes against his people. The leader of the parliamentary army, Oliver Cromwell, proclaimed a republic 'Commonwealth' and equality of rights for people. Scotland and Ireland did not recognize the republic. And then Cromwell attacked Ireland and Scotland. The Irish and Scottish armies could not stand against the well-trained and well-armed armies of the Commonwealth. Soon Cromwell was master of the whole country.

In 1653 Cromwell became Lord Protector of the Commonwealth and ruled over the country by the advice of the Council and a written Constitution. But during the last years of his life he became a dictator who ruled over the country without the council of the people. The English Commonwealth, the first republic in Europe, did not justify the hopes of the people.

But when Cromwell died, he, his system of government, and the puritan ethics that went with it (theatres and other forms of amusement had been banned) had become so unpopular that the son of the executed king was asked to return and take the throne. In 1660 monarchy and the Anglican Church was restored. However, the conflict between monarch and Parliament soon re-emerged. The monarch, James II, tried to give full rights to Catholics, and to promote them in his government.

In 1666 the Great Fire of London destroys most of the city's old wooden buildings. It also destroys bubonic plague, which never reappears. Most of the city's finest churches, including St Paul's Cathedral, date from the period of rebuilding which follows.

The 'Glorious Revolution' ('glorious' because it was bloodless) followed in 1688, in which Prince William of Orange, ruler of the Netherlands, and his Stuart

wife Mary, accepted Parliament's invitation to become king and queen. In this way it was established that a monarch could rule only with the support of Parliament. In 1689 Parliament immediately made up a Bill of Rights, which limited some of the powers of the monarch. It also allowed Dissenters (those who did not agree with the practices of Anglicanism) to practise their religion freely.

3.4 The eighteenth century

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

Within Parliament two opposed collections of allies formed. One group, the Whigs, were the political 'descendants' of the parliamentarians. They supported the Protestant values of hard work and thrift, were sympathetic to Dissenters and believed in government by monarch and aristocracy together. The other group, the Tories, had a greater respect for the idea of the monarchy and the importance of the Anglican Church (and sometimes even a little sympathy for Catholics and the Stuarts). The two terms, Whig and Tory, had in fact first been used in the late 1670s.

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

At the beginning of the century (1707), by agreement, the Scottish Parliament joined with the English and Welsh Parliament at Westminster in London. However, Scotland retained its own system of law, more similar to continental European systems than to that of England. It does so to this day.

The only part of Britain to change radically as a result of political forces in this century was the highlands area of Scotland. This area twice supported failed attempts

to put a (Catholic) Stuart monarch back on the throne by force. After the second attempt, many inhabitants of the highlands were killed or sent away from Britain. The Celtic way of life was effectively destroyed.

It was cultural change that was most marked in this century. Britain gradually expanded its empire in the Americas, along the west African coast and in India. The increased trade led to the Industrial Revolution. The many technical innovations in the areas of manufacturing and transport during this period were also important contributing factors. The invention of machinery created factories.

In England, areas of common land, which had been available for use by everybody in a village for the breeding of animals since Anglo-Saxon times, disappeared as landowners made them large and efficient farms. (Some pieces of common land remain in Britain today, used mainly as public parks. They are often called 'the common'.) Hundreds of thousands of people moved from rural areas into new towns and cities. Most of these new towns and cities were in the north of England, where the raw materials for industry were available. In this way, the north, which had previously been economically backward compared to the south, became the industrial heartland of the country.

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

Despite all the urban development, social power and prestige rested on the possession of land in the countryside. The outward sign of this prestige was the ownership of a country seat – a gracious country mansion with land attached. More than a thousand such mansions were built in the eighteenth century.

In 1783 after a war, Britain recognized the independence of American colonies. In 1788 the first British settlers arrived to Australia.

3.5 The nineteenth century

Not long before this century began, Britain had lost its most important American colonies in a war of independence. When the century began, the country was at war with France, during which an invasion by a French army was a real possibility. In 1805 a British fleet under the command of Admiral Horatio Nelson defeats Napoleon's French fleet at the Battle of Trafalgar. Nelson's Column in Trafalgar Square in London commemorates this national hero, who died during the battle.

In 1800 Ireland became the part of the UK and it was during this century that the British culture and way of life came to predominate in Ireland. In the 1840s, the potato crop failed two years in a row and there was a terrible famine. Millions of peasants, those with Irish Gaelic language and customs, either died or emigrated. By the end of the century almost the whole of the remaining population were using English as their first language.

Soon after the end of the century, Britain controlled the biggest empire which consisted of Canada, Australia and New Zealand, where settlers from the British Isles formed the majority of the population. These countries had complete internal self-government but recognized the overall authority of the British government. Another was India, an enormous country with a culture more ancient than Britain's. Tens of thousands of British civil servants and troops were used to govern it. At the head of this administration was a viceroy (governor) whose position within the country was similar to the monarch's in Britain itself. Because India was so far away, and the journey from Britain took so long, these British officials spent most of their working lives there and so developed a distinctly Anglo-Indian way of life. They imposed British institutions and methods of government on the country, and returned to Britain when they retired. Large parts of Africa also belonged to the empire.

As well as these areas (Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India and Africa), the empire included numerous smaller areas and islands.

A change in attitude in Britain towards colonization during the nineteenth

century gave new encouragement to the empire builders. Previously, colonization had been seen as a matter of settlement, of commerce, or of military strategy. The aim was simply to possess territory, but not necessarily to govern it. By the end of the century, colonization was seen as a matter of destiny. There was an enormous increase in wealth during the century, so that Britain became the world's foremost economic power. This, together with long years of political stability unequalled anywhere else in Europe, gave the British a sense of supreme confidence, even arrogance, about their culture and civilization. The British came to see themselves as having a duty to spread this culture and civilization around the world.

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

Queen Victoria reigned from 1837 to 1901. During her reign, although the modern powerlessness of the monarch was confirmed (she was often forced to accept as Prime Ministers people she personally disliked), she herself became an increasingly popular symbol of Britain’s success in the world. As a hard-working, religious mother of nine children, devoted to her husband, Prince Albert, she was regarded as the personification of contemporary morals.

Britain was gradually turning into something resembling a modern state. Slavery and the laws against people on the basis of religion were abolished, and laws were made to protect workers from some of the worst forms of exploitation resulting from the industrial mode of production. In 1829 the first modern police force Robert Peel, a government minister, organizes the first modern police force. The police are still sometimes known today as ‘bobbies’. (‘Bobby’ is a short form of the name ‘Robert’.) In 1870 free primary education (up to the age of 11) was established.

3.6 The twentieth century

At the start of the twentieth century Britain was still the greatest world power. By the middle of the century Britain was clearly weaker than either the United States or the Soviet Union. By the end of the seventies Britain was no longer a world power at all, and was not even among the richest European powers. One reason for this sudden decline was the cost and effort of two world wars: the Great War – 1914 (the World War I) and the World War II – 1939. Another reason was the cost of keeping up the empire, followed by the economic problems involved in losing it. But the most important reason was the basic weaknesses in Britain's industrial power, and particularly its failure to spend as much as other industrial nations in developing its industry.

During this century many social reforms were made. In 1902 selective secondary education was introduced. In 1908 government started to give old-age pensions. In 1911 the power of the House of Lords was reduced.

It was from the beginning of this century that the urban working class (the majority of the population) finally began to make its voice heard. In Parliament, the Labour party gradually replaced the Liberals (the 'descendants' of the Whigs) as the main opposition to the Conservatives (the 'descendants' of the Tories). In addition, trade unions managed to organize themselves. In 1926, they were powerful enough to hold a General Strike, and from the 1930s until the 1980s the Trades Union Congress was probably the single most powerful political force outside the institutions of government and Parliament. From 1928 all men and women over the age of twenty-one can now vote.

In 1922 after the treaty between Ireland and Britain made in 1921 southern Ireland became free. In 1949 the republic of Ireland was set up. In 1953 Elizabeth II became the Queen of the UK.

Britain still has some valuable advantages. The discovery of oil in the North Sea has rescued the nation from a situation that might have been far worse. And in electronics and technology Britain is still a world competitor.

3.7 Exercises

Exercise 1 Can you answer these questions?

1) What was called Black Death? When did it take place?
2) Who took part in the Hundred Years War?
3) How many wives did Henry VIII have?
4) Who became the first head of the 'Church of England'?
5) Has ever Britain been a republic? What was its name?
6) Why was the 'Glorious Revolution' called so?
7) When did Britain recognize the independence of American colonies?
8) What happened at the Battle of Trafalgar?
9) When did Elizabeth II become the Queen of the UK?
10) Who are the three long-reigning queens?

Exercise 2 Fill in the table 3 with the names of monarchs given below according to the house they belonged to.

Table 3

The Normans (1066 - 1154)	
Plantagenets (1154 - 1399)	
The House of Lancaster (1399 - 1461)	
The House of York (1461 - 1485)	
The Tudors (1485 -1603)	
The Stuarts (1603 - 1649) (1660 - 1714)	
The House of Hanoverians (1714 -1901)	
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha and The Windsors (1901 -1910) (1910 - Today)	
King Edward VII 1901 - 1910 King George V 1910 - 1936	

King Edward VIII June 1936
King George VI 1936 - 1952
Queen Elizabeth II 1952 - present day
King William I, the Conqueror 1066 - 1087
King Henry I 1100 - 1135
King Stephen 1135 - 1154
Empress Matilda 1141
King Edward IV 1461 -1470, 1471 - 1483
King Edward V 1483 - 1483
King Richard III 1483 - 1485
King Henry VII 1485 - 1509
King Henry VIII 1509 - 1547
King Edward VI 1547 - 1553
Jane Grey 1554
Queen Mary I (Bloody Mary) 1553 - 1558
Queen Elizabeth I 1558 - 1603
King Henry II 1154 - 1189
King Richard I the Lionheart 1189 - 1199
King John 1 1199 - 1216
King Henry III 1216 - 1272
King Edward I 1272 - 1307
King Edward II 1307 - 1327
King Edward III 1327 - 1377
Richard II 1377 - 1399
Henry IV 1399 - 1413
Henry V 1413 - 1422
Henry VI 1422 - 1461, 1470 - 1471
King George I 1714 - 1727
King George II 1727 - 1760
King George III 1760 - 1820
King George IV 1820 - 1830
King William IV 1830 - 1837
Queen Victoria 1837 - 1901

Exercise 3 Read the text and fill in the missing words.

England under Cromwell: A world turned upside down

When Oliver Cromwell was the_____ of England many people wanted some _____to the way they lived. Many of the ideas were thought to be _____ or even _____. Some _____ even thought that should be _____ and as important as _____, this idea was thought to be _____.

The two main groups ___ The Diggers and the Levellers.

The Diggers ___ led by a man called Gerald Winstanley, they believed ____ all men were created equal by God and no man had the right ____ tell another man what to do.

The Levellers ___ led by John Lilbourne, they wanted the people ___ England to be any religion they wanted, even Catholic. They also wanted ___ pay less tax and for each parish to vote ____ its own priest. Cromwell did not like the Levellers and had the leaders arrested and put ___ prison.

Answer these questions:

1. Who was the leader of the Diggers?
2. What did they believe about the way god had created men?
1. Who was the leader of the Levellers?
2. Did the Levellers want people to pay more or less tax?
3. What did Cromwell do to the leaders of the Levellers?

Did you know?

- French was the official language of England for about 300 years, from 1066 till 1362.
- Up until 1752 Britain used the Julian calendar and New Years day was on 25th March.
- Although the Great Fire of London destroyed much of the city, only six people were killed.
- The Windsor Castle is the oldest royal residence in the world and it is still being used by the royal family. The Buckingham Palace was built in 1702 on the site of some infamous brothel. People believe that the Castle is hunted by many ghosts. And did you know that the Queen of England, which was considered to be the ruler of many parts of the world for a very long time cannot enter the House of Commons because she is not a member of their committee.
- In Medieval England animals were brought into court, and tried and sentenced by the judge for any mischief or damage they did!

4 Geography

4.1 Geographical position of the UK

The United Kingdom of Great Britain is situated on the British Isles situated to the north-west of the continent of Europe. The largest islands are Great Britain (comprising England, Wales and Scotland), and Ireland, (comprising Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic). The United Kingdom includes also more than 5000 smaller islands. In the west the country is washed by the Atlantic Ocean, in the east by the North Sea. Great Britain is separated from the continent by the English Channel and the Strait of Dover (32 km wide).

The surface of England and Ireland is rather flat while the highland area comprises Scotland and most of Wales. The Cheviot Hills running from east to west, separate England from Scotland. The Pennine Chain extends southward from the Cheviot Hills into the Midlands.

There are many rivers in Great Britain but they are not long. The longest river is the Severn, flowing along the border between England and Wales, south-west into the Irish Sea. The busiest and the most important river is the Thames. The chief river in Scotland is the Clyde. Many of the English and Scottish rivers are joined by canals, so that it's possible to travel by water from one end of Great Britain to the other.

The UK has many beautiful lakes in Scotland and north-west England. Many Scottish valleys between the hills are filled with lakes, called lochs. The best known is Loch Ness where as some people think a large monster lives. The Lake District in northern England with its lakes, mountains and valleys is a favourite holiday resort.

There are no great forests in Great Britain now. Historically, the most famous forest is Sherwood forest, the home of Robin Hood. It is to the north of London.

4.2 The four countries (landscape, economy)

4.2.1 England

England is the largest and most populated part of the United Kingdom. England is a highly developed industrialized country; about eighty per cent of the population live in urban areas. It is a major trading nation through the main ports of London, Liverpool and Southampton. In the north England is separated from Scotland by the Cheviot Hills, running from east to west; in the west the country borders on Wales. The coasts of England are washed by the North Sea and the Irish Sea. The English Channel and the Strait of Dover separate England from France in the south. No part of England is more than 120 km from the sea. Due to the seas and the ocean surrounding England, the country has mild climate, beautiful greenery, and highly developed fishing industry.

England is mostly a lowland country. There are upland regions in the north – the Pennine Chain, extending southward from the Cheviot Hills into the Midlands. The Lake District in Northern England with its beautiful long lakes, mountains and valleys is a favourite holiday resort.

There are many rivers in England: the Severn, the Ouse, the Trent, the Tyne, the Werf, the Avon. They are not very long and most of them flow into the North Sea. But the busiest and most important river is the Thames. The rivers are of great significance for communication and especially for carrying goods.

England is divided into the Midlands, Southern England and Northern England.

