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Учреждение образования
«Полоцкий государственный университет»

СТРАНОВЕДЕНИЕ ВЕЛИКОБРИТАНИИ И США

УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС

для студентов 2 курса специальностей
1-02 03 06-01, 1-02 03 06-03, 1-02 03 07-01

В двух частях

Часть 1

Составление и общая редакция
Н.В. Дудкиной

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Часть 1 содержит основные сведения об Объединенном Королевстве Великобритании и Северной Ирландии. Описывается состав населения и политическая система страны, ее экономика, народное образование, история (до XII века), стиль жизни, увлечения, быт и отдых средних британцев. Наглядное представление о жизни в Великобритании дают помещенные в комплексе иллюстрации, статистические данные и справочные материалы.

Предназначен для студентов языковых специальностей вузов.

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Первая часть учебно-методического комплекса дает возможность студентам, изучающим английский язык, познакомиться с некоторыми реалиями одной из наиболее развитых англоговорящих стран мира – Объединенным Королевством Великобритании и Северной Ирландии – ее национальной символикой, населением, географическим положением, рельефом, важнейшими историческими событиями, системой образования, традициями и обычаями британцев, государственным устройством. При этом целью данного УМК не является исчерпывающее отражение всех аспектов жизни Объединенного Королевства.

Комплекс предназначен для аудиторной и самостоятельной работы студентов языковых специальностей вузов.

Пособие состоит из восьми разделов:

1. Географическое положение и рельеф Великобритании.
2. Климат, минеральные ресурсы и растительность Великобритании.
3. Основные этапы формирования британской нации и образование государства.
4. Современное население Великобритании.
5. Национальное образование.
6. Политическая система Великобритании.
7. Национальная экономика.
8. Национальный характер.

Каждый раздел включает вступительную лекцию, знакомящую с тематикой раздела, а также вопросы, позволяющие проконтролировать понимание прочитанного и развивающие у обучаемых критическое отношение к прочитанному, умение извлекать информацию и выражать собственное суждение с опорой на языковой материал лекции. Послетекстовые задания и упражнения, варьируются в зависимости от содержания лекции и навыков, вырабатываемых у студентов. Письменные задания для внеаудиторной работы учащихся направлены на развитие навыков грамотного выражения мыслей в письменном виде, умения самостоятельно находить нужный материал. В конце каждой тематически обозначенной части располагаются вопросы, предлагаемые для обсуждения на семинарском занятии и позволяющие обобщить и закрепить усваиваемый материал, и викторина, предлагающая новую лингвострановедческую информацию и одновременно проверяющая изученное.

Задания к лекциям имеют различную степень трудности, поэтому могут быть использованы выборочно в соответствии с языковой подготовкой обучаемых. В конце УМК предлагается финальный проверочный тест для контроля усвоения изучаемого материала.

Учебно-методический комплекс снабжен приложением, которое включает сведения о королевских династиях, премьер-министрах и выдающихся событиях в истории страны.

Автор надеется, что работа с УМК будет стимулировать сознательное отношение студентов к изучению английского языка, способствовать развитию умений и навыков извлечения смысловой информации, анализа, отбора и творческого использования изучаемого материала в речи для изложения собственных суждений и оценок.

Виды занятий, формы контроля	
Курс	2
Семестр	3, 4
Лекции (ч)	36
Экзамен (семестр)	4
Зачет (семестр)	3
Семинарские занятия (ч)	36

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

Наименование тем лекций и семинарских занятий	Количество часов	
	лекции	семинары
3-й семестр: Объединенное Королевство Великобритании и Северной Ирландии	18	18
1. Географическое положение Великобритании. Состав территории. Реки и озера. Рельеф	2	2
2. Климат. Природные условия. Минеральные ресурсы	2	2
3. Основные этапы формирования британской нации и образование британского национального государства	2	2
4. Характеристика современного населения	2	2
5. Государственное и политическое устройство Великобритании. Парламент. Правительство. Политические партии	4	4
6. Экономика, ее структура. Экономические районы и города	2	2
7. Актуальные проблемы народного образования Великобритании	2	2
8. Культура. Церковь и религия. Британский характер и менталитет. Современные тенденции в жизни британского общества	2	2

CHAPTER I

THE GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION AND PHYSICAL FEATURES OF THE BRITISH ISLES

LECTURE 1

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION OF THE BRITISH ISLES

The British Isles lie on the continental shelf off the north-west coast of Europe and comprise a group of over 5,000 islands. In the British Isles there are two states. One of these governs the southern part of the island of Ireland. This state is usually called The Republic of Ireland, or Eire (its Irish language name). Informally it is referred to as just 'Ireland' or 'the Republic'. The other state has authority over the rest of the British Isles (the whole of Great Britain, the north-eastern area of Ireland and most of the smaller islands). Its official name is The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland although it is usually referred to as 'the United Kingdom' or just the UK. The total area of the British Isles is 322,246 sq. km, whereas that of the UK is 244,100 sq. km, of which about 99 % is land and the remainder inland water. The largest island of the British Isles is Britain or Great Britain, which is also the largest island in Europe. It covers 218,980 sq. km and is just under 1,000 km long and some 500 km across in the widest part and consists of England, Wales and Scotland. The second largest island is Ireland, which is made up of Northern Ireland (Ulster) and The Irish Republic (Eire).

The British Isles apart from the two largest islands of Great Britain and Ireland, include several other important islands and groups of islands. Off the north-western coast of Great Britain there is a group of islands known as the Hebrides. They are divided by the Little Minch and by the Sea of the Hebrides into the Inner Hebrides and the Outer Hebrides. Out of over the total of 500 islands of the Hebrides more than half are inhabitable. Only several families live on some of them. People are mostly involved in farming and fishing.

The Orkney islands (about 90) are separated from the northern tip of the mainland of Scotland by the stormy 8 mile wide Pentland Firth and only one third of them are inhabited. Most of the people are engaged in dairy – and poultry farming, bacon, cheese and eggs are exported to central Scotland.

About 70 miles north of the Orkneys the Shetland islands (about 100) are situated. The population (about 18,000) of the islands is engaged in herring-fishing. Apart from fish, the only exports from the islands are Shetland ponies and lace knitted from the wool of local sheep.

In the middle of the Irish Sea there is the Isle of Man. The island, though recognizing the Crown is administered by its own Parliament and has population

of about 50,000 people chiefly engaged in farming, fishing and tourist trade. The largest settlement is the holiday resort of Douglas.

Another important island in the Irish Sea is Anglesey. It is a place of a very famous village with the longest place name in Great Britain 'Llanfairpwllgwyngyllgogerychwyrndrobwllllantysiliogogoch'. In English it means 'St. Mary's church by the pool of the white hazel trees, near the rapid whirlpool, by the red cave of the Church of St. Tysilio'. The English cannot pronounce it in full so they pronounce only the beginning 'Llanfairpg'. Anglesey contains only 52,000 people, and more of the working population are now engaged in local industry than in fishing and agriculture, partly due to an increase in tourism and partly to the introduction of several new industries, including the operation of a nuclear power plant at Wylfa.

In the English Channel there is the Isle of Wight, one of the most popular South Coast's tourist resorts.

Off the extreme south-western coast of Great Britain there is a tiny group of islands called the Isles of Scilly. There are between 50 and 100 islands in the group but only six are inhabited. In early spring they export beautiful flowers to the mainland.

The Channel Islands lie to the south-west on the French side of the English Channel and are known to the French as the Isles of Normandes. They have been attached to the English Crown as part of the Duchy of Normandy since the Norman conquest (1066). The population of the islands is over 133,000 people; their total area is about 194 sq. km. The chief islands are Jersey and Guernsey. Jersey is the largest and most populous island; it occupies over 60 % of the total area and has almost 60 % of the population. The chief industry on the islands is tourism. The farmers also produce early fresh vegetables and new potatoes as well as flowers for urban residents. Like the Isle of Man, the Channel Islands have complete internal self-government; including its own Parliament and its own tax system. Both are 'ruled' by a Lieutenant Governor appointed by the British Government.

SURROUNDING SEAS AND COASTLINE

The British Isles are of the continental origin and once formed part of the European continent. The separation took place thousands of years ago after the last Ice Age (about 5 000 years ago). When the ice melted the level of the ocean rose and the lowlying coastlands of the continent got drowned. This was when the English Channel (which was originally a westward extension of the North European Plain) appeared and became a shallow stretch of sea. This zone of shallow water which at present surrounds the continent next to the really deep

water of the oceans is called the continental shelf. The British Isles lie entirely on the shelf. The area abounds in fish which feed largely on plankton living in the shallow waters above the continental shelf, besides, such valuable natural resources as oil and natural gas have been discovered beneath it and are being exploited.

The fact that the British Isles were once part of the European mainland justifies that their rocks resemble those of the closest parts of the continent. The ancient hard granite rocks of the Scottish Highlands are similar to those of Scandinavia, the white chalk cliffs of south coast England resemble those of northern France.

Great Britain and Ireland are separated from each other by the Irish Sea and 2 straits – the North Channel and St. George's Channel.

The British Isles are separated from the continent by the English Channel. The English Channel in its widest part is 220 km wide, and in its narrowest, called the Strait of Dover, – 32 km. The average depth of the Channel is 60 m, that of the Strait of Dover, – 30 m.

In the west the British Isles are washed by the Atlantic Ocean, in the east, – by the North Sea. The most important sea routes pass through the English Channel and the North Sea linking Europe with America and other countries creating favourable conditions for the development of trade, and the British economy as a whole.

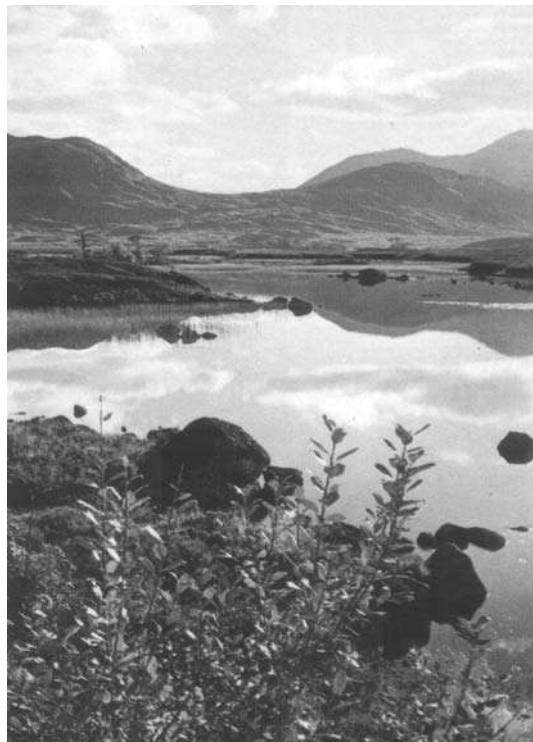
The British Isles are known for their greatly indented coastline which due to this is 8 000 km long. The western coast especially that of Scotland and Wales is very much indented. There're also many inlets, which gives the possibility to establish ports, which are important to keep ships safe from storms and to give them access deep into the country. The east coast is less lofty and more regular than the west coast, and the coastal lowlands are flooded frequently. However, even here there are major inlets such as the estuary of the Thames, the Wash, the Humber and the Firth of Forth.

The Irish coasts are more like those of England. The west coast is more indented, while the south coast conforms more with the general run of the relief. The east is relatively smooth with a few major estuaries in the north, but it is only in the south-east that lowland coasts with spits and bars blocking the estuaries are found. Cluffed coasts predominate here, and some are very beautiful.

PHYSICAL STRUCTURE AND RELIEF

Britain has a great diversity of physical characteristics: from generally high relief of western and northern areas to the lowlands of the south and east and can be divided into 8 main land regions, seven of which occupy the island of

Great Britain. They are: the Scottish Highlands, the Central Lowlands, the Southern Uplands (Scotland), the Pennines, Wales, the Southern Peninsular, and the English Lowlands. Northern Ireland makes up the 8th region.



The Scottish Highlands are a wild, desolate region. They have some of Britain's most magnificent scenery – sparkling lakes, heather-covered mountains, and deep valleys

The Scottish Highlands cover the northern half of Scotland. They are a

region of mountain ranges, plateaus, and deep valleys. The mountains are separated into two parts by Glen More or the Great Glen, a long crack in the earth's crust, running from north-east to the south-west. To the south are the Grampians, which are generally higher than the north-west Highlands, and contain the loftiest summits, including Ben Nevis (1,343 m), the highest peak in the British Isles and Ben Macdhui (1,309 m). Glen More contains the lakes: Loch Ness and Loch Lochy. Most of the Highlands is a moor – an area of coarse grasses, a few small trees, and low ever-green shrubs called heather. The soil of the region is thin and poor. The Highlands comprise 47 % of the land area of Scotland but house less than 15 % of the Scottish population, most of which raise sheep or fish in the seas.

The Central Lowlands, sometimes known as the *Midland Valley*, lie south of the Scottish Highlands, in the valleys of the Rivers Clyde, Forth and Tay. This region is a gently rolling plain; it has Scotland's best farmland and its richest coal deposits. It's the most populous (80 %) and industrially developed area of Scotland. Here stand Scotland's major cities: Edinburgh, the capital of the country, and the industrial giant, Glasgow, with its major industries of engineering and ship-building. The region is also a major farming area of the country

The Southern Uplands lie south of the Central Lowlands. It's a region of rolling hills with sheep grazing on their short grass. In the south the Uplands rise to the Cheviot Hills which form the natural border between Scotland and England. The highest point is Cheviot (816 m). The present-day economy of the region is dominated by agriculture.

England comprises the following regions: the Pennines, the Southern Peninsular and the English Lowlands.

The Pennines are a region of uplands that extend from the Scottish border about half the way down the length of England (a distance of about 250 km). The highest point of them is Cross Fell (983 m). The Pennines are also known as the Pennine Chain or Pennine Hills and are often called the ‘backbone of England’. They form a watershed separating the westward-flowing from the eastward-flowing rivers of northern England. They also form a barrier between the industrial areas of Lancashire and Yorkshire on their opposite sides. Rainfall in the Pennines is abundant, and today the area is used for water storage. The Pennines are rich in coal. West of the Pennines lies The Lake District. It’s a region of low mountains known as the Cumbrians (the highest peaks are Helvellyn – 950 m, Scafell – 978 m, Skiddaw – 931 m) and some clear quiet lakes (Windermere, Grasmere, Ullswater and others). The Lake District is a National Park and one of England’s most famous recreation areas.

The Southern Peninsular lies south of Wales across the Bristol Channel and includes the counties of Devon, Cornwall and Somerset (together often called the West Country). The region is made up of a number of upland masses separated by lowlands, the largest of which is the Plain of Somerset. The uplands of the South-West Peninsular are not ranges of mountains or hills but areas of high moorland, the most extensive are Dartmoor and Exmoor. Dartmoor is a National Park. People enjoy going there because of the beautiful countryside, comfortable and sunny beaches, the most remarkable of prehistoric remains in the UK – Stonehenge and Avebury (the county of Wiltshire) and the huge earth pyramid of Silbury. South-west England is noted for two other interesting things: the westernmost point of the English mainland is Land’s End, a mass of granite cliffs which plunge into the sea.

The most southerly point of Great Britain is Lizard Point, a mass of serpentine greenish rock. The principal industries of the region are farming and tourism.

The English Lowlands cover all England south of the Pennines and east of Wales and the Southern



Land’s End, the extreme southwest point of England



The English Lowlands are chiefly a region of broad, rolling plains, broken by low hills

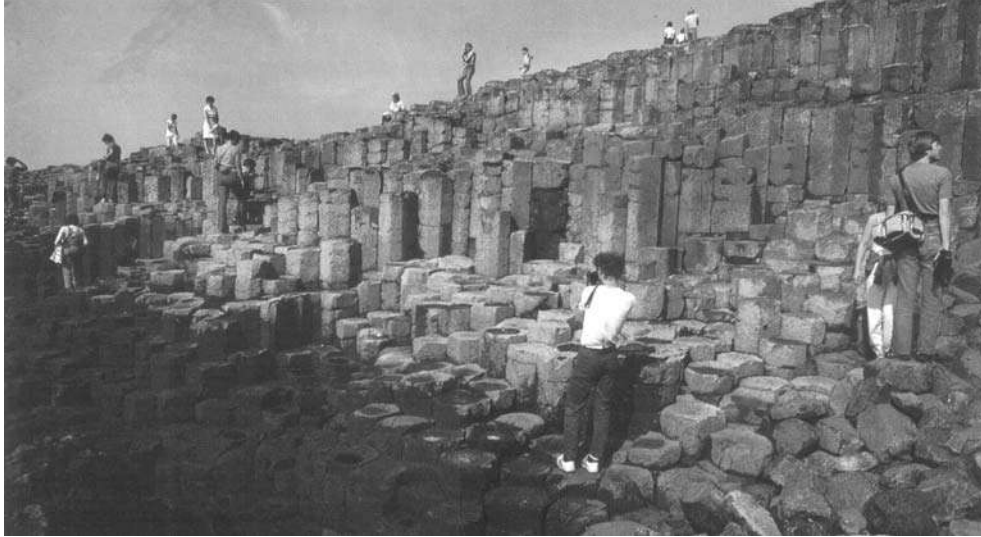
Peninsular. The region has most of the United Kingdom's farmable land, industry and people. The Lowlands consist chiefly of broad, gently rolling plains, broken here and there by low hills. In the center of the English Lowlands, just south of the Pennines lies a grassy plain called the Midlands. It's the industrial heart of the United Kingdom with Birmingham and the surrounding communities which form the chief manufacturing center. Most of the

land north of the Thames and up to a bay of the North Sea called The Wash, is low and flat. This area is the country's richest farmland. In the Fens, a great plain bordering The Wash, is the lowest point on the island of Great Britain – 4.6 m below sea level. South of the Thames the hills reaching the sea form great white cliffs. The most famous of them are near Dover.

Wales (the seventh region) lies south-west of the Pennines. It is separated from the Pennines by a narrow strip of the English Lowlands. The mountains covering most of Wales are called the Cambrian mountains. The highest peak of them is Snowdon (1,085 m). In the south the Cambrian mountains include an important coalfield, on which an industrial area has grown. Two relief divisions may be distinguished in South Wales: a coastal plain which in the south-eastern part around Cardiff, the capital of Wales, becomes up to 16 km wide and the upland areas of the coalfield proper.

Northern Ireland is a region of low mountains, deep valleys and fertile lowlands. The land is lowest near the center and rises to its greatest heights near the north and south coasts. The chief mountains are in the extreme north-east. They are the Antrim mountains which rise above 400 metres and are composed of basalt. Off the north coast is the famous Giant's Causeway, a mass of stone columns standing very near together. The tops of the columns form stepping stones leading from the cliff foot and disappearing under the sea. Over the whole Causeway there are 40,000 of these stone columns. The tallest are about 42 feet (13 m) high. There exists the legend about the Giant's Causeway. The Causeway was the work of the giant Finn McCool, the Ulster soldier and commander of the armies of the King of all Ireland. Finn was extremely strong. On one occasion, during a fight with a Scottish giant, he picked up a huge piece of earth and threw it at him. The earth fell into the Irish Sea and became the Isle of Man. The hole it left filled with water and became the great inland sea of Lough Neagh. People

said that Finn lived on the North Antrim coast and that he fell in love with a lady giant. She lived on an island in the Scottish Hebrides, and so he began to build his wide causeway to bring her across to Ulster.



The Giant's Causeway – eighth wonder of the world

The chief natural resources of Northern Ireland are rich fields and pastures and most of the land is used for crop farming or grazing. About a fifth of the people of Northern Ireland live in Belfast, the capital and main industrial center.

RIVERS AND LAKES

There's a wide network of rivers in the British Isles though they are generally short in length and navigable only in their lower reaches, especially during high tides. Mild maritime climate keeps them free of ice during winter months.

Britain's longest rivers are the Severn, (England, Wales) which is 354 km long, and the Thames (England), – 346 km long. Many of the largest rivers in Scotland, such as the Tweed, Forth, Dee, Spey and Scotland's longest river Tay (170 km) drain directly to the North Sea. Among other important rivers which flow eastwards are the Trent, Tyne, Humber and Ouse in England. The Clyde in Scotland, the Eden, Ribble, Mersey and the Severn flow down to the west coast, – the Irish Sea. A few small rivers flow to the English Channel.

There're many rivers in Ireland. They are short but navigable due to an abundant and even distribution of precipitation throughout the year. The longest river in Ireland is the Shannon (384 km) flowing from the north to the south.

The largest lake in the British Isles is Lough Neagh (pronounced 'lahk Nay') in Northern Ireland. It's about 29 km long and 18 km wide. Loch Lomond in Scotland covering a surface area of 70 sq. km is the largest lake on the island of Great Britain: 37 km long, 8 km wide at its widest point. England's biggest

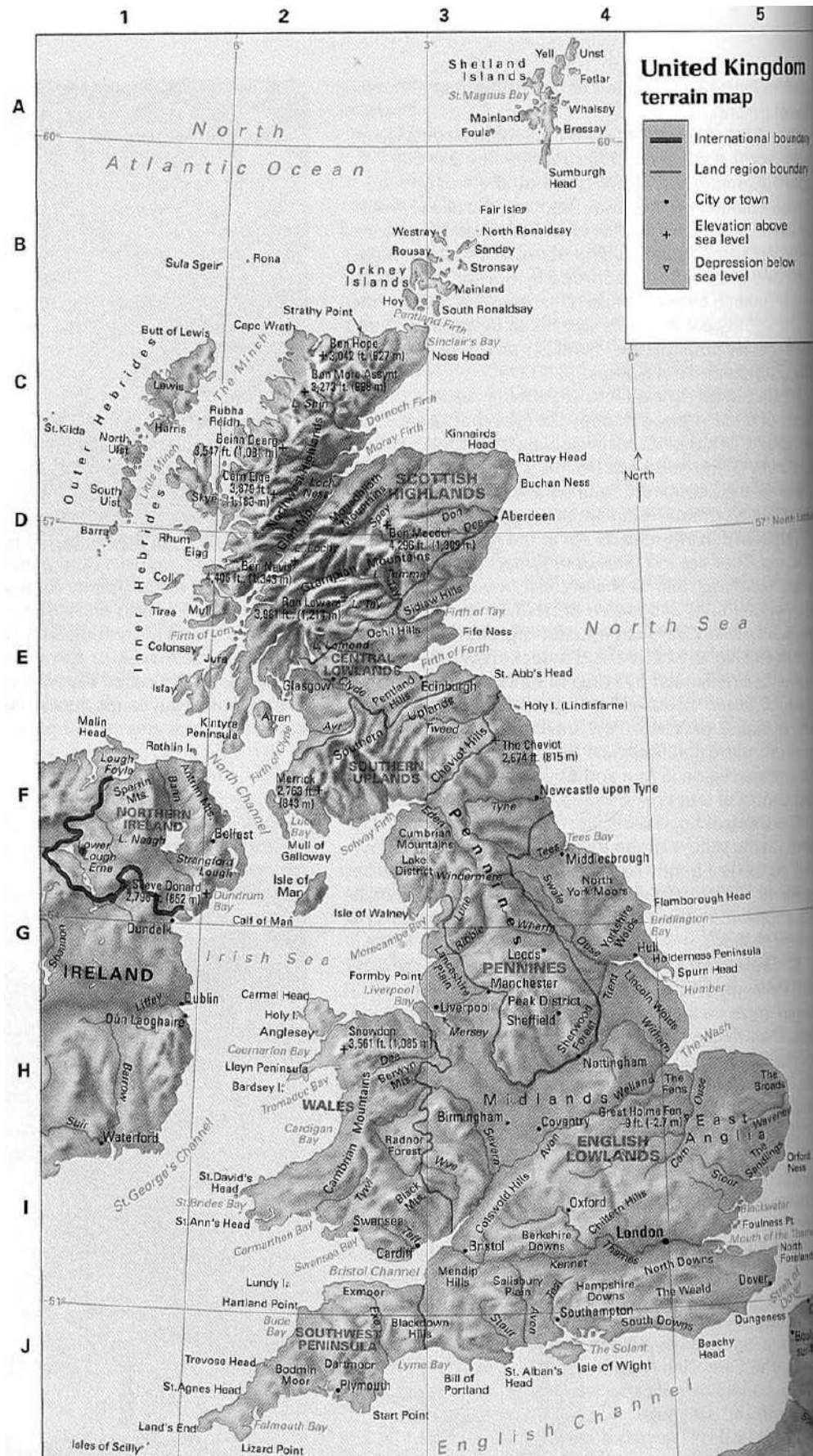
lakes are in the Lake District. The largest, Windermere is about 16 km long and up to 1.6 km wide.

Districts in Northern Ireland

- 1 Belfast
- 2 Newtownabbey
- 3 Carrickfergus
- 4 Castlereagh
- 5 North Down
- 6 Ards
- 7 Down
- 8 Newry & Mourne
- 9 Banbridge
- 10 Lisburn
- 11 Craigavon
- 12 Armagh
- 13 Dungannon
- 14 Fermanagh
- 15 Omagh
- 16 Cookstown
- 17 Magherafelt
- 18 Strabane
- 19 Derry
- 20 Limavady
- 21 Coleraine
- 22 Ballymoney
- 23 Moyle
- 24 Ballymena
- 25 Larne
- 26 Antrim



Map of the Administrative Counties and Regions of Britain



Physical features

THE PRONUNCIATION OF GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES

Put the stress in the right place:

The Isle of Man /all qv mɔn/
the Isle of Wight /all qv waɪt/
the Orkney Islands /Lkni allqndz/
the Shetland Islands /Setlqnd/
the Outer Hebrides /aVtq hebrɪdɪ:z/
the Inner Hebrides /Inq hebrɪdɪ:z/
Anglesey /ɔŋgɪsl/
the (English) Channel /tSɔnl/
the North Sea /n0:T si:/
the Irish Sea /aɪrɪs si:/
the Atlantic Ocean /qtɪxntɪk qvSn/

Ranges of Mountains and other places:

the Pennines /penɪnz/
the Cheviot Hills /tSi:vɪqt/
the Cumbrian mountains /kʌmbriqn/
the Lake District /leɪk dlstrɪkt/
moorlands /mʊvlqndz/
the Land's End /lɔndz end/
the Lizard Point /lɪzqd p0ɪnt/
the Highlands /hallqndz/
the Central Lowlands /sentrl lqvlqndz/
the Southern Uplands /sADn ʌplqndz/
the Grampian mountains /grɔmplqn/

Ben Nevis /ben neɪvs/
the Antrim mountains /ɔntrɪm/
the Sperrin mountains /sperɪn/
the Mourne mountains /m0:n/
the Giant's Causeway /dZɪlqnt sk0:zweɪ/

Rivers and lakes:

the Severn /sevn/
the Thames /temz/
the Trent /trent/
the Tyne /taɪn/
the Tees /ti:z/
the Ouse /u:z/
the Mersey /mE:zɪ/
the Tweed /twi:d/
the Forth /f0:T/
the Dee /di:/
the Spey /speɪ/
the Clyde /klaɪd/
Loch Lomond /l0k lqvmqnd/
Loch Ness /l0k nes/
the Shannon /Sɔnɔn/
Lough Neagh /l0k neɪ/

Progress Questions and Assignments

1. Answer the following questions

1. Describe the geographical position of the British Isles.
2. Which factors influence the advantages of Britain's geographical position?
3. Examine the composition of the British Isles, naming and showing on the map the major islands (groups of islands).
4. Characterize the coastline of the British Isles referring to the benefits of its indenture.
5. Describe the main features of the physical geography of the British Isles.
6. Characterize the main mountain areas of the country.
7. Assess the lowland areas of the country in terms of human settlement and economic development.
8. By referring to the map, name the chief rivers of the British Isles flowing to the North Sea.
9. By referring to the map, name the chief rivers of the British Isles flowing to the Irish Sea.
10. What are the main lakes of Great Britain?

II. Do the following tasks

1. Explain the difference between England, Great Britain, the United Kingdom and the British Isles. Do you know of any other countries that have more than one name?

2.1. Put these sentences into a logical order to make a paragraph about the Union Jack.

(a) The flag of Wales did not form part of the Union Jack because Wales became part of England much earlier.

(b) This was to combine the St George's flag of England (a square red cross with a white background) with the St Andrew's flag of Scotland (a diagonal white cross on a blue background).

(c) In 1603, when King James VI of Scotland became James I of England, he ordered a flag to be designed.

(d) However the Welsh have their own flag which was officially recognised in 1959: a red dragon on a white and green background.

(e) Almost two hundred years later, in 1801 when Ireland was united with Britain, the red diagonal cross of St Patrick was added.

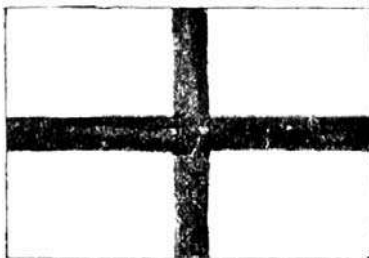
2.2. Label the flags.

- A. St George's flag.
- B. St Andrew's flag.
- C. St Patrick's flag.
- D. The flag of Union, 1603.
- E. The Welsh flag.

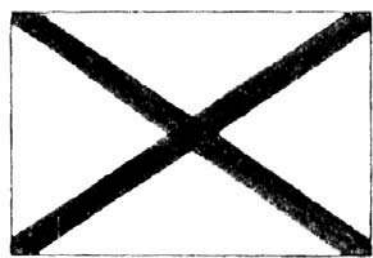
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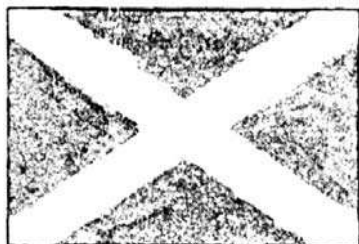
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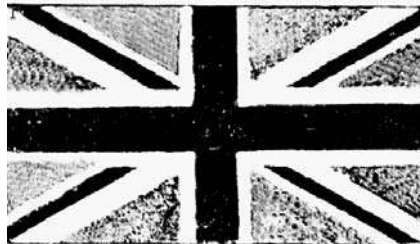
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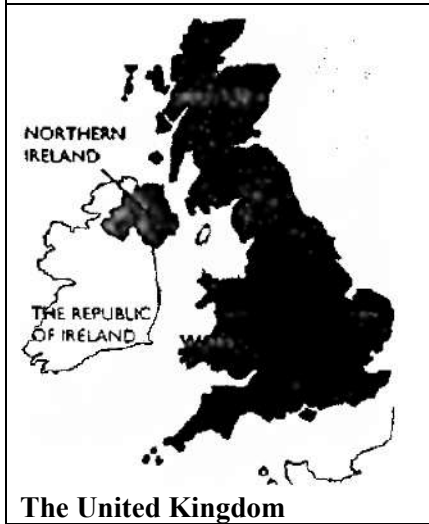
5



3. Complete these texts, using the maps below. Answer the questions following the texts.



The British Isles is the geographical name for all the islands off the..... coast of Europe. These islands also include the Republic of..... (Eire), which is politically independent of the British government. Many people refer to the inhabitants of the British Isles as 'the English', but England is only one of the countries. The other countries are, and



The United Kingdom (or the UK) is a short way of saying the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The UK is the political name for those countries which share a parliament in London. All of them were at one time independent kingdoms with their own monarch. Now they are all part of the same kingdom and share the same monarch. The UK consists of,, and The peoples of these countries are British subjects; they hold British passports and therefore their nationality is British.



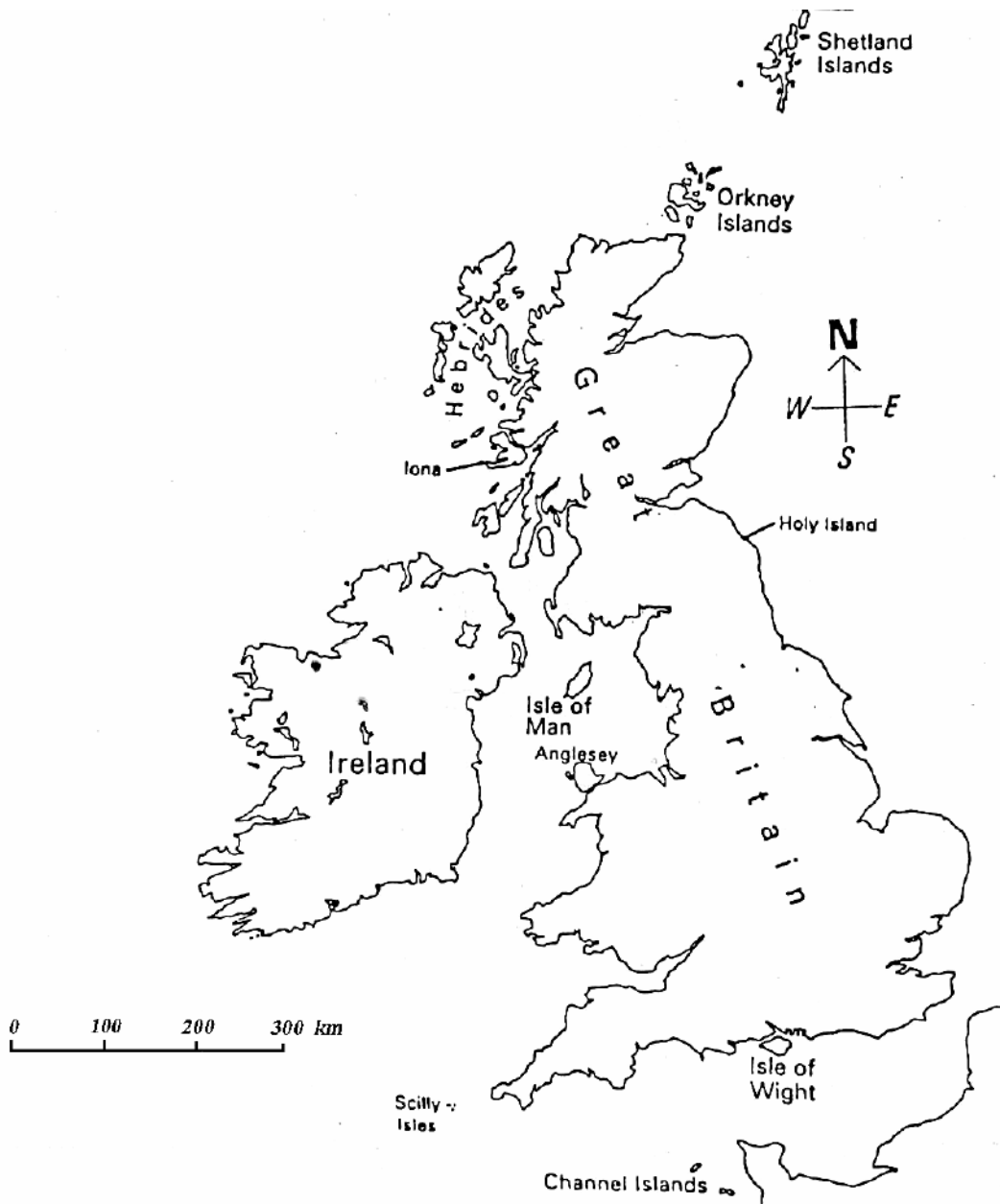
Great Britain is the name of the one island which is made up of, and It is called Great because in some languages the word for Britain (Bretagne) is the same as the word for Brittany, which is in France. The word 'Great' helps to distinguish the two: 'Grande Bretagne' = Great Britain, 'Bretagne' = Brittany.

- A. Do the people of Eire hold British passports?
- B. Is Scotland part of the UK?
- C. Is Northern Ireland part of Great Britain?

4. Complete this table.

Country	Capital	Mountains	Rivers
England			
Scotland			
Wales			
N. Ireland			

5. Look at the sketch map of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and draw the national boundaries.

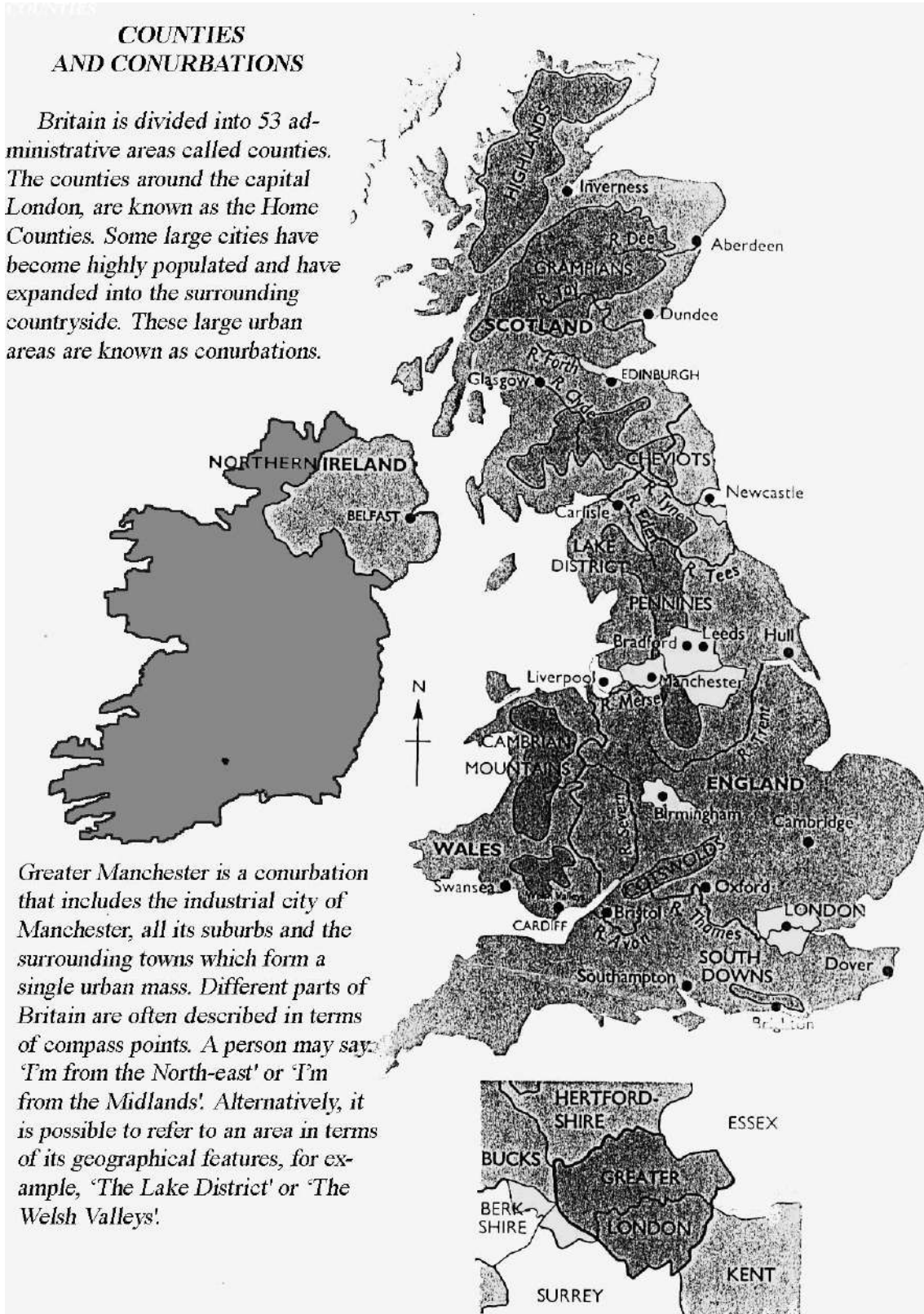


Islands of the British Isles

6. Read the information and do the tasks.

**COUNTIES
AND CONURBATIONS**

Britain is divided into 53 administrative areas called counties. The counties around the capital London, are known as the Home Counties. Some large cities have become highly populated and have expanded into the surrounding countryside. These large urban areas are known as conurbations.