The Midlands is the main industrial area in England. The industries of the Midlands, with Birmingham as its chief city, produce all kinds of metal goods, from motor cars and railway engines to pins and buttons. On the east coast, Grimsby, although a comparatively small town, is one of Britain's most important fishing ports.

Northern England. The Pennine mountains run up the middle of northern England like a spine. On either side there are large deposits of coal and iron ore. Manchester is the commercial centre of the textile industry and one of the chief centres of electrical and heavy engineering, machine tools and dye-stuffs in Britain.

Bradford and Leeds are the world's leading producers of woollen goods. Sheffield is famous for its high-quality steels, cutlery and tools. Liverpool is the second port of Britain, after London, a great centre of shipbuilding and shiprepairing.

Far away from the main industrial areas, the north of England is sparsely populated. In the north-western corner of the country is the Lake District. It is the favourite destination of people who enjoy walking holidays and the whole area is classified as a National Park (the largest in England).

Southern England. The area surrounding the outer suburbs of London has the reputation of being 'commuter land'. This is the most densely populated area in the UK which does not include a large city, and millions of its inhabitants travel into London to work every day.

Further out from London there is the county of Kent, which is known as 'the garden of England' because of the many kinds of fruit and vegetables are grown there. The Downs, a series of hills in a horseshoe shape to the south of London, are used for sheep farming. The southern side of the Downs reaches the sea in many places and forms the white cliffs of the south coast. Many retired people live along this coast. Employment in the south-east of England is mainly in trade, the provision of services and light manufacturing. There is little heavy industry.

The region known as 'the West Country' has an attractive image of rural beauty. There is some industry and one large city (Bristol was once Britain's most important port after London), but farming is more widespread than it is in most other regions. Some parts of the west country are well-known for their dairy produce, such as Devonshire cream, and fruit. The south-west peninsula is the most popular holiday area in Britain. The winters are so mild in some low-lying parts that it is even possible to grow palm trees, and that is why is received the name 'the English Riviera'.

East Anglia, to the north-east of London, is also comparatively rural. It is the only region in Britain where there are large areas of flat land. This region is known for growing of wheat and barley. Part of this region, the area known as the Fens is

criss-crossed by hundreds of waterways but there are no towns here, so this is a popular area for boating holidays.

4.2.2 Scotland

Scotland is the most northern of the four countries constituting Great Britain. It occupies the territory of about 80 thousand square kilometers and is not so densely populated as England. The capital of Scotland is Edinburgh, situated in the eastern part of the Central Lowlands.

Scotland is the land of mountains lost in clouds, wild moorlands, narrow valleys and plains, famous lakes, called lochs, and no end of large and small islands off the coast. In its climate and vegetation, its mountain and valley structure, Scotland resembles other regions of north-west Europe that look out towards the Atlantic. The country can be roughly divided into three main regions: the Border (i.e. the frontier with England), the central Lowlands, and the Highlands.

Just north of the border (The Border) with England are the southern uplands, an area of small towns, quite far apart from each other, whose economy depends on sheep farming.

More than 80% of the population of Scotland live in the Lowlands. The largest cities are Glasgow and Edinburgh.

Glasgow is the third largest city in Britain. It is associated with heavy industry and some of the worst housing conditions in Britain. Glasgow has a strong artistic heritage. In 1990, it was the European City of culture.

Edinburgh is the capital of Scotland and is associated with scholarship, the law and administration. There are many fine historic buildings and there is a rock in the middle of the city on which stands the castle. Perhaps that is why it is called ‘the Athens of the north’. Three very famous rivers, the Tay, the Forth and the Tweed flow peacefully through broad valleys into the sea on the east; a fourth, the Clyde runs into the Atlantic Ocean.

Finally, there are the highlands, consisting of mountains and deep valleys and including numerous small islands off the west coast. The Highlands of Scotland are among the oldest mountains in the world. Here the Grampian mountains, extending from north-east to south-west across Scotland, form a boundary between Highlands and Lowlands. They reach their highest point in Ben Nevis – 1343 m. Many of the deep valleys between the hills are filled with lakes, called by their Gaelic names of lochs. The beautiful Loch Lomond with its 30 islands is the largest.

Fewer than a million people live there. Tourism and the production of whisky are important for the local economy.

4.2.3 Wales

Another constituent part of the United Kingdom is Wales. This small country is situated along the western side of the island that juts out into the sea in the form of a rectangle about 120 miles long and 60 miles wide. It occupies the territory of about 17. 000 sq. miles. About three million people live in it.

Most people in Wales live in the south-east of the country. Coal is mined in south Wales. Despite its industry, there are no really large cities in this area (Cardiff, the capital of Wales, has a population of about a quarter of a million). It is the only part of Britain with a high proportion of industrial villages.

Most of the rest of Wales is mountainous. The Cambrian Mountains are situated along the western coast of Wales. Because of this, communication between south and north is very difficult. As a result, each part of Wales has closer contact with its neighbouring part of England than it does with other parts of Wales: the north with Liverpool, and mid-Wales with the English west midlands. The area around Mount Snowdon (1085 m) in the north-west of the country is very beautiful and is the largest National Park in Britain.

4.2.4 Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland is the smallest component of the United Kingdom. It occupies the northeast of the island of Ireland, only one sixth of its territory. There are low hills and peaks of rocks in the northwest, while the northeast region of the island is a plateau. Scafell Pike (978m) is the highest mountain in Northern Ireland. Ireland is sometimes called the Emerald Isle due to its beautiful greenness. The fact is that the winds usually blow in from the Atlantic Ocean and make the air and soil warm and damp. Grass grows well in such a climate and it makes the island so beautiful.

Though Northern Ireland is not rich in minerals, industrialization has grown in and around Belfast, which is the capital. More than two-thirds of the population of Northern Ireland is concentrated in Belfast and in the neighbouring counties. Three basic industries are developed here – agriculture, textiles and shipbuilding.

It has several areas of spectacular natural beauty. One of these is the Giant's Causeway on its north coast, so-called because the rocks in the area form what look like enormous stepping stones.

4.3 The islands of the UK

4.3.1 The Islands of England

Starting with the north-east coast of England there is Holy Isle with its ruined monastery. This island still retains its population and appears rather prosperous. It is separated from the mainland only by a wide stretch of wet sand at low tide, and can be reached on foot or by motor-car.

A little further south are the Fame Islands, now preserved as a wild-life sanctuary. There are from fifteen to twenty-eight islands, depending on whether they are counted at high tide or low. The Fames are a better place for birds and rabbits than for men, and the dangerous rocks and reefs.

Parts of the coasts of Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex and Kent also become islands at high tide, but they are so linked by roads and bridges that it is difficult to distinguish them from the surrounding countryside.

The Isle of Wight lies off the south coast of England and is one of its counties. The climate is maritime and mild. The chief town Newport is a market town known since 1184. It is located in the centre of the island at the head of the wild estuary of the Medina river. The main industries are plastics, manufacturing woodwork, brewing and mineral water manufacturing. The Isle annually attracts thousands of holiday-makers and a great many people daily cross the water to earn their livelihoods in Southampton and Portsmouth.

The Channel Islands form an archipelago situated in the English Channel, lying south of England. The group comprises many rocky islands of which the four biggest are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sark. Because of the rocky shores and many reefs round the islands navigation is dangerous in this area, though there are several lighthouses on the rocks.

These fertile islands export fruit, vegetables and flowers chiefly to England.

4.3.2 The Islands of Scotland

Round the coast of Scotland there are about eight hundred islands. Some are tiny, some are large, some lie close together, scattered over the sea, others lie alone. On some islands people live, on others sheep are the sole inhabitants, while still birds and grey seals can also be seen.

The Shetlands or Shetland Islands constitute the archipelago off North Scotland, and are the most northern British territory in Europe. The present population is estimated at a little under 20,000 people. A large proportion of the young men are always serving in the Mercantile Marine – ships employed in commerce. The rest part of the population is engaged in fishery, sheep and cattle raising, especially native horses (Shetland ponies).

Off north-eastern coast of Scotland there are the Orkneys. Among the grey houses of Kirkwall, Orkney's chief town, there is the eight-hundred-year-old Cathedral of St. Magnus, red in colour, a landmark to sailors far out at sea.

The Hebrides or Western Islands, situated in the Atlantic Ocean west of Scotland, are divided by the Little Minch (strait off north-west coast of Scotland) into two groups: Outer Hebrides or the Long Island and Inner Hebrides. The most northern island of the Outer Hebrides is Lewis. In the extreme north of Lewis there are impressive cliffs, where rises a great arch of rock. The story goes that it was formed by the devil, so that he could attach a chain to the island and drag it away with him to the sea.

4.3.3 The Isle of Man

The Isle of Man is situated in the Irish Sea and is at equal distances from England, Scotland and Wales. Its area is about 600 sq. km.

The Isle of Man is neither English, Irish nor Scottish, but has affinities with all three countries. It has been inhabited in turn by Picts and Scots, Celts and Vikings and English and in some out-of-the-way places you will find relics and memorials of these various peoples.

Today Man remains a little kingdom in its own right, with its own government to make its own laws. The laws it passes are usually those passed previously by the House of Commons, with modifications to suit local conditions.

The centre of the Isle of Man and its capital, is the pleasure resort of Douglas. The population of the town is 20 thousand people. The town is better known than the island, because it is visited annually by hundreds of thousands of visitors.

4.4 Climate in the UK

The climate in Britain is milder than that of other countries. The Atlantic Ocean and the warm waters of Gulf Stream influence the climate of Great Britain, making it temperate and mild. The winters are warmer and the summers are cooler than those on the continent. It is never too hot or too cold there. But the weather in Britain is very changeable and it is the favourite topic of conversation. The best seasons in England are spring and summer. The air is fresh, the sky is often blue and cloudless, the sun shines brightly. The trees are full of blossoms, the ground is covered with emerald-green grass as a carpet.

In winter they have all sorts of weather. Sometimes it rains and sometimes it snows heavily, and they also have fog and frost. The two worst months in England are January and February. They get many cold, wet days one after another. The coldest weather, when it freezes night after night and remains cold during the day, is much more pleasant than the wet weather. The winters are never cold.

It may snow any time from November to March. But in England in winter it rains more often than it snows. That's why some English people do not wear heavy overcoats but only warm raincoats.

The most typical feature of the climate in England is the thick fog that they often have in autumn and in winter. It comes often and stays for weeks together. It may be of different colours. It may be white, yellow and sometimes black because of the smoke of thousands of chimneys. The worst of all is the yellow suffocating fog, called smog (smoke + fog). It enters all the houses, all the rooms so that the lamps in the rooms look quite dim. In a thick smog cars and buses move very slowly. People do not see each other at arm's length. They walk along groping through the streets because they are afraid to lose their way in the fog.

4.5 Vegetation and Wildlife in the UK

With its mild climate and varied soils, the United Kingdom has a diverse pattern of natural vegetation. Originally, oak forests probably covered the lowland, except for the fens and marsh areas, while pine forests and patches of moorland covered the higher or sandy ground. Over the centuries, much of the forest area, especially on the lowlands, was cleared for cultivation. Today only about 9% of the total surface is wooded. Fairly extensive forests remain in the east and north Scotland and in southeast England. Oak, elm вяз, ash ясень, and beech are the most common trees in England. Pine and birch are most common in Scotland. Almost all the lowland outside the industrial centers is farmland, with a varied seminatural vegetation of grasses and flowering plants. Wild vegetation consists of the natural flora of woods, fens and marshes, cliffs, chalk downs, and mountain slopes, the most widespread being the heather, grasses, gorse, and bracken of the moorlands.

The fauna is similar to that of northwestern continental Europe, although there are fewer species. Some of the larger mammals – wolf, bear, boar, and reindeer – are extinct, but red and roe deer косуля are protected for sport. Common smaller mammals are foxes, hares, hedgehogs, rabbits, weasels, stoats, shrews, rats, and mice; otters are found in many rivers, and seals frequently appear along the coast. There are few reptiles and amphibians. Roughly 230 species of birds reside in the United Kingdom, and another 200 are migratory. Most numerous are the chaffinch, blackbird, sparrow, and starling. The number of large birds is declining, however, except for game birds – pheasant, partridge, and red grouse – which are protected. The rivers and lakes abound in salmon, trout, perch, pike, roach, dace, and grayling. There are more than 21,000 species of insects.

4.6 Exercises

Exercise 1 Can you answer these questions?

1) What are the capitals of England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Wales?
2) What islands does the UK occupy?
3) What is the country washed by?
4) Where are the Cheviot Hills situated?
5) What is the highest pick of the country?
6) What is the longest river of the UK?
7) What islands are the most northern British territory?
8) Where is the Isle of Man situated?
9) What influences the climate of the UK?

Exercise 2 Test yourself: choose the most suitable answer.

1 What country is called Eire?

a) The republic of Ireland;
b) Northern Ireland;
c) Wales;
d) England.

2 What is the capital of Northern Ireland?

a) London;
b) Belfast;
c) Edinburgh;
d) Cardiff.

3 The longest river in the UK is …:

a) the Thames;
b) the Severn;
c) the Clyde;
d) the Avon.

4 …separate England from Scotland.

a) the Pennine Chain;
b) the Cheviot Hills;
c) the Apennines;

d) The Alps.

5 What influences greatly the climate of Britain?

a) warm waters;

b) high mountains;

c) long rivers;

d) location on islands.

6 Which is the highest point in the British Isles?

a) Ben Nevis;

b) Snowdon;

c) Everest;

d) Peak of Communism.

7 How many parts does Great Britain contain?

a) 4;

b) 3;

c) 5;

d) 1.

8 What water doesn't wash the British Isles?

a) The Atlantic Ocean;

b) The Irish Sea;

c) The Strait of Dover;

d) The Black Sea;

e) The North Sea.

9 What waters separate England from France?

a) The Atlantic Ocean;

b) The Irish Sea;

c) The Strait of Dover;

d) The English Channel;

e) The North Sea.

10 What water separates Great Britain from Ireland?

a) The Atlantic Ocean;

b) The Irish Sea;

c) The Strait of Dover;

d) The English Channel;

e) The North Sea.

Exercise 3 Read the text and fill in the gaps with words formed from those on the right.

What are Natural Resources?

Natural resources are things that occur _____, and that are useful to us. They include fuels such as oil and natural gas, and materials such as iron ore, and timber. **Nature**

Natural resources may be _____or non-renewable **New**

Renewable resources are those that are replaced in nature at a rate close to their rate of use e.g. plants, forests and animals. Care is needed to make sure resources are used _____and not over-harvested. There are non-living renewable resources too such as hydroelectric power, solar power, biomass fuel, and wind power. **Sustain**

Non-renewable resources exist in fixed amounts or are used up faster than they can be _____in nature e.g. fossil fuels. (Fossil fuels could be counted as renewable but as they take millions of years to form they are not _____considered "renewable".) **place** **practice**

What are Britain's Natural resources?

Coal, petroleum, natural gas, zinc, tin, limestone, iron ore, salt, slate, clay, chalk, gypsum, lead, silica, arable land

Did you know?

- England is 74 times smaller than the USA, 59 times smaller than Australia and 3 times smaller than Japan. England is however 2,5 times more populous than

Australia, and 1,5 times more populous than California. With 2,5 times less inhabitants than Japan, its density of population is slightly higher than the country of the rising sun.

- The highest temperature ever recorded in England was 38,5°C (101,3°F) in Brogdale, Kent, on 10 August 2003.

- London used to be the largest and most influential city in the world. With a population of 12 million, it remains the largest city in Europe.

5 Political structure of the UK

5.1 British monarchy (myths, reality, role)

The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy. The head of state is Queen Elizabeth II. The position of the monarch in Britain is a perfect illustration of the contradictory nature of monarchy.

On the one hand from the evidence of written law only, the Queen has almost absolute power, and it all seems very undemocratic.

Myths:

1) Other countries have 'citizens'. But in Britain people are legally described as 'subjects' – subjects of Her Majesty the Queen.

2) The queen doesn't have people; she has her government, which helps her to run the country.

Every autumn, at the state opening of Parliament, Elizabeth II, who became Queen in 1952, makes a speech. In it, she says what 'my government' intends to do in the coming year. And indeed, it is her government, not the people's.

3) The queen chooses anybody she likes to run the government for her. There are no restrictions on whom she picks as her Prime Minister. It does not have to be somebody who has been elected. She could choose me; she could even choose you.

4) The same is true for her choices of people to fill some hundred or so other ministerial positions. And if she gets fed up with her ministers, she can just dismiss them. Officially speaking, they are all 'servants of the Crown' (not servants of anything like 'the country' or 'the people').

5) She also appears to have great power over Parliament. It is she who summons a Parliament, and she who dissolves it before a general election. Nothing that Parliament has decided can become law until she has agreed to it.

6) Similarly, it is the Queen, and not any other figure of authority, who embodies the law in the courts. In the USA, when the police take someone to court to accuse them of a crime, the court records show that 'the people' have accused that person. In other countries it might be 'the state' that makes the accusation. But in

Britain it is ‘the Crown’. This is because of the legal authority of the monarch. And when an accused person is found guilty of a crime, he or she might be sent to one of ‘Her Majesty’s’ prisons.

Reality is different.

1) In fact, the Queen cannot choose anyone she likes to be Prime Minister. She has to choose someone who has the support of the majority of MPs in the House of Commons. This is because according to the law ‘her’ government can only collect taxes with the agreement of the Commons, so if she did not choose such a person, the government would stop functioning. In practice the person she chooses is the leader of the strongest party in the House of Commons. Similarly, it is really the Prime Minister who decides who the other government ministers are going to be (although officially the Prime Minister simply ‘advises’ the monarch who to choose).

2) It is the same story with Parliament. Again, the Prime Minister will talk about ‘requesting’ a dissolution of Parliament when he or she wants to hold an election, but it would normally be impossible for the monarch to refuse this ‘request’.

3) Similarly, while, in theory, the Queen could refuse the royal assent to a bill passed by Parliament and so stop it becoming law – no monarch has actually done so since the year 1708. Indeed, the royal assent is so automatic that the Queen doesn’t even bother to give it in person. Somebody else signs the documents for her.

4) In reality the Queen has almost no power at all. When she opens Parliament each year the speech she makes has been written for her. She makes no secret of this fact. She very obviously reads out the script that has been prepared for her, word for word.

The queen has three roles. First, the monarch is the personal embodiment of the government of the country. This means that people can be as critical as they like about the real government, and can argue that it should be thrown out, without being accused of being unpatriotic. Because of the clear separation between the symbol of government (the Queen) and the actual government (the ministers, who are also MPs), changing the government does not threaten the stability of the country as a whole. Other countries without a monarch have to use something else as the symbol

of the country. In the USA, for example, one of these is its flag, and to damage the flag in any way is actually a criminal offence.

Second, it is argued that the monarch could act as a final check on a government that was becoming dictatorial. If the government ever managed to pass a bill through Parliament which was obviously terribly bad and very unpopular, the monarch could refuse the royal assent and the bill would not become law.

Third, the monarch has a very practical role to play. By being a figurehead and representing the country, Queen Elizabeth II can perform the ceremonial duties which heads of state often have to spend their time on. This way, the real government has more time to get on with the actual job of running the country.

However, the British monarchy is probably more important to the economy of the country than it is to the system of government. To be exact the monarchy helps the tourist industry, because tourists are attracted by the British royal family and the events and buildings associated with the monarchy and if they come to the country they don't miss a chance to see everything with their own eyes.

5.2 The royal family

Possibly the most popular member of the royal family, the Queen Mother (Queen Elizabeth's mother), was known for her good health, her energy, and the seriousness with which she took her responsibilities. She died in her sleep on March 30, 2002. She was 101. Although she turned 100 years old on August 4, 2000, she continued to carry out official duties.

The Queen Mother was descended from the Scottish royal family. In January 1923 she married an old childhood playmate, the Duke of York, son of King George V. They had two daughters, Elizabeth, the present queen, and Margaret, who died Feb. 9, 2002, at age 71.

In 1936 King George V died and his eldest son became King Edward VIII. However, when he abdicated later that year, the Duke and Duchess of York became King George VI and Queen Elizabeth.

Queen Elizabeth II was born on April 21, 1926, the first child of the Duke and Duchess of York. She and her younger sister, Margaret, were educated at home. Like the rest of her family, Princess Elizabeth was athletic, loved the outdoors, and became a skilled horseback rider. After her father became king in 1936, Princess Elizabeth immediately became second in line, what is known as 'the heir presumptive' and began studying constitutional history and law.

Assuming the throne in 1952 after her father died, she has been a tireless and popular monarch. The Queen, making some 350 official engagements each year, entertains nearly 50,000 people at Buckingham Palace, and serves as patron or president of 700 organizations.

She also travels extensively, taking a particular interest in former colonies, which are now members of the British Commonwealth. As Great Britain's head of state, the Queen has weekly audiences with the Prime Minister and other cabinet ministers. She receives copies of all cabinet papers, the records of all cabinet committee meetings, a daily summary of events in Parliament, and important Foreign Office telegrams. She is also official head of the Church of England.

In 1947, Elizabeth married Lieutenant Philip Mountbatten, now officially known as His Royal Highness The Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh. He was the son of Prince Andrew of Greece and a great-great-grandson of Queen Victoria. They have four children, Prince Charles, Princess Anne, Prince Andrew, and Prince Edward, as well as six grandchildren, Prince William, Prince Harry, Princess Eugenie, Princess Beatrice, Peter Phillips, and Zara Phillips.

Charles Philip Arthur George, the Prince of Wales and heir apparent to the throne, was born in Buckingham Palace on November 14, 1948. Prince Charles takes an active role in many organizations and attends official functions. He is also particularly interested in architecture and is an active sportsman.

Prince Charles married Lady Diana Spencer on July 29, 1981. The royal couple had two children, Prince William and Prince Henry (Harry).

The Prince and Princess of Wales separated in 1992 and divorced in 1996. There were sensational press reports about adultery on both sides. Charles' relationship with Camilla Parker Bowles became so unpopular that at one point Camilla was pelted with rolls by fellow shoppers at a supermarket.

Public sympathy for Diana reached a peak in 1997, when she died in a horrific car accident. Although Charles has worked hard to mend his image, there remains considerable support for the throne to pass directly from Queen Elizabeth to Charles' son, Prince William.

Charles, after earning high marks as a caring and dutiful father, has become more popular. Charles and Camilla finally got married on April 9, 2005, in a civil ceremony. She took the title of the Duchess of Cornwall instead of Princess of Wales in consideration of the public's regard for Diana.

Second in line to the throne behind his father, William was born on June 21, 1982. With outings to such places as amusement parks and McDonalds, Diana tried to show her children a bit of ordinary life. She also pleaded with the media to spare them from relentless press coverage. After graduating from Eton College, Windsor, William took a year off from school.

He had wanted to spend his year off playing polo in Argentina, but his father forbade it because he thought it was 'too decadent'. He instead spent some time on army maneuvers in Belize, working on community projects in southern Chile, and visiting Africa. In 2001 he began attending prestigious St. Andrews University in Scotland. Originally studying art history, he later switched to geography. As heir to the throne and the future head of the Church of England, William's schooling and general upbringing depend on approval by the Queen, Prince Philip, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and a subcommittee of royal advisers.

William entered the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst in January 2006, joining his younger brother Harry who then graduated in April 2006.

Known as Harry, Prince Henry Charles Albert David was born on September 15, 1984. Third in line to the throne, Prince Henry began attending Eton College, Windsor, along with this older brother, William. High-spirited Harry has been involved in several public incidents, including his wearing a Nazi uniform to a party. Harry graduated from the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst in April 2006.

Princess Anne was born on August 15, 1950. She is the second child and the only daughter of the Queen, Anne Elizabeth Alice Louise is an active royal. She is also known as the Princess Royal. She is president or patron of 222 organizations. In 1973 she married Lieutenant (later Captain) Mark Phillips of the Queen's Dragoon Guards. They had two children, Peter and Zara, who do not possess hereditary titles because their father did not have one. In 1992, Princess Anne and Mark Phillips were divorced. Later that year the Princess married Captain Timothy Laurence, now Rear Admiral, of the Royal Navy.

The third child of Queen Elizabeth and Prince Philip, Prince Andrew, Duke of York, is considered less of an intellectual and more of an athlete than Prince Charles. Born on February 19, 1960, he is also known as 'Randy Andy' for his reputation with women. Andrew currently serves in the Diplomacy Section of the Naval Staff at the Ministry of Defense. In 1986, Andrew married Sarah Ferguson. They had two daughters, Princesses Beatrice and Eugenie. In 1996 the couple divorced.

The youngest child and third son of the Queen and Duke of Edinburgh, Edward Antony Richard Louis was born March 10, 1964. After three years in the Royal Marines, Prince Edward left to become a theater producer, eventually forming his own television production company. Patron of a number of musical and theatrical organizations, Edward also performs official duties. Edward married Sophie Rhys-Jones, a public relations executive, in 1999. Upon his marriage, Edward became the Earl of Wessex and Viscount Severn. They had a daughter, Louise, in November 2003.

5.3 Political structure and style of democracy

Britain is a constitutional monarchy. That means it is a country governed by a king or queen who accepts the advice of a parliament.

However Britain does not have ‘a constitution’ at all. Of course, there are rules, regulations, principles and procedures for the running of the country – all the things which are known collectively as ‘the constitution’. But there is no single written document which can be appealed to as the highest law in any matter of dispute. Nobody can refer to ‘article 6’ or ‘the first amendment’ or anything like that, because nothing like that exists.

Although the country’s constitution is not written down as a whole, some parts of it are put down in Acts of Parliament. They are called ‘statutes’ or ‘laws’. Besides the statutes, there are also the so called ‘constitutional conventions’ (unwritten rules, that is uncodified procedural agreements based on custom), which are supposed to be followed by the state institutions.

Britain is also a parliamentary democracy. That is, it is a country whose government is controlled by a parliament which has been elected by the people.

In fact, the government in Britain has a comparatively free hand. In Britain democracy involves less participation by ordinary citizens in governing and lawmaking than it does in many other countries. If the government wants to make an important change in the way that the country is run – to change, for example, the electoral system or the powers of the Prime Minister – it does not have to ask the people. It does not even have to have a special vote in Parliament with an especially high proportion of MPs in favour. It just needs to get Parliament to agree in the same way as for any new law.

In many countries an important constitutional change cannot be made without a referendum in which everybody in the country has the chance to vote ‘yes’ or ‘no’. In other countries, such as the USA, people often have the chance to vote on particular proposals for changing laws that directly affect their everyday life, on smoking in public places or the location of a new hospital, for example. Nothing like this

happens in Britain. There has only been one countrywide referendum in British history (in 1975, on whether the country should stay in the European Community).

In many aspects of life the country has comparatively few rules and regulations. This lack of regulation works both ways. Just as there are comparatively few rules telling the individual what he or she must or must not do, so there are comparatively few rules telling the government what it can or cannot do. Two unique aspects of British life will make this clear.

First, Britain is one of the very few European countries whose citizens do not have identity cards. British people are not obliged to carry identification with them. You do not even have to have your driving license with you in your car. If the police ask to see it, you have twenty-four hours to take it to them!

Second, and on the other hand, Britain does not have a Freedom of Information Act. There is no law which obliges a government authority or agency to show you what information it has collected about you. In fact, it goes further than that. There is a law (called the Official Secrets Act) which obliges many government employees not to tell anyone about the details of their work. It seems that in Britain, both your own identity and the information which the government has about your identity are regarded as, in a sense, private matters.

These two aspects are characteristic of the relationship in Britain between the individual and the state. That is why people and government that both should leave each other alone as much as possible. The duties of the individual towards the state are not to break the law and pay taxes. There is no national service (military or otherwise); people are not obliged to vote at elections if they can't be bothered; people do not have to register their change of address with any government authority when they move house.

As a result the relations between people are cool towards politics. It is not that people hate their politicians. They just regard them with a high degree of suspicion. They do not expect them to be corrupt or to use their position to amass personal wealth, but they do expect them to be frequently dishonest. People are not really shocked when the government is caught lying.

5.4 The Government (the executive power: the cabinet, Prime Minister, civil service, local government authorities)

The organs of government in the United Kingdom are:

– the legislature, which consists of the Queen in Parliament, and is the supreme authority of the state;

– the executive power, which consists of: 1) the Cabinet and other ministers of the Crown, who are responsible for initiating and directing national policy; 2) Government departments, most of them under the control of ministers, and all staffed by civil servants, who are responsible for administration at the national level; 3) local authorities, who administer and manage many services at the local level; and 4) statutory boards, which are responsible for the operation of particular nationalised industries or public services;

– the judiciary, which determines common law and interprets statutes.