Greater Manchester is a conurbation that includes the industrial city of Manchester, all its suburbs and the surrounding towns which form a single urban mass. Different parts of Britain are often described in terms of compass points. A person may say: 'I'm from the North-east' or 'I'm from the Midlands'. Alternatively, it is possible to refer to an area in terms of its geographical features, for example, 'The Lake District' or 'The Welsh Valleys'.

Reading comprehension

- a Divide these words into *country* or *county*.
Kent Scotland Wales Essex England Cornwall

b Which of these counties are Home Counties?

Kent Surrey Norfolk Staffordshire Yorkshire Essex

c Match each of these towns with its correct area.

AREA	TOWN/CITY
The Midlands	Brighton
The North-east	Inverness
The Highlands	Birmingham
The South-east	Newcastle

d Read the clues and identify the city.

This Scottish city is on the river Clyde.

This large port is in south-west England, on the river Avon.

This is the capital city of Wales.

e Now write two more clues to test your classmates.

f Read and memorize.

FACT FILE

BIGGEST CITY: London

LARGEST LAKE: Lough Neagh, N. Ireland
(588 sq km)

LONGEST RIVER: The Severn (554 km)

WETTEST AREAS: The North and West

HIGHEST PEAK: Ben Nevis, Scotland
(1,343 m)

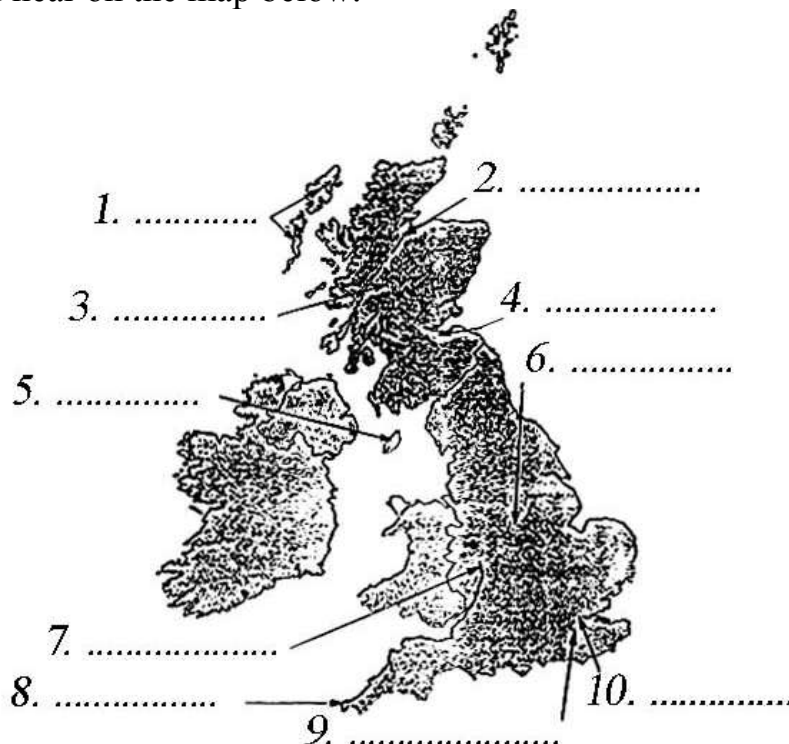
WARMEST AREA: The South-east

	England	Scotland	Wales	N. Ireland
Capital	London	Edinburgh	Cardiff	Belfast
Population	50,000,000	5,100,000	2,946,000	1,698,000
Language	English (also used as official language in more than sixty other countries)	English is spoken throughout Scotland. Scots Gaelic (an ancient Celtic language) is still spoken today by 80,000 people. Names have a long history and the Scots belong to clans (ancient family groups), each of which has its own tartan (distinctively patterned cloth)	19% of the population speak Welsh, which is a language of Celtic origin. Since the 1960s, efforts to promote the use of the Welsh language have increased. Road signs are in both English and Welsh and, on television, Channel 4 Wales shows programmes in Welsh. It is the medium of instruction in Welsh schools, and is also studied at university	English is the main language but Irish Gaelic (a Celtic language) is spoken. Over 20,000 secondary school pupils study Gaelic, and the two universities in Northern Ireland offer degree courses and research in Gaelic

Tourist areas

England	Scotland	Wales	N.Ireland
<p>London is popular with overseas visitors.</p> <p>The most visited attractions are: Madame Tussauds, The Tower of London and The British Museum.</p> <p>Areas associated with English writers: Warwickshire (Shakespeare), the Lake District (William Wordsworth-poet), Yorkshire (Bronte sisters –novelists) and Dorset (Thomas Hardy-novelist).</p> <p>Devon and Cornwall (the West County) are also very popular.</p> <p>Natural attractions: 34 Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty, 6 Forest Parks and 7 National Parks</p>	<p>The annual Edinburgh Festival is one of the world’s leading cultural events.</p> <p>Glasgow was European City of Culture in 1990.</p> <p>Golf originated in Scotland and golfing and outdoor holidays are popular. Salmon fishing is excellent and many visitors come to see the world famous whisky distilleries.</p> <p>Skiing in the Highlands at Aviemore is popular. The scenic beauty of Scotland’s hills, mountains and castles is renowned</p>	<p>Wales is particularly popular for outdoor holidays and the national music and literature festival, Eisteddfod, is a major attraction.</p> <p>There are 3 National Parks- Snowdonia, the Brecon Beacons and the Pembrokeshire Coast</p>	<p>Despite its reputation for political troubles, Northern Ireland is very beautiful and attracts more and more tourists every year.</p> <p>Americans show great interest (many, including some former Presidents of the USA, are of Irish descent).</p> <p>The annual Belfast Festival is the second largest international festival in Britain.</p> <p>The Glens (valleys) of Antrim and the Giant’s Causeway are two main tourist areas. The Causeway, on the Antrim coast, consists of 40,000 stone columns leading from the cliffs to the sea.</p> <p>Irish whiskey is popular</p>

7. A crazy journey around Great Britain. Listen to the cassette and write the places you hear on the map below.



8. In your copybook draw a sketch map of the British Isles and include:
 - a) the location of the chief mountains of Great Britain;
 - b) the courses of the rivers Thames, Severn, Trent, Tyne, Clyde;
 - c) Loch Lomond, Lough Neagh.

III. Project

1. Write an essay (500 – 550 words) giving a survey of the United Kingdom's capital cities: London, Cardiff, Edinburgh and Belfast.
2. Write an essay about the Channel Tunnel. Its role in improving the links between Britain and the continent. Why does the ferry service continue to operate without any signs of decline?

SEMINAR 1

1. Describe the geographical position of the British Isles in the world (composition, advantages and disadvantages of their position).
2. Define the term 'continental shelf' and speak of its importance for the British economy. Characterize the coastline of Great Britain and surrounding seas.
3. Describe the main relief features of Great Britain and eight land regions.
4. Give an account of the main rivers and lakes of the British Isles.

ROUND BRITAIN QUIZ

1. Beautiful mountainous area of North Wales which has been a popular tourist destination since the 18th century. Here you can climb the highest mountain in England and Wales which is called ____.
2. As Scotland's capital, ____ is the center of government and commercial life.
3. ____ ____ ____ is the geographical name that refers to all the islands off the north-west coast of the European continent.
4. A beautiful old town on the river Avon, containing many thatched buildings. It was the birth place of William Shakespeare. ____.
5. Area of north-west England famous for its beautiful lakes, especially Windermere. It is associated with the romantic English poet Wordsworth (1770 – 1850). ____.
6. A city and port in West Scotland situated on the river ____ where shipbuilding used to be a major industry.
7. The flag of the United Kingdom, known as the ____ ____, is made up of three ____.

8. A long lake in northern Scotland where there is said a prehistoric monster whose nickname is ____.

9. It's 1,343 metres high. ____.

10. The most northerly group of islands in Britain, they belonged to Scandinavia until the 15th century ____.

11. This is literally '____'s ____' the most westerly point of Great Britain. The peninsular used to be well-known for its pirates.

12. The ____ of ____ can be found 28 miles (45 km) south-west of Land's End. There are between 50 and 100 'islands' in the group (some are just large rocks) but only six are inhabited. In early spring, they export beautiful flowers to the mainland.

13. ____ is one of the youngest capital cities in the world. The city is well-known for shipbuilding, it was here that the 'Titanic' was built and sent out on its fatal maiden voyage.

14. Loch ____ in Scotland is the largest lake on the island of ____ _____. It is 23 miles (37 km) long and 5 miles (8 km) wide at its widest point.

15. Every year, an international ____ is held in Wales. People come from all over the world to recite poetry, sing and dance in this colourful competition.

CHAPTER II

THE CLIMATE, NATURAL RESOURCES AND VEGETATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

LECTURE 2

CLIMATE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

Weather is not the same as climate. The weather at a place is the state of the atmosphere there at a given time or over a short period. The weather of the British Isles is greatly variable. The climate of a place or region, on the other hand, represents the average weather conditions over a long period of time. The climate of the British Isles is mild, temperate, dominated by marine influences, rainy and equable.

The climate of any place is determined by a number of factors, of which the most important are latitude, distance from the sea, relief and the direction of the prevailing winds. The geographical position of the British Isles within latitudes 50° to 61° N is a basic factor in determining the main characteristics of the climate. British latitudes form the temperate nature of the British climate, for the sun is never directly overhead as in the tropical areas.

Britain's climate is dominated by the influence of the sea. It is much milder than that of any other country in the same latitudes. This is due partly to the presence of the North Atlantic Drift, or the Gulf Stream (a warm current that sweeps up from the equator and flows past the British Isles) and partly to the fact that north-west Europe lies in a predominantly westerly wind-belt. This means that marine influences warm the land in winter and cool it in summer. Besides, the prevailing steady south-west winds blowing across the Atlantic Ocean bring warmth in winter and as in summer the Atlantic Ocean is cooler than the land they come to Britain as refreshing breezes. This moderating effect of the sea is also the cause of the relatively small seasonal contrasts experienced in Britain. The Britain's climate is generally one of mild winters and cool summers. The annual mean temperature in London and Wales is about 10 °C, in Scotland and Northern Ireland about 9 °C. The mean monthly temperatures in the extreme north (the Shetlands) range from 3 °C during the winter to 12 °C during the summer. The corresponding figures for the extreme south (the Isle of Wight) are 5 °C and 16 °C. On average June and August are the warmest months of the year and January and February are the coldest. Great Britain experiences few extremes in temperature which rarely drops below – 10 °C in winter, and seldom rises above 32 °C in summer.

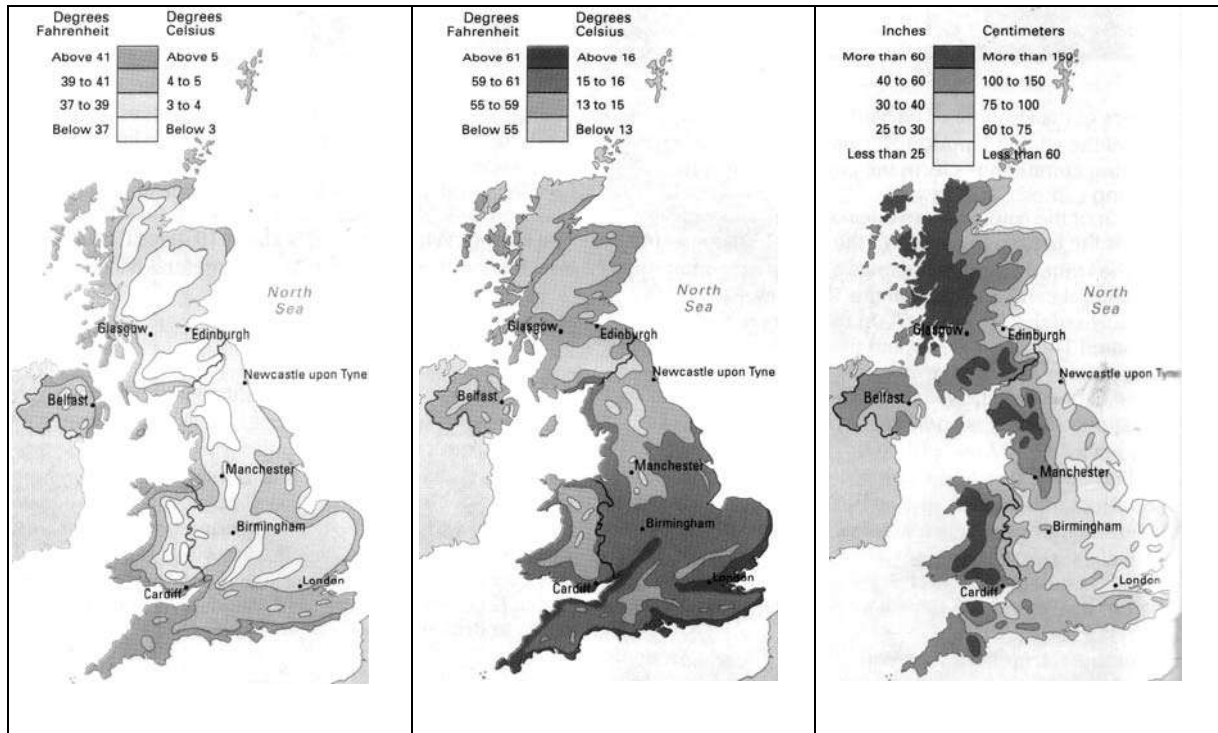
Average monthly weather

	London						Edinburgh				
	Temperatures				Days of rain or snow		Temperatures				Days of rain or snow
	F°		C°				F°		C°		
High	Low	High	Low		High	Low	High	Low			
Jan.	44	35	7	2	17	Jan.	43	35	6	2	18
Feb.	45	35	7	2	13	Feb.	43	35	6	2	15
Mar.	51	37	11	3	11	Mar.	47	36	8	2	15
Apr.	56	40	13	4	14	Apr.	50	39	10	4	16
May	63	45	17	7	13	May	55	43	13	6	15
June	69	51	21	11	11	June	62	48	17	9	15
July	73	55	23	13	13	July	65	52	18	11	17
Aug.	72	54	22	12	13	Aug.	64	52	18	11	17
Sept.	67	51	19	11	13	Sept.	60	48	16	9	16
Oct.	58	44	14	7	14	Oct.	53	44	12	7	18
Nov.	49	39	9	4	16	Nov.	47	39	8	4	18
Dec.	45	36	7	2	16	Dec.	44	36	7	2	17

The prevailing western winds also bring plentiful rain, as a result of their long passage over the warm waters of the North Atlantic. On their arrival over Britain, the winds are forced upwards, and as a result large-scale condensation takes place, clouds form and precipitation follows. The United Kingdom has rain throughout the year and rarely is any section of the country dry as long as 3 weeks. On average, March through June are the driest months, and September to January the wettest. Much of the rain comes in light but steady drizzles. The heaviest rain falls in the mountainous areas of the west and north of the country. Some of the areas of the Scottish Highlands, the Lake District (the Cumbrian mountains), Welsh uplands and Devon and Cornwall get 380 to 510 cm a year while less than 51 cm of rain falls yearly in some parts of south-eastern England. This is because relief is the most important factor controlling the distribution of temperature and precipitation within Britain. The hilly and mountainous parts of the north and west experience lower temperatures and get more precipitation than the lowlands of the south and east.

Snow is a regular feature of the higher areas only. Occasionally, a whole winter goes by in lowerlying parts without any snow at all. From time to time mild fogs hang over parts of the country.

In Ireland the climate situation is a bit different, for here the rain-bearing winds have not been deprived of their moisture, and much of the Irish plain receives up to 120 cm of rainfall per year, usually in the form of steady and prolonged drizzle. Snow, on the other hand, is rare owing to the warming effects of the Gulf Stream. The combined influences of the sea and prevailing winds are equally evident in the general pattern of rainfall over the country.



Average January Temperatures

Britain's south and west coasts have milder winters than the north and east. Uplands areas have the coldest weather

Average July Temperatures

The south, particularly the southeast, has warmer summer temperatures than Scotland and the north of England

Average Yearly Precipitation

The western upland areas of the United Kingdom receive the most precipitation. South-eastern England get the least

VEGETATION OF THE BRITISH ISLES

The 'natural vegetation' is the term which has practically disappeared from Britain and most of the present vegetation is known as semi-natural. Only in some remote parts of Ireland and Scottish Highlands can we find remnants of the natural vegetation. Because of its mild climate, wide variety of soils and relief Britain once had a diverse variety of vegetation which consisted of forests, fen and marsh in the wet lowlands. Apart from oak forests one could find in the wooded lowland such trees as ash, maple, elm and hazel. Today only a few scattered areas of extensive woodland remain, such as the New Forest in Hampshire, and Sherwood Forest in Nottinghamshire which were used for royal hunting in Middle Ages. The greatest density of woodland occurs in the north and east of Scotland, some parts of south-east England and on the Welsh border.

In most of England, some parts of Wales and Scotland, oak, birch, beech and ash are most numerous. In the north and west they are replaced by coniferous species, pine, fir, spruce. Today forest and woodland occupy only 9 % of the surface of the country, 56 % belong to private landowners.

Most of Britain is agricultural land 1/3 of which is arable and the rest are pastures and meadows. Because of the relief and climate conditions some parts of the Highlands of Scotland are covered by extensive moorland, which are also found in the upland areas of north and west England. The hilly moorlands in the Highlands of Scotland, the Pennines, the Lake District, the mountains of Wales provide such types of wild vegetation as heather, fern, and other grasses.

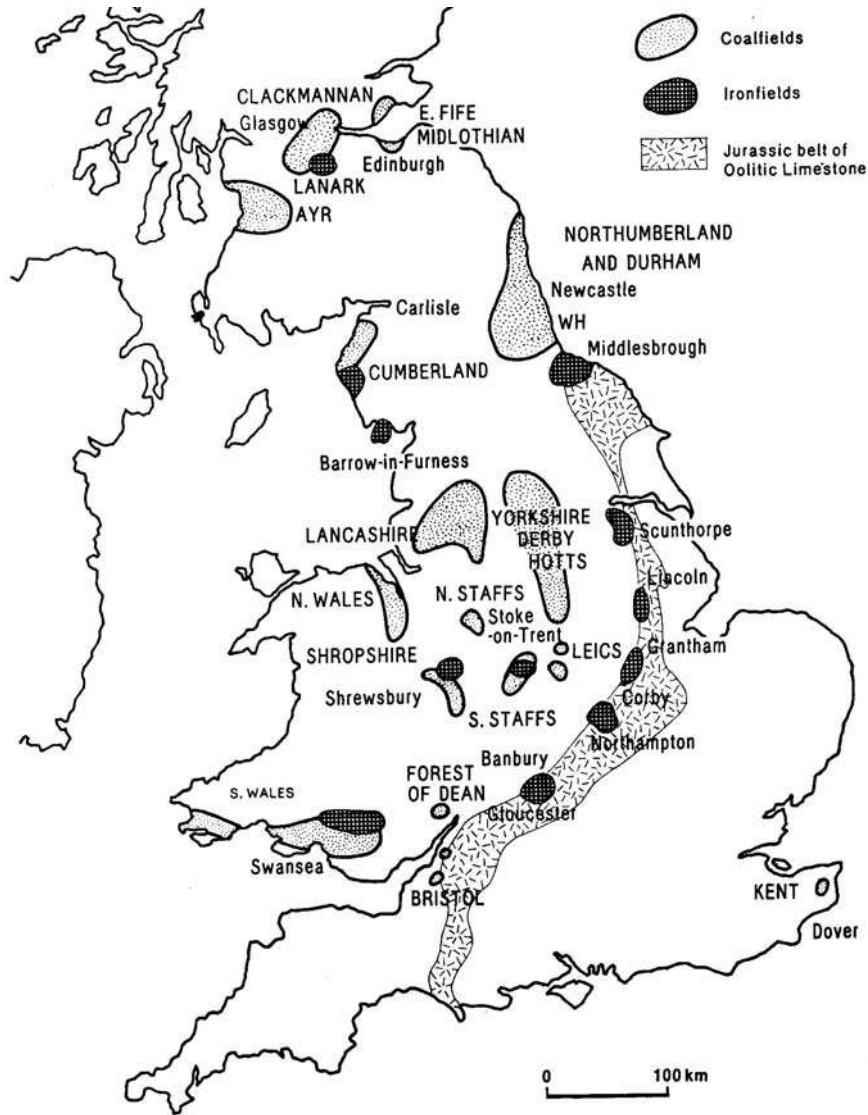
MINERAL RESOURCES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

The rise of Britain as an industrial nation in the late 18th and early 19th centuries was partly due to its considerable mineral resources, – abundant supplies of coal and iron ore and non-ferrous metals, – copper, lead, tin. But in the course of the last 100 years the situation has gradually changed. Many of Britain's most valuable and accessible resources have been worked out, coal has lost its former importance, and such minerals as petroleum and uranium ores have become essential in the modern world. British economy has become orientated towards a more sophisticated industry with coal-based industries of the past losing their former importance. The absence in Great Britain of high-grade iron ore, manganese, chrome, nickel and other rare metals make its economy dependent on imported raw materials.

The United Kingdom is a major world producer of petroleum, coal, and natural gas. These three fuels account for about 85 % of the value of total mineral production in the country.

Coal has been worked in Britain for 700 years. The country once possessed the richest and the most accessible coal fields containing the best coal of any world region. However, with the introduction of new sources of power and fuel the production of coal has decreased considerably and constitutes at present no more than 100 million tons. Most coal comes today from Yorkshire and the Midlands which produce about 60 % of the country's output. These fields are easiest to mine because the coal seams are particularly thick.

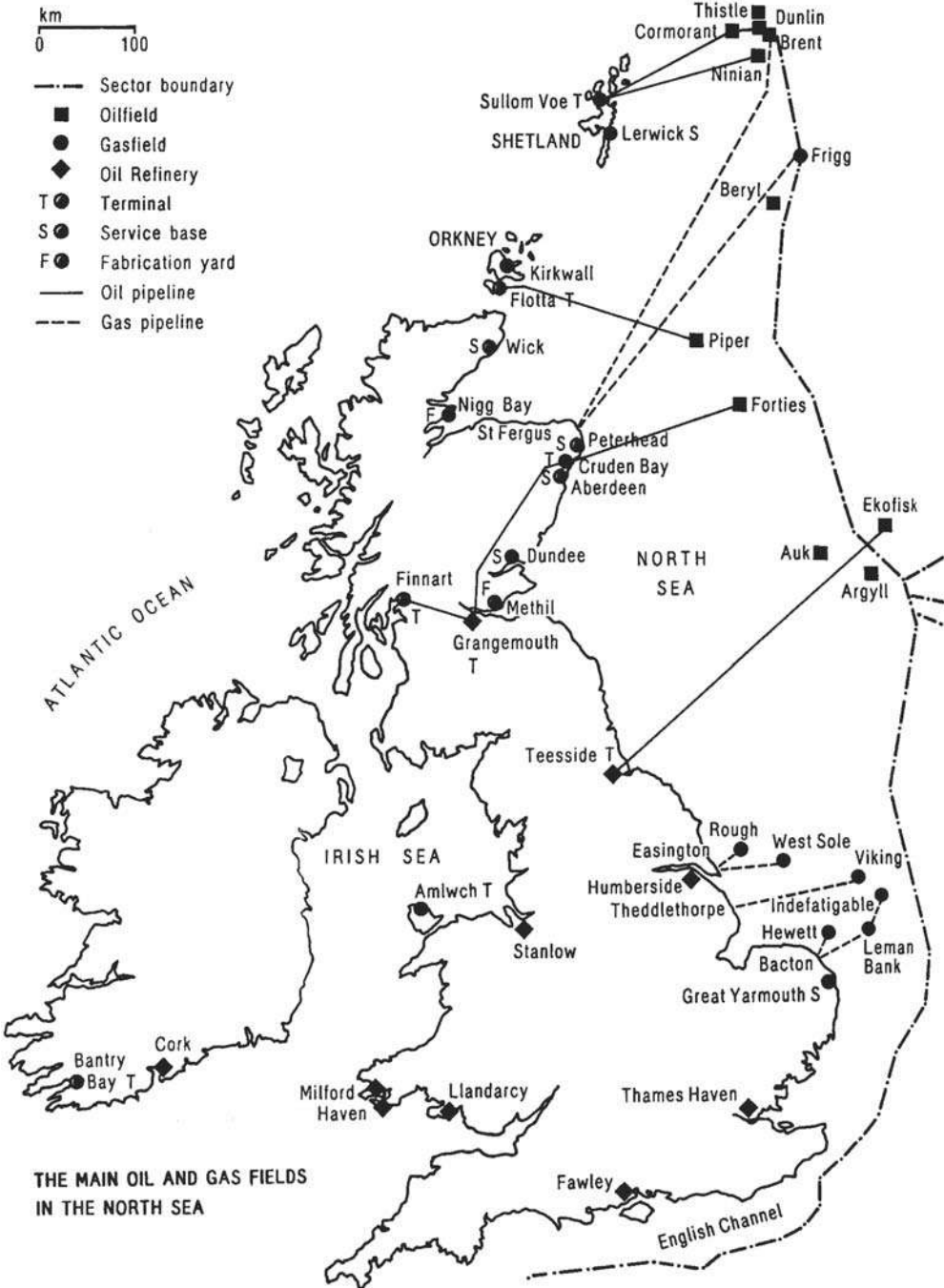
Iron Ore. The total reserves of iron ore in Britain are estimated at 3.8 billion tonnes. British iron ores are of poor quality and produced in small quantities. Most of the iron fields in Britain are to be found in the areas of major coal basins. At the beginning of the 1990s Britain could produce only 300 thousand tonnes a year – a very small proportion of its annual consumption of about 32 million tonnes. So, Britain has to import iron ore mainly, from Sweden, North and West Africa, Spain, Canada and South America.



The main coalfields and ironfields

Oil and gas. Britain is the world's fifth largest oil producer, and although production is expected to start declining slowly, Britain should remain a significant producer in the 21st century. Up to the early 1960s over 99 % of Britain's petroleum requirements were imported primarily from the Middle East. Since then considerable discoveries of crude oil and natural gas have been made in the North Sea and first oil was brought ashore in 1975. The discovery of substantial offshore oil and gas reserves has changed Britain's energy position, it has become self-sufficient in energy. The most important offshore oilfields are to be found off the coasts of north-east England and especially eastern and northern Scotland. The most important of them are: Brent, Forties, Ekofisk and others. The principal oil producing area lies between latitudes of the Tyne and Shetland Islands, but known to extend to the latitudes of Ireland. Onshore production of crude oil in Britain accounts for only a small fraction of the country requirements. The largest onshore field is Wytch Farm (in Dorset).

Several other onshore fields are in operation chiefly in Nottinghamshire, Lincolnshire and in South England. In 1967 with the first commercial natural gas discovery in the North Sea the offshore gas production started. Supplies of the offshore natural gas grew rapidly and natural gas now replaces gas produced from coal as the source of gas for the public supply system in Britain (domestic gas stoves, systems of central heating, etc.). In the 1990s home produced natural gas accounted for about 80 % of the total natural gas consumption, the remainder coming from Norway and Algeria. Production comes mainly from six major gas fields: Leman Bank, Hewett, Viking and others. The industry was sold back to the private sector as British Gas Plc in 1986.



Some other non-ferrous metals are found but not extensively worked. Nearly all of them – manganese, chrome, nickel, copper, tin, zinc – are imported too.

Non-metallic minerals. A great variety of non-metallic minerals is produced in Britain. Granites are found in Devon, Cornwall and Aberdeenshire and basaltic rocks in Northumberland, Shropshire and parts of the Scottish Lowlands. The Pennines are especially rich in sandstones and limestones. There are deposits of clay, especially in the Bedford and Peterborough areas and slates in Cumberland and North Wales. Chalk is mined on both banks of the Thames estuary, the South Downs and on the banks of the Humber. Sand and gravel come from pits which are fairly wide-spread throughout midland and northern England and central Scotland. Kaolin, a fine white china-clay occurs in Cornwall and Devon. Important areas of the concentration of common and rock salts are Cheshire, Worcestershire and Teeside. Certain other less common minerals are also obtained in Britain though in smaller quantities: gypsum, potash, peat, etc.

Progress Questions and Assignments

1. Answer the following questions

1. Give the definition of weather and climate.
2. Which factors determine the climate of Great Britain?
3. Examine the effect of the ocean on air temperature in winter and in summer.
4. Describe and account for the major features of the distribution of mean seasonal temperatures and rainfall over the British Isles.
5. Which areas of Britain have the greatest mean annual temperature range, and which areas the least? Can you suggest reasons for these differences?
6. Give reasons why South-East England is the warmest part of the British Isles in summer and Cornwall is the warmest part of the British Isles in winter.
7. Discuss the vegetation of the British Isles, its distribution in relation to relief and climate.
8. Examine the reasons why the ‘natural vegetation’ in the true sense of the term has practically disappeared from Britain.
9. What rare metals make Britain’s economy depend on imported raw materials?
10. What are the most productive coal fields? Describe the development of coal-mining industry in Britain and explain the reasons for the decline of coal production.
11. Examine the development of oil and gas production industry in Britain. What are the principal oil and gas producing areas in Britain?
12. Give an account of the iron ore production and consumption in Britain.
13. What non-metallic minerals are produced in Britain?

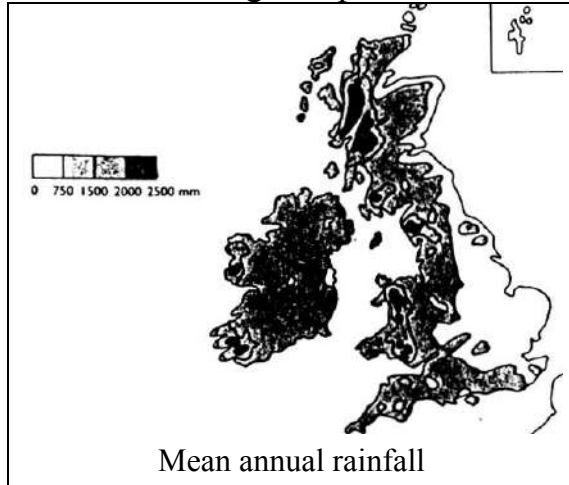
II. Do the following tasks

1. Here are some common ideas that people have about the weather in Britain. Tick those you have heard. Are they true?

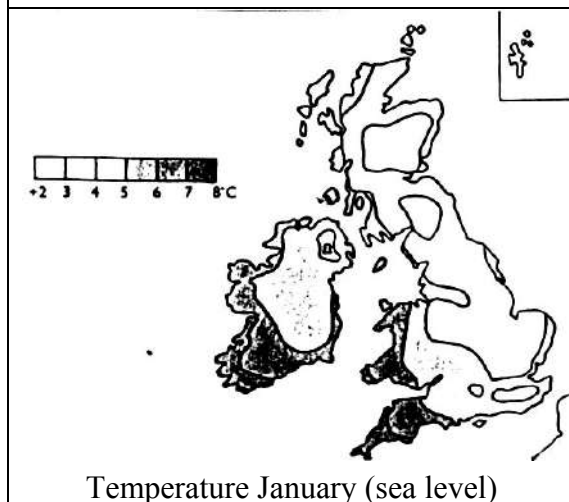
- It rains all the time – it is very damp.
- There's terrible fog in London, just like in Sherlock Holmes.

The sun never shines in July or August.

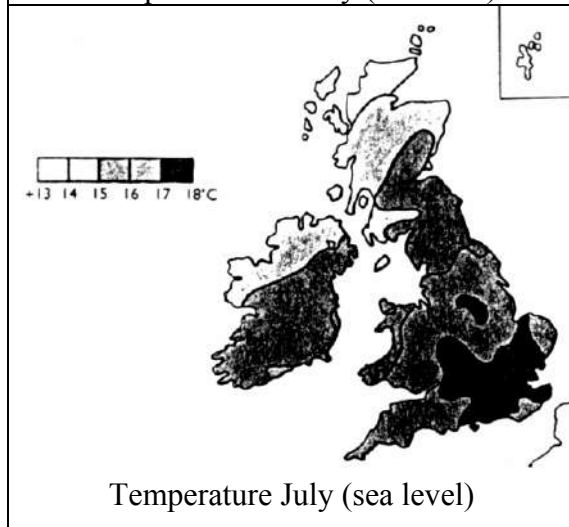
2. Reading comprehension



Mean annual rainfall



Temperature January (sea level)



Temperature July (sea level)

The British Climate

Britain has a variable climate. The weather changes so frequently that it is difficult to forecast. It is not unusual for people to complain that the weathermen were wrong. Fortunately, as Britain does not experience extreme weather conditions, it is never very cold or very hot. The temperature rarely rises above 32°C (90°F) in summer, or falls below –10°C (14°F) in winter.

Summers are generally cool, but due to global warming they are starting to get drier and hotter. Newspapers during a hot spell talk of ‘heat waves’ and an ‘Indian summer’ (dry, hot weather in September or October). Hot weather causes terrible congestion on the roads as Britons rush to the coastal resorts.

Winters are generally mild, with the most frequent and prolonged snowfalls in the Scottish Highlands, where it is possible to go skiing. If it does snow heavily in other parts of Britain, the country often comes to a standstill. Trains, buses and planes are late. People enjoy discussing the snow, complaining about the cold and comparing the weather conditions with previous winters!

Contrary to popular opinion, it does not rain all the time. There is certainly steady rainfall throughout most of the year, but the months from September to January are the wettest. Thanks to the rain, Britain has a richly fertile countryside which is famous for its deep green colour.

Since the 1950s, most British cities have introduced clean air zones. Factories and houses cannot burn coal and must use smokeless fuel. The dirt caused by smoke used to cause terrible fogs, particularly in London. Londoners used to call their fogs ‘London Particulars’ or ‘pea-soupers’ (as thick as pea soup) and you could not see your hand in front of you. Such fogs are now a thing of the past, but you can still see them in old films where they add mystery and atmosphere to murder stories and thrillers!

- Answer True or False:
 - The weather in Britain is the same most of the time.
 - Winters are not excessively cold.
 - Britain frequently has ‘Indian summers’.
 - Pea-soupers are a serious problem in London.
- Use the weather maps to answer these questions:
 - Which is warmer in summer, northern or southern England?
 - Which part of Britain has the coldest winters?
 - Which coast would you choose for a day at the beach in July?

Talking about the weather

People often say that the British talk about the weather all the time. This is an exaggeration, but it is certainly true that the weather is a good way to start a conversation with a stranger. If your climate was as variable as Britain’s, you would certainly talk about the strange changes too! The weather is a neutral topic of conversation which is very useful when visiting Britain.

- Match these common conversational openers with the appropriate weather type.

Expression:	Weather conditions
I like a bit of sun, don’t you?	Cold weather
Nice day, isn’t it?	
I’m boiling!	Wet weather
Brr, it’s freezing, isn’t it?	
What a scorcher!	Hot weather
It must be minus 2 today!	
What terrible showers we’re having!	
It hasn’t snowed like this since 1963!	
I’m soaked through!	

- What would you reply in the above situations?

3. In your copybooks draw a sketch map of Great Britain and locate in it the main mineral resources.

III. Project

1. Bearing in mind its climate and general character, which part of Britain would you choose to live in. Why? (220 – 250 words)
2. Show how far the advantages deriving from the climate and weather of the British Isles outweigh the disadvantages. (200 – 250 words)

SEMINAR 2

1. Describe the climate and weather of the British Isles.
2. Discuss the vegetation of the British Isles, its distribution in relation to relief and climate.
3. Give an account of the chief mineral resources of Great Britain and their major deposits (coal, oil and gas, iron ore) and other metallic and non-metallic minerals.

Round Britain Quiz

1. ___ is one of Scotland's most important offshore oil-fields.
2. ___, a fine white china-clay, occurs in ___ and ___ (counties of the south-west peninsular).
3. Most coal comes from ___ and the ___ which produce about 60 % of British output.
4. The white ___ cliffs around Dover on the south coast are the first part of England to be seen when crossing the Sea from the European continent.
5. The mountainous areas of the ___ and ___ have far more rainfall than the ___ of the south and east.
6. British climate can be described as ___, ___, ___, ___, and ___.
7. The wettest seasons of the year are ___ and ___.
8. The ___ ___ in Hampshire is an area of heath and forest, and is best known for its wild ponies.
9. ___ and ___ are the most common types of wild vegetation in Great Britain.
10. The greatest density of woodland occurs in south-east ___, on the ___, and north-east ___.
11. The major non-metallic minerals of the United Kingdom are ___, ___, ___, ___, ___, ___.

CHAPTER III

THE MAIN STAGES IN THE FORMATION OF THE BRITISH NATION AND THE FORMATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

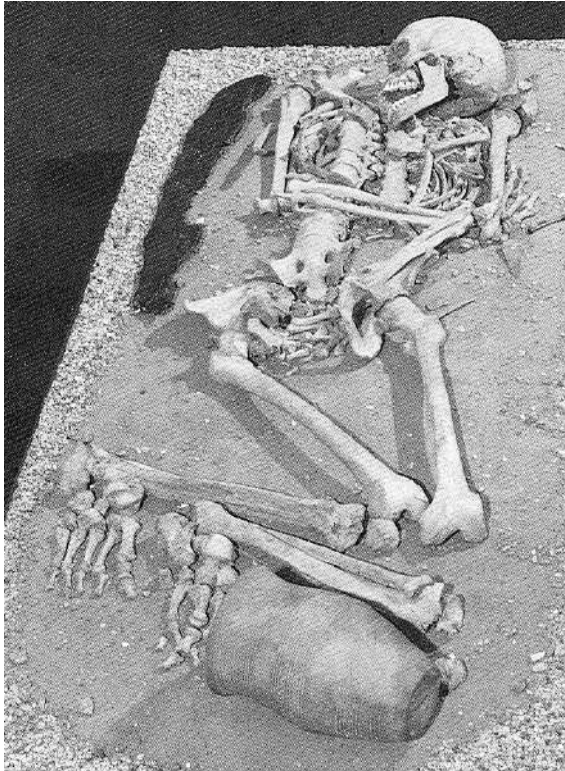
LECTURE 3

ANCIENT BRITAIN

In prehistoric times Britain was part of the European continent. The earliest human bones found (1994) in Britain are 500,000 years old. The first people were probably Palaeolithic (Old Stone Age) nomads from mainland Europe, who were characterized by their use of rudimentary stone implements. They travelled to Britain by land and sea, especially at those times when the country was joined to the European land mass. Around 10,000 BC, as the Ice Age drew to a close, Britain was peopled by small groups of hunters, gatherers and fishers. Few had settled homes and they seem to have followed herds of deer, which provided them with food and clothing. By about 6,000 BC Britain had finally become an island, and had also become heavily forested. For the wanderer-hunter culture this was a disaster, for the cold-loving deer and other animals on which they lived largely died out.



There were Stone Age sites from one end of Britain to the other. This stone hut, at Skara Brae, Orkney, off the north coast of Scotland, was suddenly covered by a sandstorm before 2000 BC. Unlike southern sites, where wood was used which has since rotted, Skara Brae is all stone, and the stone furniture is still there. Behind the fireplace (bottom left) there are storage shelves against the back wall. On the right is probably a stone sided bed, in which rushes or heather were placed for warmth



The grave of one of the 'Beaker' people, at Barnack, Cambridgeshire, about 1800 BC. It contains a finely decorated pottery beaker and a copper or bronze dagger. This grave was the main burial place beneath one of a group of 'barrows', or burial mounds

Their arrival was marked by the 1st individual graves, furnished with pottery beakers, from which these people got their name: the Beaker Folk. (They used a specific type of wide-mouthed cups for drinking, hence the name. Many such cups have been found in their burial places.) The Beakers brought with them from Europe a new cereal, barley, which could grow almost anywhere and started making bronze tools to replace stone ones. The Iberians and the Beaker people intermingled, accepted each other's way of life and traditions and left



Stonehenge

About 3 000 BC Neolithic (or New Stone Age) people crossed the narrow sea from Europe in small round boats of bent wood covered with animal skin. These people kept animals and grew corn crops, and knew how to make pottery. They probably came from either the Iberian (Spanish) peninsular or even the North African coast. They were small dark long-headed people, and may be the forefathers of dark-haired inhabitants of Wales and Cornwall today. They settled in the western parts of Britain and Ireland, from Cornwall at the south-west end of Britain all the way to the far north.

After 2400 BC new groups of people arrived in south-east Britain from Europe. They were round-headed and strongly built taller than the Iberians, and had very good metal-working skills.

behind some impressive monuments of those prehistoric times, of which the most remarkable are to be found in the county of Wiltshire – the Stonehenge (a great circle of standing stones which is believed to have some religious or astronomical purpose) and Silbury Hill, the largest man-made burial mound in Europe.

CELTIC INVASION

A reconstructed Iron Age farm. Farms like this were established in southeast Britain from about 700 BC onwards. This may have been the main or even only building; large round huts increasingly took the place of smaller ones. In most of Celtic Europe huts were square.

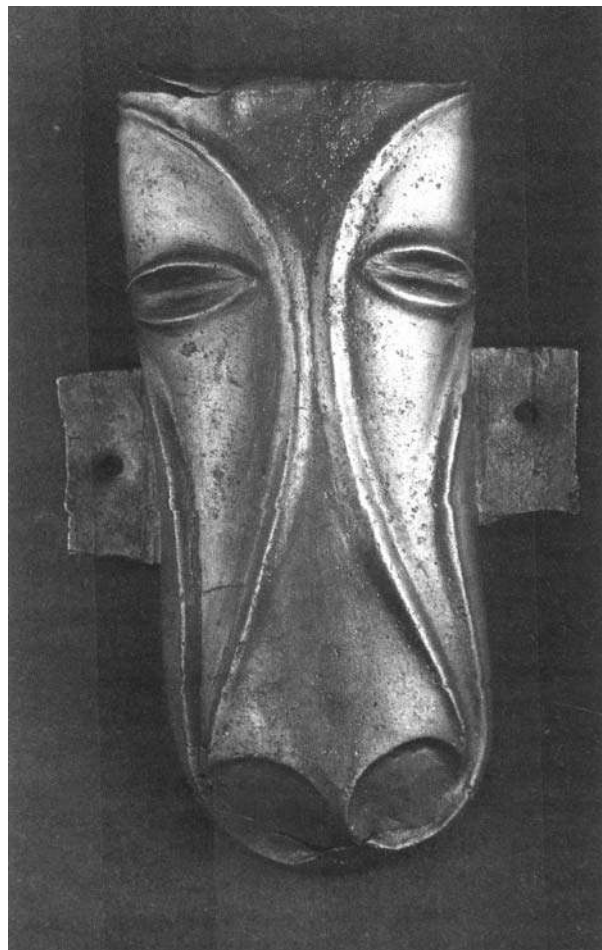


A new and important page of British history was opened up by the arrival of the Celts from Central Europe after 800 BC. They were tall, had fair or red hair and blue eyes. They were technically advanced, knew how to work with iron and could make better weapons of it than those made of bronze, knew more advanced ploughing methods and could farm heavy soils harvesting enough crops for the growing population. They were clean and neat and wore shirts and breeches (knee length trousers) and cloaks, fastened with a pin.

The name 'Britain' comes from the name of a Celtic tribe, the Britons, who settled in the country and were driven to Wales, Scotland and Ireland by the invaders who followed them. Due to this fact, these parts of Britain, where the influence of the Celts was greatest, are even now very different from England in language, customs and traditions. According to the commonly accepted theory of the Celtic invasions, they came to Britain in 3 distinct waves.

The 1st group, called the Gaels, were driven by the later invaders into the less fertile and more mountainous western and northern regions. Thus the original language of Ireland and north-west Scotland is Gaelic Celtic.

The 2nd wave of Celtic tribes – Brythons from whose name the



The Stanwick horse mask shows the fine artistic work of Celtic metalworkers in about AD 50

country's name is derived – arrived in England between 600 and 500 BC and settled in the south of England and south-west Scotland. Their language developed into the Celtic language of modern Wales.

A 3rd wave of Celtic invaders, Belgae from Northern Gaul, containing many people of Teutonic origin, arrived about 100 BC and occupied most of the central part of Great Britain (known as the Home Counties).

The Celts are important for the British history because: a) they introduced an early form of agriculture; b) their tribal organization and c) they are the ancestors of many of the people in Scotland, Wales, Ireland and Cornwall, who took on their culture and languages which have been continuously used in those areas since that time. In England itself Celtic influence is felt to this very day, though its influence is much weaker, as compared with the other parts of the country.

The Celts worshipped nature. The oak tree and mistletoe were sacred. Water was also worshipped as a source of life. There are place names connected with the Celts, – e.g. the Avon – the name of the river, which means ‘water’ in Celtic; the Severn – is connected with the name of a Celtic goddess – Sabrina; the Christmas tradition of decorating the homes with branches of mistletoe and holly is connected with the customs of the Celts who believed that these plants protected their home against evil spirits.

The Celtic tribes were ruled by a warrior class, of which the priests, or Druids seem to have been particularly important members. The Druids could not read or write but memorized all the religious teaching, the tribal laws, history, medicine and other knowledge necessary in Celtic society. The Druids from different tribes all over Britain probably met once a year. They had no temples but they met in sacred groves of trees, on certain hills, by rivers or river sources. Little is known about their kind of worship except that at times it included human sacrifice.

ROMAN INVASIONS OF BRITAIN

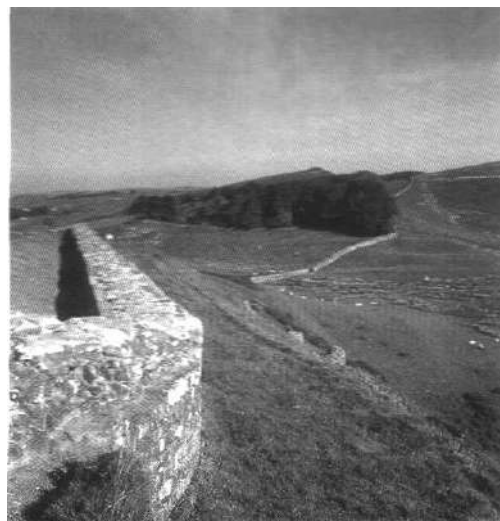
In 55 BC Julius Caesar, the Roman ruler, with his warriors invaded the country. Caesar came to Britain to get slaves, corn, widely produced in Britain, and tin, needed by the Romans. Moreover, he wanted to punish the Celts for their support of their kinsmen in Gaul (the present territory of France) in their struggle against the Romans, who wanted to conquer them. But the Celts fought well and Caesar's first expedition failed. In 54 BC he came with a larger army and defeated the Celts, but did not stay in the country. Having received a

promise from the Celts that they would pay a regular tribute to Rome, he left Britain with plenty of riches and slaves. Ninety years later, in 43 AD the country was conquered by the Romans under the leadership of Claudius and this occupation lasted to the beginning of the 5th century (about 410). The Romans established a Romano-British culture across the southern half of Britain, from the River Humber to the river Severn. This part of Britain was inside the empire.

The Roman could not conquer ‘Caledonia’ as they called Scotland, although they spent over a century trying to do so. At last they built a strong wall along the northern border named after the Emperor Hadrian, who planned it, which marks the border between the two countries: Scotland and England.

Hadrian’s Wall

Hadrian’s Wall was built by the Romans in the second century across the northern border of their province of Britain (along nearly the same line as the present English Scottish border) in order to protect their territory from attacks by the Scots and the Picts



The Roman occupation was a matter of colonial control rather than large-scale settlement. They imposed their own way of life and culture making use of the existing Celtic aristocracy to govern and encouraging this ruling class to adopt Roman dress and the Roman language: they exerted an influence, without actually governing there. They brought the skills of reading and writing to Britain. While the Celtic peasantry remained illiterate and only Celtic speaking, a number of town dwellers and rich landowners in the country started to speak Latin and Greek with ease. They also built many towns (most British towns with names ending in ‘chester’ were then fortified camps); the wonderful spas and baths built by the Romans in Bath are now one of the main tourist attractions; roads, such as Watling Street from London to Chester, and Icknield Way connecting London with Cirencester, still exist. The largest of the towns built at that time was called Londinium. It originated as a Roman fort at a place where it was possible to cross the Thames. There is also a belief that in this place there used to be a Celtic settlement called ‘Llyndyn’ which the Romans

changed into Latin 'Londinium'. Ruins of the old Roman wall can still be seen in the Tower of London.



The reconstruction of a Roman kitchen about AD 100. The tall pots, or amphorae, were for wine or oil. The Romans produced wine in Britain, but they also imported it from southern Europe

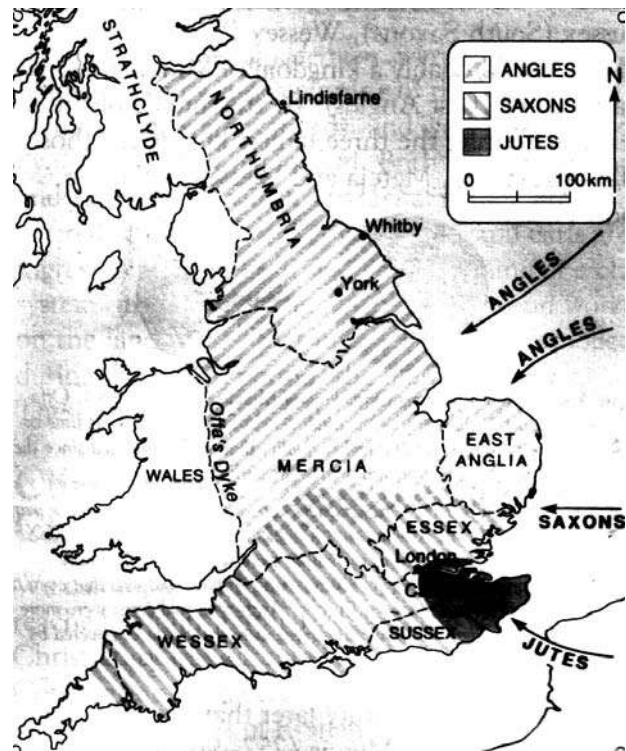
Thus, the Romans left behind 4 things of importance: their roads, the sites of important cities, the traces of their language and culture, and the seeds of Christianity. But the Latin way of life – villas, arts, languages (both spoken and written) and political organization – all vanished after the Anglo-Saxons invaded Britain in the 5th century AD. In some way life in Roman Britain seems very civilized, but it was also hard for all except the richest. The bodies buried in a Roman graveyard at York show that life expectancy was low. Half the entire population died between the ages of 29 and forty, while fifteen per cent died before reaching the age of twenty.

ANGLO-SAXON CONQUEST

After the departure of the Romans at the beginning of the 5th century, the Celts remained independent for some time, but soon the wealth of the country began to attract the warlike and illiterate Germanic tribes from the continent: the

Jutes and the Angles (from the southern areas of present Denmark), and the Saxons (northern Germany, areas between the Rhine and Elbe rivers). At first they only raided Britain but later started to settle.

The Jutes landed in Kent in about 450 and were followed by the Angles and Saxons so that by the end of the 5th century most of the country, except Wales, Cornwall, the northern part of Britain, and Ireland, was occupied by the invaders. The Angles settled to the north of the Thames and soon the country began to be called ‘the land of the Angles’, later ‘Engla-land’. The Saxons settled mainly in the south, south-west, partially east and formed the ancient kingdoms of Wessex (west Saxons), Sussex (south Saxons) and Essex (east Saxons), East Anglia (east Angles). Since the Anglo-Saxons and Jutes were close to each other in their language and customs they gradually intermixed into one people referred to as the Anglo-Saxons.

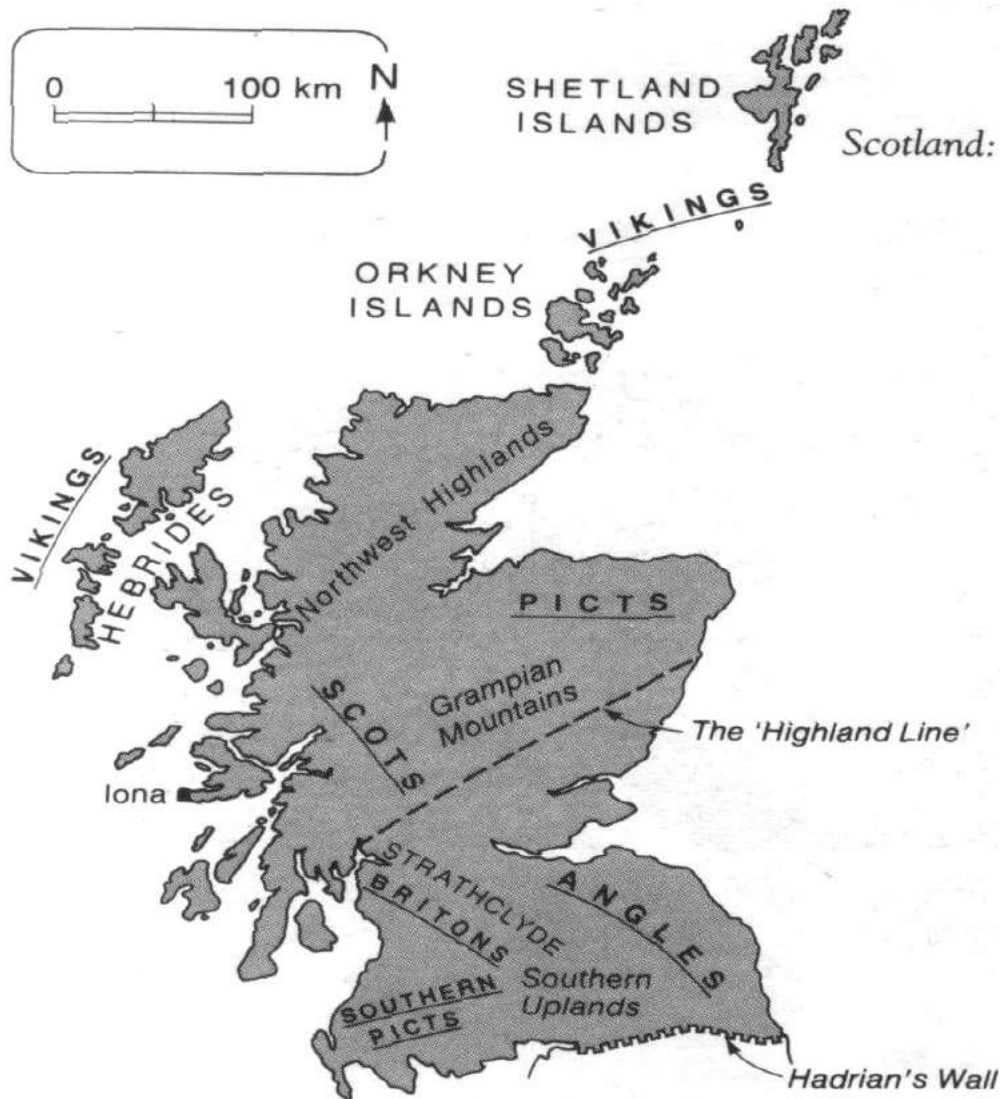


The Anglo-Saxon invasions and the kingdoms they established

After the attacks of the Germanic tribes many of the Celts moved to the areas which remained unconquered – Wales (called ‘Wealas’ meaning “the land of the foreigners”, Cornwall, the northern part of Britain (the home of the Picts and Scots – Celtic tribes – whom neither the Romans nor the Angles and Saxons had been able to conquer. After the conquest of the Picts by the Scots in the ninth century this northern territory came to be called Scotland and a united Scottish kingdom was formed in the eleventh century), Ireland – and continued to struggle against the Anglo-Saxons. Many legends and stories remind of those times, such as the tales about King Arthur and his knights.

The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms waged a constant struggle against one another for predominance over the country. From time to time one of them seized the land of the neighbouring kingdoms and made them pay tribute or even ruled them directly. The number of kingdoms was always changing and so

were their boundaries. The struggle for predominance continued till and at last at the beginning of the 9th century Wessex became the strongest state. In 829 Egbert, King of Wessex, was acknowledged by the other states. This was actually the beginning of the united kingdom of England, for Wessex never again lost its supremacy and King Egbert became the first king of England. Under his rule all the small Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were united to form one kingdom which was called England from that time on.



Scotland: its early peoples

One of the most important events which contributed to the unification of the country and the development of culture was the adoption of Christianity. Christianity spread throughout Britain from two different directions during the 6th and 7th centuries. It came directly from Rome when St. Augustine arrived in 597 and established his headquarters at Canterbury in the south-east of England. It had already been introduced into Scotland and northern England from Ireland,

which had become Christian more than 150 years earlier. The preachers from Rome brought with them learning and civilization and the Anglo-Saxons were easily converted to Christianity. Although the Roman Christianity eventually took over the whole of the British Isles, the Celtic model persisted in Scotland and Ireland for several hundred years. It was less organized, and the monarchy didn't support it. Officially the adoption of Christianity was proclaimed at the Synod of Whitby in 664.

The spread of Christianity promoted a revival of learning with monasteries and churches as the major centres. Such words of Greek origin as *arithmetic, mathematics, theatre, geography* or those of Latin origin, *school, paper, candle*, reflect the influence of the new wave of Roman civilization brought about in the 7th century by Christianity. However, the cultural influence of the Church affected mainly the clergy and rich people, while the rank-and-file Anglo-Saxons remained completely illiterate.

The Anglo-Saxons had little use of towns and cities, but they had a great effect on the countryside where they introduced new farming methods and founded thousands of self-sufficient villages with rich landowners as their head which formed the basis of English society for the next thousand or so years. The Anglo-Saxons were pagans and worshipped different gods whose names are reflected in the names of the days of the week: Tig – Tuesday – the god of war, Woden – Wednesday – the god of kings, Thor – Thursday – the god of war, Frei – Friday – the goddess of nature and love. The Poem of Beowulf, the monument of the Anglo-Saxon folklore, reflects the life of the Celts, their traditions and customs. The ending – ‘-ing’ meant ‘folk’ or ‘family’ thus Hastings is the place of the family of Hasta. ‘Ham’ means farm, ‘ton’ – settlement thus Birmingham, Nottingham, Southampton are Saxon names.

Reconstruction of an Anglo-Saxon village. Each house had probably only one room, with a wooden floor with a pit beneath it. The pit may have been used for storage, but more probably to keep the house off the damp ground. Each village has its lord. The word ‘lord’ means ‘loaf ward’ or ‘bread keeper’, while ‘lady’ means ‘loaf kneader’ or ‘break maker’, a reminder that the basis of Saxon society was farming. The duty of the village head, or lord, was to protect the farm and its produce.



DANISH RAIDS

Britain experienced another wave of Germanic invasions in the 8th century. These invaders, – known as Vikings, Norsemen or Danes, came from Scandinavia and in the 9th century they conquered and settled in the extreme north and west of Scotland and some coastal regions of Ireland.



First they acted like pirates, attacking, robbing the country and leaving it, and then they started to conquer one territory after another. They burnt churches and monasteries along the east, north and west coasts of Britain and Ireland and raided London in 842. By 875 only King Alfred of Wessex held out against the Vikings, who had already conquered most of England. King Alfred was born in 849, ruled 871 – 901. Alfred was a wise statesman. He saw that the best way to

keep off the Danes was by fighting them at sea, and so he built ships bigger and faster than the Danes', took into his service Welsh and even Danish sailors to teach his men and at last was able to guard the shores of England more or less effectually from foreign invaders. He is considered to be the founder of the English fleet. He's also important as a lawgiver. He compiled and published a code of laws from earlier laws. After some serious defeats Alfred won a decisive battle in 878 and 8 years later he captured London. He made the Vikings sign a peace treaty (the treaty of Wedmore) which divided England between Wessex, in the south and west, which was under Alfred's rule, and the 'Danelaw' in the north and east, where the Danes spoke their language and kept to their way of life. In the 2nd half of the 10th century the Anglo-Saxons won several victories over the Danes, took away the Danelaw and ruled over the whole of England.



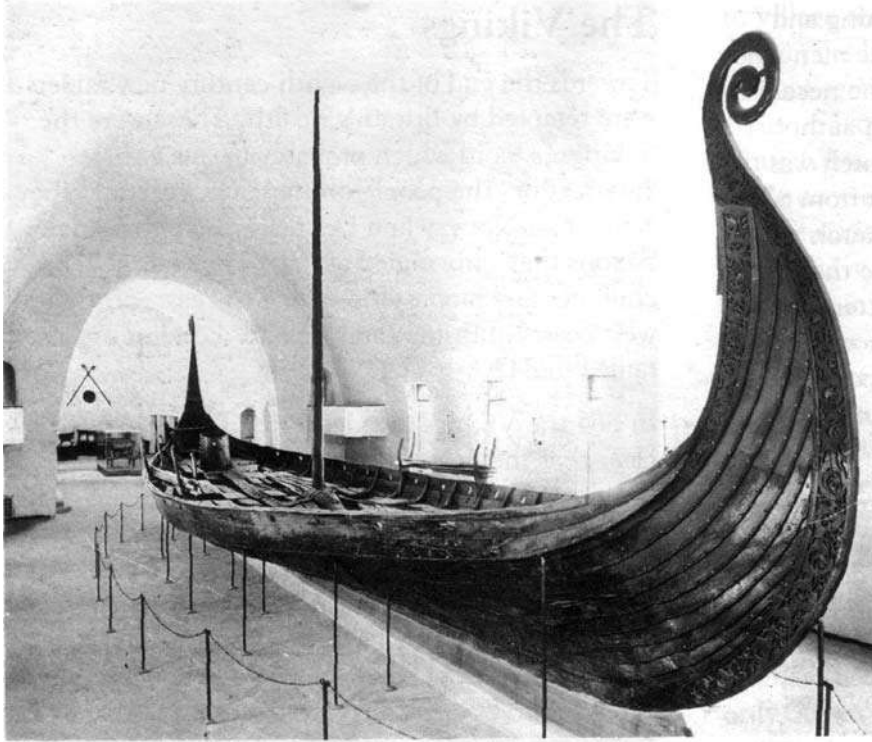
The Anglo-Saxon conquest of Britain



The Danelaw

Moreover, the cultural differences between Anglo-Saxons and Danes were rather small: they led very similar way of life, spoke two varieties of the same Germanic language, the same religion (the Danes very soon converted to Christianity), etc. These similarities made political unification easier, and by the end of the 10th century England fell under the Danish rule with King Canute finally managing to unite the Anglo-Saxons and the Danes at the beginning of the 11th century into a united kingdom with a Germanic culture.

Danish influence is still felt in the place names ending in ‘-by’ or ‘-toft’, such as Derby, Appleby, Lowestoft, etc., and word borrowing, – nouns like *sister, husband, sky, fellow, law*; verbs *take, die, call*; adjectives *happy, ugly, weak, ill, loose, low*.



The Oseberg Viking ship, was 21 metres long and carried about 35 men. Although this particular ship was probably only used along the coast, ships of similar size were used to invade Britain

NORMAN CONQUEST

When Canute died in 1035 and his son died shortly after in 1040 the Witan (the royal council) chose Edward (a descendant of the old English royal line) to be the king. Edward known as ‘the Confessor’ was more interested in church than in kingship. Church building had been going on for over a century. By the time Edward died there was a church in almost every village. In December, 1065 Edward started a new church fit for a king at Westminster, Westminster Abbey (the building taken as a whole presents one of the greatest examples of Gothic architecture and contains many works of art in the way of monuments, pictures, plate and fabric). Having spent his youth in Normandy (as his mother was a daughter of the Duke of Normandy) when he became king Edward brought to the court his Norman advisers and supporters which led to increase rivalry between newcomers and the Saxons mainly represented by the Godwins family. Edward the Confessor died in 1066 without leaving an obvious

heir. It was a Godwin, Harold by name, whom the Witan chose to be the next king of England. He had no royal blood but he seemed a good choice for the throne of England, being brave and intelligent. Harold's right to the English throne was challenged by Duke William of Normandy (the Normans were people from the north. They were the children and grandchildren of Vikings who had captured and settled in northern France. They had soon become French in their language and Christian in their religion), cousin of Edward. William had two claims to the English throne. His first claim was that king Edward had promised it to him. The second claim was that Harold, who had visited William in 1064 and 1065, had promised William that he would not try to take the throne for himself. Harold did not deny the second claim, but said that he had been forced to make the promise and that because it was made unwillingly he was not tied by it. In 1066 William landed in England with his army. On the 14th of October the decisive battle took place. Though the Saxons fought bravely they were defeated and Harold was killed in battle. William captured London and on Christmas Day, 1066 in Edward's new church of Westminster Abbey (where the coronation of British monarchs starting with Harold in the 11th century took place) he was crowned King of England as William I, though he is widely known as William the Conqueror. This conquest opens up the period of final establishment of feudalism in England.

There was no such thing as a Norman village or a Norman area. Instead, the Norman soldiers, who had been part of the invading army, were given the ownership of land and of the people living on it. 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 Norman invaders brought their language with them too. They spoke a Norman dialect of French and it became the tongue of court circles, administration, and the official language of the state.

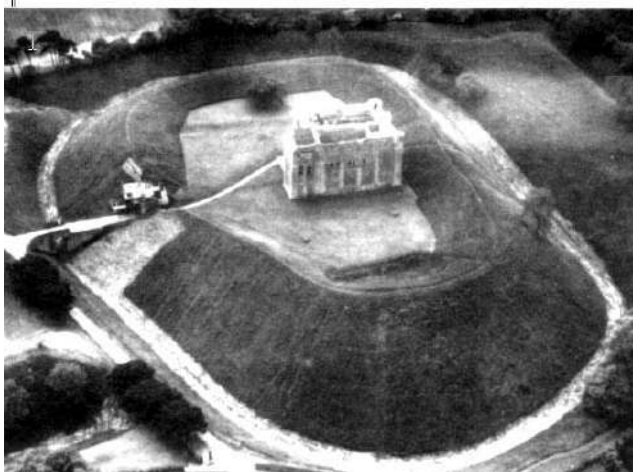
Latin was the language of the Church, law and learning. Schools of learning were established in many towns and cities. Some were 'grammar' schools independent of the Church, while others were attached to a cathedral. All of these schools taught Latin, because most books were written in this language. Latin was important, because it was the language of almost all educated Europeans and was therefore useful in the spread of ideas and learning. Thus the vocabulary of the English language was enlarged due to such Norman-French words dealing with feudal relations as *manor*, *noble*, *baron*, *serve*, *command*, *obey*. Words relating to administration and law – *charter*, *council*,

accuse, court, crime. Military terms – *arms, troops, guard, navy, battle, victory.* In England two schools of higher learning were established, the first at Oxford and the second at Cambridge.

The wealthy Anglo-Saxons copied their superiors and also learned to speak French. Few could go to universities. Most English people spoke neither Latin, nor French. It was a long time before English became the language of the ruling class.

The Norman conquerors had to communicate with the natives and this made them learn to speak English in time. Moreover many of the Normans married the Anglo-Saxons and their children grew up to know only English. In a few generations the Norman descendants knew no other tongue than English.

However it was a slow and gradual process. Some French words became part of the English language, and often kept a more polite meaning than the old Anglo-Saxon words. For example, the word ‘chair’, which came from the French language describes a better piece of furniture than the Anglo-Saxon word ‘stool’. In the same way, the Anglo-Saxon word ‘belly’ was replaced in polite society by the word ‘stomach’. In the 14th century the enriched English language emerged as the language predominantly used in speech and writing – the official language of the state.



Castle Rising in Norfolk, a fine example of the stone-built keeps the Normans built in the early 12th century. These replaced the earlier Norman ‘motte and bailey’ castles, which were earth mounds surrounded by a wooden fence or pallisade. A stone-built keep of the new kind was extremely difficult to capture, except by surprise. Keeps of this kind had a well, providing fresh water for a long siege



The great hall in Castle Headingham, built in 1140, gives an idea of the inside of a Norman castle. The floor was covered with rushes or reeds, cut from a nearby marsh or wetland area. The walls were decorated with woven woollen embroidered hangings, for which England was famous. The furniture is of a much later date. In Norman times there was probably a large but simple table and chair for the lord of the castle. Others sat on benches, or might have stood for meals

FORMATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland had more clearly (if not completely) defined identities and geographical areas by the twelfth century. The British state then gradually developed through colonization and political unification. This process was accompanied by fierce and bloody conflicts between the nations often resulting in lasting tensions and bitterness.

Political and military attempts were made by England to unite Wales, Scotland and Ireland under the English Crown. English monarchs tried to conquer or ally themselves with these other countries as a protection against threats from within the islands and from continental Europe as well as for increased power and possessions.

Ireland was invaded by Henry II in 1169. Much of the country was then controlled by Anglo-Norman nobles but little direct authority was initially exercised from England. The later colonization of Ireland by the English and the Scots became a source of conflict between the countries. But it also led to Irish settlements in Scotland, London and west-coast ports such as Liverpool. Ireland became part of the United Kingdom in 1801 but, after a period of violence and political unrest, was divided in 1921 – 22 into the independent Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland. In 1949 – 72 Northern Ireland still had its own Prime Minister and its own Parliament which was responsible for the province's internal (not foreign affairs), but it was still part of the United Kingdom. In 1969 there was a rioting in Northern Ireland between Catholics and Protestants who dominated the Northern Irish Parliament. By 1972 the hostility between the two groups was so bad that Britain suspended the Northern Irish Parliament and sent in the British army to keep the peace. Since 1969 there have been a number of attempts to find a political solution to the Northern Ireland problems: a) the conflict between the Catholics and Protestants; b) the conflict between those who want a united Ireland and those who want Northern Ireland to stay a part of the United Kingdom. On the 15th of November 1985 the British and Irish (of Eire) governments signed the Anglo-Irish agreement. The Agreement gives the Republic of Ireland a voice in the administration of Northern Ireland and the Irish government recognises that there will only be a united Ireland if the majority of people in Ulster agree to it.

Wales, after Roman rule, remained a Celtic country, although influenced by Anglo-Norman England. The Welsh fought for many years to keep their freedom. The Welsh King, Llewellyn the Great, tried to unite his people against the English, but his grandson, Llewellyn the Last, was finally defeated in 1282. Between 1282 and 1285 Edward I's military campaign brought Wales under

English rule. In 1301 Edward I made his eldest son Prince of Wales (this tradition has been kept until the present day and in 1969 a similar ceremony took place again. The present Queen made her eldest son, Charles, Prince of Wales). In 1536 King Henry VIII of England united England and Wales under one Parliament through a special law. In today's British Parliament there is the Secretary of State for Wales who is responsible for Welsh affairs.

The English also tried to conquer Scotland by military force, but were repulsed at the Battle of Bannockburn in 1314. Scotland was then to remain independent until the political union between the two countries in 1707, when the creation of Great Britain (England/Wales and Scotland were united) took place. But Scotland and England had shared a common monarch since 1603 when James VI of Scotland became James I of England. In 1603 Queen Elizabeth I of England died leaving no heir and the son of Mary Queen of Scots (who was Queen Elizabeth's cousin) James VI of Scotland inherited the crown of England. Today Scotland like Wales and Northern Ireland is part of the United Kingdom and has a special minister in the British Parliament the Secretary of State for Scotland. England, Wales and Scotland had meanwhile become predominantly Protestant in religion as a result of the European Reformation. But Ireland remained Catholic and tried to distance itself from England, thus adding religion to colonialism as a foundation for future problems.

Britain therefore is not a single, ethnically homogeneous country, but rather a recent and potentially unstable union of four old nations.

In 1999 – 2000 the Labour government (after referendums) created an elected Parliament with legislative and tax-varying powers in Scotland and an elected non-legislative, non tax-raising Assembly in Wales. Northern Ireland achieved an elected Assembly in 2000, which has legislative and executive authority, except for reserved United Kingdom powers over policing, security matters, prisons and criminal justice. This phenomenon is known as devolution (self-government or transfer of some powers from the Westminster Parliament).

PROGRESS QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Answer the following questions.

1. Who were the first inhabitants of the British Isles before the invasion of the Celts?
2. Where did the Iberians come from?
3. How did the Beaker people get their name?

4. What Celtic tribes do you know? When did they arrive?
5. What parts of Britain is the influence of the Celts greatest in? Why?
6. What Celtic traditions and beliefs are reflected in British culture?
7. What were the reasons of the Roman invasion of Great Britain?
8. When was Britain finally conquered by the Romans?
9. How long did the Roman occupation last?
10. How did the Romans control the country?
11. What did the Romans leave after themselves (in the English language, place-names, way of life)?
12. Where did the Anglo-Saxons and Jutes come from?
13. Who were the first of the Germanic tribes to come to Britain and when did they enter the country?
14. Where did the three Germanic tribes settle?
15. How are the Anglo-Saxon pagan customs reflected in the English language?
16. When did England become a Christian country?
17. What was King Alfred's role in the struggle against the Danes?
18. When did the last invasion of England take place?
19. How did the Norman Conquest affect the life of the country?
20. When did the final unification of England and Scotland take place?
21. Who united Wales and England under one parliament?
22. When did the tradition of making the monarch's eldest son Prince of Wales appear?
23. What is devolution? How did it affect Britain?

II. Do the following tasks.

1. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.
 - 1) The Iberians came to Britain after 1000 BC from Europe.
 - 2) Great Britain became an island after the last Ice Age about 3000 years ago.
 - 3) The influence of the Celts was much greater in England than in Ireland.
 - 4) There are no place names in Britain which are connected with the Celts.
 - 5) Caesar's second expedition in Britain was unsuccessful.
 - 6) Bath became famous as a spa long before the Romans invaded the country.
 - 7) Roman influence in Britain continued to be felt long after they left the country.
 - 8) The Anglo-Saxons occupied all of the British Isles.

9) The Scottish kingdom was formed in the 9th century as a result of the unification of the Scots and the Anglo-Saxons.

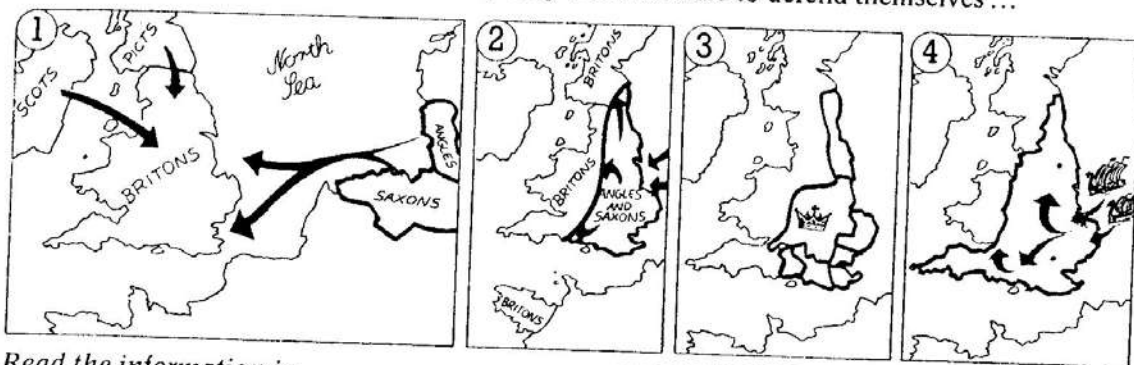
10) The Poem of Beowulf is the greatest literary monument of the Celts which describes their life and customs.

11) The kingdom of Sussex alone led the war against the Danes.

12) The Duke of Normandy defeated the English in 1301 at Caernarfon.

2.

The Angles and Saxons The Romans stayed in Britain until about 400 AD. Then they began to leave. They had to defend Italy because Germanic tribes were trying to invade at that time. Most of the Britons were sorry to see the Romans go. Without their help they were not able to defend themselves ...



Read the information in these boxes and find out which maps they belong to.

a) More Angles and Saxons invaded the country and pushed the Britons into Cornwall, Scotland, Wales and across the Channel to Brittany.

d) There were more invasions in the 9th century. The Vikings who came from Denmark invaded the east coast, destroyed lots of villages there and later moved inland.

c) When the Romans left, the Britons had to defend themselves on two sides. Picts and Scots attacked them from the North, and Angles and Saxons from Germany invaded the east coast of Britain.

b) The Angles and Saxons organized the country and made their most powerful men kings. About 600 AD there were seven Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in Britain.

People began to call the new land of the Angles and Saxons *England*. Today there is still part of the country that is called *East Anglia*. It has two main parts, *Norfolk* and *Suffolk* (the north folk, or people, and the south folk!), and the counties *Sussex* and *Essex* were originally the South and East Saxon kingdoms.

Alfred the Great (849–899), the most powerful Anglo-Saxon king, built forts against new invaders, and developed the first English navy.

3. Read, memorise the information and do the tasks below.

National Identity

Briton is a word used in official contexts and in formal writing to describe a citizen of the United Kingdom. 'Ancient Britons' is the name given to the race of people who lived in England before and during the Roman occupation (AD 43 – 410). These are the ancestors of the present-day Welsh people.

Caledonia, Cambria and Hibernia were the Roman names for Scotland, Wales and Ireland respectively. The words are commonly used today in scholarly classifications (for example, the type of English used in Ireland is sometimes called ‘Hiberno-English’) and for the names of organizations (for example, the airline ‘British Caledonian’).

Erin is a poetic name for Ireland. ‘The Emerald Isle’ is another way of referring to Ireland, evoking the lush greenery of its countryside.

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. A very large number of surnames (for example, Davis, Evans, Jones, Lloyd, Morgan, Price, Rees, Williams) suggest Welsh origin (although many of these are found throughout England). The most common surname in both England and Scotland is actually ‘Smith’. First name 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, an English, Welsh or Irish person might refer and 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.

Clothes. The kilt. A skirt with a tartan pattern worn by men, is a very well-known symbol of Scottishness (though it is hardly ever worn in everyday life).

Musical instruments. The harp is an emblem of both Wales and Ireland. The bagpipes are regarded as distinctively Scottish (though a smaller type is also used in traditional Irish music).

Characteristics. There are certain stereotypes of national character which are well-known in Britain. For instance, the Irish are supposed to be great talkers, the Scots have a reputation for being careful with money, and the Welsh are renowned for their singing ability. These characteristics are, of course, only caricatures and are not reliable descriptions of individual people from these countries. Nevertheless, they indicate some slight differences in the value attached to certain kinds of behaviour in the countries concerned.

Albion is a word used in some poetic or rhetorical contexts to refer to England. 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 part of England to be seen when crossing the sea from the European mainland.



Britannia

Britannia is the name that the Romans gave to their southern British province (which covered, approximately, the area of present-day England). It is also the name given to the female embodiment of Britain, always shown wearing a helmet and holding a trident (the symbol of power over the sea), hence the patriotic song which begins ‘Rule Britannia, Britannia rule the waves’. The figure of Britannia has been on the reverse side of many British coins for more than 300 years.



John Bull

John Bull is a fictional character who is supposed to personify Englishness and certain English virtues. (He can be compared to Uncle Sam in the USA). He features in hundreds of nineteenth century cartoons. His appearance is typical of an eighteenth century country gentleman evoking an idyllic rural past

National teams from the British Isles in selected sports

	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	Irish Republic
Olympics	United Kingdom				Irish Republic
Cricket	England		Scotland	Ireland	
Rugby union	England	Wales	Scotland	Ireland	
Football	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	Irish Republic

- Who are the ancestors of the present-day Welsh people?
- How did the Romans call Scotland, Ireland and Wales?
- What nationality is the famous Scarlet O’Hara (the main character of the book ‘Gone with the Wind’ by Margaret Mitchell)?
- Where was Lloyd George (the last Liberal Prime Minister whose term of presidency expired in 1922) from?
- Two friends from different parts of the country meet in England. They haven’t seen each other for ages and are very glad to see each other:

‘Hi, Jock!’ cries the first.

‘Hello, Taffy!’ replies the second.

What are their nationalities?