The executive power is realized by Prime Minister and his Cabinet. The government is usually formed by the party that wins the election and receives the majority in the House of Commons. The leader of the party becomes Prime Minister. He appoints ministers and forms the Cabinet. The Cabinet, consisting of 20 ministers, holds office for five years. Each member of the Cabinet is a minister responsible for a government department. The Cabinet meets at the Prime Minister's house – number 10 Downing street. The second largest party becomes the official opposition with its own leader and the Shadow Cabinet.

The Prime Minister has the most power in the country: it is he who appoints and dismisses ministers, decides who is to be in each committee.

That is why the Cabinet today is the motive power and source of initiative in government. The ultimate decision on all questions of policy rests with the Cabinet. Important government decisions are normally announced in the House of Commons.

The modern government is arranged in about 15 departments, whose heads are ministers. But the ministers are public persons, they belong to one of the main two political parties and will pass away together with their party moving into opposition.

Therefore, most of them are not professionals and understand little in the work of the department they head. The real force which moves the departments is the Civil Service.

Governments come and go, but the civil service remains. It is no accident that the most senior civil servant in a government department has the title of 'Permanent Secretary'.

For those who belong to it, the British civil service is a career. Its most senior positions are usually filled by people who have been working in it for twenty years or more. These people get a high salary (higher than that of their ministers), have absolute job security (unlike their ministers) and stand a good chance of being awarded an official honour.

It is often possible for top civil servants to control their ministers, and it is sometimes said that it is they, and not their ministers, who really govern the country.

Except central government there exist local government authorities (generally known as 'councils') which depend on central government. The system of local government is very similar to the system of national government. There are elected representatives, called councilors (the equivalent of MPs). They meet in a council chamber in the Town Hall or County Hall (the equivalent of Parliament), where they make policy which is made by local government officers (the equivalent of civil servants). Local councils are allowed to collect one kind of tax. This is a tax based on property. (All other kinds are collected by central government.)

Most of the numerous services that a modern government provides are run at local level in Britain. These include public hygiene and environmental health inspection, the collecting of rubbish from outside people's houses, and the cleaning and tidying of all public places. They also include the provision of public swimming pools, which charge admission fees, and public parks, which do not. The latter are mostly just green grassy spaces, but they often contain children's playgrounds and playing fields for sports such as football and cricket which can be reserved in advance on payment.

Public libraries are another well-known service. Anybody can go into one of these to consult the books, newspapers and magazines there free of charge. If you want to borrow books and take them out of the library, you have to have a library card or ticket (these are available to people living in the area). Sometimes CDs and video cassettes are also available for hire. The popularity of libraries in Britain is indicated by the fact that, in a country without identity cards, a person's library card is the most common means of identification for someone who does not have a driving license.

5.5 Exercises

Exercise 1 Can you answer these questions?

1) What type of the country is the UK?
2) When did Elizabeth II become the Queen?
3) Who can become the Prime Minister?
4) How many children does the Queen have?
5) What is the official address of the Prime Minister?
6) Who is called a 'Permanent Secretary'?
7) What is the main reason of library's popularity in the country?
8) How many Ministers are there in the Cabinet?

Exercise 2 Test yourself: choose the most suitable answer.

1 Who is the Head of State in Britain?

a) the Mayor;

b) the Queen;

c) the Prime Minister;

d) the president.

2 Margaret Thatcher was a …:

a) Queen;

b) Prime Minister;

c) The old lady of Thread-and-Needle Street;

d) TV host.

3 What do the letters MP stand for?

a) Main Person;

b) Main Party;

c) Member of Party;

d) Member of Parliament.

4 Who appoints the Prime Minister?

a) the House of Commons;

b) the House of Lords;

c) the British Queen;

d) the previous Prime Minister.

5 The United Kingdom is…:

a) Republic;

b) Monarchy;

c) constitutional monarchy;

d) federation.

6 How many Ministers does the British Cabinet consist of?

a) 26;

b) 50;

c) 20;

d) 12.

7 Who lives in number 10 Downing Street?

a) The Queen;

b) the Prime Minister;

c) the Speaker;

d) Royal family.

Exercise 3 Fill in the table 4 given below. Arrange British Prime Ministers according to the chronological order of their government. Point out what party each represented.

British Prime Ministers:

Winston Churchill; Anthony Eden; Harold Wilson; David Lloyd George; James Callaghan; Herbert Asquith; Margaret Thatcher; James Ramsay MacDonald; Harold Macmillan; John Major; Henry Campbell-Bannerman; Tony Blair; Edward Heath; Neville Chamberlain; Gordon Brown; Clement Attlee; Stanley Baldwin; David Cameron; Andrew Bonar Law; Arthur Balfour; Alec Douglas-Home.

Table 4

Prime Minister	**Period of office**	**Party**

Exercise 4 Find a genealogical tree of the British Royal family and comment on it.

Exercise 5 Open the brackets using a proper form of a word to fill in the numbered gaps in the text about the British Royal family.

For more than a thousand years Britain has always had kings or queens except for the ten years between 1649 and 1659. In the past, kings had great power and they (*1 real*) … helped to make history. They started wars, made laws, and did things in their own way. But *(2 gradual)* … more and more power went to Parliament. What does the Queen do now? Why does Britain need *(3 monarch)* ...? And does it?

Elizabeth II *(4 to call)* … the Windsor family a 'Firm'. She thinks of it as a business rather than a family. And the main business of the royal family is... well, *(5 probable)* … being royal. And they are paid for it. The Queen is one of the *(6 rich)* … women in the world and yet she gets about 8 million *(7 pound)* … a year to be Queen. But many people agree that she does her job *(8 good)* ... and she deserves her salary.

Being Queen is a *(9 real)* … busy job. Elizabeth II gets up early and begins the day by *(10 to look)* … through the newspapers. Then she reads letters from the public (she gets more than 1000 each week), and *(11 to tell)* … her staff how she would like them to be answered. The Queen has *(12 day)* … meetings with her Private Secretary who helps her to go through her paperwork, and lots of meetings with ambassadors, new judges, and bishops.

In the afternoon Elizabeth II often goes out on public engagements – she gets thousands of invitations each year. She opens new hospitals, bridges and factories.

Once a week, the Queen has a *(13 to meet)* … with the Prime Minister and they discuss government business and important things that are *(14 to happen)* … in the country.

In the evening the Queen reads the report of the day from Parliament. She isn't a politician, and in modern Britain the power belongs to the government, but she

must agree to every new law. It's a formal agreement; no king or queen has *(15 to refuse)* … a new law since 1701!

Being Queen is not a 9 to 5 job, and Elizabeth II has to work from early in the morning until late at night. And people watch her all the time. Of course, she has some free time, and some private life, but less than most people. In her spare time Elizabeth II enjoys horse racing, *(16 to fish)* …, and *(17 to walk)* … in the countryside. She also enjoys photography and likes taking photos on her travels.

Many people think that the Royals are *(18 use)* … and monarchy is outdated. But... the British people seem to like them that way. They like to read about the royal family, royal scandals and *(19 shock)* … secrets. They like to watch royal ceremonies, they are *(20 pride)* … of the tradition of monarchy. Britain has had kings and queens for a thousand years – probably they'll have them for another thousand.

Did you know?

- Did you know that the Windsor Castle is the oldest royal residence in the world that is still being used by the royal family and that the Buckingham Palace was built in 1702 on the site of an infamous brothel!

- It is also believed to be haunted by many ghosts including those of Henry VIII, Queen Elizabeth I, King George, and Charles I.

- The Queen of England, who once enjoyed extensive powers and authority over almost the whole world, and despite all her present majesty and glory, is not allowed to enter the House of Commons simply because she is not its member!

- The Queen of England doesn’t have a passport.

- Queen Elizabeth II has two different birthdays. The reigning British monarch was born Elizabeth Alexandra Mary of York on April 21, 1926. However, each Commonwealth country traditionally celebrates her birthday on a designated day in May or June. In the United Kingdom, for instance, it falls on the first, second or third Saturday in June. Britain has officially marked its sovereign’s birthday since 1748, when the event was merged with the annual “Trooping the Colour” ceremony and parade. Elizabeth spends her real birthday enjoying private festivities with her family.

6 Parliament in the UK

6.1 Introduction (functions, the place, the structure of Parliament)

The activities of Parliament in Britain are more or less the same as those of the Parliament in any western democracy.

The main functions of Parliament are:

– to pass laws;

– to provide, by voting for taxation, the means of carrying on the work of government;

– to keep a close eye on government policy and administration, including proposals for expenditure;

– to debate the major issues of the day.

The British Parliament works in a large building called the Palace of Westminster (popularly known as 'the Houses of Parliament'). This contains offices, committee rooms, restaurants, bars, libraries and even some places of residence. It also contains two larger rooms. One of these is where the House of Lords meets, the other is where the House of Commons meets. The British Parliament is divided into two 'houses', and its members belong to one or other of them, although only members of the Commons are normally known as MPs (Members of Parliament). The Commons is by far the more important of the two houses.

6.2 The House of Commons

Look at the picture of the inside of the meeting room of the House of Commons. Its design and layout differ from the interior of the parliament buildings in most other countries. These differences can tell us a lot about what is distinctive about the British Parliament.

First, notice the seating arrangements. There are just two rows of benches facing each other. On the left of the picture are the government benches, where the

MPs of the governing party sit. On the right are the opposition benches. According to where they sit, MPs are seen to be either 'for' the government (supporting it) or against it. This physical division is emphasized by the table on the floor of the House between the two rows of benches. The Speaker's chair, which is raised some way off the floor, is also here. From this commanding position, the Speaker controls the debates. The arrangement of the benches encourages confrontation between government and opposition.

Second, the Commons has no 'front', no obvious place from which an MP can address everybody there. MPs simply stand up and speak from wherever they happen to be sitting.

Third, notice that there are no desks for the MPs. The benches where they sit are exactly and only that – benches, just as in a church. This makes it physically easy for them to drift in and out of the room, which is something that they frequently do during debates.

Fourth, notice that the House is very small. In fact, there isn't enough room for all the MPs. There are more than 600 of them, but there is seating for less than 400. A candidate at an election is said to have won 'a seat' in the Commons, but this 'seat' is imaginary. MPs do not have their 'own' place to sit. No names are marked on the benches. MPs just sit down wherever (on 'their' side of the House) they can find room.

All these features result in a fairly informal atmosphere. Individual MPs, without their own 'territory', are encouraged to co-operate. Moreover, the small size of the House, together with the lack of a podium from which to address it, means that MPs do not normally speak in the way that they would at a large public rally. MPs normally speak in a conversational tone, and because they have nowhere to place their notes while speaking, they do not normally speak for very long either! It is only on particularly important occasions, when all the MPs are present, that passionate oratory is sometimes used.

One more thing should be noted about the design of the House of Commons. It is deliberate. Historically, it was an accident: in medieval times, the Commons met in

a church and churches of that time often had rows of benches facing each other. But after the House was badly damaged by bombing in 1941, it was deliberately rebuilt to the old pattern (with one or two modern comforts such as central heating added).

The ancient habits are preserved today in the many customs and detailed rules of procedure which all new MPs find that they have to learn. The most noticeable of these is the rule that forbids MPs to address one another directly or use personal names. All remarks and questions must go 'through the Chair'. An MP who is speaking refers to or asks a question of 'the honourable Member for Winchester' or 'my right honourable friend'. The MP for Winchester may be sitting directly opposite, but the MP never says 'you'. These ancient rules were originally formulated to take the 'heat' out of debate and decrease the possibility that violence might break out. Today, they lend a touch of formality which balances the informal aspects of the Commons and further increases the feeling of MPs that they belong to a special group of people.

The basic activity of the MPs is debate on particular proposals. When MPs have to vote for or against a particular proposal, they do this by walking through one of two corridors at the side of the House – one is for the 'Ayes' (those who agree with the proposal) and the other is for the 'Noes' (those who disagree).

An MP's life. MPs' mornings are taken up with committee work, research, preparing speeches and dealing with the problems of constituents (the people they represent). From Monday to Thursday, the House does not start its business until 14.30 (on Friday it starts in the morning, but then finishes in the early afternoon for the weekend). From Monday to Thursday, the Commons never 'rises' (i.e. finishes work for the day) before 22.30 and sometimes it continues sitting for several hours longer. Occasionally, it debates through most of the night.

Weekends are not free for MPs either. They are expected to visit their constituencies (the areas they represent) and listen to the problems of anybody who wants to see them.

It also gives itself long holidays: four weeks at Christmas, two each at Easter and Whitsun (Pentecost), and about eleven weeks in the summer (from the beginning of August until the middle of October).

It is an extremely busy life that MP leads. It does not leave MPs much time for their families either. Politicians have a higher rate of divorce than the (already high) national average.

6.3 The House of Lords

The House of Lords, or the Upper House, is composed of Church of England bishops and archbishops, peers who have inherited titles and peers who are appointed for life. Those members who are qualified in the law, also sit as a court of law – the supreme court of appeal in the United Kingdom.

The composition of the Lords has changed since 1958, when it became possible to award 'life peerages' to outstanding political people through the honours system.

Sometimes a prominent politician can be awarded; sometimes a leading civil servant who has served the ruling class well. More often sheer wealth has been the determining factor. It is thus not surprising that one-third of the Lords today are company directors. They include bankers, steel magnates, newspaper proprietors and industrialists of all kinds.

At one end of the Chamber stands the Throne. In front of the Throne there is the Woolsack, where the Lord Chancellor sits as Speaker of the House of Lords. In front of the Woolsack are two red divans, where the Judges sit at the opening of Parliament. The Peers' benches, covered in red leather, are arranged in five rows on either side of the House. Members of the Government and their supporters sit to the right of the Throne, those of the Opposition to the left. The Bar of the House is at the north end of the Chamber, opposite the Throne. The Commons with their speaker stand below the bar on ceremonial occasions.

The members of the House of Lords they discuss questions and proposals for new laws in great detail and in this way irregularities or inconsistencies in these proposals can be removed before they become law.

The House of Lords (like the monarchy) has little, if any, real power any more. All proposals must have the agreement of the Lords before they can become law. But they don't have power to refuse a proposal for a law which has been agreed by the Commons. After a period (six months) the proposal becomes law anyway, whether or not the Lords agree.

6.4 Political parties in the UK

There are several political parties in the United Kingdom, they first appeared in Britain at the end of the 17th century. The Conservative and Liberal Parties are the oldest and until the end of the 19th century they were the only parties elected to the House of Commons.

At present there are three major political parties, in the House of Commons:

– Labour

– Conservative

– Liberal Democrats

The Labour Party is the ruling party nowadays; the Conservative Party is the opposition to the Labour Party. There are also some other parties: the Social Democratic Party, the Scottish National and Welsh National Parties, the Communist Party of Great Britain and other small parties.

The Conservative Party, often called the Tory Party, started as Royalists in the 17th century. It is the party of big business, industry, commerce and landowners. Most of the money needed to run the party comes from large firms and companies. The party represents those who believe in private enterprise as opposed to state-owned enterprises. The Tories are a mixture of the rich and privileged – the monopolists and landowners.

The word ‘tory’ means an Irish highwayman and was applied to the conservatives by their opponents, but later they adopted the name to describe themselves. In home policy they opposed the tendencies of the Labour Party to nationalize gas, electricity, coal and the railways.

The Liberal Party began its activities as anti-Royalists. The Liberals represented the trading and manufacturing class in the 19th century. Their slogan was ‘Civil and Religious Liberties’. Later Liberals lost the support of working-class voters and made an alliance with Social Democrats. So the Party of Liberal Democrats was formed. The Tories called the Liberals ‘Whigs’. A whig was a Scottish preacher, who could preach moralising sermons for long hours. The Liberals remained strong up to the end of the World War I. Then they faded out. Since then only the Conservative and the Labour Parties have held power.

The Labour Party was established at the beginning of the last century. It was set up by the trade-unions and various small socialist groups. This party drew away working people’s support. Despite its many sincere and courageous fights, it soon came under the influence of imperialist ideas.

6.5 General elections

A UK Parliament has a maximum duration of five years. At the end of the fifth year or before, a general election must take place so new members of parliament can be elected by the people. The election of all Members of Parliament (MPs) for each constituency is called a General Election. In the UK people vote for the best candidate in the local area to represent them in the House of Commons.

In the UK, the winning candidate becomes MP and takes a seat in the House of Commons. The party with the majority of seats in the Commons forms the government. That party’s leader becomes Prime Minister.

The electoral system in the UK is remarkably simple. It works like this. The country is divided into a number of areas of roughly equal population (about 90,000),

known as constituencies. Anybody who wants to be an MP must declare himself or herself as a candidate in one of these constituencies.

After the date of an election has been fixed, people who want to be candidates in a constituency have to deposit £500 with the Returning Officer. They get this money back if they get 5% of the votes or more. The local associations of the major parties choose their candidates and pay the money for them. However, it is not necessary to belong to a party to be a candidate.

To be eligible to vote, a person must be at least eighteen years old and be on the electoral register. This is compiled every year for each constituency separately. People who have moved house and have not had time to get their names on the electoral register of their new constituency can arrange to vote by post. Nobody, however, is obliged to vote.

General elections always take place on a Thursday. They are not public holidays. People have to work in the normal way, so polling stations are open from seven in the morning till ten at night to give everybody the opportunity to vote. The only people who get a holiday are schoolchildren whose schools are being used as polling stations.

On polling day (the day of the election), voters go to polling stations and are each given a single piece of paper with the names of the candidates for that constituency (only) on it. Each voter then puts a cross next to the name of one candidate. After the polls have closed, the ballot papers are counted. The candidate with the largest number of crosses next to his or her name is the winner and becomes the MP for the constituency.

After the polls close, the marked ballot papers are taken to a central place in the constituency and counted. The Returning Officer then makes a public announcement of the votes cast for each candidate and declares the winner to be the MP for the constituency.

And that's the end of it. There is no preferential voting if a voter chooses more than one candidate that ballot paper is 'spoiled' and is not counted); there is no counting of the proportion of votes for each party (all votes cast for losing candidates

are simply ignored); there is no extra allocation of seats in Parliament according to party strengths.

If we add the votes received for each party in these two constituencies together, we find that the Liberal Democrats got more votes than Conservative or Labour. And yet, these two parties each won a seat while the Liberal Democrats did not. This is because they were not first in either constituency. It is coming first that matters. In fact, the system is known as the 'first-past-the-post' system (an allusion to horse-racing).

Here are the results from two constituencies in 1997 (table 5).

Table 5

	Chesterfield	Votes	Totnes	Votes
Conservative	Martin Potter	4,752	Sir Anthony Steen	19,637
Liberal Democrat	Tony Rogers	20,330	Rob Chave	18,760
Labour	Tony Benn	26,105	Victor Ellery	8,796

6.6 Exercises

Exercise 1 Can you answer these questions?

1) Where is the British Parliament situated?
2) What do the letters MP stand for?
3) What does the Parliament consist of?
4) What unique characteristics of the House of Commons can you mention?
5) What are the two corridors at the sides of the House of Commons used for?
6) Who are the House of Lords composed of?
7) Where does the Lord Chancellor sit? Why?
8) What do the words Whig and Tory mean?

Exercise 2 Test yourself: choose the most suitable answer.

1 Lord Chancellor, the Speaker of the House of Lords, sits on the …

a) throne;

b) bench;

c) woolsack;

d) chair.

2 The House of Lords consists of peers who…their titles.

a) Bought;

b) presented;

c) inherited;

d) got from the Prime Minister.

3 In Britain the …Party is often called the Tory Party.

a) Conservative;

b) Liberal;

c) Labor;

d) Communist.

4 In Britain the …Party is often called the Whigs.

a) Conservative;

b) Liberal;

c) Labor;

d) Communist.

5 The word ‘Tory’ means …:

a) An Irish highwayman;

b) A worker;

c) A beggar;

d) A Scottish preacher.

6 The word ‘Whig’ means …:

a) An Irish highwayman;

b) A worker;

c) A beggar;

d) A Scottish preacher.

7 Which newspaper is not daily?

a) The Guardian;

b) Daily Star;

c) Sunday Telegraph;

d) The Times.

8 The minimum voting age in Britain is…:

a) 21;

b) 18;

c) 16;

d) 14.

Exercise 3 Arrange the stages in the correct order.

How a bill becomes a law

Committee stage A committee of MPs examines the details of the bill and votes on amendments (changes) to parts of it.
Report stage The House considers the amendments.
First reading This is a formal announcement only, with no debate
After both Houses have reached agreement, the bill receives the royal assent and becomes an Act of Parliament which can be applied as part of the law.
The bill is sent to the House of Lords, where it goes through the same stages. (If the Lords make new amendments, these will be considered by the Commons.)
Second reading The house debates the general principles of the bill and, in most cases, takes a vote.
Third reading The amended bill is debated as a whole.

Did you know?

To be an MP you must be:

- Over 18.

- A British or Irish citizen.

- A Commonwealth citizen who resides in the UK.

- Not a member of the House of Lords.

- Not bankrupt.

- Not already working for the government or 'Crown'(e.g. police force, armed forces, civil servant, judge).

Still qualify? Then do you have the skills?

MPs must have a wide variety of skills to be able to do their jobs. These include being able to speak in public, being a good listener, having good judgment and being responsible and reliable. An MP has lots to do in a day, so being able to be quick and efficient is very important.

7 Mass Media

7.1 The Press

In every modern country, regardless of form of government, the press, radio and television are political weapons of tremendous power, and few things are so indicative of the nature of a government as the way in which that power is exercised. In studying the politics of any country, it is important not only to understand the nature of the social, economic, political and other divisions of the population but to discover what organs of public and political opinion are available for the expression of the various interests.

Although the press in this or that country is legally free, the danger lies in the fact that the majority of people are not aware of the ownership. The press in fact is controlled by a comparatively small number of persons. Consequently, when the readers see different newspapers providing the same news and expressing similar opinions they are not sure that the news, and the evaluation of the news, are determined by a single group of people, perhaps mainly by one man. In democratic countries it has long been assumed that governments ought, in general, to do what their people want them to do.

In a democratic country like Great Britain the press, ideally, has three political functions: information, discussion and representation. It is supposed to give the voter reliable and complete information on which to base his judgment, it should let him know the arguments for and against any policy, and it should reflect and give voice to the desires of the people as a whole.

Naturally, there is no censorship in Great Britain, but in 1953 the Press Council was set up. It is not an official body but it is composed of people nominated by journalists, and it receives complaints against particular newspapers. It may make reports which criticize papers, but its reports have no direct effect.

Factual news reports, these papers write them up in an exciting way, easy to read, playing on people's emotions. They avoid serious political and social questions or treat them superficially. Trivial events are treated as the most interesting and

important happenings. Crime is always given far more space than creative, productive or cultural achievements. Much of their information concerns the private lives of people who are in the news. The popular newspapers are very similar to one another in appearance and general arrangement, with big headlines and the main news on the front page.

The four most famous provincial newspapers are "The Scotsman" (Edinburgh), the "Glasgow Herald", the "Yorkshire Post" (Leeds) and the "Belfast Telegraph", which present national as well as local news. Apart from these there are many other daily, evening and weekly papers published in cities and smaller towns. They present local news and are supported by local advertisements.

But the best-known among the British national quality newspapers are as follows.

"The Times" (1785) is called the paper of the Establishment. Politically it is independent, but is generally inclined to be sympathetic to the Conservative party. It is not a governmental organ, though very often its leading articles may be written after private consultation with people in the Government. It has a reputation for extreme caution, though it has always been a symbol of solidity in Britain. Its reporting is noted for reliability and completeness and especially in foreign affairs. Its reputation for reflecting or even anticipating government policy gives it an almost official tone.

"The Guardian" (until 1959 - "Manchester Guardian") has become a truly national paper rather than one specially connected with Manchester. In quality, style and reporting it is nearly equal with "The Times". In politics it is described as "radical". It was favourable to the Liberal party and tends to be rather closer in sympathy to the Labour party than to the Conservatives. It has made great progress during the past years, particularly among intelligent people who find "The Times" too uncritical of the Establishment.

"The Daily Telegraph" (1855) is the quality paper with the largest circulation (over million followed by "The Times" and "The Guardian"). In theory it is independent, but in practice it is an orthodox Conservative paper and as such caters

for the educated and semi educated business and professional classes. Being well produced and edited it is full of various information and belongs to the same class of journalism as “The Times” and “The Guardian”.

“The Daily Mirror” is the popular newspaper which supports the Labour Party.

The daily papers have no Sunday editions, but there are Sunday papers, nearly all of which are national: “The Sunday Times” (1822).

The British press means, primarily, a group of daily and Sunday newspapers published in London. They are most important and known as national in the sense of circulating throughout the British Isles. All the national newspapers have their central offices in London, but those with big circulations also print editions in Manchester (the second largest press centre in Britain) and Glasgow in Scotland.

All the newspapers whether daily or Sunday, totaling about twenty, can be divided into two groups: quality papers and popular papers. Quality papers include “The Times”, “The Guardian”, “The Daily Telegraph”, the “Financial Times”, “The Observer”, “The Sunday Times” and “The Sunday Telegraph”. Very thoroughly they report national and international news.

The distinction between the quality and the popular papers is one primarily of educational level. Quality papers are those newspapers which are intended for the well educated. All the rest are generally called popular newspapers. The most important of them are the “News of the World”, “The Sun”, the “Daily Mirror”, the “Daily Express”.

The popular newspapers tend to make news sensational. They publish “personal” articles which shock and excite. Instead of printing factual news reports, these papers write them up in an exciting way, easy to read, playing on people’s emotions. They avoid serious political and social questions or treat them superficially. Trivial events are treated as the most interesting and important happenings. Crime is always given far more space than creative, productive or cultural achievements. Much of their information concerns the private lives of people who are in the news. The popular newspapers are very similar to one another in appearance and general arrangement, with big headlines and the main news on the

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“The Daily Mirror” is the popular newspaper which supports the Labour Party.

The daily papers have no Sunday editions, but there are Sunday papers, nearly all of which are national: “The Sunday Times” (1822), “Sunday Telegraph” (1961), the “Sunday Express” (1918), the “Sunday Mirror” (1963).

On weekdays there are evening papers, all of which serve their own regions only, and give the latest news. London has two evening newspapers, the “London Standard” and the “Evening News”.

In addition to the daily and Sunday papers, there is an enormous number of weeklies, some devoted to specialized and professional subjects, others of more general interest. Three of them are of special importance and enjoy a large and influential readership. They are the “Spectator” (which is non-party but with Conservative views), the “New Statesman” (a radical journal, inclining towards the left wing of the Labour Party) and the largest and most influential - the “Economist” (politically independent). These periodicals resemble one another in subject matter and layout. They contain articles on national and international affairs, current events, the arts, letters to the Editor, extensive book reviews. Their publications often exert a great influence on politics.

Traditionally the leading humorous periodical in Britain is “Punch”, best known for its cartoons and articles which deserve to be regarded as typical examples of English humour. It has in recent years devoted increasing attention to public affairs, often by means of its famous cartoons.

There is a number of news agencies in Britain, the oldest being “Reuters” which was founded in 1851. The agency employs some 540 journalists and correspondents in seventy countries and has links with about 120 national or private news agencies. The information of general news, sports, and economic reports is received in London every lay and is transmitted over a network of teleprinter lines, satellite inks and cable and radio circuits.

7.2 Radio and Television

The growth of radio and particularly of television is as important in providing news as the press. They provide powerful means of capturing public attention. But while private enterprise predominates in the publishing field in Great Britain, radio broadcasting is a government monopoly, as was television until late in 1955. The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), a public organization, still provides all radio programmes.

The BBC has four national radio channels for listeners in the United Kingdom. Radio (channel) 1 provides mainly a programme of rock and pop music. Radio 2 broadcasts light music and entertainment, comedy as well as being the principal channel for the coverage of sport. Radio 3 provides mainly classical music as well as drama, poetry and short stories, documentaries, talks on ancient and modern plays and some education programmes. Radio 4 is the main speech network providing the principal news and current affairs service, as well as drama, comedy, documentaries and panel games. It also carries parliamentary and major public events. The BBC has over 30 local radio stations and about 50 commercial independent stations distributed throughout Britain. To provide high-quality and wide-ranging programmes that inform, educate and entertain, to provide also greater choice and competition the government encourages the growth of additional national radio services run on commercial lines.

Besides these domestic programmes, the BBC broadcasts in English and in over 40 other languages to every part of the world. It is the World Service of the BBC. Its broadcasts are intended to provide a link of culture, information and entertainment between the peoples of the United Kingdom and those in other parts of the world. The main part of the World Service programme is formed by news bulletins, current affairs, political commentaries, as well as sports, music, drama, etc. In general, the BBC World Service reflects British opinion and the British way of life. The BBC news bulletins and other programmes are rebroadcast by the radio services of many countries.