- The kilt is:
 - a) a skirt worn by women;
 - b) a national Scottish game played by men;
 - c) a skirt made from tartan cloth with many folds.
- The tartan is:
 - a) a skirt worn by Scotsmen;
 - b) a pattern of different coloured straight lines crossing each other at right angles;
 - c) a symbol of Scottishness.
- Look up the word stereotype in a dictionary. What does it mean? Describe a stereotypical Irishman, Welshman, Scotsman.

4. Try to identify symbols of the four nations:

	England	Wales	Scotland	Ireland	
Capital (1)					(1) London, Edinburgh, Belfast, Cardiff
Flag (2)					(3) Rose, Daffodil, Thistle, Shamrock
Plant (3)					(4) Blue, Red, White, Green
Colour (4)					(5) St. George, St. David, St. Andrew, St. Patrick
Patron saint (5)					(6) 1 March, 17 March, 23 April, 30 November
Saint's day (6)					(2) the upright red cross on a white background; the white diagonal cross, on a blue background; the red diagonal cross on a white background; the red dragon on a white and green background.

SEMINAR 3

1. Describe the most ancient population of Great Britain before the Celts coming.
2. Give an account of the invasion of the Celts.
3. Describe the Roman invasions of Britain.
4. Give an account of the Anglo-Saxon conquest and its consequences.
5. Describe the Danish raids on Great Britain and the struggle of Alfred the Great.

6. Speak on the Norman Conquest and its consequences.
7. Speak on the formation of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Round Britain Quiz

1. A stone wall built across the north of England by the Roman Emperor ___ to defend Northern Britain.
2. King of Scotland inherited the crown of England in ___, so he became King ___ I of England and Wales and King ___ VI of Scotland.
3. The Highlanders still speak Gaelic and wear the traditional ___.
4. David is the patron saint of Wales. On 1st March, St. David's Day, patriotic Welsh people wear a ___ or ___, both symbols of Wales.
5. There are nicknames for Scottish, Irish and Welsh men. A Scot may be addressed as ___, Irishmen are called ___, and Welshmen are known as ___.
6. ___ ___ is a fictional character who is supposed to personify Englishness and certain English virtues (can be compared to Uncle Sam in the USA).
7. The ___ island is a way of referring to Ireland, evoking the lush greenery of its countryside.
8. Caernarfon is the ancient capital of ___, where the British monarch's ___ son is traditionally crowned Prince Wales.
9. In 1536 Henry VIII brought ___ under the ___ parliament through a special law.
10. ___ was a Celtic religious group who were suppressed in Great Britain soon after the Roman Conquest.
11. ___ is a town in Kent with a population of about 120,000. It is the religious capital of England because its cathedral is the seat of the Archbishop of ___ who is head of the Church of England.
12. Iron was first used in Britain by a race called the ___, who came from ___, or the country that we call now France. With their iron weapons the ___ conquered a great part of the country and gave it the name '___', by which it is still called today.
13. The Anglo-Saxons were ___ and worshipped different gods.
14. Robert Bruce is a national hero in Scotland because he commanded the Scottish forces and defeated the English at ___ in 1314.
15. The last invasion of Britain took place in ___ when the country was invaded by the ___.

CHAPTER IV

THE MAIN CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MODERN POPULATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

LECTURE 4

LANGUAGES SPOKEN IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

English is the official language of the United Kingdom and is spoken throughout most of the United Kingdom. The language was formed only in the 14th century and developed chiefly from the language of the Anglo-Saxon and Norman invaders. It's a very mixed-up language. Its grammar is similar to German, but its vocabulary is drawn from French, Latin, German and a host of other languages.

Less than a fifth of the people of Wales speak both English and Welsh, a language that developed from one of the languages of the Celts. The Welsh language Council, an official body, promotes the use of the language and there is a number of bilingual schools in Wales. Since 1982 there has also been an independent fourth TV channel broadcasting mainly in Welsh. A few people of Wales speak only Welsh. Some 70,000 people in Scotland speak the Scottish form of Gaelic, which is another Celtic language, mainly in the Highlands and western coastal regions. Around 142,000 people in Northern Ireland have some ability to use Irish form of Gaelic as a means of communication either orally or in written. Evidence of Gaelic is still found in some place names, for example 'bally' – town, 'slieve' – mountain, 'lough' – lake, 'glen' – valley, 'inis' – island. But in general the number of people speaking the above-mentioned languages other than English is declining. Today some of the country's ethnic minorities formed as a result of recent immigration have their own languages, normally as well as English. Among the Asian community, for example, the most usual languages are Urdu, Punjabi, Gujerati, Bengali, the languages of the Indian and Pakistani communities.

The people who now inhabit the British Isles are descended mainly from the people who inhabited them nearly 9 centuries ago. The English nation was formed as a result of the amalgamation of the native population of the British Isles – the pre-Celts and the Celts – with the invaders: the Germanic tribes of the Angles, Saxons and Jutes, the Danes, the Normans. Nowadays in number of population (59.756 million in 2000) Great Britain holds one of the first places among the European countries. Britain ranks 17th in the world in terms of

population. The English make up more than four-fifth of the population (50 million). The proportion of the Scotsmen (5.1 million), Welshmen (2.946 million) and Irishmen (1.698 million) is about 15 per cent. The most intensive growth of the population of Great Britain took place in the 19th century, when the number of the inhabitants increased from 9 million to 38 million despite mass migration.

The recent tendency as regards population growth is that of extremely small growth. Annual birth rates have fallen since the mid – 1960s. The birth rates declined from 18 live births per 1000 population in 1966 to 11.4 in 2000. The main reason accounting for the sharp drop in the birth rate is associated with the social conditions in the country: the growth of unemployment, social tension, expensive housing, lack of pre-school institutions, etc. As a result of the drop of the birth rate there is a substantial fall in the natural increase of the population provided that the mortality rate remains more or less stable about 10.3 people per 1000 population. The mortality rate even starts slowly declining reflecting better nutrition, the advance of medical science, better working conditions, education in personal hygiene, improved health measures, the growth of medical facilities and the smaller size of families. Deaths resulting from infection diseases have virtually disappeared. But mortality from heart diseases remains high and accounts for nearly half of all deaths. The next largest cause of death is cancer, which is responsible for nearly one quarter of deaths. Projections for the future suggest that the traditional increase in population will be resumed, though growth will take place at a much slower rate than was expected. Britain's total population is expected to be 61.8 million in 2011.

The United Kingdom is more thickly populated than most countries. The average population density is about 246 people per square kilometre, but in England proper 383 people per sq. km, in Wales 142, in Scotland – 65, in Northern Ireland – 125. The Highlands of Scotland, the northern Pennines and mountainous Wales are very sparsely populated. The most highly populated regions are the industrial districts: South-East England, the Midlands, Lancashire, West Yorkshire, South Wales, Clydeside in Scotland and North-East England.

EMIGRATION. IMMIGRATION

Traditionally Britain has a net outflow of people to the rest of the world. During the 100 years from 1836 to 1936 about 11 million people left Britain. This mass emigration especially in the 19th century was a movement of ruined peasants, the unemployed people who hoped to find new opportunities and

happiness on new territories. The migrants went mainly to North America (the USA, Canada), Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, to other lands in Asia and Africa. Mass emigration from Great Britain stopped during and after World War I, when traditionally receiving countries imposed strict limitation on immigration. There were periods when on contrary the country experienced a large influx of people.

People have been migrating to Britain for centuries. Immigrants have come to Britain from all parts of the world. Some came to avoid political or religious persecution, others to find a better way of life or to escape from poverty. Others came to join members of their family who had settled in Britain.

Many of these people were refugees. In the 1930s Jews persecuted in other parts of Europe came to Britain to settle. After the end of World War II many citizens of Eastern European countries (Poles, Latvians, Ukrainians) decided to stay in Britain. Later in the 20th century, political refugees arrived, such as Hungarians, Czechs, Chileans, Libyans, Iranians, East African Asians, Vietnamese and other Eastern Europeans, in addition to Italian, French, German, Irish, Turkish, Cypriot, Chinese and Spanish economic immigrants. These groups today form sizeable ethnic minorities and are found throughout the country. Commonwealth citizens were allowed free entry into Britain until 1962. Before World War II these immigrants were mostly people from Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. In the 1950s people from the West Indies, India, Hong Kong, Pakistan and Bangladesh were encouraged to come and work in Britain. Today 2 million British people are of West Indian or Asian origin over 50 per cent of them were born in Britain. The new immigrant communities are concentrated in the following towns and cities: London, Slough, Leicester, Wolverhampton, Birmingham, Luton, Bradford, Coventry, Bedford, Reading and Sandwell. London has the highest proportion of minority ethnic communities. Just a little over 50 per cent of the city's people describe themselves as white British. A further 14 per cent are either white Irish or white other, which includes Europeans, Americans, Australians, New Zealanders, etc. There are now more ethnically African residents (8 per cent) in London than black Caribbean (7 per cent). The largest Asian community is Bangladeshis (5 per cent), principally in east London. On the other hand, Luton, Birmingham, Leicester, Blackburn have seen an increase in their ethnic minority shares of greater than five per cent since 1991 with the conurbations of Manchester, Bradford and Oldham seeing an increase of around the 3 – 5 per cent mark. Many of these people have taken their places in multicultural Britain. Black Britons are well represented in sport and media and there are few small towns in Britain that don't have an Indian or a Chinese restaurant or a Pakistani-owned

post-office or grocery. Although racial discrimination was outlawed by the Race Relation Act of 1976, it does still occur – sometimes subtly, sometimes not so subtly. They occupy low-status and poorly paid jobs in poor environments of the older towns; unemployment is very high among these ethnic groups. It's necessary to note that today in Britain there are also sizeable groups of Americans, Australians, Chinese and various European communities such as Greek, Turkish, Cypriots, Italians, Spaniards living in Britain. In the last generation British society has therefore become more multiracial as ethnic minority groups from almost all parts of the world have made a permanent home in the country.

SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM POPULATION

The proportion of the population of Great Britain who were or had been married rose from about 50 per cent in 1939 to 60 per cent in the 1980s, while the proportion of single persons in the population aged 16 or over fell from 33.3 per cent to 23.4 per cent. About 60 per cent of the population live as a couple – just over 50 per cent of these are married or re-married, while almost another 10 per cent are cohabiting i.e. living with a partner as husband and wife without official registering the marriage ties. In 1979 only 8 per cent of single women between the ages of 18 and 49 were cohabiting; in 1988 this figure had gone up to 20. As the number of couples living together has increased, so the marriage rate has decreased. In 1980, 64 per cent of all women aged 15 – 44 were married. Nine years later this figure had fallen to 55 %. On average, those who do choose to get married tend to marry later and to postpone births. The ages at which men and women marry for the first time have risen. In 1990, it was 27 for men and 25 for women. Consequently the average age of women having children has risen; in 1990 it was 27.5 years compared with 26.7 in 1980. People in Great Britain show preference for smaller families than in the past which has led to a significant decline in the proportion of families with four or more children. In 1990, 21 per cent of households consisted of a married couple with one or two children only compared with 4 per cent of households consisting of a married couple with three or more children. In 1990, 28 per cent of children born in England and Wales were born outside marriage. In 1980, the figure was 11.8 per cent. By the end of the 1980s, the majority of births outside marriage were to cohabiting couples, not to single people. Britain has the most marriages but also the most divorces in Europe. In 1989 about 13 decrees of divorce were made absolute for every 1000 married couples in England and Wales, compared

with 2 in 1961. There are several reasons behind the rise in the divorce rate. The first one is the 1971 divorce law which made it much easier to get a divorce. Another possible reason is the changing attitude to marriage itself. As the Church whose approach to marriage has been against divorce is becoming less influential in the United Kingdom, the view on marriage as a union for life has weakened. One-parent families are common in the United Kingdom. Actually one in seven families in Britain is a single parent family. Parents can be on their own because of the death of a partner, divorce, the break-down in live-in relationships, or births outside marriage to single people.

The main feature of the age structure in Great Britain is the increasing number of elderly people. The estimated age distribution of the British population in 2000 is as follows: under 5 years about 6 per cent; 5-15 – 14.2 per cent; 16 to pension age – 61.7 per cent; above pension age – 18.1 per cent compared with 5 per cent in 1961. At birth the expectation of life for a British man is about 72 years and for a woman – about 78 years.

Britain is one of the most urbanised countries in Europe; about 90 per cent of the British population live in towns and cities. In Britain there are 91 towns with the population of over 100,000 people. The largest cities in the United Kingdom with the population exceeding 1 million people are London (7,187,000) and Birmingham (1,130,000). About 35 per cent of the urban residents of the country live in metropolitan areas called conurbations (towns that have spread and joined together to form an area of high population with a large city as its center). The seven major conurbations are Greater London (the largest metropolitan area, has about 10 million people), Greater Manchester (the largest city is Manchester), Merseyside (Liverpool), Yorkshire (Sheffield), Tyne and Wear (Newcastle upon Tyne), West Midlands (Birmingham), West Yorkshire (Leeds). However the proportion of residents in most of the metropolitan areas of England is falling. People, particularly the well-to-do people, prefer to leave city centers and conurbations because of rising crime and poor housing, because of their unhealthy environment for rural settlements. Rural settlements of Great Britain differ from traditional villages situated in other countries. They are located not far from towns and resemble their suburbs. They are inhabited by farmers but mostly by clergymen, teachers, shop-keepers, and retired people.

Four in 10 people aged between 16 and 74 in the United Kingdom are in full time employment. Just over another one in 10 work part-time, while 8 per cent are self-employed (that is owners of big and small enterprises).

The total number of unemployed people at the time of the 2001 census was 3.43 per cent, while 2.6 per cent were full-time students, and 13.6 per cent

were retired. These figures vary from year to year depending on the state of the economy. Of those who do work, the largest proportion is managers and senior officials – almost 15 per cent. Just over 13 per cent of workers are in administrative and secretarial occupations, while a similar number fall into the associate professional and technical category, which includes jobs such as engineering technicians, nurses and artists. Skilled tradesmen and women account for almost 12 per cent of workers, while just over 11 per cent described themselves as professionals. People with ‘elementary occupations’ for example mail sorters, hotel porters and traffic wardens, make up almost 12 per cent of the workforce.

Summing up the involvement of the active population of the country one should note that the service sector is in the lead followed by manufacturing (20.3 per cent), whereas less than 2 per cent is involved in agriculture.

Progress Questions and Assignments

1. Answer the following questions.

1. What are the main languages spoken in Great Britain?
2. Why are Welsh, Irish and Scottish Gaelic so different from English?
3. How do local governments promote the use of the languages?
4. What’s the population of Britain?
5. Why is the natural growth of the population very small?
6. How densely is the country populated?
7. What were the reasons of the mass emigration in the 19th century?
8. Where did the emigrants mostly go to? Why?
9. What made people immigrate to Britain?
10. What countries were the main sources of immigrants to the United Kingdom before and after World War II?
11. Does racial discrimination exist in Britain?
12. How does ‘traditional’ family life differ from British family life in the 1980s?
13. List two possible reasons for the divorce rate rising sharply since World War II.
14. What tendency is observed in the age structure of Britain? Why? How does it affect the country?
15. What is a conurbation? Name the main conurbations.
16. Is Britain a rural or urban country?
17. How can you explain the growth of people employed in services and the decline of those employed in manufacturing?

II. Do the following tasks.

1. Read the text and the dialogue and follow the instructions below each of them.

Language box: Gaelic

Today the language of Scotland is English. But until 1616, when James I forbade people to speak Gaelic, Gaelic had been the language of the Highlands and islands for fifteen hundred years. Scots Gaelic is a Celtic language, related to Welsh and to Irish Gaelic. Today only about 89,000 people speak Gaelic. They live mainly in the Hebridean islands and in some parts of the Highlands. Quite a lot of effort is being made to keep the language and culture alive. For example, there are daily broadcasts on radio and TV; students can take Gaelic as a subject in the School Leaving Certificate; more and more people are going to evening classes to learn the language.

Discuss:

A. Why is it important to speakers of minority languages like Gaelic to keep their language alive?

B. Are there any minority languages like Gaelic in your country? What is being done to keep them alive?

WHAT IS GAELIC LIKE?

Learn some and find out!

A. Read the conversation and translate it into English. Use the Grammar Notes and Vocabulary to help you.

B. Practice reading the conversation aloud with a partner.

Aon

Ciamar a tha thu?

Grammar notes

The verb 'to be': Present tense

tha mi I am

tha thu you are (to a friend)

tha e he is

tha i she is

tha sinn we are

tha sibh you are

tha sibh they are (formally or plural)

Catriona is visiting her neighbour Anna. She is about to go when Anna's husband Ian arrives home from work

Anna Hallo. Ciamar a tha thu?

Hallo. Kemmcr a ha oo?

Ian Tha mi gu math. Tha mi sgith.

Ciamar a tha thu, Catriona?

Ha mee go ma. Ha mee skee.

Kemmcr a ha oo katreena?

Catriona Tha gu math, tapadh leat.

Ha goo ma, tahpa lat.

Anna An gabh thu cofaidh, Ian?

An gav oo koffee, eean?

Ian Gabhaidh. Tapadh leat.

Gavee. Tahpa lat.

Anna An gabh thu cofaidh, Catriona?

An gav oo koffee, katreena?

YES and NO

In Gaelic there are no words for *yes* and *no*. To say 'yes' repeat the verb used in the question.

To say 'no' use *cha* before repeating the verb in the question. Find examples of 'yes' and 'no' in the conversation.

Catriona Cha ghabh.
Cha ghav.

Anna Ti? Uisge-beatha?
Tee? Ooska baha?

Catriona Cha ghabh. Tapadh leat. Tha mi sgith.
Cha ghav. Tahpa lat. Ha mee skee.
 (She gets up to go home.)
 Oidhche mhath, Anna. Oidhche
 mhath, Ian.
**Oicha va, anna. *Oicha va, eean.*

Anna Oidhche mhath Catriona.
**Oicha va, katreena.*

Ian Oidhche mhath
**Oicha, va.*

Vocabulary

sgith: tired
 tapadh leat: thank you
 uisge-beatha: whisky
 oidhche mhath: good night
 Ciamar a tha thu?: How are you?
 An gabh thu....?: Will you have...?

Pronounce **ch** as in Scots loch or German Tochter.

2. Read the text and follow the instructions.

Language box: Cockney

If you visit east London (the 'East End' as it is called) you can find some people who speak Cockney, a dialect of English. Even English people may have difficulty understanding a Cockney because of his pronunciation. And if he uses 'rhyming slang' and 'back slang' they will probably not understand him at all.

RHYMING SLANG

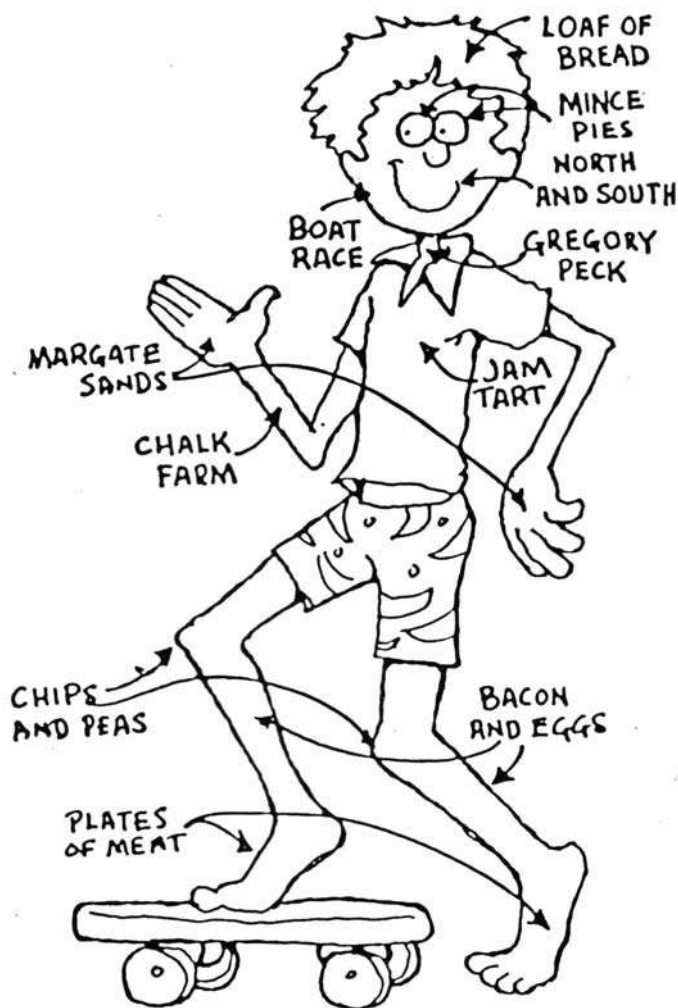
In rhyming slang, words are replaced by other words or phrases which rhyme. For example:

dog and bone means 'phone'

apples and pears means 'stairs'

Sometimes names of places and people are used. For example:

Rosie Lee means 'tea' (Rosie Lee was a gypsy fortune-teller)
 Often only the first word is used, so *Rosie* is used for 'tea'.



A. Translate all the Cockney names for parts of the body into Standard English (p. 62).

B. Translate this Cockney's words into Standard English.

'Hallo Fred. Come and have a cup of Rosie. It's on the Cain and Abel. But wipe your plates of meat because Mary's just cleaned the Rory O'More. She's up the apples and pears having a bo-peep.'

C. Numbers can all be expressed in slang. Which of these are in back slang, and which in rhyming slang?

1 = eno

2 = owt

3 = eerth

4 = rouf

5 = evif

6 = chopsticks

7 = neves

8 = garden gate

9 = enin

10 = cock and hen

BACK SLANG

Back slang is sometimes used by Cockney street traders or salesmen at Spitalfields, a fruit and vegetable market in the East End. Words are said back to front. For example:

He's taf means 'He's fat';

a yob means 'a boy'.

The letters are not always changed exactly. For example:

a delo namow means 'an old woman';

Dug yed means 'Good day'.

Cockneys use back slang to speak to each other when they don't want other people to understand. For example, in the market a salesman may be trying to sell the same thing at different prices to different people. To a Cockney friend he can say 'Right George, you can have it for *rouf* while he sells to another customer at five pounds.

3. Read the fact file. Does anything surprise you?

1) Only about 3 % of the British population speak RP.

2) The new National Curriculum for schools contains no requirement to teach RP. It requires only that children are taught 'to speak in an accent which is clear and comprehensible'.

3) Accents seem to have greater power to affect an individual's life in Britain than in many other comparable countries.

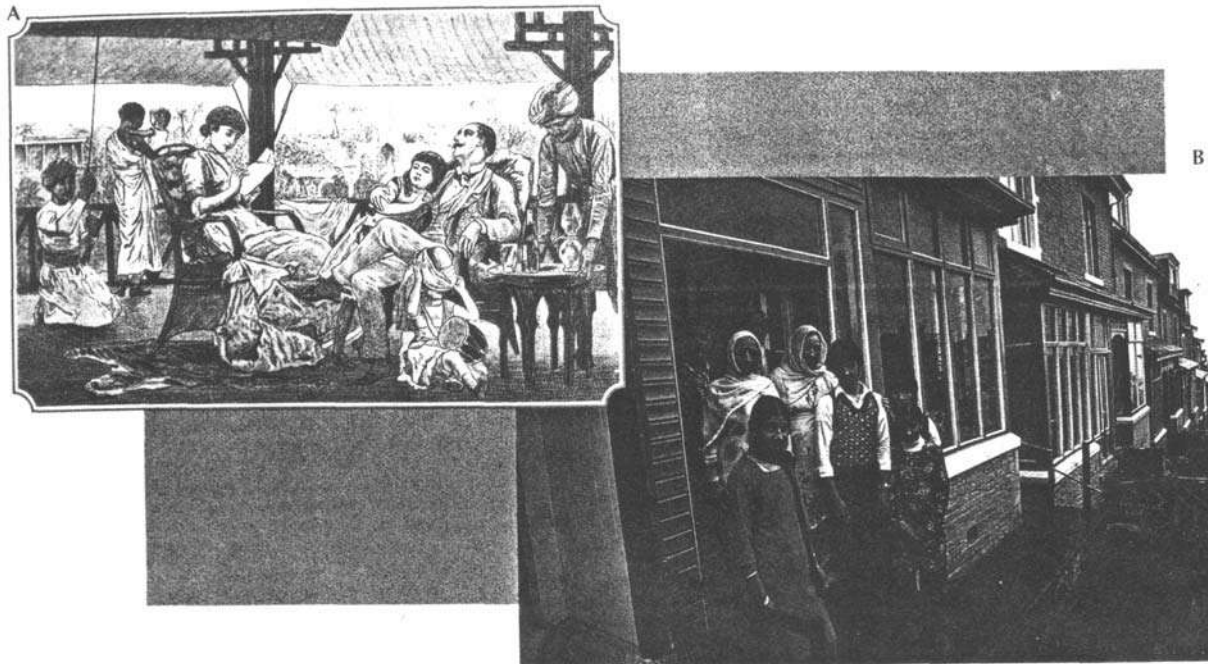
4) In the 1930's many schools taught elocution but since the 1960's any mention of accent has been taboo in state schools.

5) The very posh form of RP traditionally spoken by the Royal Family is nowadays widely downgraded.

6) The BBC's RP ranks at the top of the accent hierarchy with popular London speech at the bottom.

4. Read and follow the instructions.

Ethnic minorities in the UK



Pre-reading

- A.
- When and where do you think each of the scenes above is located?
 - Look at A. Why do you think this British family were living in India? What was the man's job? What type of lifestyle did the family have?
 - Look at B. Why do you think this family have decided to live in Britain? Can you think of any problems for immigrants arriving in a new country (e.g. not knowing the language)?

Reading

A CHANGING SOCIETY

Why did immigrants come to Britain?

Where did they come from?

KEY WORDS

Migration, persecution, recruiting, labour shortage, Commonwealth, immigration, Mother Country, racial, discrimination, Immigration Act, EEC, refugees, asylum

There has always been a movement of people in and out of Britain. This is called **migration**. At the end of the nineteenth century and in the early years of the twentieth century about 100,000 Eastern European Jews arrived to escape from religious **persecution** in Russia and Poland. In the nineteenth century Britain received large numbers of Irish immigrants who came over to work on the rapidly expanding canal and railway networks or to escape from starvation caused by the failure of the potato crop.

After the Second World War. Britain started **recruiting** European workers to help rebuild its shattered economy. Some came from Poland and Italy and many from Ireland. All these new workers came to escape poverty in their own countries. However, the supply of European workers was insufficient to meet Britain's needs. In the 1950s and 1960s Britain needed workers in textile manufacture, heavy industry, transport and health services. The **labour shortage** was especially severe in areas of low-paid work such as cleaning, catering and transport.

Britain now looked to its colonies and former colonies in the **Commonwealth** for help.

Between 1950 and 1961, **immigration** from the Caribbean and India was encouraged by British employers. These new immigrants had experience of British administration from the time when their countries were British colonies, and most of them spoke English as a first or second language. They looked forward to a better life for their children in the '**Mother Country**'. Unfortunately, they found a very different reality when they arrived in Britain. They had difficulty getting good jobs and housing because of the colour of their skin. Most jobs available to them were poorly paid and they had to work very long hours. It was, therefore, very difficult for them to respond when asked by hostile local people: 'Why did you come here?' In fact, Britain had colonised their countries and founded an empire before these new immigrants came to Britain.

They were not prepared for the **racial discrimination** they experienced on arrival in their new home.

In 1971 the Commonwealth **Immigration Act** restricted the number of new immigrants, although an exception was made in 1972 when many thousands of Asians were expelled from Uganda (in East Africa) by General Idi Amin and most of them settled in Britain. The year 1971 was also significant as it was the year when the United Kingdom became a member of the **EEC** (European Economic Community, also called the Common Market).

The number of immigrants from other EEC countries more than doubled between 1974 and 1984, and is expected to increase throughout the 1990s. One particular aspect of international migration in recent years has been the increasing number of **refugees** who move to Britain for political freedom and safety (**asylum**). In the period from 1979-89, 34,000 people (mainly from Turkey, Somalia, Sri Lanka and Uganda), were allowed to stay in Britain as refugees.

Interpretation

B. Complete this table with information from the text.

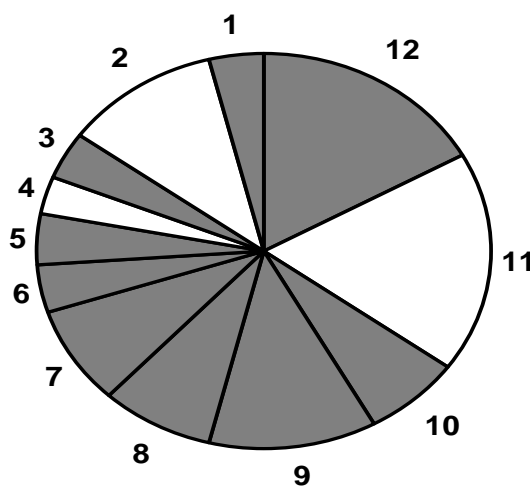
Date	Country of origin	Reason for move to Britain
19th century	Russia	Religious persecution
	Poland	

- C. a. Have people ever emigrated to your country? When? Why?
 b. Has a member of your family ever changed country?

D. Look at the diagram below and answer the questions:

- a. List the countries of origin of Britain's overseas population, starting with the highest percentage.
 b. In 1981, over 3 million people out of a total of 54 million were from overseas. If 43 % were born in New Commonwealth countries, how many people does this percentage represent?

Where Britain's overseas people were born



- 1 – Rest of world about 4 %
 2 – Rest of Americas, Burma, Israel, South Africa, Turkey, USSR, each around or under 11 %
 3 – Old Commonwealth about 4 %
 4 – USA about 3 %
 5 – Mediterranean countries about 4 %
 6 – Far East about 4 %
 7 – The Caribbean about 8 %
 8 – Africa about 8 %
 9 – South Asia about 12 %
 10 – Pakistan and Bangladesh about 7 %
 11 – Europe about 11 %
 12 – Irish Republic 17 %

1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12 – 43 % born in New Commonwealth countries and Pakistan

5. Look at the table on ethnic groups in Britain and complete the fact file.

Ethnic groups in Britain

Ethnic group	Percentage of ethnic population 1981	Estimated population (thousands) 1986-88	Estimated Percentage 1986 – 88		Change in population	
			of ethnic population	of total population	1981, thousands	1986-88, %
West Indian	25	495	19	0.9	- 33	- 6
Indian	35	787	31	1.4	+ 59	+ 8
Pakistani	14	428	17	0.8	+ 144	+ 51
Bangladeshi	2	108	4	0.2	+ 56	+ 109
Mixed	10	287	11	0.5	+ 70	+ 32
All ethnic minority groups	100	2,577	100	4.7	+ 485	+ 23
White	-	51,470	-	94.4	+ 470	+ 1

Fact file

- 1) During the 1980s the ethnic minority population rose by ____.
- 2) The number of Britons of West Indian origin fell by ____.
- 3) The ethnic minority group which showed the biggest increase in numbers was the ____.
- 4) But the group which showed the biggest percentage increase was the ____.
- 5) The white population grew by ____.
- 6) There was also a big increase in numbers of people of mixed race. Their numbers rose by ____.

Non-white ethnic minorities in Britain, 1999-2000

Indian	942,000
Pakistani	671,000
Black Caribbean	504,000
Black African	374,000
Bangladeshi	257,000
Black mixed	184,000
Black other (non-mixed)	124,000
Chinese	133,000
Other Asian (non-mixed)	217,000
Others	427,000
Total non-white ethnic minorities	3,832,000

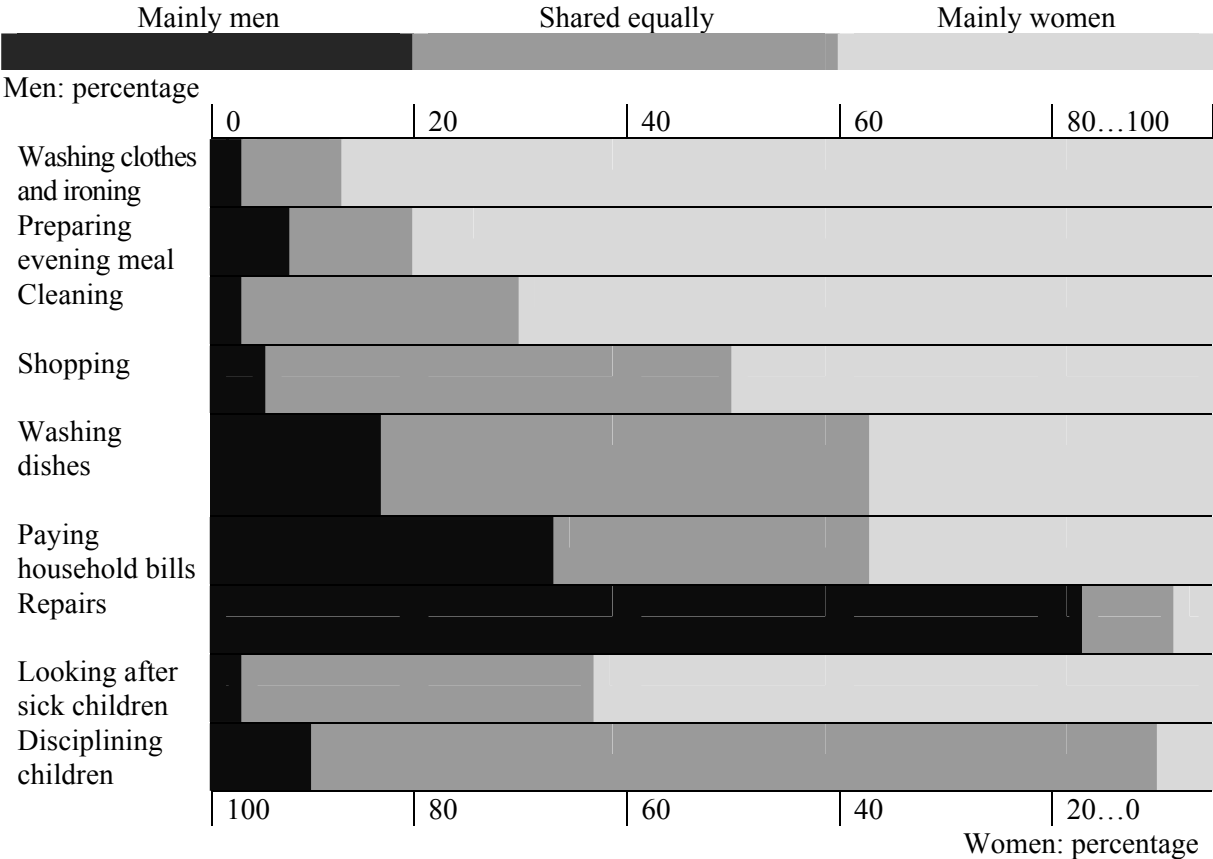
6. Listen to the tape and find answers to the questions.
 - 1) What has changed in family life over the last 70 years?
 - 2) What is the way of upbringing children in Britain today?
 - 3) What are teenagers' views on discipline within the family?
 - 4) What has changed in the wife-husband roles?
 - 5) What problems of upbringing a child on their own do lone or single mothers face?
 - 6) How have the roles of parents and children changed?
 - 7) What has changed in the male-female roles?
 - 8) What changes would Tim Kahn like to see in the attitude to family life in Britain?
7. Who does the housework and takes care of the children?

Working mothers

In 1931 less than 10 per cent of married women were in employment: over the last thirty years the proportion of married women working has increased from 21 per cent to

49 per cent. About a quarter of women with children under the age of five and about two-thirds of women with school-age children go out to work.

Women generally are spending a larger proportion of their lives in paid employment. It is now normal for a woman to be in full-time work until the birth of the first child, and an increasingly high proportion of women return to work after having a child, although this may be to a part-time job. Women are also returning to work more quickly after having a child. Britain has a high percentage of working mothers compared to some other countries (for example Italy, Ireland and Japan) but provisions for maternity leave and child care are amongst the lowest in Europe.



Comprehension.

Use the information above to answer the question:

- What percentage of mothers go out to work in Britain?

Discussion.

Work in pairs:

- Why do you think many British couples still get married in church?
- What conclusions can you make about who does the housework in a British family? How does this compare with what happens in your family?

8. What do people in Britain expect from a job? Money, yes – but what else? How do young people feel about starting work? Why do some people prefer to set up on their own?

Complete the fact file with the figures given below:

- 27.1 million
- 11.3 % 43 %
- £4,524
- 29.8 hours 43.5 hours
- 1990 1935

1) In 1990 the number of British people in full-time work was ____, the highest number ever.

2) Between 1979 and 1989 the number of self-employed people rose by 70% to 3.2 million. This equalled ____ of the total workforce.

3) In 1992 the highest-paid man in Britain was the managing director of a bank. He received an annual salary of £1,339,000. In the same year a kitchen porter in a British Hospital, received an annual salary of ____.

4) In 1971 women made up 37 % of the labour force in Britain. By 1988 this had risen to ____.

5) On average British men work longer hours than men in other European countries (____ per week as opposed to 40.7).

6) On average women work fewer hours than their European sisters (____ as opposed to 33.4).

7) In 1990 fewer than 200,000 working days were lost through strike action. This is the lowest figure since ____.

8) Trade unions lost 25 % of their members between 1980 and ____.

9) The Youth Training Scheme (YTS) was introduced in 1983. It offered two years of training for 16-years old school leavers.

III. Project.

Work in a group. Think of a minority in your country which suffers discrimination. This minority can be discriminated against because of their race, their nationality, or their physical or mental capabilities. Plan a campaign to make the general public more aware of the ways in which this group is discriminated against. Some possible activities include:

- a) a demonstration;
- b) organise a letter-writing campaign to your local newspaper or radio/TV station;
- c) design a badge or T-shirt for supporters of your campaign;
- d) think up a slogan;
- e) write a leaflet that sets out the facts of the case.

Remember that your aim is to persuade people who may not yet share your views to change their minds about this issue.

SEMINAR 4

1. Give an account of the main languages spoken in Great Britain today (give reasons explaining the existence of different languages of the British Isles).
2. Speak on the numerical growth of the population of Britain in the past, present and future; on the density of population in different regions of the country.
3. Describe the role of migration and its influence on the growth of population.
4. Speak on the social structure of Britain (family life, age structure, the distribution of urban and rural population, civil employment).

Round Britain Quiz

1. A true ___ is anybody born in the East End of London and speaks a strong London accent and is associated with working-class origin.
2. The number of households containing a ___ family (consisting of two parents and two children) is shrinking year by year.
3. Many people think that ___ is a useful way of ‘testing out’ a relationship before the commitment of marriage.
4. Before the ___ World War, most Commonwealth immigrants to Britain came from the largely white Old Commonwealth countries of ___, ___ and New ___, and from South ___.
5. Many people choose to live some distance from their work-places, often in a city’s ___, neighbouring towns (commuter towns) or ___ areas.
6. The great wave of immigration from the Caribbean and south Asia took place between ___ and 1965.
7. The most notable trend in the employment pattern during the last years has been the growth of people employed in ___.

CHAPTER V

BRITISH EDUCATION SYSTEM

LECTURE 5

CONTROL OF EDUCATION SYSTEM

The major difference between the education systems in the United Kingdom and many other countries is decentralisation. Although the overall approach to education is in the wide sense similar throughout the United Kingdom, the service is administered separately in England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Besides it is a characteristic of the British system that there is comparatively little central control.

The British educational system operates on the basis of the distribution of responsibility, between the three sections: central government (the Department of Education and Science – DES), Local Education Authorities (LEAs) and schools themselves. In other words it is a national system locally administered.

Central authorities do not exercise 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 organisation 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 school children should learn, but it only offers occasional advice about how they should learn it. No 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 dictates how much money to give it. It does not itself set or supervise the marking of the exams which older teenagers do. In general, as many details as possible are left up to the individual institutions or the Local Education Authority.

So, the day-to-day running of the education service is in the hands of the local education authorities. It is their duty to provide and run the schools and colleges in their areas. LEAs are responsible for the provision of buildings, materials and equipment. The choice of textbooks and timetable are usually left to the headmaster.

In the state sector there are three kinds of schools supported from public funds:

- county schools owned and maintained by local education authorities;
- voluntary schools (mostly Church of England, Church in Wales or Roman Catholic schools);
- grant-maintained schools receiving funding directly from central government.

Every state school has a governing body that includes members appointed by LEAs (except in the case of grant-maintained schools), teachers and parents. Governing bodies take responsibility for their school's main policies and for managing their own budgets under the Local Management of Schools (LMS) scheme. LEAs distribute their budget between schools. Budget allocation is made according to government-approved formula ('formula funding') based largely on pupil numbers. Governors at such schools manage budgets, define the numbers and grades of teachers and recruit staff.

NATIONAL CURRICULUM (ENGLAND AND WALES)

The most significant changes were introduced under the Education Reform Act 1988. This led to introduction of a compulsory National Curriculum for pupils aged 5 – 16 in state schools. It was introduced in 1989 in state schools in England and Wales. Until the end of the 1980s the choice of subjects to be studied and the content of the lessons had been decided by each individual school. Many pupils had tended to specialise too early, dropping important subjects like science, technology and foreign languages. The National Curriculum has changed all of this.

The National Curriculum determines the content of what will be taught, and sets attainment targets for learning. It also determines how performance will be assessed and reported. The aims of the national curriculum are to:

- raise standards, making sure that education is balanced and broadly based;
- ensure that schools in all parts of the country are following the same courses;
- promote spiritual, moral, cultural, mental, and physical development;
- specify what children must study and what they are expected to know at different ages;
- prepare children for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences in adult life.

The core subjects of the National Curriculum, which are compulsory for 5- to 16-year-olds, are English, mathematics and science. There are seven other ‘foundation’ subjects – technology, history, geography, music, art, physical education (PE) and a modern foreign language. In addition in Wales, Welsh is a core subject in Welsh-speaking schools and a foundation subject in other schools. All children in key stages 1 to 3 must study the first nine of these subjects. In key stage 3 they must also study a modern foreign language. Pupils aged 14 to 16 must currently study the core subjects, technology, a modern foreign language and physical education, plus either history or geography or short courses in both. Programmes of study have been developed for the core subjects as well as for technology, history and geography, music, art and physical education for key stages 1 to 4.

Attainment targets are set for each National Curriculum subject. In English, for instance, there are five basic targets: speaking and listening; reading; writing; spelling; and hand-writing. For each attainment target, there are ten levels of attainment. Towards the end of each of the first three key stages, children are assessed against attainment targets with a combination of teacher assessment and nationally designed tests. At the end of Key Stage 4, GCSEs are the principal means of the National Curriculum assessment.

Religious education is also required for all pupils by law. All secondary schools must provide sex education. Parents have a right to withdraw their children from these subjects. From September 2002 citizenship was included as part of the statutory curriculum for secondary schools.

The national curriculum is divided into four ‘key stages’, which relate to pupils’ ages.

Chart 1

Key Stages in the National Curriculum

<i>Stages</i>	<i>Age</i>
KS 1	5 – 7
KS 2	7 – 11
KS 3	11 –14
KS 4	14 –16

One of the latest proposals is to limit the compulsory subjects for 14 to 16 year olds to mathematics, English, science and information and communication technologies as well as citizenship, religious education, careers education, sex education, physical education and work-related learning. This would drop design and technology and a modern foreign language. Chart 2 shows the national curriculum at different stages with core subjects being highlighted.

The National Curriculum at Different Stages

	<i>Stage 1 Age 5 – 7</i>	<i>Stage 2 Age 7 – 11</i>	<i>Stage 3 Age 11 – 14</i>	<i>Stage 4 Age 14 – 16</i>
English	■	■	■	■
Mathematics	■	■	■	■
Science	■	■	■	■
Citizenship			■	■
PE	■	■	■	■
Design and Technology	■	■	■	■
ICT	■	■	■	■
Foreign Languages			■	■
History	■	■	■	
Geography	■	■	■	
Music	■	■	■	
Art	■	■	■	

At the same time, the new curriculum places greater emphasis on the more practical aspects of education. Skills are being taught which students will need for life and work, and ‘work experience’ – when pupils who are soon going to leave school spend some time in a business or industry – has become a standard part of the school programme.

NURSERY EDUCATION (UNDER 5 YEARS)

Children do not have to go to school until they reach the age of five, but there is some free nursery-school education before that age. About 50 % of three- and four-year-olds in England attend schools and many other children attend pre-school play-groups, mostly organised by parents (where children under 5 years can go for an hour or two twice a week). In Wales more than 70 % do so, while in Northern Ireland only 15.2 %. Parents who have a four-year-old child are entitled to Nursery Vouchers worth 1,100 pound sterling. These vouchers can be used in any state, voluntary or private school, playgroup or nursery that has signed on to the scheme and has places. Nursery schools give little formal instruction. The children spend most of their time in some sort of play activity as far as possible of an educational kind. Their aim is to provide four-year-olds with basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic.

PRIMARY EDUCATION (5 TO 11 YEARS)

Primary education takes place in infant schools (pupils aged from 5 to 7 years) and junior schools (from 8 to 11 years). For the first two years of schooling (5 – 6) children are expected to learn to read and write, to do simple sums, to learn basic practical and social skills, and to find out as much as they can about the world through stories, drama, music, crafts and through physical exercises. From 7 to about 11 or 12, children are at school where the class teacher is still a central figure for them, because he or she teaches many basic lessons. But increasingly there is emphasis on subjects with subject teachers. There will be a special teacher for maths, another for crafts, and another for French if French is provided at this age. But at these ages, except perhaps for maths, children are not usually divided into different levels of ability. At this stage there is more concern with making children interested than with traditional instruction. Competitiveness in the learning process is not encouraged but currently attention to the teaching of basic skills and knowledge has increased.

SECONDARY EDUCATION (11 TO 16 YEARS)

Since the 1944 Education Act of Parliament, free secondary education has been available to all children in Britain. Indeed, children must go to school until the age of 16, and pupils may stay on for one or two years more if they wish. Secondary schools are usually much larger than primary schools and most children – about 90 % – go to a comprehensive school at the age of 11. These schools are not selective – a pupil doesn't have to pass an exam to go there. The policy of comprehensive education was introduced by the Labour Government in 1965. Before that time, all children took an exam at the age of 11 called the '11+'. The exam consisted of an arithmetic paper, an English paper and an Intelligence test, which played the dominant role because it was supposed to determine the children inborn abilities and their intellectual potential. Approximately the top 20 % were chosen to go to the academic grammar schools (11 to 18 years). Those who failed the '11+' (80 %) went to secondary modern schools (11 to 16 years). Grammar schools offered academic courses for selected students preparing them for national examinations such as the General Certificate of Education (GCE) at ordinary and advanced levels. These examinations qualified children for better jobs, and for higher education. The curriculum included English language and literature, modern languages, Latin, mathematics, chemistry, physics, biology, history, geography and others. At the beginning of the 20th century technical schools came into existence. Few in number they were planned as the academic selective equals of grammar schools

but specialized in technical studies. Predominant subjects of their curricula were those of science and mathematic bias.

Secondary modern schools provided a more general non-academic education with a practical bias for students up to 16, although they could stay on if they wish. At the age of 16 school-leavers could not enter the university but start work or do some vocational training. The general level of education in these schools was low.

A lot of people thought that this system of selection at the age of 11 was unfair on many children. So comprehensive schools were introduced to offer suitable courses for pupils of all abilities. There are a few LEAs who still keep the old system of grammar schools, but most LEAs have now changed over completely to non-selective education in comprehensive schools. However, some LEAs have introduced first school, taking children aged 5 to 8, 9 or 10. The first school is followed by the middle school which embraces children from 8 to 14. Next comes the upper school which keeps middle school leavers until the age of 18. This three-stage system is becoming more and more popular in a growing number of areas.

Comprehensive schools offer a wide choice of subjects, from art to craft, woodwork and domestic science to sciences, modern languages, computer studies, etc. Pupils choose from the numerous subjects taught in their particular school. However, the National Curriculum has made it compulsory the three core subjects – English, maths and science – and seven other foundation subjects – technology, history, geography, music, art, physical education and a modern foreign language – to be included in the curricula of all pupils. Pupils at comprehensive schools are quite often put into ‘sets’ for the more academic subjects such as mathematics or languages. Sets are formed according to ability in each subject, so that for example the children in the highest set for maths will not necessarily be in the highest set for French. There are three categories of comprehensive schools: 1) schools which take pupils from 11 to 18; 2) schools which embrace middle school leavers from 12, 13 or 14 to 18; 3) schools which take the age group from 11 to 16.

The approach to education has changed. It has been widely recognised that it is not enough to absorb and remember information. The students must be able to evaluate and criticize the information they receive as well as be able to find out things for themselves. The content of education should be relevant to real life wherever possible. Language teaching should make use of typical situations of tourists or business people. Grammar and syntax rules are not emphasised at the early stages. Children learn about the essential relations between figures rather than mathematical procedures.

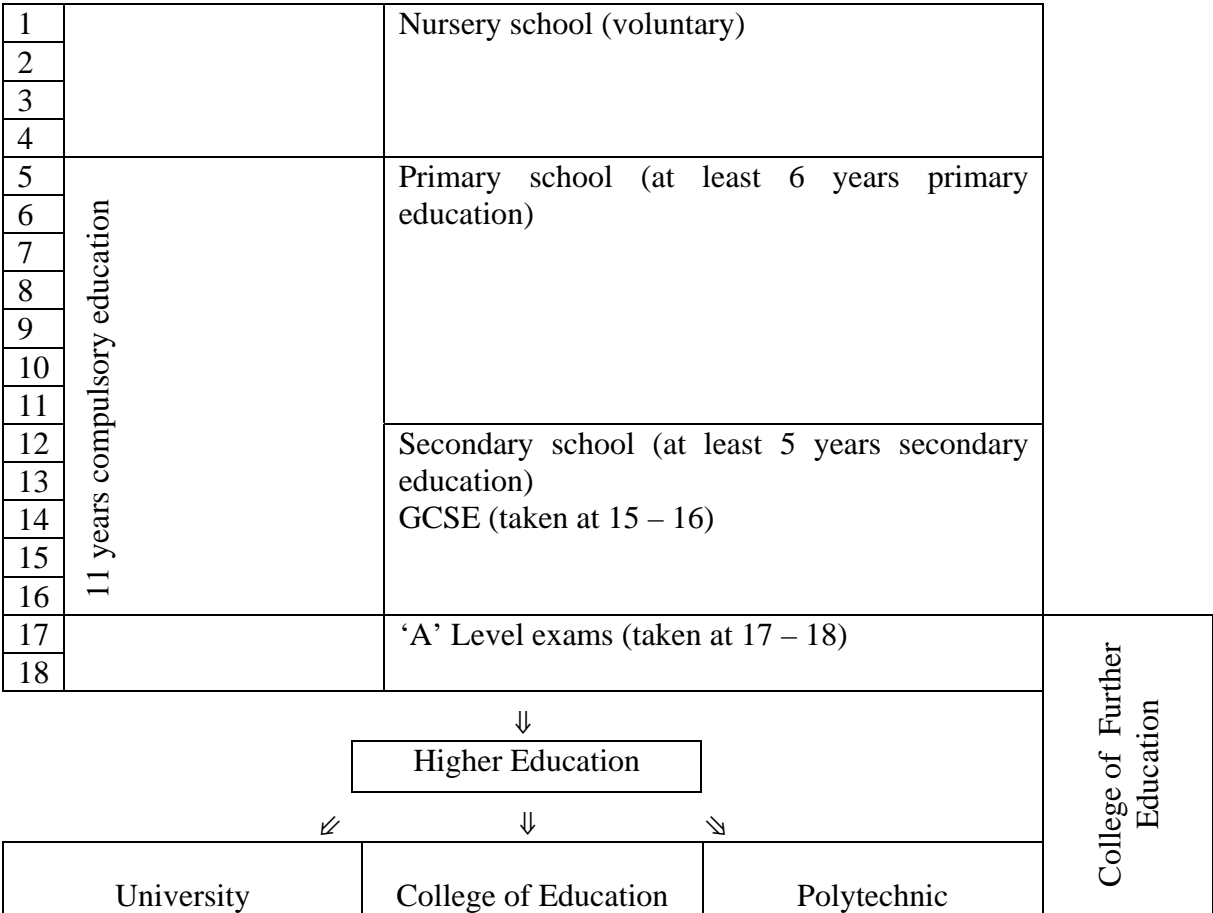
Outside the academic curriculum there is great concern with the development of the child’s personality. Clubs are encouraged for the joint pursuit of interests in nature (such as bird-watching), music, dancing or drama.

In Northern Ireland secondary education is organised largely along selective lines, based on testing, though some secondary schools are run on a non-selective basis.

The following chart will help you to understand how state education is organised in England.

Chart 3

State Education in England



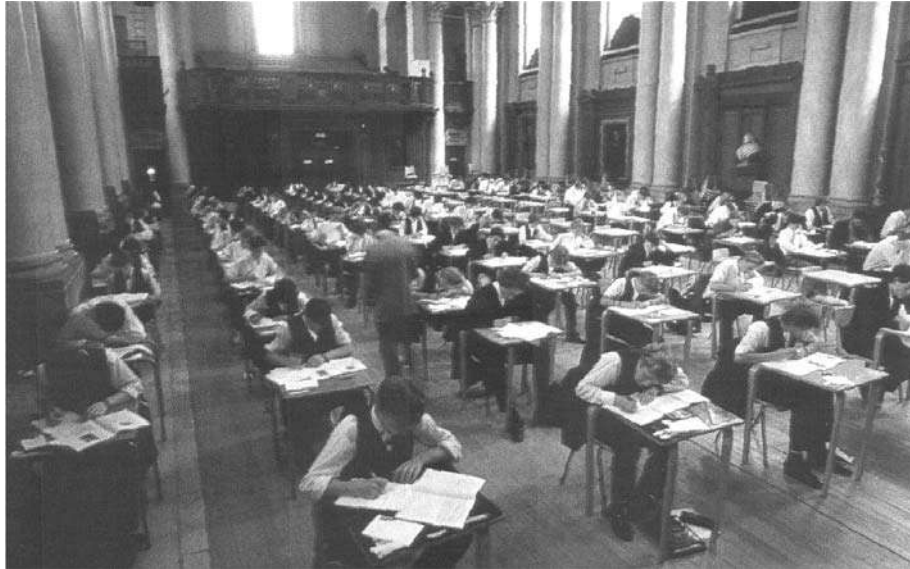
INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS

Private education in public schools still plays a very important part in British society. Only a small proportion of children attend these schools and their influence permeates all the institutions that exercise power in the country. In Britain today parents who buy a place in a private school are buying a ticket to success.

About 7 % of children attend independent or private schools outside the state sector. There are about 2400 independent schools and they’ve been

growing in number and popularity since the mid 1980s. These schools charge between 300 pounds sterling a term for day nursery pupils and 4,000 pounds sterling a term for senior boarding pupils. Many offer scholarship to children from less well-off families and the Government gives income-related financial help to able children under its Assisted Places Scheme. In 1993-94 more than 33,800 places were on offer at 295 schools under the scheme.

Independent schools range from small kindergartens to large day and boarding schools and from new experimental schools to ancient foundations.



Students at Eton take exams

Around 550 independent schools for pupils aged 11 to 19 are commonly known as 'public' schools, although they receive no state funding.

The public schools are the most famous of the private secondary schools. The oldest of the public schools are Eton (founded in 1440), Harrow (1571), Winchester (1382), Westminster (1560), St. Paul's (1509), Merchant Taylor's (1561), Rugby (1567), Charter House (1611), Shrewsbury (1552). The first public schools were founded to give free education to clever boys whose parents could not afford to educate them privately. They were under 'public' management and control and were called 'public schools' to distinguish them from small private schools run by individuals. Today, these schools are the most expensive of the independent schools in Britain. They are boarding schools, where pupils live as well as study, though some of them also take some day pupils. Normally, entrance is by examination and state schools do not prepare children for this. So parents who wish to send their children to a public school often send them first to a preparatory school (prep-school). They are small, private primary schools which prepare children for the common entrance exam (the exam for entry into the best schools) taken at the age of 13.

Most boarding public schools aim at developing in the pupils a sense of duty, obedience as well as ability to exercise authority. A school is divided into 'houses' with selected older boys as prefects. Until quite recently the prefects imposed a strict discipline. These schools offer high quality facilities. The education is traditional. They have produced over the centuries many of Britain's distinguished people.

The majority of independent secondary schools including public schools are single-sex. Although in recent years girls have been allowed to join the sixth form of boys' schools. Independent schools do not have to teach the national curriculum, although many are already following all or most of it. Independent schools also include religious schools: Jewish, catholic, moslem, etc, and schools for ethnic minorities.

TESTING SYSTEM

Before children start school at the age of five they are tested in reading, writing and use of number. This 'baseline assessment' is aimed at providing the teachers with more information, as well as allowing the measurement of pupils' progress as they move through the school.

All children in state schools are tested in English and mathematics at the ages of 7, 11, and 14. At the age of 11 and 14 they are also tested in science. The tests are usually taken at the end of the academic year. The children are tested against the learning targets set by the national curriculum. All children in state schools in Northern Ireland are tested formally in English, mathematics and science only at the age of 14.

PUBLIC EXAMS

The organisation of the exams which schoolchildren take from the age of about fifteen onwards exemplifies both the lack of uniformity in British education and also the traditional 'hands-off' approach of British governments. First, these exams are not set by the government, but rather by independent examining boards. There are several of these. Everywhere except Scotland (which has its own single board) each school or LEA decides which board's exams its pupils take. Some schools even enter their pupils for the exams of more than one board.

Second, the boards publish a separate syllabus for each subject. There is no unified school-leaving exam or school-leaving certificate. Some boards offer a vast range of subjects. In practice, nearly all pupils do exams in the English language, maths and a science subject, and most also do an exam in technology and one in a foreign language, usually French. Many students take exams in three or more additional subjects.

Third, the exams have nothing to do with school years as such. They are divorced from the school system. There is nothing to stop a sixty-five-year-old doing a few of them for fun. In practice, of course, the vast majority of people who do these exams are school pupils, but formally it is individual people who enter for these exams, not pupils in a particular year of school.

The main qualification taken by secondary pupils in England, Wales and Northern Ireland is the General Certificate of Secondary Education taken by pupils at the end of compulsory education at the age of 16, as a series of exams in the individual subjects they have been studying. Marks are given for each subject separately. Results are graded from A (the highest) to G (the lowest), with U – unclassified – for those who do not meet the minimum standard.

Pupils with different abilities are offered different exams in some subjects. For example, those expected by a school to do best will be entered for papers covering grades A to D; others will do papers in which the maximum possible grade would be a C.

New GCSE ‘short course’ qualifications were introduced from September 1996. These take half the time typically allotted to a full GCSE course, and are available in modern foreign languages, physical education, religious education, geography, history, design and technology, and information technology. They are popular with pupils who are interested in another qualification and who want the flexibility. A less intensive course can be studied alongside full GCSEs.

The General Certificate of Education (GCE) Advanced level (A level) is a higher level academic exam set by the same examining boards that set GCSE exams. They are taken mostly by people around the age of 18 (after a further two years of study). Advanced Supplementary (AS) qualifications enable sixth-form pupils to broaden their range of study. Students specializing in the arts and humanities, for instance, can continue to study mathematics and technological subjects. AS qualifications require the same standard of work as A levels but have only half the content. GCE A level and AS qualifications are currently the main standard for entrance to higher education and many forms of professional training.

Since 1991 the General National Vocational Qualification (GNVQ) has been introduced into schools. This is the exam in job-related subjects. In 1994 it covered three subject areas: business, manufacturing, and health and social care. Art and design, information technology, and leisure and tourism were added in 1996, while engineering was introduced in September 1997. GNVQs are divided into five levels, the lowest level is equivalent to GCSEs and the third level to GCE A level. Most commonly, GNVQ courses are studied at Colleges of Further Education. New vocational GCSE was introduced in secondary schools which have replaced GNVQs in 2002. This qualification gives 14 to 16 year olds a chance to pursue work-related skills, studying part time in workplaces.

POST-SCHOOL EDUCATION

After the age of 16, young people decide whether they want to stay in education or start work. Education is no longer compulsory. One of the current objectives of the Government is to make education and training available full-time or part-time at times and places which suit individual needs. Access to training is available irrespective of age. A high proportion of students in higher and further education are mature students. Training is usually aimed at providing skills and knowledge necessary for a particular job. Those who start work at the age of 16 are guaranteed a place on the Governments programmes for young people – Advanced and Foundation Modern Apprenticeship in England, Skillseekers in Scotland and Wales and Jobskills in Northern Ireland.

65 % of school-leavers continue their full time education or training. The pupils wishing to enter university may transfer to the sixth form of an 11 – 18 school, to a sixth-form college (if a school does not have a sixth form or does not teach the desired subjects) or to a College of Further Education. Typically, in a six form or a sixth-form college a pupil spends a whole two years studying just three subjects, usually related ones, in preparation for taking GCE A level exams.

Further Education Colleges offer academic and vocational courses for students from the age of 16. The term ‘further education’ is usually referred to post-school non-university education. FE colleges offer the courses linked to some kind of practical vocational training for example in engineering, typing, cooking or hairdressing. In the private sector there are many secretarial colleges offering business courses and language schools which specialize in teaching English as a foreign language.

HIGHER EDUCATION



University College, Oxford



Warwick University, a campus university

Higher education is mostly provided by the Universities. They set entrance requirements for degree courses. Applications for undergraduate courses are dealt with by UCAS (Universities and Colleges Admissions Service). Every applicant can apply to several universities. Those who have chosen Oxford and Cambridge universities in addition apply to those universities directly. Application forms have to be completed by 15 December for courses beginning in October of the following year. UCAS forwards the copies of the applications to all the universities listed in the form, gets the replies from the universities and provides a statement to the applicants setting out the details of these decisions. Universities normally select students on the basis of A-level results and an interview. Those with better exam grades are more likely to be accepted. But in principle there is nothing to stop a university accepting a student who has no A-levels at all and conversely, a student with top grades in several A-levels is not guaranteed a place. If the applicants fulfill the conditions they are given places in the universities concerned.

For all British citizens a place at university brings with it a grant or loan from their Local Education Authority. The grants cover tuition fees and some of the living expenses. The amount depends on the parents' income. If the parents do not earn much money, their children will receive a full grant, which will cover all their expenses.

All degree courses are full-time and most last three or four years (medical and veterinary courses last five or six years). The main undergraduate qualification is the first degree such as BA (Bachelor of Arts), BSc (Bachelor of Science), and BEd (Bachelor of Education). Students who obtain their Bachelor degree (graduates) can apply to take a further degree course, usually involving a mixture of exam courses and research. There are two different types of post-graduate courses – the master's degree (MA or MSc), which takes one or two years, and the higher degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), which takes two or three years.

Universities and other higher educational institutions are autonomous and enjoy complete academic freedom, appointing their own staff and deciding which students to admit, what and how to teach, and which degrees to award. They are legally independent corporate institutions, accountable through individual governing bodies that carry ultimate responsibility for the institution.

The administration and legal status of higher education is very complex and diverse. Every university established before 1992 has a Chancellor who is an honorary titular head of the institution. The Chancellors preside at the meetings of the university governing body and degree-giving ceremonies. The

chief academic and administrative officer responsible for day-to-day management is Vice-chancellor. The main body involved in university government in England, Scotland and Northern Ireland is the Council. The Council usually consists of academic staff, a limited number of students and non-academic staff. Other 50 % of Council members are distinguished people. The Council is responsible for staff appointment and promotion, allocation of resources. The planning, coordination, development and supervision of the work is done by a Senate which is appointed by Council and chaired by the Vice-chancellor. The universities established after 1992 are governed by the Board of Governors. At least half of their members are representatives from local community (commerce, industry, or education). The Principle and the Board of Governors are responsible for overall management. At present there are 89 universities and 60 other higher educational institutions which do not have degree-awarding power but provide courses leading to degrees validated by the universities, such as a Diploma of Higher Education (DipHE), Higher National Diploma (HND), or Higher National Certificate (HNC).

There are no important official or legal distinctions between the various types of university in Great Britain. But it is possible to discern a few broad categories.

Oxbridge. This name denotes the universities of Oxford (founded in 1167) and Cambridge (1209). They are federations of semi-independent colleges, each college having its own staff known as 'Fellows'. Most colleges have their own dining hall, library and chapel and contain enough accommodation for at least half of their students. The Fellows teach the college students, either one-to-one or in very small groups (known as 'tutorials' in Oxford and 'supervisions' in Cambridge). Oxbridge has the lowest student/staff ratio in Britain. Lectures and laboratory work are organized at university level. 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. Before 1970 all Oxbridge colleges were single-sex (mostly for men). Now, the majority admit both sexes.

The Old Scottish Universities. By 1600 Scotland boasted four universities. They were Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen and St. Andrews. The last of these resembles Oxbridge in many ways, while the other three are more like civic universities in that most of the students live at home or find their own room in town. At all of them the pattern of study is closer to the continental tradition than to the English one – there is less specialization than at Oxbridge.

The Early Nineteenth-Century English Universities. Durham University was founded in 1832. Its collegiate living arrangements are similar to Oxbridge,

but academic matters are organized at university level. The University of London started in 1836 with just two colleges. Many more have joined since, scattered widely around the city, so that each college (most are non-residential) is almost a separate university. The central organisation is responsible for little more than exams and the awarding of degrees.

The Older Civic ('redbrick') Universities. During the nineteenth century various institutes of higher education, usually with a technical bias, were founded in the new industrial towns and cities such as Birmingham, Manchester and Leeds. Their buildings were of local material, often brick, in contrast to the stone of older universities (hence the name 'redbrick'). They catered only for local people. At first, they prepared students for London University degrees, but later they were given the right to award their own degrees, and so became universities themselves. In the mid-twentieth century they started to accept students from all over the country.

The Campus Universities. These are purpose-built institutions located in the countryside but close to towns. Examples are East Anglia, Lancaster, Sussex, and Warwick. They have accommodation for most of their students on site and from their beginning, mostly in the early 1960s, attracted students from all over the country. They tend to emphasize relatively 'new' academic disciplines such as social sciences and to make greater use than other universities of teaching in small groups, often known as 'seminars'.

The Newer Civic Universities. These were originally technical colleges set up by local authorities in the first half of the twentieth century. Their upgrading to university status took place in two waves. The first wave occurred in the mid 1960s, when ten of them (e.g. Aston in Birmingham, Salford near Manchester and Strachclyde in Glasgow) were promoted in this way. Then in the early 1970s, another thirty became 'polytechnics', which meant that as well as continuing with their former courses, they were allowed to teach degree courses (the degrees being awarded by a national body). In the early 1990s most of these (and also some other colleges) became universities. Their most notable feature is flexibility with regard to studying arrangements, including 'sandwich' courses (i.e. studies interrupted by periods spent working in industry or business). They are now all financed by central government.

The Open University

In 1969 in Milton Keynes, Buckinghamshire, the Open University was founded; to cater for those people, who, for some reason, hadn't had a chance to enter any of the other universities, especially those above normal students' age.

It takes both men and women at the age of 21 and over. The university provides part-time degree and other courses. No formal academic qualifications are required for entry to these courses, but the standards of its degrees are the same as those of other universities. Its courses are taught through television, radio and specially written coursebooks. Its students work with tutors, to whom they send their written work and with whom they then discuss it, either at meetings or through correspondence. In summer, they have to attend short residential courses of about a week. Degrees are awarded on the basis of credits, gained by success at each stage of the course. Six credits are required for a BA degree and eight credits for a BA Honors degree. The time of staying at the Open University is unlimited.

Progress Questions and Assignments

1. Answer the following questions.

1. What is the main difference between the education system in the United Kingdom and many other countries?
2. What are the functions of the partners responsible for the education service in Great Britain?
3. What is the role of governing bodies (boards of governors)?
4. What are the chief elements of the National Curriculum, introduced in 1989?
5. How is nursery education organized in the United Kingdom?
6. How is primary education organized in the United Kingdom?
7. Are all secondary schools selective?
8. At what age can children leave school?
9. What education is compulsory in the United Kingdom?
10. What is the Government's approach to secondary education?
11. What types of secondary school are there in the United Kingdom?
12. What is the major difference between state and private education?
13. What types of independent schools do you know?
14. What are the principal examinations taken by secondary school pupils at the age of 16 and 18?
15. What is GNVQ?
16. What are a six-form college and FE college?
17. How is admission to universities carried out?
18. What degrees do British Universities award?
19. What differs the Open University from other British universities?

II. Points for discussion.

1. Here are ten subjects which, according to the national curriculum for England must be taught in the first three years of secondary education: English, Mathematics, Science, Technology, History, Geography, a modern foreign language (French is the most common), Art, Music and Physical Education (PE). Is there anything here that surprises you? Do you think any other subjects should be included?

2. In what ways has the pursuit of equality for all affected the development of the educational system in Britain? Would you say that there was equality of opportunity in the present system?

3. What would you say are the successes and failures of the British education system? What things, if any, does it appear to do well, and what areas does it seem to neglect or do badly in?

III. Do the following tasks.

1. The British education system.

Pre-reading

Answer these questions for your own country:

- Do boys and girls go to the same schools?
- Do you have to go to school by law?
- At what age do children start school?
- At what age can children leave school?
- What type of education is there after school?

KEY WORDS free, compulsory, nursery, primary, comprehensive, co-educational, GCSE, sixth form, 'A' level, further education, higher education, degree, graduate

State Education in Britain

All state schools in Britain are **free**, and schools provide their pupils with books and equipment for their studies. Nine million children attend 35 thousand schools in Britain. Education is **compulsory** from 5-16 years. Parents can choose to send their children to a **nursery** school or a pre-school play group to prepare them for the start of compulsory education.

Children start **primary** school at 5 and continue until they are 11. Most children are taught together, boys and girls in the same class.

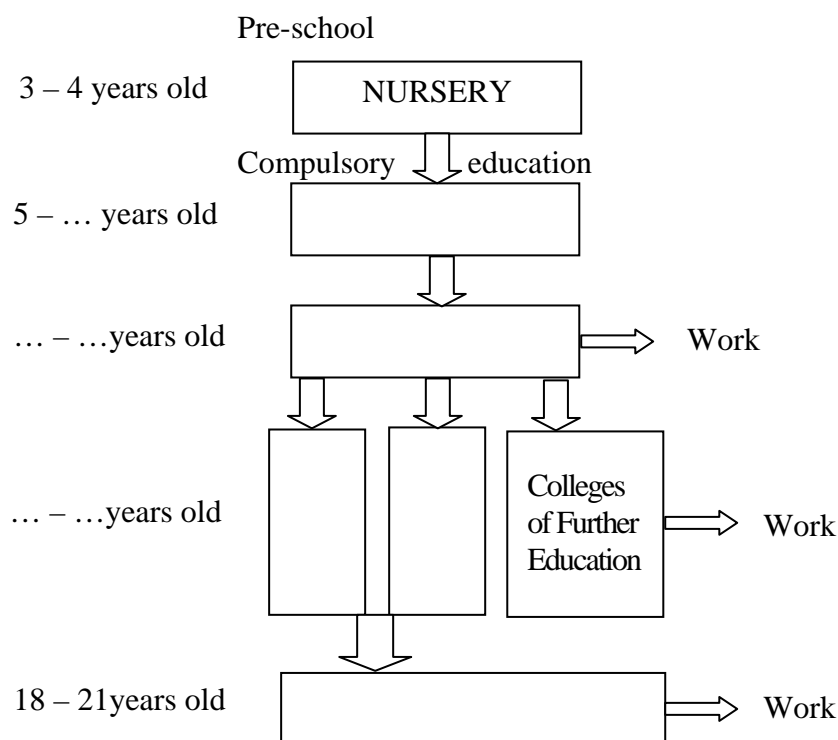
At 11 most pupils go to secondary schools called **comprehensives** which accept a wide range of children from all backgrounds and religious and ethnic groups. Ninety per cent of secondary schools in England, Scotland and Wales are **co-educational**.

At 16 pupils take a national exam called ‘**GCSE**’ (General Certificate of Secondary Education) and then they can leave school if they wish. This is the end of compulsory education. Some 16-year-olds continue their studies in the **sixth form** at school or at a sixth form college. The sixth form prepares pupils for a national exam called ‘**A**’ level (Advanced Level) at 18. You need ‘A’ levels to enter a university.

Other 16-year-olds choose to go a college of **further education** to study for more practical (vocational) diplomas relating to the world of work, such as hairdressing, typing or mechanics.

Universities and colleges of **higher education** accept students with ‘A’ levels from 18. Students study for a **degree** which takes on average three years of full-time study. Most students **graduate** at 21 or 22 and are given their degree at a special graduation ceremony.

Reading activity.



a) Complete the diagram by writing the name of each type of school in the boxes. Write the age of pupils at each type of school.

b) Match each of these words from the text with the correct definition:

- | | |
|----------------|---------------------------------|
| compulsory | to finish university |
| co-educational | must do |
| degree | qualification from a university |
| graduate | boys and girls study together |

c) Finish these sentences:

- The school-leaving age in Britain is...
- Pupils go to ... school before secondary school.

- There are ... schools for the under-5s.
- The national exam at 16 is ...
- The national exam at 18 is ...
- Universities are part of ...

d) Underline any differences between your system of education and the British system. Write sentences to explain the differences. Draw a diagram to illustrate your education system.

2. School day.

A. The subjects studied in a British school

Pre-reading

a) Look at the timetable below for a few minutes.

	8.45	9-9.15	9.15-10.10	10.20-11.05		11.25-12.20		1.25-2.20	2.20-3.15
Monday	Registration	School assembly	Geography	Religious Education	Break	Information Technology	Lunch time	Maths	Science
Tuesday			French	Art		English		History	Science
Wednesday			PE	PE		Maths		English Literature	Science
Thursday			PSE Careers	History		English		CDT	CDT
Friday			Geography	Religious Education		Maths		Performing Arts (music/drama)	French

b) Now cover the timetable and answer these questions:

- How long is an average school day?
- How often do pupils have breaks?
- Do pupils start school earlier than in your country?
- Do you think the lunch break is too short or too long?
- Do lessons finish later than in your country?
- Do British children go to school on Saturdays? Do you?

c) Look at the timetable again. Can you find any subjects which are different from those studied in your school or country?

B. Extra-curricular activities

Field trips geography, biology, history.

Outings museum, exhibition, factory, castle, monument, theatre, cinema.

School clubs sport, drama, choir, orchestra, chess, photography, video, school, newspaper, debating.

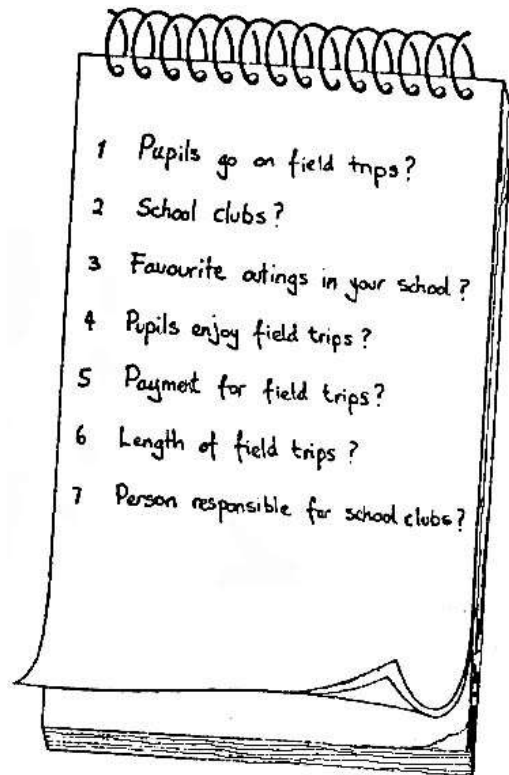
The activities mentioned above are called 'Extra-curricular activities' because they are organised in addition to normal school lessons. In British school, these activities are an important part of learning and of enjoying school.

a):

- Tick any of the activities above which are organised by schools in your country.
- Make a list of places (monuments / castles / museums) in your own city or area which you would take a group of British students to visit.

b) *Interview with a middle-school teacher in the North-east of England*

Look at the reporter's note pad. Can you expand his notes into questions? What do you think the answers to the questions will be? Use the boxes above to help you.



c) Now match the reporter's questions with the correct answers. Write the number of the question in the space.

Q	Yes, they go to hostels in Kielder forest or to holiday camps like Butlins. They usually go walking, orienteering, and canoeing and practise reading maps.
Q	Very much. For some pupils it is their first trip away from home and they love sleeping in dormitories. They don't enjoy making meals or washing dishes but that is an important part of the experience!
Q	From Monday to Friday. A normal school week.

Q? The parents. At one time it used to be the Local Education Authority but recent government cuts have stopped that! Now we ask parents for a contribution towards the cost, and we try to make the trips as inexpensive as possible.

Q?	I was teaching 'The Romans' in my history lessons last year so I took the class to the Roman Army Museum – it is always very popular with the kids. They dressed up in replicas of Roman soldiers' uniforms and saw a short film about the Roman Wall (Hadrian's Wall). They also enjoy going to see a play – I try to take them to the theatre once a year.
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Q? Lots! There's a video club. They make films when school finishes at four o'clock. They usually write the scripts in their English lessons and perform after school in the hall. The music and drama clubs are particularly active and they have just performed 'Joseph and his Amazing Technicolour Dreamcoat' after many weeks of rehearsals.

Q?	The teachers, of course. We help and supervise the clubs in our free time. It is a normal part of the job in a British school.
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3. The Hidden Curriculum – school discipline.

Pre-reading

- a). Put a tick next to the rules which are the same in your school.
- b). Make a list of Dos and Don'ts in English for your school.

Do...	Don't ...
<input type="checkbox"/> wear full uniform at all times <input type="checkbox"/> tie long hair back <input type="checkbox"/> give money to your teacher for safekeeping <input type="checkbox"/> be in the yard no earlier than 8.50 a.m. and no later than 9.00 a.m. <input type="checkbox"/> walk <input type="checkbox"/> move around school quietly <input type="checkbox"/> collect your dinner tickets before 9 a.m. <input type="checkbox"/> hand your homework in on time	<input type="checkbox"/> wear mousse, gel or hairspray on your hair <input type="checkbox"/> bring jewellery to school <input type="checkbox"/> leave money in coat pockets <input type="checkbox"/> bring sweets or chewing gum to school <input type="checkbox"/> be late <input type="checkbox"/> leave your homework until the last minute

c). Read the text.

KEY hidden curriculum, school rules, punished, discipline, Headteacher,
WORDS obedience, form tutor, PSE

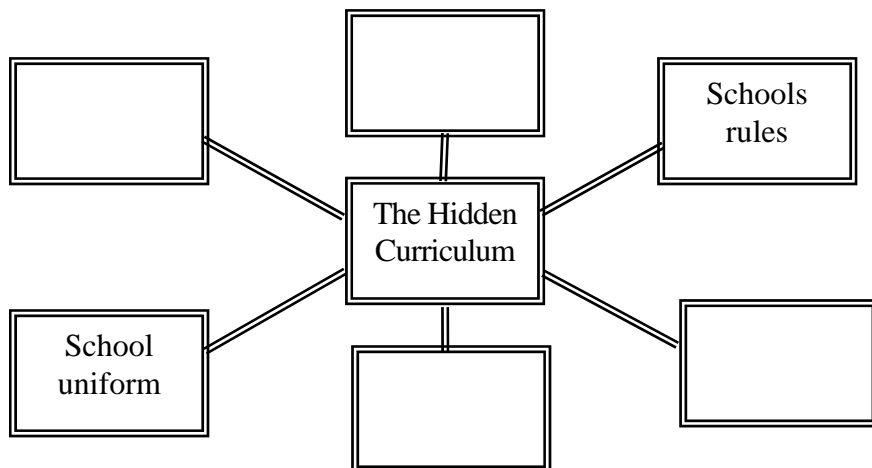
Are Schools Too Strict?