The BBC has a powerful television service. It owns two channels: BBC1 and BBC2. In addition there are two independent channels: ITV (Independent Television) and Channel 4, which is owned by the IBA (Independent Broadcasting Authority). Practically all the population of the country lives within the range of the TV transmission. With the exception of a break during the Second World War, the BBC has been providing regular television broadcasts since 1936. All BBC2 programmes and the vast majority of those on BBC1 are broadcast on the national network. The aim of the Government is that at least 25 per cent of programmes on all channels should be made by independent producers.

The BBC television programmes are designed for people of different interests. BBC1 presents more programmes of general interest, such as light entertainment, sport, current affairs, children's programmes, as well as news and information. BBC2 provides documentaries, travel programmes, serious drama, music, programmes on pastimes and international films.

The ITV (Independent Television) has 15 programme companies, each serving a different part of the country. These companies get most of their money from firms who use them for advertising. The whole of ITV is controlled by the IBA. The magazine "TV Times" advertises all ITV programmes; ITV programmes include news, information, light entertainment and are interrupted at regular intervals by advertisements. Despite the genuine entertainment that so many of the good commercials afford, television still succeeds in crushing its viewers with ads that are too annoying, too often, and just too much. Very often commercials are infuriating as well as irresistible. Commercials are the heavy tribute that the viewer must pay to the sponsor in exchange for often doubtful pleasure. The first regular commercial ITV programmes began in London in 1955.

Channel 4 began broadcasting in 1983. It forms part of the independent television network and provides a national TV service throughout Britain, except in Wales, which has a corresponding service in Welsh.

The BBC does not give publicity to any firm or company except when it is necessary to provide effective and informative programmes. It must not broadcast

any commercial advertisement or any sponsored programme. Advertisements are broadcast only on independent television, but advertisers can have no influence on programme content or editorial work. Advertising is usually limited to seven minutes in any one hour of broadcasting time.

Both the BBC and the IBA broadcast education programmes for children and students in schools of all kinds, as well as pre-school children, and for adults in colleges and other institutions and in their homes. Broadcasts to schools cover most subjects of the curriculum, while education programmes for adults cover many fields of learning, vocational training and recreation.

The Government has no privileged access to radio or *television, but* government publicity to support non-political campaigns may be broadcast on independent radio and television. Such broadcasts are paid for on a normal commercial basis. The BBC is not the mouthpiece of the government. All the major political parties have equal rights to give political broadcasts. Radio and, particularly, television have their greatest impact on public affairs at election time. Each of the principal political parties is granted time on the air roughly in proportion to the number of its candidates for Parliament.

Television and radio coverage of political matters, including elections, is required to be impartial. Extended news programmes cover all aspects of the major parties' campaigns at national level and in the constituencies. Political parties arrange "photo opportunities", during which candidates are photographed in such places as factories, farms, building sites, schools and youth centres. They often use these visits to make points about party policies.

Special election programmes include discussions between politicians belonging to rival parties. Often a studio audience of members of the public is able to challenge and question senior politicians. Radio "phone-ins" also allow ordinary callers to question, or put their views to political leaders. Broadcast coverage also includes interviews with leading figures from all the parties, reports focusing on particular election issues, and commentaries from political journalists.

Arrangements for the broadcasts are made between the political parties and the

broadcasting authorities, but editorial control of the broadcasts rests with the parties.

Television and the other channels of mass media are playing an increasingly important part in bringing contemporary affairs to the general public.

Radio and television programmes for the week are published in the BBC periodical, “Radio Times”. The BBC publishes another weekly periodical, “The Listener”, in which a selection of radio and TV talks are printed.

7.3 Exercises

Exercise 1 Can you answer these questions?

1. Why do radio and television provide powerful means of capturing public attention?
2. Is the British Broadcasting Corporation a public organization? What does it mean?
3. Describe the four national radio channels of the BBC for listeners in the United Kingdom. What is the World Service of the BBC? What does it reflect in general?
4. Explain, as you understand, the statement: “Commercials are the heavy tribute that the viewer must pay to the sponsor in exchange for often doubtful pleasure”.
5. What are the rules for advertisers on the BBC and the IBA?
6. Name the BBC’s periodicals in which radio and television programmes and a selection of radio and TV talks are printed.
8. Explain the following statement: “Few things are so indicative of the nature of a government as the way in which the power of the press, radio and television is exercised.”
9. What do the readers think when they see different newspapers providing the same news and expressing similar opinions?
10. Give an account of the two groups of papers in Britain - quality and

popular. What do these papers publish?

11. What are the chief Sunday and evening newspapers?

12. Describe the main weeklies, or periodicals of special importance and enjoying a large and influential readership.

Exercise 2 Test yourself: choose the most suitable answer.

1. In studying the politics of any country, it is important not only to understand the nature of the social, economic, political and other divisions of the population but to discover what organs of public and political opinion are available for the expression of

a) the various interests;

b) the various viewpoints;

c) the various opinions;

d) the various ideas.

2. In democratic countries it has long been assumed that governments ought, in general, to do what their people

a) ask them to do;

b) force them to do;

c) want them to do;

d) dream about.

3. The popular newspapers tend to make news

a) Attractive;

b) Sensational;

c) Serious;

d) Educational.

4. Politically “The Times” is independent but is generally inclined to be sympathetic to

a) the Conservative Party;

b) the Labour Party;

c) the Social-Liberal Democratic Party.

5. “Punch” has in recent years devoted increasing attention to public affairs, often by means of its famous

a) Articles;

b) Cartoons;

c) Columns;

d) Interviews.

6. But while private enterprise predominates in the publishing field in Great Britain, radio broadcasting is

a) a Parliament monopoly;

b) a Government monopoly;

c) a group monopoly.

7. Radio (channel) 1 provides mainly a programme of

a) rock and pop music;

b) pop music;

c) classical music;

d) no music.

8. In general, the BBC World Service reflects

a) the British way of life;

b) the British political life;

c) the British economic life;

d) British humour.

9. Advertisements are broadcast only on independent television, but advertisers can have no influence on

a) public opinion;

b) programme content or editorial work;

c) education programmes;

d) politics.

10. **Radio and television** programmes for the week are published in the BBC periodical

a) “TV Times”;

b) “Radio Times”;

c) “The Listener”.

Exercise 3 Complete the gaps with necessary words.

Television Programmes we watch

Many television programmes _____about wildlife, animals, holidays, cooking and gardening.

DIY programs - DIY means do it _____. These programmes are very popular as many people love improving their homes and decorating.

Drama and sitcoms. Men Behaving Badly, Inspector Morse, Cracker, Absolutely Fabulous, the Royal Family, Dalziel & Pascoe, Soldier Soldier, Darling Buds of May, Poirot, The Bill, Casualty.

Soaps - a series of television or radio _____ about the lives and problems ____a particular group of characters. They run over a long period and are broadcast several times every week.

The most popular are “Eastenders”, an often shocking drama _____ life in East London, and “Coronation Street”, _____ is about life in Northern Britain. We also watch “Emmerdale”, about life ___ a farming village and two Australian soaps, “Neighbours” and “Home and Away”.

Reality programmes. These type of programmes involve filming normal people in their every-day lives or putting several people in a specially built house ____ they can be filmed 24 hours-a-day and giving them challenges ___ do.

The _____ famous of these is Big Brother, you can find ____ more information at: www.channel4.com/bigbrother/. People in the house vote on ____ should be kicked out of the _____ and in the end the viewers vote for the winner who receives a large amount of money.

American Programmes. We watch a ____ of American programs including Friends, Will and Grace, Frasier, ER as well as Sabrina the Teenage Witch, The Simpsons and The Fresh Prince of Bel Air.

TV Licence. We pay to watch the telly in the UK, no matter ____ much or how little we watch TV. In the UK, if you use a TV or any other device to receive or record TV programmes (for example, a VCR, set-top box, DVD recorder or PC with a broadcast card) - you need a TV Licence. You are required ____ law to have one.

Did you know?

Match the questions and answers and learn more about British press.

1) Which daily newspaper sells the most copies in the UK?

a) Financial Times. As its name suggests, the Financial Times focuses on business economics, though it also provides extensive coverage of a wide range of political and other areas. Its salmon pink paper is one of the cheapest and subtlest ways ever thought up to make a product stand out from the crowd.

2) Which UK newspaper is the oldest surviving daily newspaper in the world?

b) The People. The People is owned by Trinity Mirror, but is not closely linked with a daily newspaper. It once had a circulation of more than five million copies an issue, but the News of the World - linked with the Sun - sold more than seven million. The Observer, which was nearly closed in 2009, is linked with the Guardian, and the Sunday Sport, which once reported that a double decker bus had been found frozen in Antarctica, is linked with the little-known Daily Sport.

3) Around which London street were

c) Belfast News Letter. The News Letter

most national papers based until the 1990s?

was established in 1737. The more famous Times was first published as the 'Daily Universal Register' in 1785, and was followed by the Observer (the world's oldest Sunday paper) in 1791. The weekly Worcester Journal is the longest-established newspaper in the world, first published as the Worcester Postman in 1690.

4) Which of these newspapers is widely available in Wales?

d) Fleet Street. Fleet Street has been a centre of publishing since the 16th century. From the 1700s, it grew into the centre of newspaper publishing, and it is still a synonym for the national UK papers.

5) Which national daily is famously printed on 'pink' paper?

e) Rupert Murdoch. Rupert Murdoch, most famous in the US as the owner of Fox, is the most successful and least liked newspaper owner in the UK. He introduced topless 'page 3' models, destroyed unions and fought to make his media empire successful - by any means.

6) Who was the famous owner of "the Sun", "the Times" and Sky television?

f) Western Mail. The Western Mail is published in Cardiff and describes itself as the "national newspaper of Wales". The Herald and the Daily Record are both published in Glasgow, while the Scotsman is from Edinburgh. For many years, the Daily Record sold more

copies in Scotland than any UK-wide newspaper did.

7) Which of these Sunday newspapers is *not* closely linked with a daily paper?

g) The Sun. In January 2009, the Sun was selling 3.1 million copies per day. The Daily Mail was the second-highest selling paper, with 2.2 million, then the Mirror on 1.4 million. The Star was way behind on only 770,000 sales.

(From http://www.funtrivia.com/en/subtopics/UK-Newspapers-90698.html)

8 Religion in Modern British Life

Religion has always played an important part in the national way of life and this is still true today. There is complete religious freedom in the United Kingdom. Churches and religious societies may own property, conduct schools, and propagate their beliefs in speech and writing.

There are two established churches – churches legally recognized as official churches of the State: in England the Church of England (Anglican), and in Scotland the Church of Scotland (Presbyterian). Clergy of the established churches work in services which are run by the State, such as the armed forces, national hospitals and prisons, and are paid a salary by the State. Clergy of other religious communities are also appointed.

For over a thousand years, Roman Catholic Christianity had been the religion of most of Europe. But by the 16th century many people had got angry at the richly decorated churches and ceremonies of the Catholic Church. They were angry at the power of the Pope, the head of the Catholic Church, as well as bishops, many of whom lived as luxuriously as civil rulers.

Early in the 16th century, Martin Luther, a German monk, broke with the Catholic Church. His teaching emphasized direct personal responsibility to God, challenging the role of the Church as an intermediary. A few years later John Calvin, a French lawyer, also left the Catholic Church. One of his basic concepts was the idea of God as absolute sovereign, another challenge to the Church's authority.

As a result of their protesting of widely accepted teachings, Luther, Calvin and other religious reformers soon became known as Protestants. Their ideas spread rapidly through northern Europe. Soon established Protestant churches had arisen in a number of European countries.

But the process of the church reform went on painfully. There was no religious tolerance. People were expected to follow the religion of their king. Catholics and Protestants fought each other and many religious people on both sides died for their beliefs in numerous religious wars.

The Church of England is the national church. It was formed in 1534 by King Henry VIII, who broke away from the Church of Rome and declared himself Head of the Church of England. But many English people considered the Church of England too much like the Catholic Church, that it had not moved far enough away from the Church of Rome. They became known as Puritans, because they wanted "pure" and simple church. The ideas of John Calvin particularly appealed to these Puritans. They broke away from the Church of England and formed their own churches - the Free or Nonconformist Churches.

As these names suggest the nonconformists wanted to be free to choose their own form of church organization and services. All the main Free Churches - Methodist, Baptist, Evangelical, Salvation Army - are very simple, as well as their services. They do not have archbishops or bishops.

When James I became King of England in 1603, he began to persecute the Puritans. Some 300 Puritan clergymen were expelled from the Church of England. Many went to prison or left the country. The Puritans could not always agree among themselves either. Many small Puritan groups formed in England. The Pilgrims who went to the New World belonged to one of them.

The Puritans believed that all worldly pleasures were ungodly. In the 17th century disgusted by the wickedness of the Old World, a small group of them, the Pilgrims, sailed away to found a new godly society in the pure wilderness of the New World. The Puritans who sailed from Plymouth in the "Mayflower" in 1620 were the founders of modern America. And Puritanism still remains strong on both sides of the Atlantic Ocean, though it no longer has much influence on young people.

British monarchs still bear the title of Head of the Church of England, as well as the title of Defender of the Faith. The Queen of England, on the advice of the Prime Minister, appoints the two archbishops and all the bishops but the Church receives no money from the State. However, it is a great property owner and also has a lot of stocks and shares.

The Church of England has two Archbishops – the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Church's leader, and the Archbishop of York, and the twenty-four senior bishops

who sit in the House of Lords. After them come the remaining eighteen bishops.

The central governing body of the Church of England is the Central Synod, which is the centre of an administrative system dealing with such matters as education, mission, inter-church relations, social questions, recruitment and training for the clergy, the care of church buildings.

The Church has its courts whose jurisdiction today extends only to church property and matters of church discipline.

England is divided into several dozens of districts, called dioceses. Each diocese has a cathedral and is headed by a bishop. It is divided into parishes, and each parish is in the care of a vicar who often has an. assistant, called a curate. Both men and women have been admitted to the clergy of the Church of England since 1994.The priests of the Church have the freedom to conduct services as they wish.

In recent years there has been a decline in the membership of the large Christian Churches. In general, Britain has the reputation of being an irreligious country with poor church-going habits. To attract young people, some priests have introduced a form of pop music and encouraged young musicians to accompany the prayers. Many vicars take a great interest in their parishioners and combine the tasks of priest, social worker and psychologist. It is estimated that there are some 27 million adherents to the Church of England.