There are many things which pupils learn in school which are not part of the timetable of official lessons. The term '**hidden curriculum**' is used in Britain to refer to those things pupils learn from the way their school is organised. The school's organisation includes rules, such as punctuality. Pupils are usually expected to arrive at lessons, assemblies and registration on time. Some pupils would say that **school rules** are too strict. In the famous progressive boarding school Summerhill, pupils decide what lessons they do and when to do them. In more traditional schools pupils may be **punished** for not having a clean school uniform, for failing to wear the school tie or for wearing earrings.

Teachers are responsible for **discipline** in British schools and they also follow special courses to help them work well with badly-behaved pupils. A pupil is sent to the **Headteacher** when he has committed a serious offence. The teachers take turns to supervise the corridors and schoolyard during lunch-time. **Obedience** to authority and co-operation with other pupils are important values which teachers communicate to pupils as part of the 'hidden curriculum'. Most pupils also have a **form tutor**: this may be the teacher who is the head of the year group. The form tutor is available to help pupils with their personal problems, give them advice on careers, exams or school reports, and is responsible for discipline when the pupil breaks a school rule. Most pupils talk to their form tutor in a **PSE** lesson.

Reading activity.

Complete this diagram with words from the text:



KEY bullying, the bully
WORDS

Bullying

In recent years, teachers and parents have become more concerned about the problem of bullying. Bullying happens when one pupil (or a group) threatens and sometimes physically attacks a younger, weaker, quieter or more timid pupil. This type of behaviour is now considered a serious offence, and articles have been published in the national press about the terrible effects that bullying can have on young people. The victim of bullying can suffer

psychologically and the school can suffer too. Persistent bullying of other pupils can lead to the bully being excluded. Exclusion is the worst possible punishment in a British school!

Here are some of the punishments in British schools:

Lines: In England, when a teacher gives you 'lines', you write out the same sentence again, and again, perhaps fifty or a hundred times. For example, 'I must do my homework', or 'I must not be late'.

Detention: If you are 'in detention', you stay after school to do extra work – possibly lines – for half an hour or so.

Report: If you are 'on report', you have a card which you give to the teacher at the end of every lesson. Each teacher reports if you have behaved well or badly.

Exclusion: If you are excluded, you cannot come to school for a few days or weeks. Your parents see the headteacher. This is serious.

Expulsion: If you are expelled, you are sent away from your school. This is very serious. You have to go to another school where the teachers all know about your bad record.

Interpretation.

- a) Who is responsible for discipline in British schools?
- b) Who do pupils talk to when they have problems with their homework?
- c) Why is a school bully considered to be dangerous?
- d) Compare the punishments in British schools with your school. Are they different? Do you think British schools are too strict?

Imagine you are a group of teachers in a British school.

a) Look at the list of offences below. Decide if each example of bad behaviour is:

very serious/serious/minor/harmless

- running in the corridor,
- fighting on the floor in the classroom,
- swearing at a teacher,
- throwing a piece of paper across the classroom during a lesson,
- smoking in the school toilets,
- stealing from other pupils,
- singing during lessons,
- cheating in an exam,
- looking out of the window when the teacher is giving a lesson,
- forgetting to bring your homework to the lesson;

b) Now decide with your group which punishment you would give in each of the situations. For example: Running in the corridor.

'I think running in the corridor is a minor offence so I would give the pupil lines to write. He would have to write 100 times ..."I must not run" ...'

Read the Fact File on British schools.

Imagine your partner is a pupil at a London school. Interview him/her about a typical school day in London; how the school is organised and what type of subjects he/she studies. Use the fact file and the timetable on page 88 to prepare your questions. Your partner should use the Fact File to answer your questions.

Did you know that ...?

Terms: There are normally three school terms in Britain: Autumn, Spring and Summer terms.

Half-term: The schools usually have five days' holiday halfway through each term. Sometimes schools take their pupils on trips at half-term, e.g. skiing in February or a French exchange visit.

Holidays: This can vary from region to region. The schools usually have ten days at Christmas, ten days at Easter and six weeks in the summer from the end of July to the beginning of September.

School meals: Students can eat lunch in the school canteen. They buy 'dinner tickets' at an inexpensive rate in school. Some students can have 'free school meals' if their parents have a low income. In recent years more and more students have decided to bring their own lunch (sandwiches known as a 'packed lunch'), rather than eat in the canteen. All pupils enjoy discussing how awful school food is.

School yard: In most schools the pupils spend the breaktime and lunch hour in the school yard or on the school field. If the weather is bad they may spend break in the school hall – a very large room for assembly.

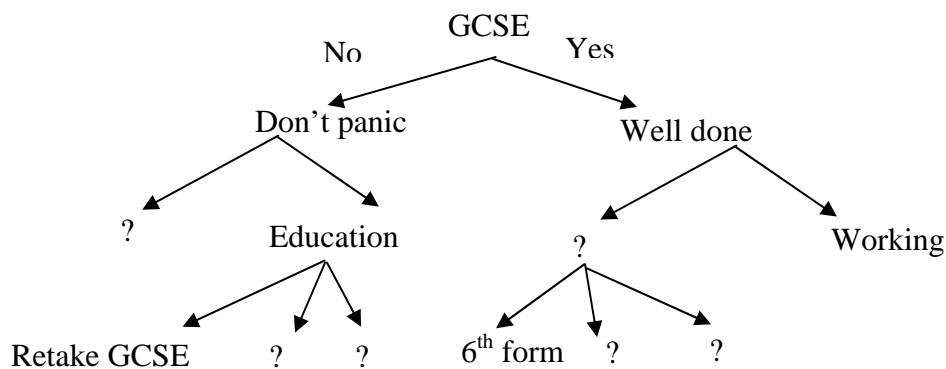
School assembly: All schools must by law organise a short daily meeting for the whole school to give important information and give some form of religious worship.

School uniform: Even more popular in recent years. Pupils sometimes wear a blazer and a school cap (more common at private schools than at state schools) or – more usually a shirt, trousers or skirt, and sweater in the school colours together with a school tie.

4. Education and Training. Choices.

Most pupils take their GCSE exams when they're 16. Those who get good grades can stay on for a further two years and sit their A-level exams. Good A-level results make it possible for pupils to go to further education in a university. Now complete the flowchart. What choices do you have if you ...?

- a) don't get good GCSE grades;
- b) get good grades but don't want to do A-levels;
- c) get good grades, want to do A-levels, but don't want to stay at school.



5. British students have to make some decisions at the age of 16 and at the age of 18.

At 16 ... Which choice might Teresa make? Stay on in the sixth form at school or go to Sixth Form College?

School or College...

Seventeen-year-old Teresa Moore lives in a small village in Wales ...

When I passed my GCSE exams at 16 I decided to continue my studies for two more years. My old school has a small sixth form with about twenty pupils. However, I was not too sure if I wanted to see the same old faces and teachers for another two years. I needed a change!

The Sixth Form College in the nearest city had an open day, and that helped me to decide. I was amazed by the choice of subjects on offer and the canteen and common rooms were very impressive. The pupils seemed so much more grown up, especially as they don't have to wear boring uniforms like in the other place!

On my first day I was sure I had made the wrong decision. The long journey (I have to change bus twice) and the sheer numbers of pupils felt overwhelming. But since then I've settled in, made great new friends and am really enjoying my History, German and English 'A' levels. I couldn't do German at my old school, French was the only language offered. We also do extra Main Studies courses in non-examination subjects – I've chosen photography, journalism and theatre arts – which are really interesting and mean that you get to know lots of people outside your A-level study groups. You can even do rock-climbing or motorcycling!

- How many subjects does Teresa study?
- Pupils attend a Sixth Form College five days a week from 9 a.m.-4 p.m. Calculate how many hours Teresa spends on each subject. (Don't forget to subtract seven hours for breaks!)

- Teresa talks about the advantages and disadvantages of going to the college. Tick the advantages and put a cross against the disadvantages.

the type of people (not nice)

the facilities

the distance from home

the choice of subjects

the social life (good)

the buildings

the transport

the rules (e.g. clothes)

At 18 ... Try to predict which of these sentences best describe Chandra's choice:

- a) She decided to get a job.
- b) She decided to go to university.
- c) She decided to get a job before going to university.

Filling the Gap ...

Eighteen-year-old Chandra Das passed her A-levels in June and has a place at London University to study pharmacy. This year she has chosen not to go straight to London. 'I needed a year out,' she explains.

'The subject I am going to study will lead, hopefully, to a career in industry. But I realised that I didn't know anything about the world of work. I've spent the past six years having a great time in my girls' boarding school but I now need a year of responsibility.

I wrote to a few well-known pharmaceutical companies and one of them offered me a job in their laboratory as a 'work placement'. I'm testing anti-inflammatory drugs at the moment and getting to know more about the technology used in my chosen field. Apart from gaining practical experience. I'm also earning money for the first time in my life! The company are pleased with my work and have offered to sponsor me through university. They will pay me an extra 1,800 pounds a year while I'm studying and I can work in the labs during the holidays.

And at the end of my studies there will be the option of working for them. It has all worked out so well!', says Chandra enthusiastically.

- Complete this table for Chandra:

Name of University	
Chosen subject	
Present job	
Type of employer	

- Answer True or False:
 - Chandra likes earning money.
 - She is still at school.
 - She has got sponsorship for her university course.
 - She went to a private school.

6. Life at College. British universities.

Did you know that ...?

- There are 97 universities in Britain, including the Open University. 31 former polytechnics were given university status in 1992, as part of a government campaign to increase the number of graduates.
 - Students may receive a grant (money) from their Local Education Authority to help pay for books, accommodation, transport and food. This grant depends on parental income.
 - Most students live away from home, in shared flats or halls of residence.
 - Students don't usually have a job during term time because the lessons, called lectures, seminars, classes or tutorials (small groups), are full time. However, many students now have to work in the evening to supplement their grants.
 - Holidays are longer than school holidays – from two to three months in the summer.
 - Students do a wide range of summer jobs and holiday jobs at Christmas or Easter.
 - Students cannot usually repeat a year. Failing exams is very serious.
 - The social life is excellent with a lot of clubs, parties, concerts, bars ...
 - Students have their own bank accounts, and banks try to attract students by offering free gifts (presents and money, e.g. typically a cassette tape or pen and 10 pounds) at the start of their courses. Banks do this because they think that students are the professionals of the future.
 - Most degree courses last 3 years, Languages 4 years (including a year spent abroad). Medicine and dentistry courses are longer (5 – 7 years).
 - University life is considered 'an experience': the exams are competitive but the social life and living away from home are also important.

Reading.

Freshers

When they first arrive at college, first year university students are called 'freshers'. A fresher's life can be exciting but terrifying for the first week.

Often freshers will live in a Hall of Residence on or near the college campus, although they may move out into a rented room in their second or third year, or share a house with friends. Many freshers will feel very homesick for the first week or so, but living in hall soon helps them to make new friends.

During the first week, all the clubs and societies hold a 'freshers' fair' during which they try to persuade the new students to join their society. The freshers are told that it is important for them to come into contact with many opinions and activities during their time at university, but the choice can be a bit overwhelming!

On the day that lectures start, groups of freshers are often seen walking around huge campuses, maps in hand and a worried look on their faces. They are learning how difficult it is to change from a school community to one of many thousands. They also learn a new way of studying. As well as lectures, there are regular seminars, at which one of a small group of students (probably not more than ten) reads a paper he or she has written. The paper is then discussed by the tutor and the rest of the groups. Once or twice a term, students will have a tutorial. This means that they see a tutor alone to discuss their work and their progress. In Oxford and Cambridge, and some other universities, the study system is based entirely around such tutorials which take place once a week. Attending lectures is optional for 'Oxbridge' students!

After three or four years (depending on the type of course and the university) these students will take their finals. Most of them (over 90 per cent) will get a first, second or third class degree and be able to put BA (Bachelor of Arts) or BSc (Bachelor of Science) after their name. It will have been well earned!

Interpretation.

Is it good to leave home at the age of 18? What are the advantages and disadvantages?

Many British people believe that if you do nothing more than study hard at university, you will waste a great opportunity. What do they mean and do you agree?

How do British universities differ from universities in your country? What do you like and dislike about the British system?

IV. Project.

Write an essay (about 220 – 250 words) comparing the system of education in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

SEMINAR 5

1. Give a general survey of the organisation and control of education system of Great Britain.

2. Speak on the Educational reform of the late 1980s.

3. Speak on the initial stages of education: nursery and primary schools.

4. Give an account of the structure of secondary education (types of schools, exams).

5. Examine the private sector of the British education. Speak on the organisation of further education.

6. Give an account of the organisation of higher education. Types of universities.

7. Speak on admission to universities. Dwell upon the Open University.

Round Britain Quiz

1. Primary education takes places in ___ schools (pupils aged from 5 to 7 years) and ___ schools (from 8 to 11 years). (Some LEAs have a different system in which ___ schools replace ___ schools and take pupils aged from 9 to 12 years).

2. A typical day at school starts at 8.40 a.m., with the first of the many bells ringing throughout the building. Pupils must then go to ___ which lasts until 9 o'clock.

3. At the age of 14 or 15, in the third or fourth form of secondary schools, pupils begin to choose their exam subjects. In 1988 a new public examination (___) was introduced for 16 year-olds.

4. Since 1988 if pupils wish to study more than two or three subjects in the sixth form they can take a combination of 'A' and ' ___ ' Levels, which is worth half an 'A' Level.

5. Education within the state school system comprises either two-tiers (stages) – ___ and ___, or three tiers – ___ schools, ___ schools and ___ schools.

6. Further Education Colleges provide complete courses of ___ education and ___ courses.

7. The ___ schools are mostly boarding schools, where the pupils live and study though many of them also take some day-pupils.

8. British universities are independent, ___, and self-governing institutions.

9. Cambridge and Oxford in many respects (especially their prestige and wealth) look very alike; therefore they are often referred to collectively for convenience as ___.

10. The University of ___ is by far the largest conventional university with about 39,000 full-time students. It was established by the union of two colleges: University College (1827) and King's College (1831).

CHAPTER VI

THE STATE SYSTEM OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

LECTURE 6

CONSTITUTION OF THE UK

Britain is a constitutional monarchy. That means it is a country governed by a king or queen who accepts the advice of a parliament. It 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. The highest positions in the government are filled by members of the directly elected parliament. The official head of state (a monarch) has little real power.

Britain is almost alone among modern states in that it does not have ‘a constitution’ at all. Of course, there are rules, regulations, principles, and procedures for the running of the country which are known collectively as ‘the constitution’. But there is no single written document which can be appealed to as the highest law of the land. Instead, the principles and procedures by which the country is governed and from which people’s rights are derived come from a number of different sources. A great number of these rules are written and embodied in Acts of Parliament such as the Representation of the People Act of 1918, which prescribes the arrangements for holding elections, or the Parliament Act of 1999 which abolished the hereditary principle which was exercised for centuries in the House of Lords. Other rules are not laws and have never been written down but are established practices or political conventions such as the convention that the monarch asks the leader of the majority party after an election to form a government, or the convention that the monarch accepts the legislation passed by the government. Still other rules are neither law nor established conventions but are simply convenient methods of procedure established by precedent (judgements made in a court).

There are two basic principles of the British so-called constitution: the Rule of Law (i.e. that everyone, whatever his or her station, is subject to the law) and the Supremacy of Parliament, which implies that there is no body that can declare the activities of Parliament unconstitutional and that Parliament in theory can do whatever it wishes.

Amendments to Britain’s unwritten constitution are made by a simply majority support in both Houses of Parliament to be followed by the Royal Assent.

THE UNITED KINGDOM AS A CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY. THE ROYAL FAMILY

A thousand years ago, before the Norman Conquest, the Anglo-Saxon kings consulted the Great Council, or Witan (an assembly of the leading wisest rich men from various districts), before taking major decisions. When the Norman Conquest took place the Witan disappeared and William I and his successors held Great Councils of most influential feudal nobles instead. In 1215 the nobles forced King John to accept Magna Carta or the Great Charter which was aimed to limit the power of the King. The king promised all 'free man' protection from his officers and the right to a fair and legal trial. One of the specific points of the Great Charter was the setting up of a permanent committee of 25 barons to see that John's promises are kept. Some 50 years later this instrument led to the establishment of the first English Parliament in January 1265 by Simon de Monfort. In 1689 The Bill of Rights was adopted which was a major legal step towards constitutional monarchy. It limited the powers of monarchy to a great extent, especially on governmental, fiscal and other matters. According to The Bill of Rights Parliament was to be freely elected; its members were to have freedom of speech; no taxation could be imposed without the consent of Parliament; the king had no power to suspend any law; an army could be raised or maintained only with Parliament's consent and this had to be renewed annually; no Roman Catholic could succeed to the throne; the King's revenue (income) could be granted for a year only and so this ensured the annual meeting of Parliament. Since 1689 the power of parliament has grown steadily, while the power of the monarch has weakened. Today the monarch reigns, though she does not rule. Being a constitutional monarch the Queen acts on the advice of her prime minister and does not make any major political decisions.

The Queen in Britain is the 'symbol of their nation's unity'. The Queen personifies the State; she is the head of the executive, an integral part of legislature, head of judiciary, the commander-in-chief of all armed forces, the 'supreme governor' of the Anglican Church and the personal Head of the Commonwealth. The United Kingdom is governed by Her Majesty's Government in the name of the Queen. Although the Queen is deprived of actual power, she has retained many important, though formal, functions. Every autumn, at the state opening of Parliament, the Queen makes a speech. In it she says what her parliament intends to do in the coming year. She summons, prolongs and dissolves Parliament; gives royal assent to Bills passed by both Houses of Parliament. She appoints every important office holder, including government ministers; judges, officers in the armed forces, governors, diplomats and bishops

and some other senior clergy of the Church of England; confers peerages, knighthoods and other honours. She appoints the Prime Minister to form a government of State. The Queen has, in international affairs, the power to declare war, make peace, to recognise foreign states and governments, etc. She gives audiences to her ministers and other officials from overseas, receives accounts of Cabinet decisions, reads dispatches, etc.; she is informed and consulted on every issue in national life.

Today the monarchy is one of the great tourist attractions: Buckingham Palace, the Tower of London, Windsor Castle are on the list of priorities for most of tourists visiting Britain. Despite all the tragedies, scandals involving members of the Royal Family, the general public still supports the idea of preserving the Royal Family traditions.

The Royal Family's surname is Windsor. Queen Elizabeth is only the fourth monarch with this name. This is not because a 'new' royal family took over the throne of Britain four reigns ago. It is because George V (1865 – 1936),



Queen Elizabeth II reviews her troops in a colourful annual ceremony

Elizabeth's grandfather, changed the family name. It was Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, but during the First World War it was thought better for the King not to have a German-sounding name. The Royal Family's ancestors were German. The present Queen's great-great-grandmother, Queen Victoria (1819 – 1910), was born in Britain, but her mother and her husband were both German. When Queen Victoria got married she became a Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

The father of the present Queen, King George VI, became king in 1936, after his elder brother Edward VIII gave up the throne. George VI died in 1952. The Queen's mother, whose official title was Queen Elizabeth the Queen Mother since the death of her husband, King George VI, was born in 1900 and died in 2002. Queen Elizabeth II was born in 1926 and became Queen in 1952 on the death of her father, George VI. She is one of the longest-reigning monarchs in British history. In 2002 the Golden Jubilee of the Queen's reign was celebrated. She is widely respected for the way in which she performs her duties and is generally popular. In 1947 she married Prince Philip Mountbatten,

the Duke of Edinburgh. They have 3 sons and a daughter. Prince Charles, the Prince of Wales, was born in 1948. As the eldest son of Queen Elizabeth and Prince Philip, he is heir to the throne. He is concerned about the environment and about living conditions in Britain's cities. He sometimes makes speeches which are critical of aspects of modern life. In 1981 he married Princess Diana and in 1992 the couple separated and later divorced.

In 1997 Princess Diana died as the result of a car accident. Prince Charles remarried in 2005. Princess Anne, the Queen's daughter (also known as the Princess Royal), was born in 1950. She separated from her husband after they had one son and one daughter. She married again in 1992. She is widely respected for her charity work, which she does in a spirit of realism. Prince Andrew, the Duke of York, was born in 1960 and is the Queen's second son. He is divorced from his wife, Sarah Ferguson (who is known to the popular press as "Fergie"). They have 2 daughters. Prince Edward, The Queen's youngest son, was born in 1964. He is involved in theatrical production. He married Sophie Rhys-Jones in 1999. He and his wife are the Duke and Duchess of Wessex. Prince William (born in 1982) and Prince Henry (born in 1984) are the sons of Diana and Charles. William is next in line to the throne after his father.



Princess Diana



Princess Margaret The Queen Prince Charles
The Queen Mother Prince Philip



SEPARATION OF POWERS UNDER THE BRITISH 'CONSTITUTION'

Under the British Constitution the Government functions through the following bodies:

- the Legislature which makes laws;
- the Executive which puts laws into effect and plans policy;
- the Judiciary, which decides on cases that arise out of the laws.

Britain doesn't have a very strict division and separation of powers (as it is in the United States of America).

The legislative branch is Parliament where laws are passed; the executive (which plans prospective laws and formulates policy) is the cabinet of the government and the judiciary is the Law Lords and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council who have a final say on legal issues. The Prime Minister is an active member of the legislative (and can vote in Parliament) yet he is also the leading member of the executive.

Also the Lord Chancellor is a member of the cabinet and therefore of the executive as well as being head of the judiciary.

The House of Lords also has a right to vote on bills so they are part of the legislative but the Lords also contains the Law Lords who are an important part of the judiciary.

As with the Parliament Membership, the members of the Cabinet are also members of the legislative who have the right, as a Member of Parliament, to vote on issues.

Therefore, there is a merging of roles in the British model.

ELECTION PROCEDURE

There are two types of parliamentary election. A general election is when there is voting in all 659 constituencies on one day. It is called by the Government at any time but must be within five years of the previous one. A by-election is

held when a Member of Parliament dies, retires or resigns between general elections. Voting then only occurs in the constituency without a member.

GENERAL ELECTIONS

It is the House of Commons that is elected at a Parliamentary election. The country is divided into a number of areas of roughly equal population (about 66,000), known as constituencies. The right to vote in election has every British person over 18 who is resident of Britain (members of the Royal Family and certified lunatics are not allowed to vote). It should be noted that voting in Britain isn't compulsory. People vote for any one of the candidates in the constituency they are registered in. Anyone over 21, who is entitled to vote (except for clergymen, civil servants, felons, members of the House of Lords and bankrupts) can stand as a candidate. Anybody who wants to be an MP must declare himself or herself as a candidate in one of these constituencies. Each candidate has to pay a deposit (currently 500 pounds) which is returned if a candidate obtains at least 5% of the total number of votes cast in that constituency. Candidates are usually selected by the local party associations which pay the deposits for them and practically no person can stand a chance of being elected except under the name of a party. But there are always some people who are willing to be candidates even when they know they have no chance of winning. Sometimes they are people fighting for a single cause that they feel very strongly about. Sometimes they are people who just like to be candidates for a joke. In this case they tend to be candidates in constituencies where they will get a lot of publicity. The most famous of these 'crazy' candidates is 'Lord David Sutch'. He was a candidate in the same constituency (Huntingdon) as the ex-prime minister John Major in every election since 1966 to 1997. He gave the following 'political description' of himself on the ballot paper 'Lord David Sutch Official Monster Raving Loony Party'.

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.

Each voter has to vote at a particular polling station. After being ticked off on the electoral register, the voter is given a ballot paper. Each voter then puts a cross next to the name of one candidate. The candidate with the largest number of crosses next to his/her name is the winner and becomes the MP for the constituency. This system is called 'first past the post'. This means that the

candidate who gets most votes in a particular constituency wins their seat (the right to represent people as a Member of Parliament) in Parliament. It does not matter whether the winning candidate gets 20 % or 70 % of the total votes, provided they get at least one more vote than each of the other candidate. The party that wins the most seats in parliament takes power. Critics say that this system is unfair, because the proportion of seats which a party holds does not reflect the proportion of votes which that party receives in the nation as a whole. For example, in the 1992 general election the Conservatives won 42 % of the vote but 53 % of MPs, whereas the Liberal Democrats won 18 % of the vote and only 3 % of MPs. Thus the 'first past the post' system benefits the leading parties and discriminates against the smaller parties.

BYE-ELECTION

Whenever a sitting MP can no longer fulfill his/her duties, there has to be a special new election in the constituency which he/she represents. These are called bye-elections and can take place at any time.

A bye-election provides the parties with an opportunity to find a seat in Parliament for one of their important people. If a sitting MP dies, the opportunity presents itself, if not, an MP of the same party must be persuaded to resign.

The way an MP resigns offers a fascinating example of the importance attached to tradition. It is considered wrong for an MP simply to resign; MPs represent their constituencies and have no right to deprive them of this representation. So an MP who wishes to resign applies for the post of 'Steward of the Chiltern Hundreds'. This is a job with no duties and no salary. Technically, however, it is an office of profit under the Crown (i.e. a job given by the monarch with rewards attached to it). According to ancient practice, a person cannot be both an MP and hold a post of this nature at the same time because Parliament must be independent of the monarch. As a result, the holder of this ancient post is automatically disqualified from the House of Commons and the bye-election can go ahead.

MAIN PARTIES

The main parties in the UK are the Conservative party (right wing), the Labour party (left wing) and the Liberal Democrats (center).

The Conservative Party goes back to the Tories, or Royalists, who originated in King Charles' reign (1660 – 1685). The Tories were the party that supported Church and King. The Tory party gave way to its successor, the

Conservative party, in around 1830. The Conservative party believes in free enterprise and the importance of a capitalist economy, with private ownership preferred to state control.

The Labour Party. In 1899, the Trades Union Congress summoned a special conference of trade unions and socialist bodies to make plans to represent labour in parliament. The proposal to such a meeting had come from Thomas Steels, a member of the Independent Labour Party which had formed in 1893. The conference met in February 1900 in London and has always been looked on as the foundation of the Labour party. However, the name 'the Labour party' was not adopted until 1906. The Labour party believe that private ownership and enterprise should be allowed to flourish, but not at the expense of their traditional support of the public services.

The Liberal Democrats. There has been a Liberal party in Great Britain since 1868 when the name was adopted by the Whig party. The Whig party was created after the revolution of 1688 and aimed to subordinate the power of the Crown to that of parliament and the upper classes. In 1981, a second center party was created by 24 Labour MPs. It was called the Social Democratic party, and soon formed an alliance with the Liberal party. They formed a single party which became the Liberal Democrats after the 1987 election. The Liberal Democrats believe that the state should have some control over the economy, but that there should also be individual ownership.

BRITISH PARLIAMENT

The British Parliament works in a large building called the Palace of Westminster. 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.

Parliament is the supreme legislative authority in Britain and consists of three separate elements: the Queen, the House of Lords and the elected House of Commons. These elements are outwardly separate, constituted on different principles, and they meet together only on occasions of symbolic significance, such as a coronation, or the State opening of Parliament when the Commons are summoned by the Queen to the House of Lords.

The Parliament Act 1911 fixed the life of a Parliament (the House of Commons) at five years, although it may be dissolved and a general election held before the end of this term. The life of a Parliament could be even

prolonged beyond the normal period of five years without consulting the electorate if both Houses agreed (the life of the Parliament was prolonged during the two world wars). The life of Parliament is divided into sessions. Each session usually lasts for one year. It begins and ends most often in October or November. The average number of sitting days for the House of Commons in a normal session is about 175, divided into the following periods: one from November till Christmas (about 40 sitting days), one from January to Easter (about 50 sitting days), and one from about the beginning of June until about late July or early August (40 to 50 sitting days).

During most sessions the House of Lords sits on about 140 days. The periods when Parliament is not sitting are popularly known as recesses, although the correct term is adjournments.

Since the beginning of Parliament, the balance of power between the two Houses has undergone a complete change. In modern practice the center of parliamentary power is in the House of Commons, but until the twentieth century the Lords' power of veto over measures proposed by the Commons was, theoretically, unlimited. Nowadays the House of Lords can suggest changes in laws, but is restricted to laws that have nothing to do with the finances of the country (for example, it cannot suggest any changes to the Budget, the annual statement of the Government's financial plans). The House of Lords cannot reject laws that the House of Commons wants to pass, though it can amend them. Even then, the Commons can reject these amendments.

Each House has its Leader. The Leader in the House of Commons is of the Government primarily responsible for organising the business of the House, and for providing reasonable facilities for the House to do about which it is concerned. One of the functions of the Leader is to announce the following week's programme to the House. In the absence of the Prime Minister the Leader of the House of Commons acts as the spokesman on the ceremonial and other occasions. The Leader of the House of Lords has similar functions in the Lords and is regarded as the main Government spokesman in the House. Party control in Parliament, and particularly in the House of Commons, is exercised by officers known as 'Whips'. There are Government and Opposition Whips in both Houses of Parliament, but the Whips in the Lords are less exclusively concerned with party matters. The Government Chief Whip is directly answerable to the Prime Minister and the Leader of the House of Commons and is responsible for settling the details of the Government's programme of business, for estimating the time likely to be required for each item. Duties which are common to the Whips of all parties include keeping members

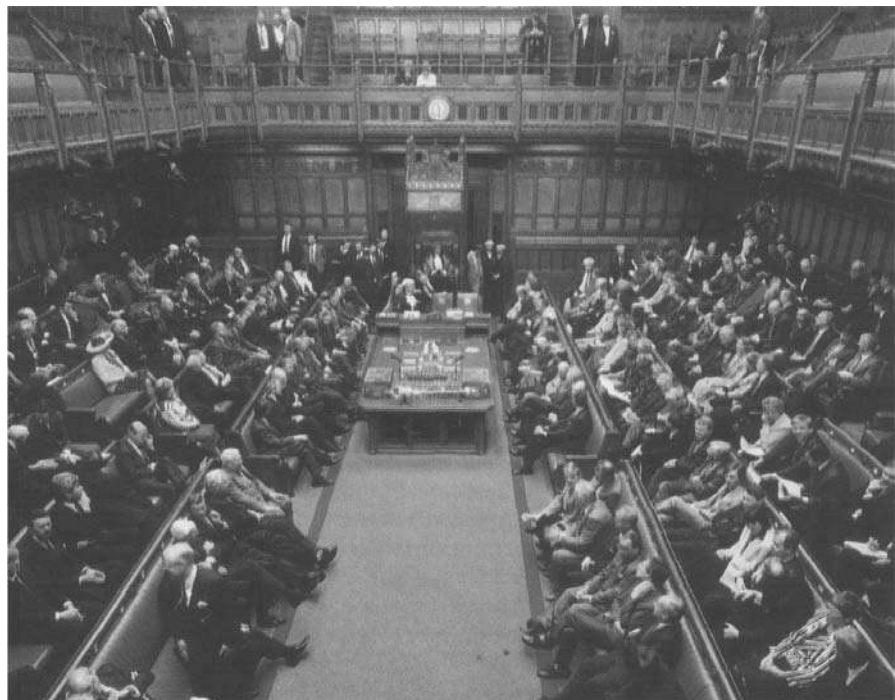
informed of forthcoming parliamentary business, ensuring the attendance of members and their party vote.

Each House has its Speaker (the Lord Chancellor in the House of Lords). The Speaker of the House of Commons presides over the House of Commons. It is a very important position. In fact, the Speaker is, officially, the second most important 'commoner' in the Kingdom after the Prime Minister. In debate all speeches are addressed to him or her and he/she decides which MP is going to speak next. If he/she rises to give a ruling upon a doubtful point, or for any other reason, he/she must be heard in silence, and while he/she is on his/her feet no other MP may remain standing. She/he makes sure that the rules of procedure are followed. Voting in the House is carried out under the direction of the Speaker, whose duty is to pronounce the final result. In case of a tied vote (when an equal number of votes is cast) the Speaker must give his or her decisive vote. The Speaker has the power to demand a public apology from an MP or even to ban an MP from the House for a number of days. It should be noted that after being elected the Speaker does not belong to a party any longer.

In the House of Lords the Lord Chancellor has no authority to control debate. Members of the House of Lords do not address themselves to the Lord Chancellor during debates, but to their fellow members in the House. If, during a debate, two peers rise to their feet at the same time, the House itself determines who shall speak: the Lord Chancellor has no power to decide which peer shall take the floor.

The House of Commons. The prime minister and Cabinet members sit on the front bench on one side of the meeting room, at left in photo.

The leading members of the largest opposition party sit on the front bench on the other side



The chamber where the House of Commons meets is very small. This chamber was built to hold only 437 of a total of 659 MPs (529 for England, 72 for Scotland, 40 for Wales, 18 for Northern Ireland). This creates a better atmosphere for discussion than would be possible in a larger chamber. 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.

There are two rows of benches facing each other in the House. One row is the government benches, where the MPs of the governing party sit. The other row is the opposition benches.

A vote in the House is taken by means of a division. Members voting 'Aye' go out of the chamber into the lobby on the right of the Speaker, while those voting 'No' pass into the lobby on his left. Members' votes are recorded by four clerks (whose records are printed the following day in the official 'Division Lists', and also recorded in 'Hansard') and four tellers (two MPs from each side of the House).

The work of the House includes the following:

- a) legislation: the House spends nearly half its time making laws;
- b) controlling finance: before the Government can raise or spend money, it must have permission from the House of Commons;
- c) scrutinizing (examining in detail) the Government by asking questions, by holding debates and by committee work.

The members of the House of Lords are not elected and are unpaid (except for ministers, government Whips, the Leader and Chief Whip of the main opposition party, and two Chairmen of Committees), but they are entitled to reimbursement of their expenses, within maximum limits for each day on which they attend the House.

The House of Lords is made up of the Lords Spiritual and the Lords Temporal; the former consists of the representatives of the Church of England (the Archbishops of York and Canterbury and 24 senior bishops); the latter comprises all hereditary peers (those who inherited their titles), and life peers about 577 (life peers, named by the sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister, do not pass on their title when they die), and the Lords of Appeal (Law Lords). In 1999 the House of Commons passed a bill introduced by the Labour Government aiming to deprive hereditary Lords of their right to sit in the house. As a result only 92 hereditary peers sit by virtue of hereditary peerage, 75 of whom were elected by their respective party groups. The remaining 17 are office

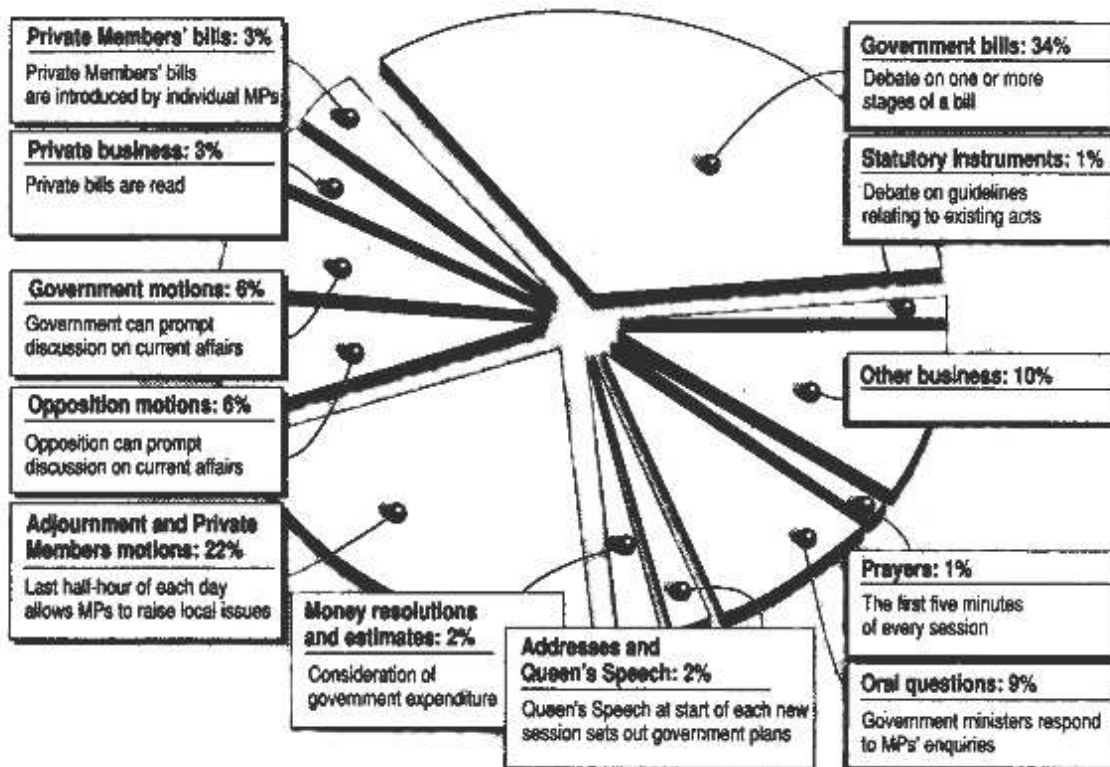
holders or have ceremonial offices. The most senior judges also sit in the House of Lords as Lords of Appeal ('Law Lords'). Now the House of Lords consists of some 675 peers in total (May 2001) as compared to 1,213 peers (October 1999).

The House of Lords is also the final court of appeal for civil cases in the United Kingdom and criminal cases in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Only the Lords of Appeal (Law Lords) – of whom there are 12 employed full-time – take part in judicial proceedings. The work of the House of Lords includes:

- a) legislation: reviewing and giving further consideration to Bills sponsored (supported, presented) by the Government;
- b) examining the work of the Government by debate;
- c) examining European proposals;
- d) hearing legal appeals.

How MPs spend their time

Division of time in the House of Commons 1987-88. Percentages rounded to the nearest whole number. An MP's day in Parliament begins in the afternoon; the mornings are taken up with constituency work.



Legislative Proceedings

For a law to be enacted it must be approved by the Queen in Parliament. That is a Bill (a draft law) must be presented and go through all the necessary stages in both Houses of Parliament. The monarch also has to give the Bill the

Royal Assent, which is now just a formality. Since the sixteenth century the monarch has never refused assent. The Bill then becomes an Act and comes into force on the day in which it receives the Royal Assent, unless some other date is expressly provided. There are two main types of Bill – Public Bills and Private Bills. Public Bills are the most important, as they are intended to affect the public as a whole. They can either be sponsored by the Government when it wants to put new policies into effect, or they can be sponsored by an individual. These are then called Private Member's Bills and often concern moral issues. The Murder (Abolition of the Death Penalty) Bill began as a Private Member's Bill. These should not be confused with Private Bills.

Private Bills give particular powers or benefits to any person or body. They are intended to affect only one particular area or organisation, not the whole country.

Before a Bill reaches parliament it is prepared by a Department of State, such as the Department of Education or Science, the Home Office or the Foreign Office. A Bill may be preceded by a Green Paper, which gives a general idea of what the Government intends to do. At this stage, people who might be affected by the new law are invited to give their views. However, it is more common for a White Paper – a more definite statement of what the Government plans – to precede a Bill.

Before a Bill can go through all its stages in parliament it has to be written down, or drafted. The Bill has to be exact, so that no misunderstandings can occur and so it can be understood by as many people as possible.

First and second readings. In the days before printing, the only way MPs could find out what a Bill contained was by having the contents read out to them. Therefore the next stages within parliament are known as 'readings', although now MPs do have a printed copy! The first reading lets MPs know that the Bill is coming up for discussion. There is no voting at this stage. The second reading explains the purpose of the Bill, and the House has to vote on it. If the House votes for the Bill, it proceeds to the Committee stage.

The Committee stage. This involves a small group – or committee – of about 18 MPs looking in detail at the Bill and suggesting amendments. This stage is present because of time limits in the House of Commons.

The Report stage. The House of Commons is told what the Committee decided and considers the proposed amendments.

Third reading gives the House of Commons a chance to look at the Bill and debate it as a whole.

Consideration by the House of Lords. Once it has passed its third reading, the Bill is carried to the House of Lords where it goes through the same stages. The Committee stage in the House of Lords differs from that in the House of Commons in that it is conducted in the chamber of the House itself, not in a committee room. Any Lord who is interested in the Bill can take part in the discussion.

The Royal Assent. If the Bill passes this process, it is automatically given the Royal Assent. However, if the Lords have made any changes to the Bill, it is taken back to the House of Commons. If the House of Commons does not agree with the changes they send a note to the Lords explaining the reasons. A Bill may go to and fro until an agreement can be reached. If the two Houses are unable to agree, the Commons can reintroduce the Bill the following year, when the Lords have to accept it, so a compromise is usually reached quite early on. The whole process, from the first reading to Royal Assent can take from a few days up to 11 months.

Both Houses of Parliament have an organised system of committees which comprises: committees of the whole House, select committees, House of Commons standing committees on public Bills, joint committees of both Houses sitting and voting together, and private Bill committees.

Either House may resolve itself into a committee (of the whole House) to consider Bills in detail, clause by clause after their second reading. Proceedings in the committee of the whole House are conducted on the same lines as normally followed by the House, except that the committee is presided over by a chairperson instead of the Speaker (the Chairman of Ways and Means in the Commons, and the Chairman of Committees in the Lords). Select committees are generally set up to help Parliament with the control of the executive by examining some aspect of administration and reporting their conclusions to the House. Standing committees of the House of Commons include those appointed to examine public Bills at the committee stage, and, in certain cases, at the second reading and report stages. In standing committees the balance of parties reflects that in the House as a whole.

Joint committees are committees of members of both Houses appointed to consider either a particular issue or a particular Bill, or to consider all Bills of a particular description, for example, Bills dealing with the statute law revision. The proposal to send a particular Bill to a joint committee must come from the House in which the Bill is originated. The members of the joint committee are chosen in equal number by the respective Houses.

BRITISH GOVERNMENT

Whitehall is the name of the street in London which runs from Trafalgar Square to the Houses of Parliament. The Foreign and Commonwealth Office and the Ministry of Defence are both located here. These are the two oldest government departments. That's why the term 'Whitehall' is sometimes used to refer to the government as a whole.

Her Majesty's Government is the body of ministers responsible for the conduct of national affairs. The leader of the party which obtains a majority of seats in a general election is named Prime Minister and is formally asked by Sovereign to recommend a group of ministers to form a government. Most ministers are members of the House of Commons, although the Government is also fully represented by ministers in the Lords.

The term 'the government' can be used to refer to all of the politicians who have been appointed by the Queen (on the advice of the Prime Minister) to help run government departments (there are several politicians in each department) or to take on various other special responsibilities, such as managing the activities of Parliament. There are normally about a hundred members of the government. Although there are various ranks, each with their own titles, members of the government are usually known as 'ministers'. Most heads of government departments have the title 'Secretary of State'. The minister in charge of Britain's relations with the outside world is known as the 'Foreign Secretary'. The one in charge of law and order inside the country is the 'Home Secretary'. Another important person is the 'Chancellor of the Exchequer', who is the head of the Treasury. The Lord Chancellor holds a special position being a minister with departmental functions and also the head of the judiciary in England and Wales.

Non-departmental Ministers. These are holders of various traditional offices, namely the Lord President of the Council, the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, the Lord Privy Seal, the Paymaster General and, from time to time, Ministers without Portfolio, may have few or no department duties. They are therefore available to perform any duties the Prime Minister may wish to give them.

Ministers of State and Junior Ministers. Ministers of State usually work with ministers in charge of departments. They normally have specific responsibilities, and are sometimes given titles which reflect these functions. More than one may work in a department. A Minister of State may be given a seat in the Cabinet and be paid accordingly. Junior Ministers – generally Parliamentary Under-Secretaries of State or, where the senior minister is not a Secretary of State, simply Parliamentary Secretaries – share in parliamentary and departmental duties. They may also be given responsibility, directly under the departmental minister, for specific aspects of the department's work.

The other meaning of the term 'the government' is more limited. It refers only to the most powerful politicians who are invited by the Prime Minister to attend regular meetings to discuss policy. This group of ministers is known as the Cabinet. It is a political convention for the Cabinet to act as a single man, which means that a minister who cannot accept a Cabinet decision must resign. The Cabinet is composed of about 20 ministers and may include departmental and non-departmental ministers. The Prime Minister may make changes in the size of their Cabinet and make create new ministers or make other changes. The Cabinet as such is not recognised by any formal law, and it has no formal powers but only real powers. The Cabinet meets once a week and takes decisions about new policies, the implementation of existing policies, and the running of the various government departments.

The largest minority party becomes the official opposition with its own leader and its own 'shadow cabinet' whose members act as spokesmen on the subjects for which government ministers have responsibility.

PRIME MINISTER

The head of the Government is Prime Minister. He is also, by tradition, First Lord of the Treasury and Minister for the Civil Service. The Prime Minister presides over the Cabinet, is responsible for the allocation of functions among ministers, informs the Queen at regular meetings of the general business of the Government, and recommends a number of appointments to the Queen. The British Prime Minister has lived at 10 Downing Street since 1731. From the outside it doesn't look special. It is not even a detached house! Inside, though it is much larger than it looks. The Cabinet meets here and the Cabinet office works here. The Prime Minister lives 'above the shop' on the top floor. The Chancellor of the Exchequer lives next door, at No. 11, and the Government Chief Whip at No. 12.

Progress Questions and Assignments

1. Answer the following questions:

1. What differs British Constitution from that of other countries?
2. What are the main sources of the British Constitution?
3. Name the first legal documents with limited the power of British monarchs.
4. What are the British Queen's duties?
5. Describe the separation of powers under the British Constitution.
6. What are the main characteristics of the general election in the UK?

7. What are the main characteristics of the bye-election in the UK?
8. What are the main political parties in the UK?
9. What is the structure and functions of the British Parliament?
10. Name the main office-holders in the House of Commons and the House of Lords.
11. Give an overview of the functions of the both Houses.
12. How much has the House of Lords changed since the House of Lords Act of 1999?
13. What are the main consequences of the reform in the House of Lords?
14. What are the two main types of Bills in the UK?
15. How does a Bill become a Law? Outline the main legislative proceedings in the British Parliament.
16. Give an overview of the structure, composition and functions of the British Government.
17. Who becomes the Prime Minister in the UK? What are his duties?
18. When the Commons decide to vote, they do not vote immediately. Instead a 'division bell' rings throughout the Palace of Westminster, after which MPs have ten minutes in which to vote. Why?

II. Do the following tasks:

1. Royal Britain.

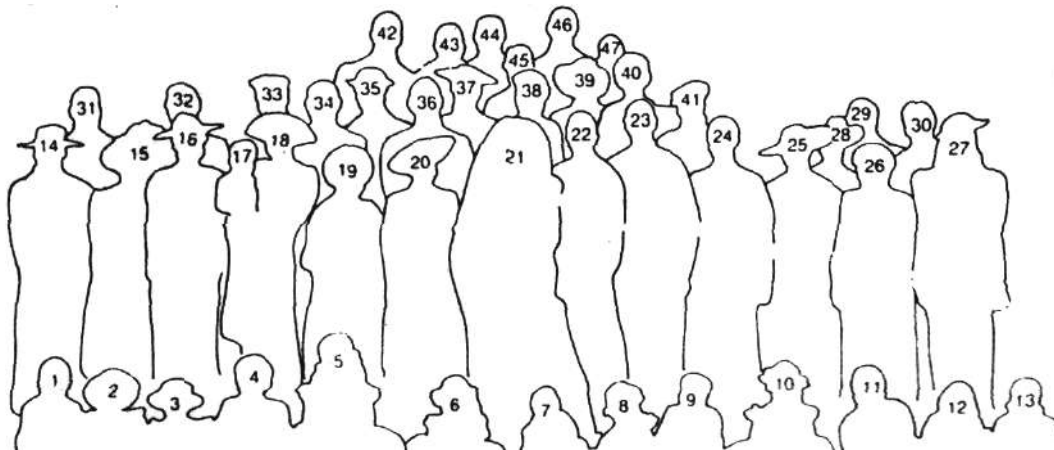


a. This photograph shows four generations of the British royal family. It was taken in 1986 at the wedding of Prince Andrew and his bride, Sarah Ferguson. Can you find Queen Elizabeth, Prince Charles and Princess Diana? Use phrases from the Phrase Box to describe where they are.

PHRASE BOX

- in the (second) row,
- (fourth) from the left / right
- to the left / right of (the bride)
- on (the bride's) left / right
- next to / behind / in front of (Prince Charles)

b. Read the text and identify other members of the royal family. What number is each one in the diagram?



Queen Elizabeth is standing on the bride's right. Her husband, Prince Philip Duke of Edinburgh, is in the third row standing right behind his wife. They have four children: Prince Charles, who is standing behind his wife next to his father, Princess Anne (third from the left in the second row), Prince Andrew, and Prince Edward (fourth from the right in the second row). Prince Charles and Princess Diana have two sons: Prince Henry, who is in his mother's arms, and Prince William, sitting in front of the bride. On the Queen's right is Queen Elizabeth the Queen Mother. The Queen's sister, Princess Margaret, is standing to the left of Princess Anne. Princess Anne's husband, Captain Mark Phillips, is in the third row, second from the left.

c. The notes below (1 – 6) refer to two more members of the Royal Family.

a) Who do they describe?

b) Separate the notes and write profiles about the two people.

1) given title after marriage in 1986;

2) married Duke of York, second son of George V, in 1923;

3) educated at Gordonstoun School (Scotland), Lakefield College (Canada) and the Royal Naval College, Dartmouth;

4) commissioned in the Royal Marines, qualifying as a helicopter pilot and seeing active service in 1982;

5) since George VI's death in 1952 has continued to undertake many public duties at home and abroad;

6) became Queen in 1937 after abdication of brother-in-law, Edward VIII.

d. Work in a group and complete the Royal Family Profiles.

Royal Family Profiles

1

_____ became British monarch on 6 February 1952 upon the death of her father, King George VI. She was crowned the following year in Westminster Abbey. Her official birthday, the second Saturday in June, is marked by the Trooping of the Colour, a ceremony during which regiments of the Guards Division and the Household Cavalry parade (troop) the regimental flag (colour) before the sovereign.

She has an income of £7.9 million per year from the civil list (an annual allowance approved by Parliament, made to members of the Royal Family for the expense involved in carrying out their public duties).

Among her many duties are the regular visits she makes to foreign countries and especially those of the Commonwealth, whose interests and welfare are very important to her.

2

_____ is the Queen's eldest son and heir-apparent to the throne. He was given this title, traditionally given by the British sovereign to his or her eldest son at Caernarfon Castle in Wales, in 1969.

The Prince is well-known as a keen promoter of British causes abroad and of the interests of the general public at home. He set up the Prince's Trust in 1976 to provide recreation and leisure facilities for deprived young people.

3

_____ is the principal title of the Queen's husband. It was bestowed upon him after his marriage to the then Princess Elizabeth in 1947.

The Duke has taken a great deal of interest in the achievements of young people – in 1956 he founded the Duke of Edinburgh's Award Scheme (through which awards are made to young people between the ages of 14 and 21 for enterprise, initiative and achievement).

4

_____ is the Queen's only daughter and eighth in line to the throne. She was given this title by her mother in 1987.

She is a keen and capable horsewoman and won the European Championships in 1971. For this she was voted Sports Personality of the Year by millions of TV viewers. She also represented Britain in the 1976 Olympics in Montreal. Since 1970 she has gained admiration and respect for her tireless work as President of the Save the Children Fund.

e. Work with a partner. Read the sentences and choose a, b, or c, according to what you think is probably correct. Then read about the Queen's Day and check your guesses.

THE QUEEN'S DAY

1. While the Queen has breakfast
- lots of servants wait on her;
 - one servant waits on her
 - no servants wait on her.

2. The Queen's mother lives near Buckingham Palace. The Queen telephones her for a chat
- every morning
 - once a week
 - about once a month.

3. Unless she is going out on an official visit, the Queen spends a couple of hours every morning
- doing whatever she feels like
 - studying government papers and reports.
 - looking after domestic matters in the Palace.

4. The Queen sees
- every letter that is sent to her
 - a random selection of the letters sent to her
 - only letters from friends and relatives.

The Queen's day begins when a maid tiptoes into her bedroom, opens the curtains, lays out the clothes that the Queen will wear that day, and goes into the bathroom to run the water for the Queen's bath.

The Queen has breakfast with Prince Philip. They both go quickly through the newspapers as they eat their breakfast. An array of covered dishes sits on hotplates from which they can help themselves. No servant waits on them, so that they can chat privately and freely.

Breakfast finished, the Queen goes to her large sitting room, which is also her study. The first thing she does is to pick up one of the two phones on her desk and call her mother for a brief chat. She then settles down to what is perhaps the most important of her royal duties, what she calls 'doing my boxes'. These contain all the reports, secret and otherwise, from government departments. She takes this job very seriously and never misses it, even when on holiday at Balmoral, in bed with flu, or abroad on a State visit.

Every year Buckingham Palace receives over 10,000 letters. While the Queen is working at her desk, one of her Private Secretaries brings her a basket of letters, for she likes

5. Her clothes designers try to make sure her clothes are
- examples of the latest fashions
 - as expensive as possible
 - very practical.

6. What happens to the Queen's old clothes?
- They are sold for charity
 - The Queen keeps them all
 - The answer to the question is a well kept secret.

7. The Queen's dogs are fed
- by the Queen herself
 - by the head cook in the royal kitchens
 - by a special dog servant.

8. If the Queen spends the evening at home
- she sometimes watches a comedy programme on television
 - she only watches the news on television
 - she never watches television



to see every letter sent to her. Many are answered in her name, but she herself only writes private and personal letters to friends and relatives. The rest of the morning may be spent receiving people 'in audience': ambassadors, military personnel, bishops and so on.

Afternoons vary. Sometimes there may be official engagements in or close to London. Part of Monday afternoon is always reserved for her hairdresser. Other afternoons she may spend a couple of hours with her shoemaker, milliner or one of her three main fashion designers to plan her clothes for a forthcoming visit abroad.



Her designers have to keep a few basic points always in mind. There must not be too many buttons, for a quick change is often necessary and the Queen must be able to slip her clothes off and on very easily. Colours should be bright and sharp so that she stands out in a crowd. Her hats must be small so that her face is not in shadow. Hemlines are 'weighted' so that her skirts will not be blown up by a sudden breeze. Shoes must be comfortable rather

than fashionable for she may have to stand a long time in them.

People often ask what happens to her old clothes. Probably her favourite tartans and sweaters keep on being worn at Sandringham and Balmoral, but the people who know what happens to the other clothes are not going to give away the secret.



Every afternoon at teatime the Queen likes to feed her beloved Corgi dogs herself. Using a silver spoon and fork, she mixes chopped up dog meat and dog biscuits with a little gravy and puts it in their feeding bowls on the red carpet in the corridor outside her sitting room.

If there are no evening engagements (the Queen undertakes fewer of them these days) she will go to her study after dinner to deal with

anything that has appeared on her desk since she was last there. Then she can take off her shoes, lie on the sofa and relax with her feet up. Sometimes she watches television if there is a programme that interests her — a good comedy show, a programme about horses and horse-racing, or a serial about one of her royal ancestors. If nothing interests her, she will do a crossword puzzle or chat with her husband. By half past ten it is usually time for bed.

2. General Elections.

Listen to the radio interviews with the Roger Stott, a Labour Member of Parliament and Peter Kellner, political correspondent of the newspaper the Independent. Listen and answer the questions below. Before you listen check the meaning of the following words: *polling card*, *electoral register*, *ballot paper*,

ballot box, the Returning Officer, a system of Proportional Representation, nitty-gritty.

- 1) Speak on the polling day.
- 2) What election system is aimed to be introduced to replace first past the post system? What system is it? Which system do you think is fairer? Why?
- 3) Who can stand for the Parliament?
- 4) What three categories can candidates be divided into?

3. Political Parties.

Complete the table using the information below:

A guide to British political parties

	Conservative	Labour	Liberal Democrats
History			
Policies/Traditional outlook			
Organisation			
Leader			
Voters			
Money			
Symbol			

History: a) formed at the beginning of the twentieth century from an alliance of trade unionists and intellectuals. First government in 1923;

b) developed from the group of MPs known as the Tories in the early nineteenth century and still often known informally by that name (especially in newspapers, because it takes up less space!);

c) formed in the late 1980s from a union of the Liberals (who developed from the Whigs of the early nineteenth century) and the Social Democrats (a breakaway group of Labour politicians).

Policies: a) regarded as in the centre or slightly left of centre; has always been strongly in favour of the EU; places more emphasis on the environment than other parties; believes in giving greater powers to local government and in reform of the electoral system;

b) right of centre; stands for hierarchical authority and minimal government interference in the economy; likes to reduce income tax; gives high priority to national defence and internal law and order. Since 1979 opposition to Conservative reforms, although has accepted many of these by now; recently, emphasis on community ethics and looser links with trade unions;

c) left of centre; stands for equality, for the weaker people in society and for more government involvement in the economy; more concerned to provide full social services than to keep income tax low. Since 1979 aggressive reform of education, welfare, housing and many public services designed to increase consumer-choice and/or to introduce 'market economics' into their operation.

Organization: a) leader has relatively great degree of freedom to direct policy;

b) in theory, policies have to be approved by annual conference; in practice, leader has more power than this implies.

Leader: a) December 1999 William Hague;

b) December 1999 Tony Blair;

c) December 1999 Charles Kennedy.

- Voters:* a) the richer sections of society, plus a large minority of the working classes;
 b) working class, plus a small middle-class intelligentsia;
 c) from all classes, but more from the middle class.
- Money:* a) more than half from trade unions;
 b) private donations (much poorer than the big two);
 c) mostly donations from business people.
- Symbol:* a) blue flaming torch;
 b) yellow bird (pigeon);
 c) red rose.

4. Parliament.

- a) Look up the meaning of ‘Commons’ and ‘Lord’ in a dictionary.
 b) What is the difference between the Commons and the Lords? Why did some people think that the House of Lords needed to be reformed? What are the three main components of the British Parliament? Which of the following people would not have a seat in the House of Lords?

<i>All judges</i>	<i>Bishops</i>	<i>Policemen</i>	<i>MPs</i>
<i>Dukes</i>	<i>The Lord Chancellor</i>	<i>Nuns</i>	<i>Barons</i>
<i>Sons of life peers</i>			

- c) Read and find out:
- Why does the House of Commons become crowded?
 - Why are there two red lines running down the middle of the Commons chamber?

KEY WORDS: Speaker, chair, red lines, front benches, Government, Opposition, table.

The House of Commons

There are 659 MPs in Britain, but the Chamber of the House of Commons is quite small: it has seats for only 437, so when there is something important to discuss it can become very crowded and MPs squeeze on to the benches or sit on the steps. The House of Commons has a chairman, called the **Speaker**, whose job is to keep the House in order, a little like a referee at a football match. He or she shouts ‘Order! Order!’ when MPs start shouting at each other, or when the discussion gets out of control. The Speaker sits in the centre at the back, on a high **chair**, and can see the whole Chamber from this position. The office of Speaker is neutral, i.e. he or she is not a member of a political party.

There are **red lines** running along each side of the Chamber. This means the Chamber is divided in two. Since Britain traditionally has two main political parties, the Conservative Party and the Labour Party, each party can have its own side! The party which is in government (i.e. has the most MPs elected) sits on the right. The two red lines on the floor must not be crossed, to prevent either side attacking the other during a debate. MPs in Britain do not normally use physical violence, but the red lines are a historical tradition: in the past, MPs used to carry swords into the Chamber and the distance between the two lines is too wide for a sword fight!

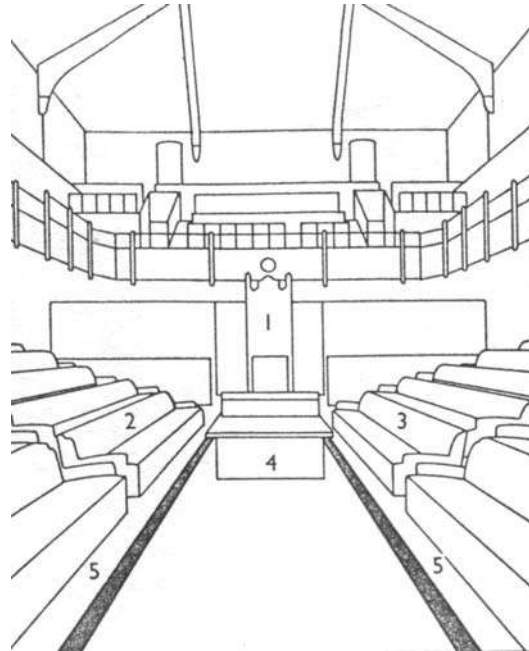
The most important MPs sit on the **front benches** and are therefore called frontbenchers. Younger and less experienced MPs sit on the back benches and are known as backbenchers. The ministers of the **Government** sit on the front bench to the right, whilst the **Opposition** frontbenchers sit on the left. When the Prime Minister (the leader of the party in government) or any other leading politician makes a speech, they stand at the **table** in the centre, below the Speaker's chair. These seating arrangements have existed for hundreds of years.

– Use the picture and text to identify the following:

- The Opposition frontbench*
- The Speaker's chair*
- The Table of the House*
- Red lines on the floor*
- The Government frontbench*

d) Listen to the tape and answer the questions:

- What does the Queen put on before opening Parliament? Where does she do it?
- What does the Lord Chancellor sit on? Why?
- What is the symbol of Royal Authority?



- What shows that Parliament is sitting during day light hours and at night?
- What is Big Ben? Who was it named after?

e) Read the article and find answers to these questions about the Queen's speech:

- Who writes the speech?
- Who reads the speech?
- Whose views does the speech represent?
- Where exactly is the speech made?
- Who is present while the speech is made?
- On what day of week is the speech made?
- In which month?
- At what time?

The right royal State Opening of Parliament

Tomorrow the Queen will open Parliament for what could be its last session before a general Election. The opening ceremony will be a mixture of pageantry and serious political business. Once the Queen has taken her seat on the throne in the House of Lords she will read a speech outlining the new laws the Government is planning to make in the forthcoming parliamentary year.

But the title “Queen’s Speech” is misleading. It is not really the Queen’s Speech at all, but the Government’s. It is prepared by the Prime Minister and his or her colleagues and is read by the Queen. It is not an expression of the Queen’s own views.

The Queen’s Speech always takes place on a Wednesday in November, in the House of Lords at 11 a.m. It is the centerpiece of the State Opening of Parliament. This is the event where the Queen puts on her glittering ceremonial dress and crown and speaks from a throne, watched by her husband, other members of her family and assembled Lords and MPs. The ceremony begins with a procession of carriages from Buckingham Palace, bearing the Queen and her family. On arrival at the House of Lords, she makes her way to the chamber, where the throne is situated, to make her speech. This has been the practice since 1536. She is greeted in the Lords by the peers and peeresses in ermine robes. In the Commons, MPs are waiting to be summoned, dressed slightly less glamorously.

It is a long-standing tradition that the Monarch never enters the House of Commons. Instead he or she uses a messenger, the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod, usually known as Black Rod, to summon MPs to the Lords.



As Black Rod approaches the Commons chamber across the Central Lobby of the Houses of Parliament, the door of the Commons is traditionally slammed in his face, a custom which dates from the time Charles I tried to arrest five MPs in 1642.

Black Rod then raps three times on the door with his ebony stick and the door is opened. He proceeds, bowing all the time to the table in front of the Speaker, to summon MPs to the Lords. The Speaker, followed by the Prime Minister and the Leader of the Opposition, then makes their way into the Lords, followed by MPs walking two by two, to hear the speech.

f) Read the list of events below and try to put them in order:

- The Speaker of the House of Commons, the Prime Minister and the Leader of the main opposition party lead the other MPs to the House of Lords.
- The Queen puts on her ceremonial dress and crown.
- The Queen goes to the throne in the chamber of the House of Lords.
- Members of the House of Lords, in their ceremonial dress, greet the Queen on her arrival there.
- The Queen reads her speech at 11 a.m.
- The Queen sends her messenger to the House of Commons to call MPs to the House of Lords.
- The Royal Family drive from Buckingham Palace to the House of Lords.

– The door is closed as the Queen’s messenger approaches so he knocks on it three times and then enters.

g) What do you think of this ceremony? Which of these words do you think describes it best?

beautiful traditional historic silly pompous

5. Forming a Government.

Pre-reading.

Read and find out:

- a) Who is the Prime Minister?
- b) What is the Cabinet?
- c) Where does the government meet?

The Cabinet

The party which wins the most seats in the general Election forms the government. The leader of the winning party becomes Prime Minister.

As leaders of their political parties and leaders of the country, Prime Ministers are powerful and important people. They are powerful because they have the majority support in Parliament and they can choose their own ministers and government.

The PM chooses a committee of ministers called the Cabinet. This is made up of a selection of senior MPs from the House of Commons and some members of the House of Lords.

Each member of the Cabinet is a minister responsible for a government department: for example, the Secretary of State for Education and Science is responsible for all the schools, universities and teachers in Britain. The Cabinet of ministers runs the country.

The Cabinet works as a team and all ministers must accept the decisions of the ‘group’. The team of ministers must always agree in public because they are collectively responsible for the decisions they make. If a minister cannot agree with all the others, he usually resigns from the cabinet. Cabinet meetings are held in private and the details must remain secret for at least 30 years. It has been argued that Margaret Thatcher tried to change this style of cabinet and she was forced to resign when the other ministers could not agree with her.

Cabinet ministers cannot, however, do as they please! They are responsible to Parliament and must answer questions from backbenchers in the House of Commons. Even the Prime Minister must answer questions every Tuesday and Thursday in the Commons – this is called Prime Minister’s Question Time and can be one of the most interesting discussions in British politics. Everyone wants to know what has been decided behind the closed doors of the Cabinet Room!

Reading comprehension.

Read the text and answer True or False:

- The Prime Minister is the oldest MP.
- The Prime Minister’s party has the most MPs.
- The Cabinet is chosen by the votes.
- All Cabinet ministers must agree in public.
- The Prime Minister does not have to explain his or her actions.

Interpretation.

Look at the charts and answer the questions:

The most important ministers

Minister	Responsibility
Chancellor of the Exchequer	Government spending. Present the Budget annually in March. Lives at 11 Downing Street.
Foreign Secretary	Relations with other countries.
Home Secretary	Internal relations. The police, law and order (prisons, criminals), law courts.

- Who does these jobs in your country?
- Which British minister would do the following jobs? (represent Britain at an international meeting; decide how much tax people should pay on their income; announce reforms in the legal system)
- Which minister works in the following places: at the Foreign Office; next door to the Prime Minister; at the Home Office.

Prime Ministers since 1945

Election	Period of office	Prime Minister	Party
1945	1945-1950	Attlee	Labour
1950	1950-1951	Attlee	Labour
1951	1951-1955	Churchill	Conservative
1955	1955-1957	Eden	Conservative
	1957-1959	Macmillan	Conservative
1959	1959-1963	Macmillan	Conservative
	1963-1964	Home	Conservative
1964	1964-1966	Wilson	Labour
1966	1966-1970	Wilson	Labour
1970	1970-1974	Heath	Conservative
1974	1974-1976	Wilson	Labour
	1976-1979	Callaghan	Labour
1979	1979-1983	Thatcher	Conservative
1983	1983-1987	Thatcher	Conservative
1987	1987-1990	Thatcher	Conservative
	1990-1992	Major	Conservative
1992	1992-1997	Major	Conservative
1997	1997-1999	Blair	Labour
2000	2000-2005	Blair	Labour
2005	2005-	Blair	Labour

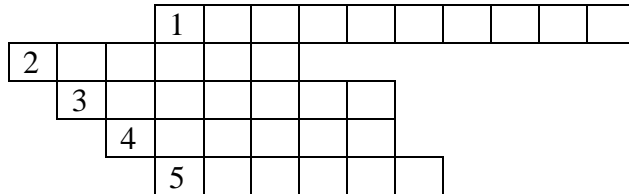
- What is the longest period between general elections?
- Which two political parties have dominated British politics since 1945?
- Which Prime Minister has spent most time in office?
- Do you know the name of the present Prime Minister? When was he/she elected?
- Which political party is in power at the moment?

Activity.

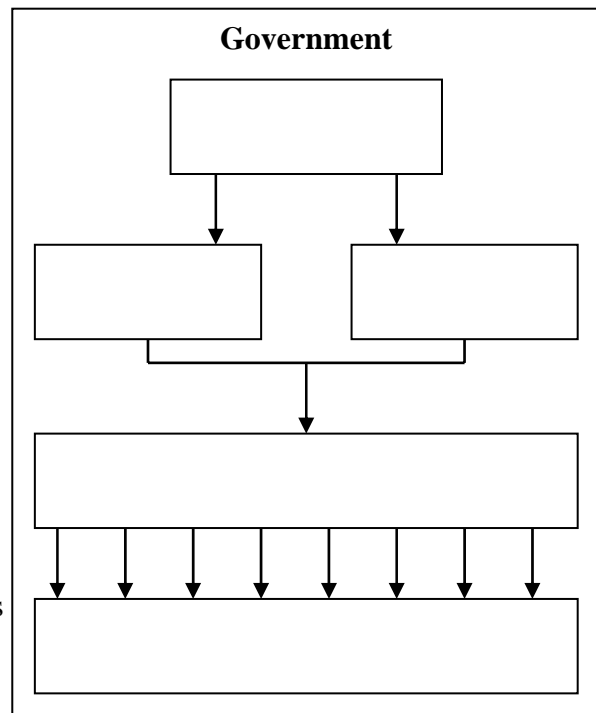
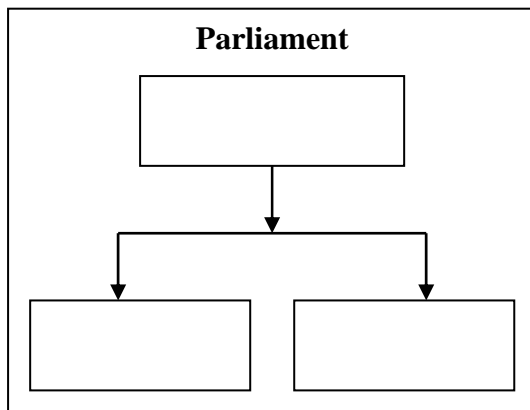
Complete the puzzle.

The Prime Minister's Puzzle

1. The Prime Minister answers questions here twice a week.
2. The opposition party in 1992.
3. The most famous street in British politics.
4. Cabinet discussions must remain this for 30 years.
5. A minister who cannot agree with the rest of the Cabinet in public must do this.



6. Complete the diagram using the words below.



- | | |
|----------------|------------------------|
| Senior MPs | Members of the Lords |
| The Queen | House of Commons |
| House of Lords | Government departments |
| Prime Minister | The Cabinet |

III. Project.

Write an essay (300 – 350 words) giving a survey of the Commonwealth of Nations.

SEMINAR 6

1. Describe the United Kingdom as a constitutional monarchy (the Constitution, functions of the Queen, Magna Carta, the Bill of Rights, separation of Powers).
2. Examine the legislative procedure.
3. Speak on the electoral system in Britain.
4. Speak on the main political parties of the United Kingdom.

5. Speak on the composition, main functions, main office holders, organisation of the work of the British Parliament.
6. Speak on the British Government, Prime Minister.

Round Britain Quiz

1. The United Kingdom is divided in 659 parliamentary ____.
2. A ____ ____ takes place every four or five years.
3. While the Conservatives are in power, Labour forms the official ____.
4. ‘Her Most Excellent Majesty ____ the Second by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith’ is the official title of the British Queen.
5. Among her many titles the ____ ____ (Princess Anne) is Chancellor of the University of London, Colonel-in-Chief of eleven Army regiments, including the 8th Canadian Hussars and the Royal New Zealand Nursing Corps, and President of the Save the Children Fund.
6. ____ ____ was Prime Minister from 1979 to 1990. She was the first woman Prime Minister that Britain had had.
7. After every general election, MPs elect one of their number to chair their debates and to make sure they obey the rules of Parliament. This MP is called ____.
8. The ____ party, the ____ party and the ____ party are the largest British parties.
9. When an MP dies a ____-____ is held to choose a new MP.
10. The first Parliament in Britain was held in ____ by ____ de ____.
11. The Queen was born on 25 April _____. She also has an official birthday in the month of _____. This is marked by one of many state occasions – the ‘Trooping of the Colour’.
12. The Queen has four children. Prince Charles, the eldest, is heir to the throne. His elder son, Prince ____ is next in line.
13. Queen Elizabeth II, the current British monarch, was crowned in ____.
14. Other countries have ‘citizens’. But in Britain people are legally described as ‘____’ (of Her Majesty the Queen).
15. Before a proposal for a new law starts its progress through Parliament, there will have been much discussion. If it is a government proposal, ____ and ____ Papers will probably have been published, explaining the ideas behind the proposal.
16. The first document limiting the king’s power was ‘____ ____’ signed by King John in ____.

CHAPTER VII

NATIONAL ECONOMY

LECTURE 7

Within the system of contemporary capitalism Great Britain has lost its former position as the leading industrial nation of the world. Britain today is fifth in size of its Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and 23rd in terms of GDP per head among the capitalist countries of the world. Britain's share in world trade is about 6 %, which means it is also the fifth largest trading nation in the world.

The manufacturing and service industries, together with construction, account for about 93 % of Britain's GDP; the rest is shared by energy production and agriculture. As in other developed countries, rising living standards have led to a growth of the role of services.

After World War II Britain experienced an accelerated growth of monopolies and their subsequent mergers. The export of capital abroad continues to be a major factor in its development. In terms of foreign investments Britain was second only to the United States. However, unlike the past the bulk of foreign investments is directed not to the extracting industries of the former colonies but mainly to the manufacturing industries of West European countries.

The monopolies in the country lay special emphasis on the development of such branches of the manufacturing and chemical industries which require high-skilled labour. As a result a number of industries such as aerospace, chemicals, oil, gas, electronics, biotechnology have gained strength while textiles and some other traditional industries, including steel and shipbuilding, have contracted.

The British economy is primarily based on private enterprise. However, from 1945 until 1980 the general trend was for the state to have more and more control. Various industries became nationalized, especially those concerned with the production and distribution of energy. So too did the various forms of transport and communication services (as well, of course, as the provision of education, social welfare and health care). From 1980 the trend started going in the other direction. Between 1980 and 1994 a large number of companies were privatized (or denationalized). That is, they were sold off by the government and state-owned companies turned into companies owned by individuals (who became shareholders). This approach was a major part of the thinking of Thatcherism (Margaret Thatcher was Prime Minister at that time). The privatization of services has necessitated the creation of various public

'watchdog' organizations with regulatory powers over the industries which they monitor. For example, Offtel monitors the activities of the privatized telephone industry, and OffWat monitors the privatized water companies. Today 75 % of the economy is controlled by the private sector which employs $\frac{3}{4}$ of the labour force.

SERVICE INDUSTRIES

Service industries account for about two-thirds of the United Kingdom's gross domestic product. More than 70 % of British workers are employed in service industries. The country's service industries are concentrated in and near its largest cities, especially London.

Finance, insurance, and real estate is the most important service industry in Britain. This industry accounts for a larger portion of the United Kingdom's GDP than any other industry. Most of the country's financial companies operate in London, one of the world's leading financial cities. Major financial institutions in London include the Bank of England, the United Kingdom's national bank, the London Stock Exchange and Lloyd's of London insurance society.

Community, social, and personal services rank second among the service industries in the United Kingdom. This industry employs more British workers than any other service industry. It includes such activities as education and health care, and advertising and data processing.

Wholesale and retail trade is the third most important service industry in Britain. The most valuable wholesale trading activities include the distribution of petroleum and textiles. Aberdeen and London are important centers of petroleum refining and distribution. Leeds is the chief center of the British clothing industry. Retail trade is centered in London, which has thousands of small shops and attracts millions of tourists yearly.

Tourism is another of Britain's important service industry. It is a growing source of income and employment. Other large service industries in the United Kingdom include government, transportation and communication, and utilities.

MANUFACTURING

The United Kingdom is a leading industrial nation. Most British industries are in central England, the London area, the Scottish Central Lowlands, the Newcastle upon Tyne area, and southern Wales.

Britain ranks as an important steel producer. It exports nearly half of its finished steel. The rest is used in Britain to make hundreds of products. Much steel is used in automobiles, buses, trucks, and motorcycles.

Britain also produces heavy machinery for industry, farming, and mining. The country is one of the world's largest producers of tractors. Other products include cranes, earth movers, road graders, harvesters, and drilling machines. British factories also make railway equipment, household appliances, and machine tools. The city of Sheffield is famous for its high-quality knives and hand tools.

British Aerospace makes a wide range of jet aircraft. It is the largest aerospace company in Europe. Rolls-Royce is world famous for airplane engines as well as luxury automobiles. Space satellites and weapons defense systems are also produced in Britain. Aerospace equipment and heavy industry are major British exports.

An increasing percentage of Britain's manufactured goods consists of sophisticated electronic equipment. Much of this equipment is exported. Factories produce such items as cable television equipment, data processing equipment, fiber-optic communications systems, radar devices, and undersea telephone cables.

The chemical industry in Britain produces a variety of products – from industrial chemicals to plastics and soap. Britain is the fourth largest exporter of pharmaceuticals. The country's pottery industry is centered in Stoke-on-Trent. Outstanding names in British pottery include Worcester, Spode, and Wedgwood.

The United Kingdom is one of the world's chief centers of printing and publishing. British companies print paper money and postage stamps for many countries. Books published in Britain are exported to countries throughout the world.

Britain remains an important producer of cotton and woolen textiles. British manufacturers also make synthetic fibres and fabrics. England's east Midlands region is a center for the production of lace and knitwear. Cotton and wool are produced in northern England. Scotland produces knitwear and is famous for its fine woolen products. Northern Ireland has a world-wide reputation for its linen goods.

Britain has one of Europe's largest clothing industries. The biggest centers are Leicester, Leeds, London, and Manchester. British clothing has long been famous for its quality. But today, Britain imports more clothing than it exports because many countries with lower labor costs can produce clothing more cheaply than the British can.

Processing of foods and beverages ranks as one of Britain's major industries. Most processed foods and beverages are consumed in Britain. But some are exported. Scotch whisky has a large world market. Other British industries manufacture bricks and cement, furniture, leather goods, glassware, and paper.

AGRICULTURE

Agriculture supplies nearly two-thirds of the country's food and employs about 2 % of the working population. However, its share of the GDP is less than 4 % – the lowest figure among the developed capitalist countries.

The United Kingdom has about 240,000 farms. They average about 175 acres (71 hectares) in size. About two-thirds of Britain's farmers own the farms on which they live. The rest rent their farms. About half the people who operate or work of farms do so on a part-time basis.

The present pattern of farming in Britain owes much to decisions taken by the Government. During the 19th century Britain became increasingly dependent on imported food. As a consequence it was decided to support agriculture by paying subsidies to farmers which would help them to compete with foreign producers. This meant that food could be sold in shops at prices which did not cover production costs and that the British farmer depended for his profit upon subsidies from the Government. So, British agriculture is protected by an artificial price structure and by taxes imposed on imported food.

Modern British farming displays two important characteristics:

a) it is intensive farming, in other words, no effort is spared to achieve maximum production from the available land;

b) it is mixed farming, in which both crops and livestock play an important part.

Only in special areas, such as those devoted to market gardening or fruit-gardening, are activities concentrated upon one particular type of occupation.