The Presbyterian Church is the established Church of Scotland. It is completely separate from the Anglican Church. The Church of Scotland has a Presbyterian form of government that is government by elders, all of equal rank. It has its own organization and appoints its own clergymen.

Presbyterianism is a severe form of Protestantism, founded in the 16th century and following the teaching of the great French reformer, Calvin. It received its status as the national church in 1707 (the Treaty of Union). The Church of Scotland is powerful and its influence tends to be rather puritanical.

Men and women are admitted to the priesthood, and each church is governed locally by the Kirk Session, consisting of the priest and the elected elders of the Church. The highest body of the Church of Scotland is the General Assembly,

consisting of elected clergy and elders. The adult membership of the Church is about 860,000.

In Wales most of the people belong to the Free Churches. Two-thirds of the population of Northern Ireland are members of the Anglican Church and Free, or Protestant Churches. The remaining part of the population constitutes the Catholic minority.

The Church Reform in England in the 16th century nearly put an end to the Roman Catholic hierarchy in the country. It was restored in 1850. The leader of the Catholic Church in Britain is the Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster.

All the United Kingdom is divided into seven Catholic provinces. Each province is controlled by an archbishop and in its turn is divided into dioceses which are in the charge of bishops. Only men are admitted to the clergy of the Church. There are about 6 million Catholics in Great Britain.

The Roman Catholic Church attaches much attention to the education of its children and requires its members to bring up their children in the Catholic faith. Although the Catholic Church feels better than other Christian Churches, even this Church is seeing a decline in attendance nowadays.

Great Britain has a long tradition of religious tolerance (table 6). Many religious communities coexist here peacefully. The present community of Jews is one of the largest in Europe - over 400,000. More than half of them live in London. Jews still tend to marry Jews, for both racial and religious reasons, though this is happening less and less among the younger generation.

There are Christian communities of foreign origin like the Orthodox, Lutheran and Reformed Churches of various European countries which have their centres of worship. Recent immigration has brought increasing numbers of Muslims, Hindus and Sikhs into Britain. They came from India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, the Arab world. All schools of Buddhism are represented here. They have their own centres, temples and monasteries.

Though nominally Christian, Great Britain contains adherents of practically every world religion who are free to practise their particular beliefs in a tolerant and

free society.

Table 6 – Religious identity of the Britons

	Thousands	%
Christian	42079	71.6
Buddhist	152	0.3
Hindu	559	1.0
Jewish	267	0.5
Muslim	1591	2.7
Sikh	336	0.6
Other religion	179	0.3
All religions	*45163*	*76.8*
No religion	9104	15.5
Not stated	4289	7.3
All no religion/not stated[1]	*13626*	*23.2*
Base	*58789*	*100*

In 2001 the Census collected information about religious identity. The topic was new to the Census in England, Wales and Scotland although the subject had been included in previous Censuses in Northern Ireland.

Just over three-quarters of the UK population reported having a religion. More than seven out of ten people said that their religion was Christian (72 %). After Christianity, Islam was the most common faith with nearly 3 per cent describing their religion as Muslim (1,6 million).

The next largest religious groups were Hindus (559 thousand), followed by Sikhs (336 thousand), Jews (267 thousand), Buddhists (152 thousand), and people from Other religions (179 thousand). These groups each accounted for less than 1 per cent and together accounted for a further 3 per cent of the UK population.

The Census religion question was a voluntary question. Nevertheless, over 92 per cent of people chose to answer it.

(From http://www.britain.tv/community_british_religion.shtml)

8.1 Exercises

Exercise 1 Can you answer these questions?

1. What part has religion played in the national way of life?
2. What are the official churches in Great Britain? Why are they official?
3. Who were the first Protestants and what were their ideas?
4. Why did the process of church reform go on painfully?
5. How was the Church of England formed? Who became Puritans when the Church of England was formed?
6. Why were the Puritans persecuted by the English monarchs? Why are they considered to be the founders of modern America?
7. Describe the role of the Queen in the Church of England and the government system of the Church.
8. Give an account of the Presbyterian Church of Scotland.
9. Examine the structure and nature of the Roman Catholic Church in Britain.
10. Characterize other religious communities existing in Great Britain.

Exercise 2 Test yourself: choose the most suitable answer.

1. As a result of their protesting of widely accepted teachings, Luther, Calvin and other religious reformers soon became known as

a) Puritans;
b) Protestants;
c) Nonconformists.

2. But many English people considered the Church of England too much like

a) the Church of Rome;
b) the Catholic Church;
c) the Protestant Church.

3. The nonconformists wanted to be free to choose their own form of

a) church service;

b) church organization and services;

c) church decoration.

4. The Church has its court whose jurisdiction today extends only to

a) church attendance;

b) church discipline;

c) church property and church discipline.

5. The highest body of the Church of Scotland is

a) the General Congress;

b) the General Assembly;

c) the General Session.

Did you know?

- Approaching 3 million people participate in a Church of England service on Christmas Day or Christmas Eve. Thirty-five per cent of the population attend a Christmas service of some sort, rising to 42 per cent in London, nationally, and 22 per cent among those of non-Christian faiths.

- 85 per cent of the population visit a church or place of worship in the course of a year, for reasons ranging from participating in worship to attending social events or simply wanting a quiet space.

- Latest available statistics indicate one in four primary schools and one in 16 secondary schools in England are Church of England schools. Approaching one million pupils are educated in more than 4,700 Church of England schools.

- The Church of England has more than 16,000 churches, serving every inch of the country and open to every local inhabitant. There are 42 mainland cathedrals, plus one in Peel on the Isle of Man and the Diocese in Europe's cathedral in Gibraltar.

(From http://www.churchofengland.org)

9 Education in Great Britain

9.1 Characteristics of education in Great Britain

The basic features of the British educational system are the same as they are anywhere else in Europe: full-time education is compulsory up to the middle teenage years; the academic year begins at the end of summer; compulsory education is free of charge, but parents may spend money on educating their children privately if they want to. There are three recognized stages, with children moving from the first stage (primary) to the second stage (secondary) at around the age of eleven or twelve. The third (tertiary) stage is 'further' education at university or college. However, there is quite a lot which distinguishes education in Britain from the way it works in other countries.

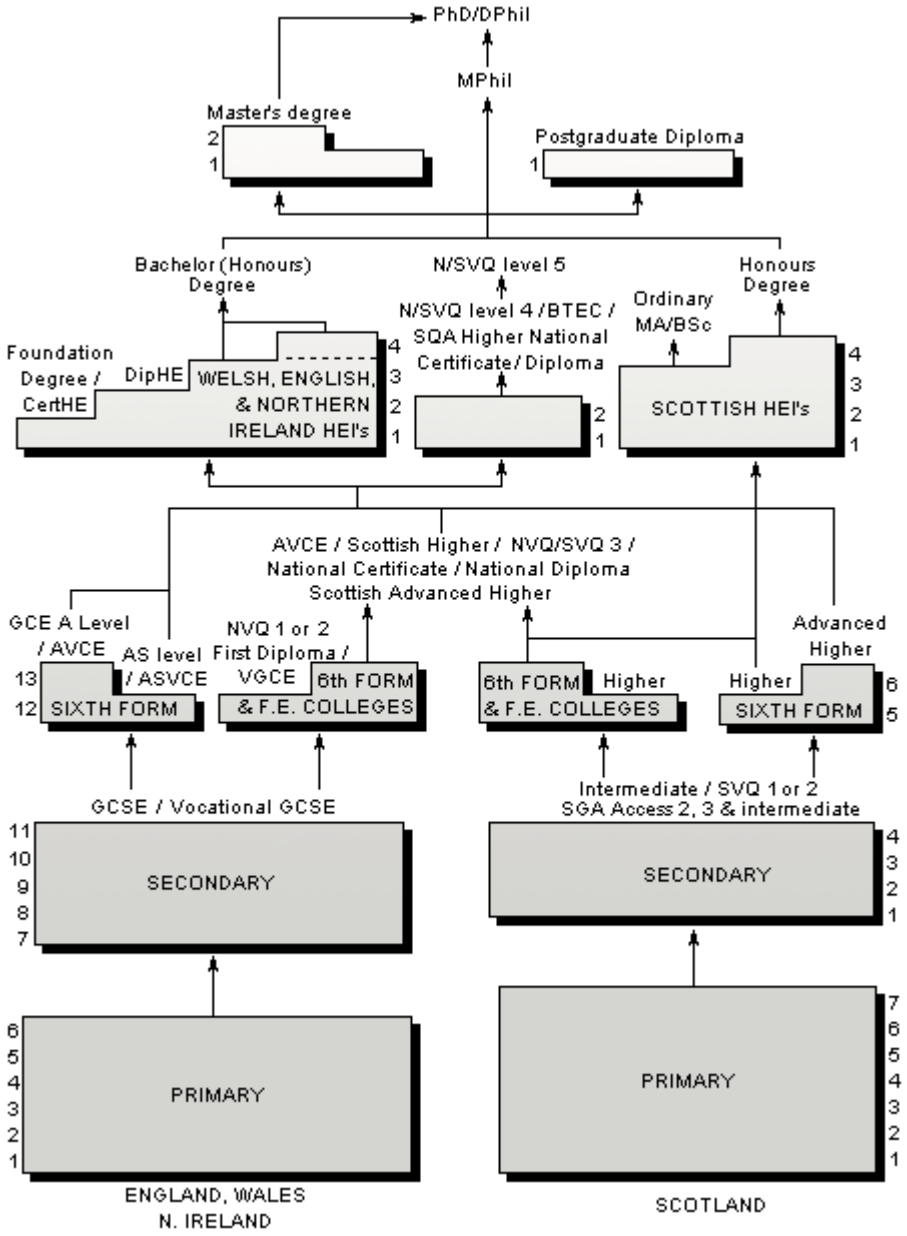
The British government attached little importance to education until the end of the nineteenth century. It was one of the last governments in Europe to organize education for everybody. Britain was leading the world in industry and commerce, so, it was felt, education must somehow be taking care of itself. Today, however, education is one of the most frequent subjects for public debate in the country.

It is a characteristic of the British system that there is comparatively little central control or uniformity. For example, education is managed not by one, but by three, separate government departments: the Department for Education and Employment is responsible for England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own departments.

None of these central authorities exercises much control over the details of what actually happens in the country's educational institutions. All they do is to ensure the availability of education, dictate and implement its overall organization and set overall learning objectives (which they enforce through a system of inspectors) up to the end of compulsory education.

Central government does not prescribe a detailed programme of learning or determine what books and materials should be used. It says, in broad terms, what schoolchildren should learn, but it only offers occasional advice about how they

should learn it. Nor does it dictate the exact hours of the school day, the exact dates of holidays or the exact age at which a child must start in full-time education. It does not manage an institution's finances either; it just decides how much money to give it. In general, as many details as possible are left up to the individual institution or the Local Education Authority (LEA, a branch of local government).



Picture 2 – Educational system of the UK

(From http://www.ebma.org.uk/about-ebma-approved-centres.html)

In the late 1980s, the national curriculum was introduced by the government. For the first time in British education there is now a set of learning objectives for each year of compulsory school and all state schools are obliged to work towards these objectives. However decentralization is still left: actually there are three, not one, national curricula. There is one for England and Wales, another for Scotland and another for Northern Ireland. The organization of subjects and the details of the learning objectives vary slightly from one to the other. There is even a difference between England and Wales. Only in the latter is the Welsh language part of the curriculum.

9.2 Compulsory education (nursery school, primary school, secondary school)

Preschool education in England begins at the age of 3 or 4. About half of the children at this age attend nursery schools or playgroups mostly organized by parents. Little children need care as well as education. That's why kids play a lot, learn to listen attentively and to behave.

Compulsory primary education (5 – 11 year olds) begins at the age of 5. Children start their school career in an infant school. They are taught '3 R's': reading, writing, arithmetic. Pupils have a lot of fun at school, drawing, reading, dancing or singing.

When they are 7, pupils move to a junior school, which lasts four years till they are 11. They study a lot of subjects: English, Maths, Science, History and Geography along with Technology, Music, Art and Physical Education. All the children are streamed into A, B, C, D classes. The most gifted attend A streams, the least talented are in D classes.

Nearly all schools work a five-day week, with no half-day, and are closed on Saturdays. The day starts at or just before nine o'clock and finishes between three and four, or a bit later for older children. The lunch break usually lasts about an hour-and-

a-quarter. Nearly two-thirds of pupils have lunch provided by the school. Parents pay for this, except for the 15% who are rated poor enough for it to be free. Other children either go home for lunch or take sandwiches.

Methods of teaching vary, but there is most commonly a balance between formal lessons with the teacher at the front of the classroom, and activities in which children work in small groups round a table with the teacher supervising. In primary schools, the children are mostly taught by a class teacher who teaches all subjects. Parents are strongly encouraged to help their children, particularly with reading and writing, and small amounts of homework are set to all children, even during the early years at school.

Secondary education (11 – 16 year olds) begins at 11. The majority of secondary schools are Comprehensive schools where boys and girls study together. Besides, parents can take their children to Secondary Modern schools or to Grammar schools. Many children of working class families go to Modern schools, which give a very limited education but pupils get instruction in woodwork, metalwork, sewing, shorthand, typing and cooking there. Grammar schools are selective. Entrance is based on a test of ability, usually at 11 (11+ exam). Grammar schools provide an academic course from 11 to 18. They prepare pupils for colleges and universities. Grammar schools are single sexed schools i.e. children either go to a Boys Grammar School or a Girls Grammar School. There are grammar schools in Northern Ireland and some parts of England.

The Comprehensive schools have their own ‘Grammar schools’ classes and ‘Modern classes’.

At about 16 years old teenagers take some exams and course-work to get General Certificate of Secondary Education. Those who choose to stay on at school usually study for two more years to pass A level (Advanced level) exams. These exams will give them chance to enter the university. However some comprehensive schools don’t have enough academic courses for six-formers, so students can transfer to either to a grammar school or to a six-form college to get the courses they want.

9.3 Types of schools

The main types of school are:

– local authority maintained schools (State Schools) – free to all children between the ages of 5 – 16;

– independent schools (Private/Public Schools) – parents pay for their children's education.

9.3.1 State Schools

In the UK 93% of the children in England and Wales go to 'state schools'. State schools are non fee-paying, funded from taxes and most are organized by Local Authorities (LA).

Parents are expected to make sure that their child has a pen, pencil, ruler etc. but the cost of other more specialized equipment, books, examination fees are covered by the school.

Parents are, however, expected to pay for their child's school uniform and items of sportswear. Charges may also be made for music lessons and for board and lodgings on residential trips. Schools may ask for voluntary contributions for school time activities – but no pupil may be left out of an activity if their parents or guardian cannot or do not contribute.

9.3.2 Fee Paying Schools (Independent Schools)

7% of the children in England go to independent schools. Independent schools are known as private schools or public schools. Parents pay for their children to attend these schools.

Nursery/Kindergarten	2 to 4 years
Pre-preparatory	3 or 4 to 7 years
Preparatory	7 to 11 or 13 years
Public	11 or 13 to 18 years

A preparatory school is a school to prepare pupils to go to a public school.

A public school is an independent secondary school. Public schools in England are not run by the government. The entrance exams used by most public schools are known as Common Entrance exams and are taken at the age of 11 (girls) or 13 (boys).

The most famous public schools are Eton, Harrow, Rugby and Winchester.

9.4 Higher education in Great Britain

Young people get higher education at the universities. Not everybody can afford it because it is not free. There are about 50 universities and 350 colleges and institutes of higher education in Great Britain. The oldest and the most famous are Oxford and Cambridge Universities which were founded in the 12th and 13th centuries.

A university consists of a number of faculties: divinity, medicine, philosophy, law, music, natural science, economics, engineering, agriculture, commerce and education. After three years of study a university graduate will leave with the Degree of Bachelor of Arts, Science, Engineering, Medicine, etc. Later, having studied for two more years at the post-graduate courses they get the Master's Degree and then the most talented people may proceed to a Doctor's Degree.

English universities greatly differ from each other. They differ in date of foundation, history, traditions, general organization, internal government, methods of instruction, way of students' life, size, etc. Each university has its own problems, each looks at them in its own way. But there are some tendencies common to them all.

One of the tendencies of higher education in Britain is the increase in number of students. This leads to the expansion of universities. On the whole, British universities are comparatively small. The approximate number is seven-eight thousand students, most universities having under three thousand, some even less than 1,500 students.

Another tendency is the increase in student studying technical sciences. One more factor is the tendency of university study to extend beyond the first degree. The further development of postgraduate courses appears to be reasonable. Some universities have extra-mural departments where students study by correspondence. London University, for example, has about 12,000 students at this department.

At present students may receive a grant from their local authority, which covers the cost of the course and some living expenses.

9.5 Types of universities

There are no state universities in Great Britain; each of the universities, of which there are thirty six in England, one in Wales, eight in Scotland and two in Northern Ireland, has its own independent government.

For several hundred years Oxford and Cambridge, the two greatest Universities in the country, dominate the British education. Admission to them is very difficult, the examinations are very severe. But if a fellow gets admission, gets through, gets his degree he is made for life.

An Oxford and Cambridge degree is accompanied by all sorts of privileges. And it is no accident that Oxford and Cambridge are familiarly known as Oxbridge (Oxford+Cambridge): this term is regarded in Britain as the sum of everything best in university life. The majority of Prime Ministers, political leaders and leaders in public life are Oxbridge. Big Business men and all the other Bigs of the country mostly belong to the Oxbridge category. And if it comes to getting a job, an Oxonian

or Cambrigian will get the preference, though he may have less brain and knowledge than a Redbrickman.

In the 20th century 13 major provincial universities were housed in dreary redbrick buildings to educate students in industrial regions, emphasizing technical subjects rather than the classics. They contrasted with the Gothic grey stone of Oxford and Cambridge. Now the more recent universities are all glass and steel buildings. There are some excellent Redbrick universities in Britain, many of which (for example, in London, Manchester or Bristol) are not in the least inferior to the Grey Stone; in some fields of learning they maybe even superior. But the prejudice is firmly implanted in the minds of a great number of people, even to this day.

In addition to the 47 universities which can award degrees, there is a body called the National Council for Academic Awards (NCAA) which gives degrees to students who have taken degree courses at Polytechnics or Colleges of Technology. Many of these courses are ‘sandwich’ courses, because a student spends six months of each year of his four year course studying at the College and the other six months he works in a related occupation in industry.

Degrees are also now awarded by the ‘Open Universities’, which accept adult students for spare-time study by mainly correspondence.

The Open University is the most recently established university in Great Britain. It was set up in 1969 for those people who missed the chance of going to an ordinary university. The university differs from other universities in that its students work in full-time jobs and can study only in their free time by means of distance teaching materials, through correspondence and broadcasting. Students study about ten hours a week and they do a lot of watching and listening to the weekly lectures through different communication systems.

As the university is really ‘open’ neither formal entrance examinations, nor qualifications are required at undergraduate level. Students are admitted on a ‘first came, first served’ basis. Each student gets the help of his own tutor whom he meets regularly.

The university has some faculties and three programmes of study – undergraduate, associate and postgraduate. The Bachelor of Art degree is built up on a credit system. Students' final mark is based on the exams in October and on the written assignments during the year. It takes six or eight years of study at the usual speed of a course.

9.6 World-known educational centers: Oxford and Cambridge. Student life

Oxford. At a distance of some 70 miles from London there are two world-known educational centers – Oxford and Cambridge.

The towns are almost identical. They both trace their long history back to the same period – 12^{lh} century.

Oxford, situated on the bank of the river Thames, is the seat of the most ancient university. Besides the University colleges, the town has the University Museum and the majestic building of the Sheldonian Theatre. According to the ancient tradition the degree-giving ceremony is conducted in the Sheldonian Theatre built by the famous Christopher Wren. About 125 thousand people live in this town.

Oxford University is a sort of federation of 23 colleges for men and five for women. All these colleges, including twelve thousand students, are parallel and equal institutions, and none of them is connected with any particular field of study. No matter what subject a man wants to study, he may study at any of the men's colleges. Each college has a dining-room, chapel, and residential rooms (enough to accommodate about half the student membership, the rest living in lodgings in the town). The college is governed by its Dons, of whom there are usually about twenty or thirty. They elect the Head of the college; they are also responsible for teaching the students of the college through the tutorial system.

The University prescribes syllabuses, arranges lectures, conducts examinations and awards degrees, but there is no single building which can be called 'the

University'. The colleges and university buildings are scattered about the town, mostly in the central area, though the scientific laboratories and the women's colleges are quite a long way out.

The university teachers are mostly Dons of colleges, who may at the same time hold university appointments as lecturers or professors. Part of the teaching is by means of lectures organized by the university, and any student may attend any university lecture. At the beginning of each of the three terms in the Oxford academic year a list is published showing all the lectures being given during the term within each faculty. Every student can choose which lecture he will attend, though his own college tutor will advise him which lectures seem likely to be more useful. Attendance at lectures is not compulsory, and no records of attendance are kept.

Cambridge. Cambridge with the population of about one hundred people is the second university town in Britain. The river Cam flows slowly and calmly behind the college buildings and curls about the town in the shape of a horseshoe. To the left, across the stream, there are no buildings, merely meadows and gardens.

Cambridge University was founded in 1284, when the first college Peterhouse was built. Now Cambridge comprises 19 colleges for men and three for women. Peterhouse is the oldest college, Trinity, founded in 1546 is the largest, Churchill College (1959) – the most recent one.

The founder of the most famous college of Cambridge – King's College – was the unfortunate king Henry VI. He founded Eton, the famous public school as well. The King was most unlucky in warfare – he was captured by his enemies, put in the Tower of London, and there put to death by strangling.

Under King Henry VIII, in the 16th century, Cambridge became a bastion of Protestantism. The king's favourable attitude caused new Professorships to be created: of Divinity, Civil Law, Physics, Greek. Erasmus of Rotterdam was the first to teach Greek in the University.

Cambridge colleges have the same pattern as Oxford: quadrangles, walls, gates, common rooms, dining-rooms, gardens.

Cambridge is a great centre of research. Here the Cavendish, the most famous of Britain's scientific laboratories was built in 1874. It is known all over the world as a great centre of research where a number of Nobel Prize physicists and nuclear scientists have worked, Thomson and E. Rutherford and the eminent Russian scientist Petr Kapitza were among them.

Student life in Oxford and Cambridge. Every college of the Oxbridge universities has students of all kinds; it has its medical students, its engineers, its art students, etc.

The Tutorial system is one of the ways in which Oxford and Cambridge differ from all other English universities. It is the system of individual tuition organized by the college. Each Don in a college is a tutor in his own subject; he has five or six undergraduates and plans the work for them. Besides attending lectures, the student has chosen, he comes to see his Don once a week. The Don discusses the work the student has done, gives him advice and helps him in his study. The student is free to go to any lecture or seminar he chooses, or not to attend any at all. But he is in constant contact with his tutor whose guiding hand and tuition he feels in every way.

A student does not necessarily go only to his own tutor but may be assigned to another Don in his own college or in another college when he is studying some particular topic which is outside the special interest of his own Don.

The academic year in England is divided into three terms. Terminal examinations are held at the end of each term; final examinations are taken at the end of the course of study. If a student fails in an examination, he may be allowed to take the exam again. Only two re-examinations are usually allowed.

As well as the college libraries, there are the two university libraries, both of which are legally entitled to a free copy of every book published in Britain.

Most students live in the buildings of their college. Two undergraduates usually share a room, which has an outlook over the college garden. There is a very small gas-stove on which they can make coffee or tea. They eat their meals in the College dining-hall. Long tables line the hall and at one end there is a raised platform

on which is a special table for the Dons, known as the High Table. It is a great honour to be invited to dine at the High Table.

For a break of discipline a student can be fined a sum of money, for a serious offence he may be expelled. The universities have over a hundred societies and clubs, enough for every interest one could imagine.

9.7 Exercises

Exercise 1 Can you answer these questions?

1) When does compulsory education begin?
2) What are the three stages of education?
3) What do 3 'R's mean?
4) What types of secondary schools do you now?
5) What was the function of 11+ exam?
6) When were Oxford and Cambridge Universities founded?
7) What is the peculiarity of 'sandwich' courses?
8) Who is called a Don?

Exercise 2 Test yourself: choose the most suitable answer.

1 Which school is not public?

a) Eton;
b) Rugby;
c) Winchester;
d) Cambridge.

2 Which type of school is not secondary?

a) Comprehensive;
b) Grammar;
c) Modern;
d) Infant.

3 What is the Oldest University in Great Britain?

a) London;

b) Oxford;

c) Brighton;

d) Cambridge.

4 When does compulsory education begin in Britain?

a) At the age of 5;

b) At the age of 7;

c) At the age of 3;

d) At the age of 10.

5 What does the word Oxbridge mean?

a) Ox Bridge;

b) Old Bridge;

c) Oxford + Cambridge;

d) One Bridge.

6 How long must a student study to get the degree of Master?

a) 3;

b) 4;

c) 5;

d) 10.

7 When does secondary education begin?

a) At the age of 7;

b) At the age of 3;

c) At the age of 10;

d) At the age of 11.

8 When do children get General Certificate of Education?

a) At the age of 11;

b) At the age of 16;

c) At the age of 18;

d) At the age of 20.

9 How does the Open University differ from ordinary universities?

a) People study independently and only pass exams;

b) They study by correspondence;

c) They get the Master degree in some 3-4 years;

d) Education is free of charge.

10 How can people be admitted to the Open University?

a) Through competitive system;

b) They take entrance exams;

c) On the basis of «first came, first served»;

d) They are invited.

11 Who helps the students of the Open University in their studies?

a) Lecturers;

b) Tutors;

c) Dons;

d) Nobody.

12 How many years do students study at the Open University?

a) 3-4;

b) 5-6;

c) 6-8;

d) 1-3.

Exercise 3 Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. Full-time education in Great Britain is compulsory.

2. The choice of textbooks and timetable are usually left to central education authorities.

3. State schools are almost all day schools, holding classes between Mondays and Fridays.

4. The school year is divided into two terms of about 19 weeks each.

5. Nearly all independent schools are comprehensive, they embrace pupils from 11 to 18.

6. Secondary modern schools offer a more general education with a practical bias up to the age of 18.

7. However, as a result of comprehensive reorganization the number of grammar and secondary modern schools fell radically by the beginning of the 1990s.

8. Although income and occupation are important elements, British class distinctions also depend heavily upon other considerations: education, tradition, behaviour, manner of living and even accent.

9. The oldest of the public schools were founded to give free education to clever boys whose parents could not afford to educate them privately.

10. Nearly all preparatory schools are for boys and girls, and many of them are boarding-schools.

11. Nowadays the public schools are less obsessed by team-spirit and character-building, they are more concerned with examinations and universities, especially Oxford and Cambridge.

Exercise 4 Make a report about any famous British university.

Did you know?

- In the UK, the term "public school" refers to a private academy. This seeming anomaly dates back to the Middle Ages when private charities started schools to provide education for the poor.

- Each year more than 185,000 students from all over the world are studying postgraduate qualifications in the UK as a building block to a successful career.

- Oxford University once had rules that specifically forbade students from bringing bows and arrows to class.

- An official report of the European Union surveying universities in all member states ranked the University of London as the top performer in terms of publications and in terms of citations, and the University of Cambridge as top performers in terms of impact.

- Founded in 1534, Cambridge University Press is the world's oldest printing and publishing house, and the second largest university press in the world.

- The county of Kent is home to England's oldest church (St Martin's in Canterbury), oldest school (the King's School, established in 600, also in Canterbury), and oldest brewery (Shepherd's Neame Brewery in Faversham, founded in 1698).

- Law reformer Jeremy Bentham left his entire estate to London's University College in 1832 on condition that he be stuffed, dressed in his finest clothes and mounted in a chair from where he would continue to attend the annual meeting of the university's board of governors. His figure is still brought out to preside over an annual debate.

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Приложение А
(рекомендуемое)

Географические названия

Waters:

The Atlantic Ocean

The North Sea

The Irish Sea

The English Channel

The Strait of Dover

The Bristol Channel

The Mountains:

The Cheviot Hills

The Pennine Chain (Pennines)

The Antrim Mountains

The Cambrian Mountains

The Grampian Mountains

The Mourne Mountains

Snowdon (1085m)

Ben Nevis (1343m)

Scafell Pike (978m)

Rivers:

The Thames

The Severn

The Clyde

The Avon

The Tweed

The Taff river

The Lake District

Loch Ness

The largest cities:

London

Birmingham

Glasgow

Liverpool

Manchester

Bristol

Leeds

Edinburgh

Southampton

Cardiff

Belfast

The Islands:

The Outer Hebrides

The Orkney Islands

The Shetland Islands

The Farnes

The Isle of Wight

The Channel Islands

The Isle of Man