There are three main types of farming: pastoral, arable and mixed. Arable farming takes the lead in the eastern parts of England and Scotland, whereas in the rest of the country pastoral and mixed farming are prevalent. Besides the three above-mentioned types of farming there is another type of farming – crofting – which is still practiced in the remote areas of northern and western Scotland. This pattern of cultivating a small area of land around the farm (the infield) and maintaining a much larger area of rough pasture for stock rearing (the outfield) shows a clear adaptation to a difficult environment.

The most widespread arable crops grown in Britain are wheat and barley, which are mainly cultivated in the eastern parts of the country, especially in East Anglia and in the south-east, as well as in central Scotland.

Of root crops cultivated in Britain, most important are potatoes and sugar beets. Potatoes are cultivated throughout the British Isles but the main areas of production are Cambridgeshire and Lincolnshire in eastern England and in the eastern part of central Scotland. High-grade seed potatoes are grown in Scotland and Northern Ireland. Sugar beets today provide about 50 % of sugar requirements of the country. It is cultivated in eastern England.

Farmers in southern England grow most of Britain's fruits and garden vegetables. One of the most productive regions is the county of Kent in south-eastern England. It is called the Garden of England and is famous for the beautiful blossoms of its apple and cherry orchards in springtime. Farmers in Kent also grow hops, which are used in making beer.

The climate of the British Isles is ideal for cattle. They are found practically in all areas. Sheep are Britain's chief livestock. Farmers in almost every part of the country raise sheep for meat and wool. British farmers also raise beef and dairy cattle. Pig production occurs in most areas but is particularly important in northern and eastern England. Poultry farms are chiefly concerned with the supply of eggs to local markets and the production of poultry meat. Britain remains self-sufficient in both.

FISHING

The United Kingdom is an important fishing nation. The British fishing industry supplies about 685,000 short tons (621,000 metric tons) of fish yearly. About half this catch comes from the waters surrounding Britain, especially the North Sea. British fishing crews also fish as far away as the Grand Banks of Newfoundland. The principal catches include cod, haddock, herring, mackerel, plaice, pollock, sole, and whiting. Large catches of shellfish are also brought in. The United Kingdom's main fishing ports are on the east coast and in the south-western part of the island of Great Britain.

ENERGY SOURCES

Fuel-burning plants provide about 80 % of Britain's electric power. Nuclear energy provides most of the remaining electricity. In 1956, Britain opened the world's first large-scale nuclear power station at Calder Hall, Cumbria, in northwestern England. Natural gas fields under the North Sea provide most of the country's natural gas needs. Petroleum deposits off the coast of Scotland supply enough oil to meet the United Kingdom's needs.

INTERNATIONAL TRADE

The United Kingdom ranks as a leading trading nation. Britain once imported chiefly raw materials and exported mostly manufactured products. However, manufactured goods now account for about three-fourths of British imports and also about three-fourths of its exports.

Major British exports are Scotch whisky, Rolls Royce cars, Rolls Royce aero engines, sold for commercial and military aircraft in over 100 countries.

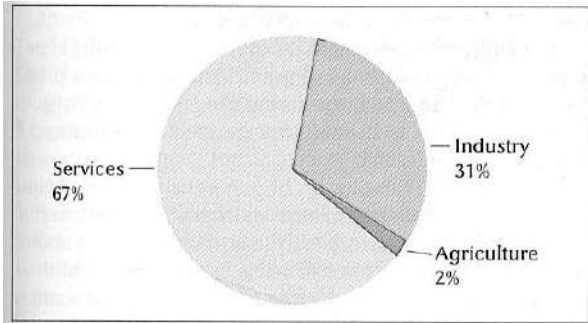
Britain also exports complete aircraft, as well as electric and electronic equipment such as computers and communications systems, plastics, chemicals and pharmaceuticals, machinery, motor vehicles, petroleum, and scientific and medical equipment.

British imports include clothing, foods (especially fish, fruit, vegetables, meat, coffee, and tea), machinery, metals (silicon, copper, and zinc), cotton, timber, iron ore. British factories today manufacture very few mass-produced products like washing machines, dishwasher, TV or hi-fi sets, refrigerators. Britain imports them from foreign manufactures.

All exports which the eye can see are called ‘visible’ exports. But Britain obtains 50 % of its earnings abroad from ‘invisible’ exports, mainly from the profits of investments in other countries and from ‘services’ – transport, tourism, and financial services like banking, insurance and so on.

The value of Britain’s imports of goods usually exceeds the value of exports. British banks and insurance companies make up part of the difference by selling their services to people and firms in other lands. Another important source of income is the spending by the more than 15 million tourists who visit the United Kingdom each year. The British merchant fleet also brings in money by carrying cargoes for other countries. The income from all these invisible exports exceeds \$200 billion a year.

Most of the United Kingdom’s trade is with other developed countries. France, Germany, and the United States are Britain’s leading customers and suppliers. A growing proportion of the country’s trade is with members of the European Community, which the United Kingdom joined in 1973. Other trade partners include Canada, Ireland, Japan, Norway, Saudi Arabia, Sweden, and Switzerland.



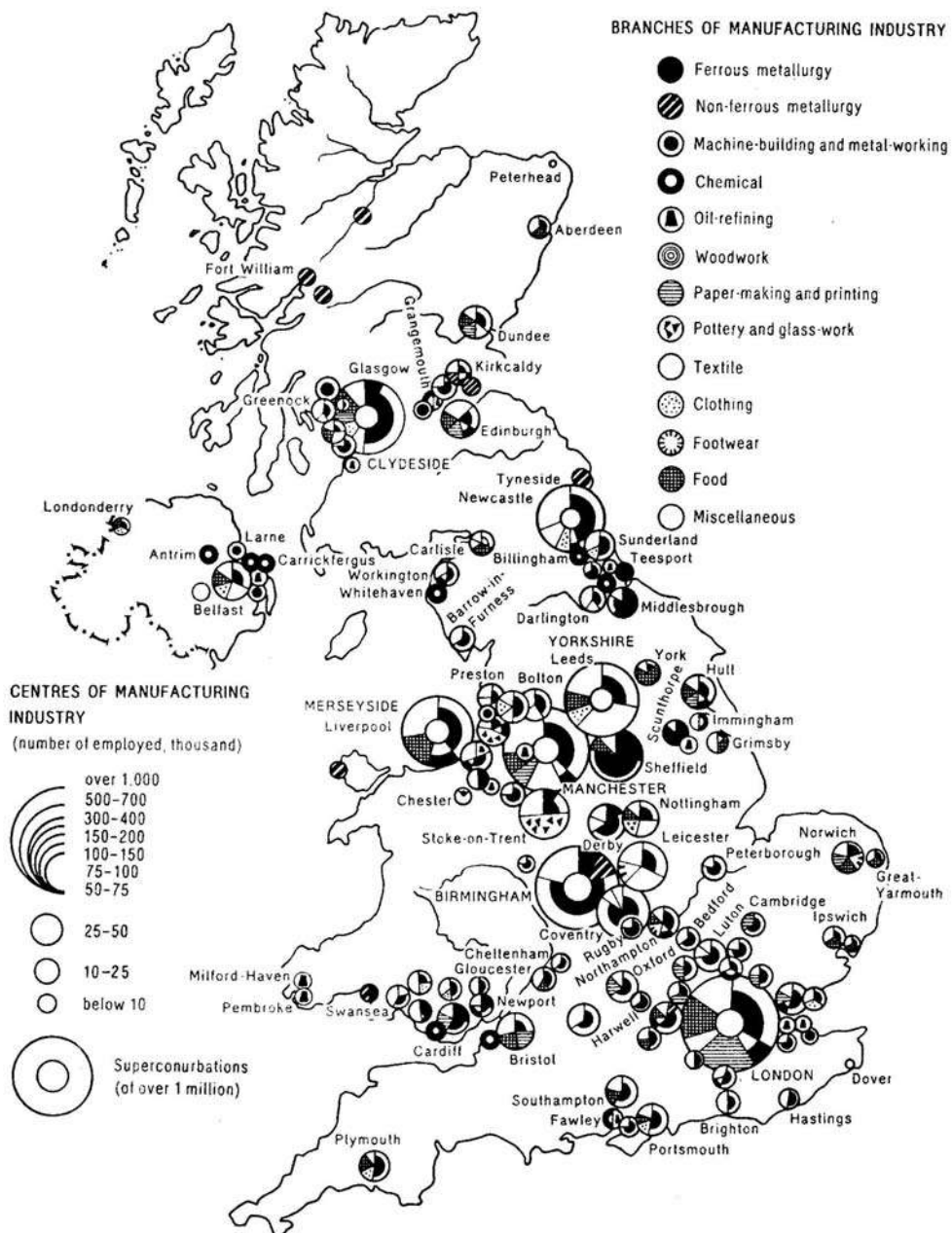
The United Kingdom’s gross domestic product (GDP) was \$1,018,000,000,000 in 1991. The GDP is the total value of goods and services produced within a country in a year. *Services* include community, social, and personal services; finance, insurance, real estate, and business services; government; trade, hotels, and restaurants; and transportation and communication. *Industry* includes construction, manufacturing, and mining and utilities. *Agriculture* includes agriculture, forestry, and fishing.

The United Kingdom’s gross domestic product

Economic activities	Percent of GDP produced	Employed workers Number of persons	Percent of total
Finance, insurance, real estate, & business services	23	2,693,000	12
Manufacturing	20	4,162,000	19
Community, social, & personal services	16	5,392,000	24
Trade, hotels, & restaurants	14	4,686,000	21
Government	7	1,634,000	8
Transportation & communication	7	1,349,000	6
Construction	6	962,000	4
Mining & utilities	5	1,099,000	5
Agriculture, forestry, & fishing	2	291,000	1
Total	100	22,268,000	100

Figures are for 1991. Source: Central Statistical Office, London.

Production and workers by economic activities



Branches of manufacturing industry

PROGRESS QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Answer the following questions.

1. What is Britain's place in the capitalist economy world as regards its GDP?
2. Give a brief account of the changes which have taken place in the country after World War II.
3. Give a brief account of the shifts in specialization of industry.
4. What is the role played by manufacturing in the development of the economy?
5. Where are most British industries located?

6. List the main industries of Great Britain. Expand on their role.
7. What is the role of agriculture in the life of the country?
8. How well is the country supplied with various agricultural produce?
9. Name the main types of farming. Describe their role and territorial specialization.
10. What is meant by crofting?
11. Explain the importance of fishing for Britain.
12. Describe the changes in the pattern of overseas trade. What is meant by the term 'balance of trade'?
13. What are the major British a) exports; b) imports?
14. What British invisible exports do you know?
15. Name the major trading partners of Great Britain.

II. Do the following tasks.

1. The North-South Divide.

Since the 1970s the steady decline of manufacturing industries has led to deserted factories, depressed towns and high unemployment in the areas where they were located. By contrast, the more rural South has experienced the growth of light industries and an increase in clerical and professional jobs. Most of the service industries have developed in southern regions as well as high-tech firms in the London and Cambridge areas. The increasing affluence of the South during the 1980s contrasted with the problems in the industrial cities of the North and Midlands where school-leavers could not find work and workers were made redundant.

This regional imbalance has been called the North-South Divide and when it was getting worse the word, gap, was used by the media to explain the great difference in the standard of living of Britons. In the 1980s the government set up enterprise zones in depressed areas and offered companies financial incentives (money lower taxes) to move to these areas and provide jobs to the unemployed. There was also growing concern that the Channel Tunnel would attract a lot of business and money to the South-East nearest location whilst the northern areas would not benefit.

At the end of the 1980s the government declared that it had solved the North-South Divide but critics protested that the gap between the regions continued to be a problem. The 1990s economy recession hit the service industries badly: consumers stopped spending and this had more effect on the affluent South than the North. London, in particular, suffered heavy job losses in retail, financial and banking services. It seemed to be a reversal on the North-South situation. Nevertheless, the debate still continues. Are all Britons able to

share the same standard of living and job opportunities? How can the traditional industrial areas be assisted? Will the New Europe be closer to the South but too far from the North?

Interpretation.

The differences between the North and South have been linked to Britain's industrial past. Underline any sentences in the text which mention industrial factors. What other factors have added to this divide? Make a list, using the text and your knowledge of Britain so far.

2. The industrial revolution.

Britain has been an industrialised nation for 2 centuries. It has a variety of industries which can be divided into 3 main categories.

Primary industry: provides raw materials and food from the land and the sea;

Manufacturing industry: makes raw materials into finished goods;

Service industries: people provide services for others.

Pre-reading – Vocabulary

a. Here are some of the industries in Britain today. Can you match them to the correct category?

Agriculture, textiles, tourism, insurance, gas, mining, transport, retail, food, drink, tobacco, fishing, business consultancy, forestry, oil, publishing, banking, pharmaceuticals, cars

Read and find out

b. What was the Industrial Revolution? Why was Britain once called 'The Workshop of The World'?

BRITAIN'S INDUSTRIAL HERITAGE

During the nineteenth century Britain was transformed from a mainly agricultural society into an industrial one. This change has been called the Industrial Revolution because of the dramatic effect it had on the British way of life. People moved to the rapidly expanding towns and cities. Railways were developed to transport goods around the country and by 1900 Britain had become a major world power.



The coal and iron found in the North-east, the Midlands, Scotland and South Wales provided the power for factories in those areas. The waterways of Newcastle and Glasgow provided easy access to the sea and ship-building industries flourished. Cotton arrived at the great port of Liverpool from the USA and India to be made into cloth in the textile industries nearby. The sheep in the Yorkshire dales provided wool and the coalfields powered the mills. The humid climate in Lancashire was particularly good for the cotton-spinning process. By 1900 Britain was producing over a third of the world's manufactured goods and had earned the title 'The Workshop of the World'.

Interpretation

c:

1. The geographical features of Britain had a great influence on Britain's industrial development. Match the features below to the correct industry.

Feature	Industry
The rivers Tyne and Clyde	Textiles (wool) manufacture
The hills and dales of Yorkshire	Mining
The port of Liverpool	Ship building
The coalfields of the North and Wales	Textiles (cotton spinning)

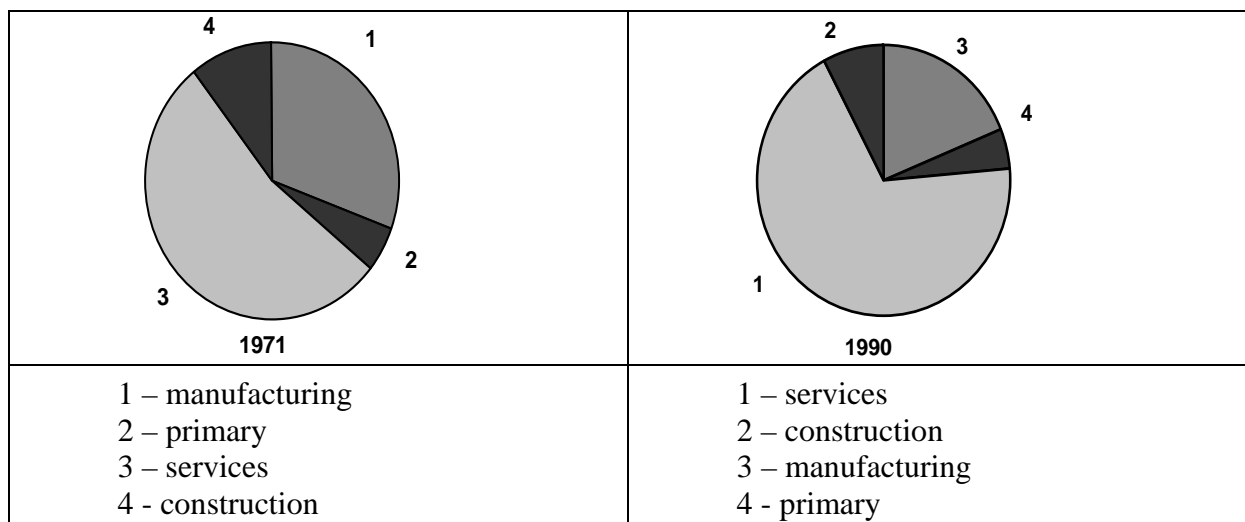
2. Heavy industrial development can also have an effect on the surrounding environment. Look for any examples of changes to the way Britain looked. Can you explain why the area around Birmingham became known as the 'Black Country'?

Pre-reading

d. Tick the sentences which best describe the diagrams.

- Most people in Britain today work in manufacturing industries.
- Service industries have dramatically increased since the 1970s.
- Britain's manufacturing industries were stronger in the 1970s.
- Service industries employ fewer people today than in the 1970s.

Employees per type of employment



DECLINE AND CHANGE

The Industrial Revolution in Britain was built on the use of machines in factories. Since the 1950s Britain's manufacturing industries have replaced the machine operators with computers, and this 'automation' has led to a decline in the number of employees in manufacturing industries. More manufactured goods are bought and used than ever before but a lot of these goods are imported. By the beginning of the twentieth century other industrial countries, like the USA, were competing with Britain's exports, and countries in the Far East have been able to provide cheaper products since the 1970s. Areas where heavy manufacturing industries are located have suffered high unemployment.

During the last 40 years there has been a rise in smaller industries, known as 'light industries'. These industries use electricity and are not dependent on raw materials such as coal so they are 'footloose', i.e. they can be located anywhere. Many light industries are located on the edge of towns or on industrial estates. They produce such things as washing machines or components. Some of these industries do not make anything at all, but provide services such as distribution. The consumer boom of the 1980s and the increased leisure time of most Britons has led to rapid growth in service industries like banking, tourism, retailing and information-processing, and in industries which distribute, maintain and repair household consumer goods.

Comprehension.

e. Answer TRUE or FALSE.

- Factories are more automated than they were forty years ago.
- Light industries have to be located on industrial estates near coalfields.
- Service industries manufacture smaller products.
- Britons buy more consumer goods than forty years ago.

3. High-tech industries.

Read and find out

a:

- Why is the British economy influenced by the silicon chip?
- Where is 'Silicon Valley'?
- Why is Central Scotland called 'Silicon Glen'?

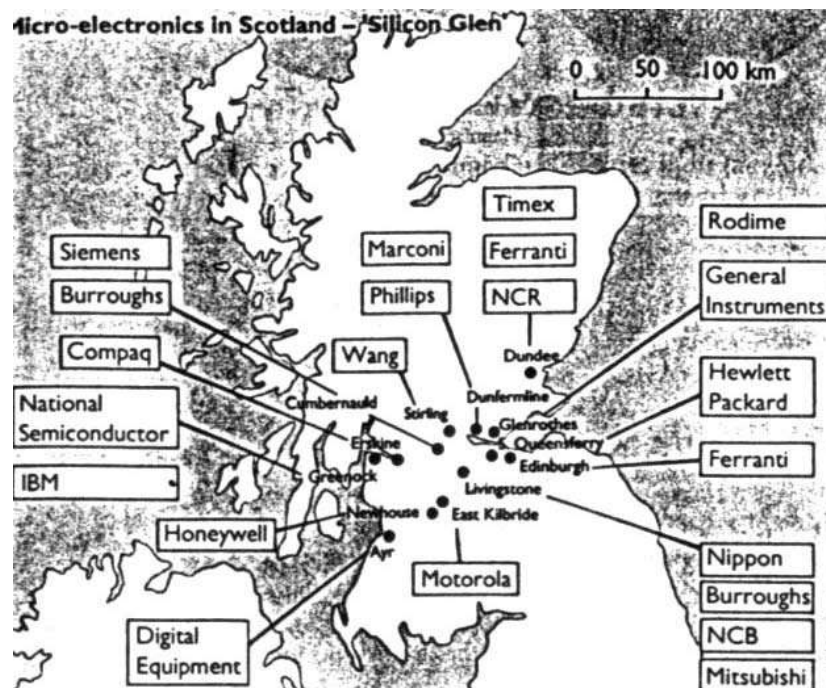
KEY Electronics industries, high-tech, M4 motorway, corridor, 'Silicon
WORDS Valley', Scotland, 'Silicon Glen', science parks

THE HIGH-TECH REVOLUTION

Many Britons own televisions, videos and personal computers. All of these machines are produced by the rapidly-expanding **electronics industries** in Britain. These 'silicon chip' industries are also known as **high-tech** industries and are involved in fields as diverse as aerospace technology, communications and computerised office equipment.

The first electronics firms grew up around London and gradually expanded along the **M4 motorway** to the west of the capital, forming a **corridor** of firms known as '**Silicon Valley**'. They were particularly attracted to the area because of the good road links and easy access to London's Heathrow airport. Universities, because of their electronics research, have provided an excellent location for small and large firms. The eight universities and high

percentage of science graduates in **Scotland** have contributed to the concentration of high-tech industries in '**Silicon Glen**'. By 1989 there were 62 **science parks** sited near a university.



Pre-reading

b:

- Who developed the mass-market pocket calculator?
- Who are Britain's main competitors in the electronics market?

KEY WORDS

Sinclair, pocket calculators, world's cheapest computer, inventiveness, research engineers, competition, Far East, manual, economy, efficient, unemployment

In the 1970s Sir Clive **Sinclair** invented, researched and developed the first cheap **pocket calculators** in Britain and established his company. Sinclair Research, in Cambridge to continue his contact with the university there. By 1983 he had developed the **world's cheapest computer** with sound and a colour display and had sold over one million computers worldwide.

Sinclair's work is a good example of the **inventiveness** of Britain's electronics industry, Scotland has a reputation for producing high quality **research engineers**. However Britain has been less successful in producing, marketing and selling its electronic goods. There is serious **competition** from goods made in Japan, Hong Kong, Taiwan and other **Far East** countries.

The government has been providing financial Incentives (money) to encourage electronics industries to move to areas with high unemployment. Yet the available workers often come from **manual** jobs and do not have the right skills The British **economy** is also affected by the high-tech equipment which is making offices and factories so **efficient** that fewer employees are needed, thus adding to the **unemployment** figures. Will micro-electronics provide new jobs or simply replace jobs with computers?

Reading comprehension

c. Answer TRUE or FALSE.

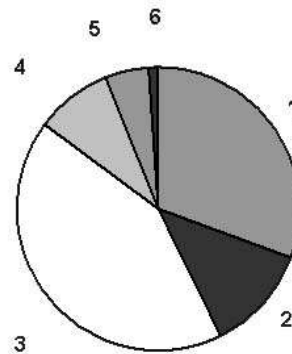
- Road and air links are important to electronics firms.
- Science parks are special universities.
- Sir Clive Sinclair teaches at Cambridge University.
- Britain is good at selling its inventions.
- The electronics industry needs large numbers of manual workers.

d. Compare the map here with the one on page 136. Do you notice anything interesting?

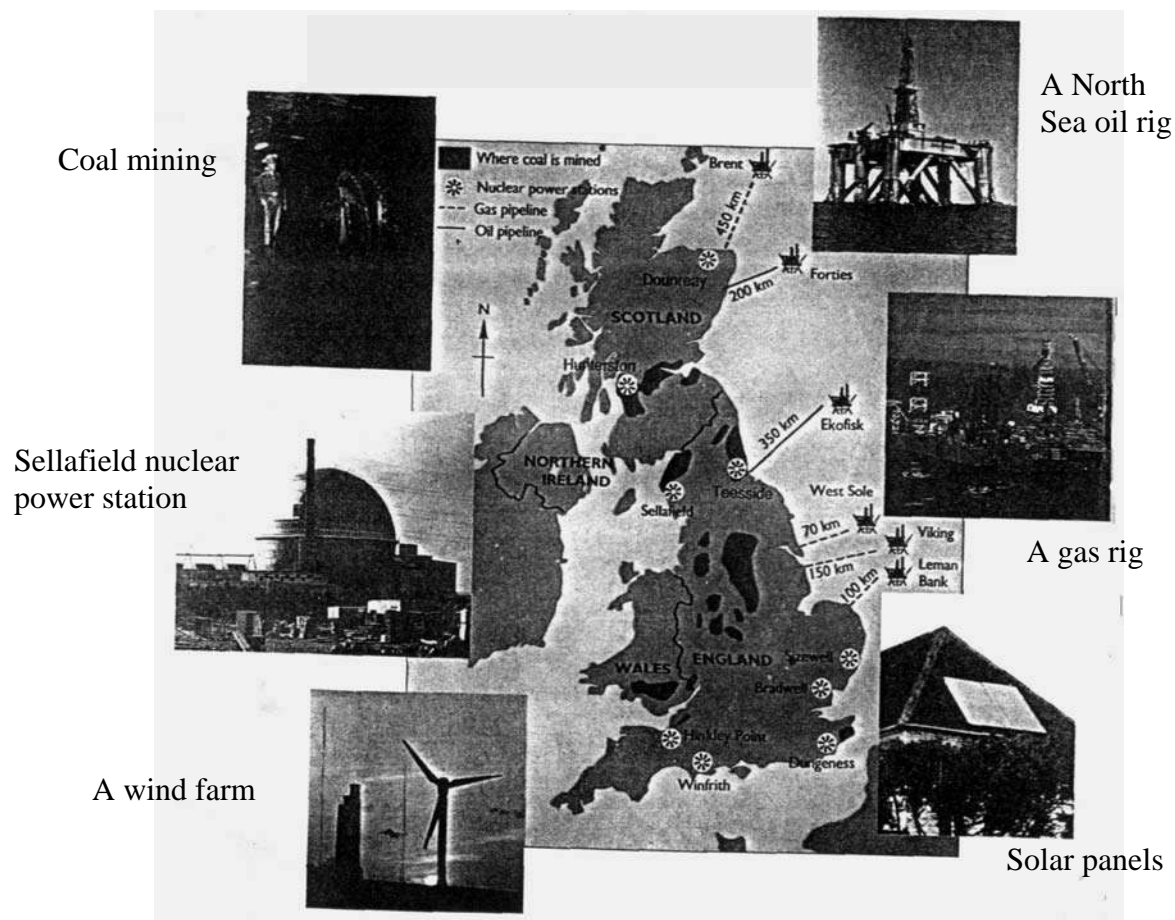


4. Energy Sources.

- 1 – natural gas;
- 2 – electricity;
- 3 – petroleum;
- 4 – coal;
- 5 – coke, breeze and other solid fuels;
- 6 – coke oven gas



UK energy consumption by fuel, 1990



Energy Sources

Pre-reading

A. Before you read, look at the photos above and answer the questions.

1. Which form of energy is the cleanest?
2. Which form of energy is the cheapest?
3. Which of these energy sources do you use in your home?
4. What are the main energy sources in your country?

B. Now study the map and complete the sentences.

1. Coal is mined in the Midlands, ____.
2. Oil can be found under ____.
3. Nuclear power stations are generally located on ____.

KEY WORDS

Nuclear power, coal industry, mined, Industrial Revolution, heavy industries, shipbuilding, next century, pollution, transport, distribution, discovery, self-sufficient, economy, refineries, drilling rigs, pipelines, endangers, safety, leukaemia, debate, different supplies, dangers, environment, aware

Reading comprehension.

The Energy Debate

Britain in the 1990s was concerned about producing too little or too much energy. It relied heavily on four main types of energy: oil, coal, gas and **nuclear power**.

Coal and industry. Britain's **coal industry** was until recently one of the largest and most technologically advanced in Western Europe. Coal has been **mined** in Britain since Roman times but became particularly important during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries: the **Industrial Revolution** was powered by coal, and large cities and **heavy industries** (such as **shipbuilding** and steel) developed in the areas where coal was found, which are still among the most heavily populated areas in Britain today. Coal is certainly Britain's cheapest energy source, and supplies should last into the **next century**. However, excessive coal burning has contributed to acid rain and pollution in Britain, as it is the dirtiest form of energy, and the industry is being run down in favour of alternative energy sources.

Economic self-sufficiency. Oil has become increasingly vital to Britain's **transport** and **distribution** systems and, until the 1970s, most of it was imported from the Middle East. However, the **discovery** of oil, along with natural gas, in the North Sea in 1970 has enabled Britain to become **self-sufficient** in these energy sources. The high-quality oil has boosted Britain's **economy** and created jobs, particularly on the north-east coast of Scotland near the oil rigs and **refineries**. Britain has, however, had to invest heavily in the construction of **drilling rigs** and the maintenance of deep sea **pipelines**, and conservationists protest that oil pollutes the coastal waters and **endangers** fishing in the North Sea.

Is nuclear power safe? Many Britons are also concerned about the **safety** of Britain's nuclear power stations. Britain has had a nuclear energy programme since 1955, and nearly all the money spent on energy research has been concentrated on nuclear power. There are now sixteen nuclear power stations, located in relatively unpopulated coastal areas and away from large cities. Nevertheless, there has been one serious accident at Sellafield nuclear power station in Cumbria in 1957, and the incidence of **leukaemia** – a cancer of the blood – around several British nuclear power stations is much higher than normal, particularly in children.

Where next? The **debate** continues even now. Which energy source is the safest and cleanest? Which is the cheapest? The government wishes to maintain **different supplies** of energy as it is dangerous to rely too much on one single source. The arguments against using certain fuels, such as coal or nuclear power, all emphasise the **dangers** of these energy sources to Britain's **environment**. Since the 1980s Britons have become much more environmentally **aware**, and it looks as if the energy debate will continue well into the next century.

- Use the text to make notes:

Energy source	Advantages	Disadvantages
Coal		Dirty
Oil		
Nuclear power		

- Tick a, b, or c:
 - Britain's oldest source of energy is ____.
 - a) North Sea oil;
 - b) gas;
 - c) coal.
 - Britain's most recent discovery is ____.
 - a) coal in South Wales;
 - b) oil in the North Sea;
 - c) nuclear power.
 - The energy debate is about ____.
 - a) which energy source to use;
 - b) North Sea oil;
 - c) safety in nuclear power plants.

Writing.

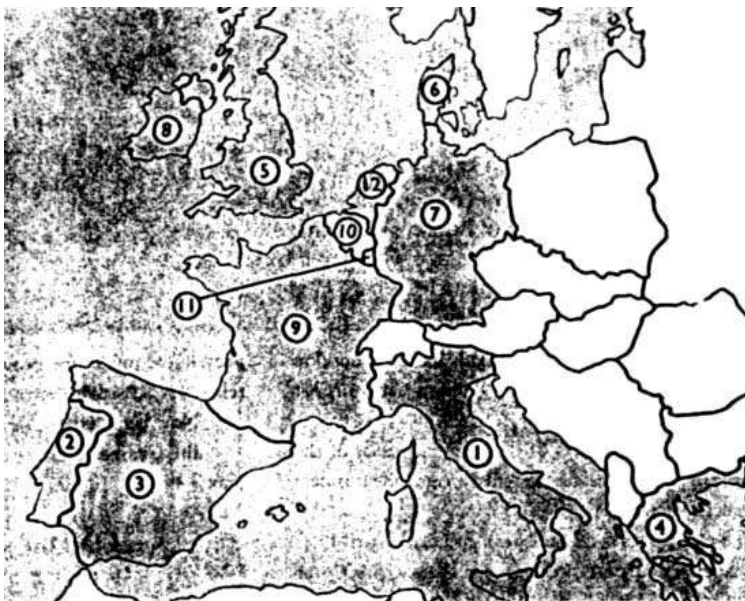
- Draw a map of your country and mark the energy sources on the map.
- Find out about your country's main sources – does it use mainly oil?

Does it buy oil or coal? Are there any nuclear power stations? Does your country depend on one type of energy?

- Write a paragraph to describe energy sources in your country.
- Are people in your country concerned about pollution and the environment?

5. British overseas trade. Imports and exports.

Over half of Britain's trade is with the other 11 members of the European Community and this is increasing with the completion of the Single European Market in 1993.



- Spain – Madrid
- Portugal – Lisbon
- Eire – Dublin
- Greece – Athens
- Luxembourg – Luxembourg
- Denmark – Copenhagen
- Belgium – Brussels
- Holland – Amsterdam / The Hague
- Germany – Berlin
- Italy – Rome
- United Kingdom – London
- France – Paris

a. Can you identify the 12 members? Match the countries/capitals to the map. Is your country a member?

CAPITAL CITIES OF THE EEC

Overseas trade has been very important to Britain's economy for hundreds of years. During the Industrial Revolution Britain developed into an international trading centre. There was so much trade that it had a merchant fleet of ships which was bigger than the rest of the world's put together. Today Britain is the fifth largest trading nation and is part of the world's largest trading bloc, the EEC. In the past, Britain's trade was centred on the Empire and later the countries that made up the Commonwealth. Since joining the EEC and the Single European Act of 1993, Britain has traded less with these old partners because it must use other European suppliers.

Britain's decision to join the EEC in 1973 was mainly for political reasons. Britain wanted to become part of Europe and have more contact with European countries. It was also useful to be a member for economic reasons. Britain is an island and depends a lot on trade with other countries for raw materials and food not found in Britain. The Single European Market offers British companies a market of over 350 million customers. A wide range of goods offering choice to British consumers can also be imported, and the free trade and duty free arrangements with member countries simplify trade for Britain.

Reading comprehension

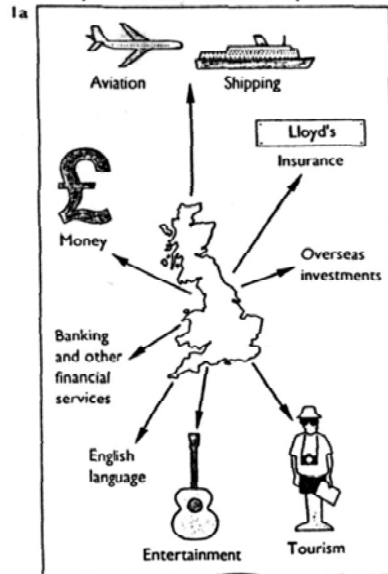
b. Use the text to complete this table.

EEC membership since ...	
Main reason for joining	
Other reasons for joining	
Advantages of membership	
Britain's main trading partners	

c. Look at the diagrams below and answer the questions.

FACT FILE

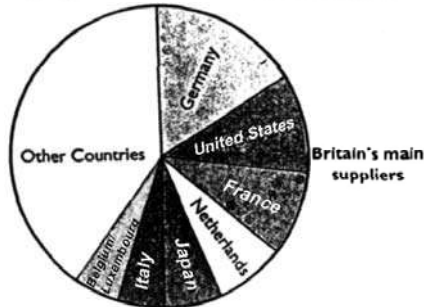
Examples of Britain's invisible export trade



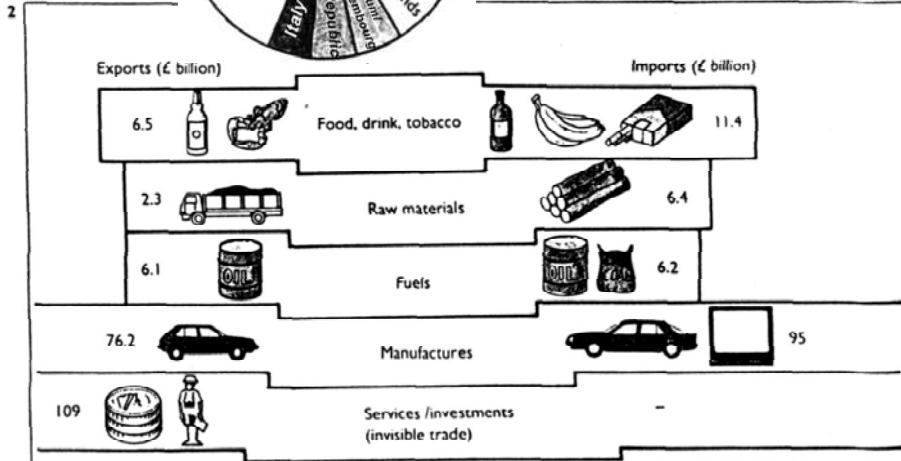
Examples of Britain's visible trade



3a Britain's main markets



Britain's balance of trade



1. Can you explain the difference between visible and invisible trade?
2. Which two countries does Britain sell to the most?
3. Which two countries does Britain buy from the most?
4. How many of the trading partners in the two pie charts are EEC countries?
5. What makes up the highest proportion of Britain's exports?
6. What makes up the highest proportion of Britain's imports?

III. Project.

Write an essay (200 – 250 words) 'Does Britain still have a world role?'

SEMINAR 7

1. Give a general survey of the British economy (its place in the capitalist economy world, changes which have taken place in the country's economy).
2. Speak on service industries, energy sources. Give a brief account of the British overseas trade.
3. Describe the British manufacturing.
4. Examine the agriculture of Great Britain.

Round Britain Quiz

1. An important Conservative policy was the return of state industries to the ___ sector.
2. As in all European countries, the economic system in Britain is a mixture of ___ and ___ enterprise. The state controls part of public ___, the ___ industry, the ___ mines, some ___, manufacturing plants.
3. The structure of the economy has experienced serious changes which are quite common for all developed capitalist countries; there has been a decline in the relative importance of ___ and a rise in that of ___.
4. Agriculture supplies nearly ___ of the country's food and employs about ___ per cent of Britain's employed labour force.
5. Four-fifths of industrial and agricultural production is concentrated in ___.
6. The Thames Valley between London and Bristol is a leading area with a major concentration of high technology industries called the '___ ___'.
7. Traditionally Britain's trade balance is ___, that is, it ___ more than it ___.
8. Britain obtains 50 % of its earnings abroad from '___' exports, mainly from the profits of ___ in other countries and from 'services' – ___, ___, and financial services like ___, and so on.
9. The county of ___ in southeastern England is called the Garden of England and is known for its apple and cherry orchards.
10. Most important root crops cultivated in Britain are ___ and ___.

CHAPTER VIII

THE BRITISH CHARACTER

LECTURE 8

Some of the British national traits are resulting from the British way of life. Nothing has been more important in British history than the fact that Great Britain is an island. Its geographical position is one of the most important factors which contributed largely to making a distinctive character of its inhabitants.

Although the actual situation of Great Britain in the contemporary world is no longer that of a top nation it would seem that the implications of this change have not yet penetrated far into British popular consciousness. Deep down the British still feel pretty satisfied with themselves.

The British display a very wide toleration of individual differences among themselves, and even among others. This trait comes out most clearly as willingness to tolerate. Sometimes it seems a willingness to encourage individual eccentricities.

The British have some very rigid codes of behaviour, notably the public-school code. Individuals who do not do the right things or do not avoid doing the wrong things soon find themselves rejected. For example, it is part of the Englishman's code not to intrude upon his neighbours' and their way of doing things.

Englishmen tend to be rather conservative, they love familiar things. They are hostile or at least bored, when they hear any suggestion that some modification of their habits or the introduction of something new and unknown into their lives might be to their advantage. This conservatism, on a national scale, may be illustrated by reference to the public attitude to the monarchy, an institution which is held in affection and reverence by nearly all English people. England is full of small-scale conservatism. Most English people remain strongly attached to the open coal fire (when heating houses), although it causes much work and adds to the pollution of the air, and sometimes pours smoke into the room which it is heating because they think that a living-room without a fireplace will be a room without the basic characteristic of cosiness.

The English are practical and realistic; they are infatuated with common sense. They are not misled by romantic delusions. The English people are prudent and careful about almost everything. Their lawns are closely cropped, drinks are carefully measured, seats in a cinema are carefully assigned (even if the theatre is empty you are required to sit in the seat assigned to you), closing hours rigorously observed.

One consequence of English caution and prudence is the habit of suspiciousness. This is curious for the English are among the most honest.

The English have still in many and important respects a class society. The people of the Establishment are not quite the same as the members of hereditary aristocracy. A rather obvious division is based on the way people speak. Accent and speech are important. Eton and Harrow, Winchester and Westminster and other 'public schools' play an important role here. The great majority of English people speak with accents peculiar to their parts of the country, but practically all establishment-people, and some other too, speak the standard English pronunciation which is the 'correct' pronunciation taught to foreigners.

The English sense and feeling for privacy is notorious. England is the land of brick fences and stone walls, of hedges, of thick draperies at all the windows, and reluctant introductions. English people rarely shake hands with their friends except seeing them after a long interval or saying goodbye before a long journey.

Snobbery is not so common in England today as it was at the beginning of the 20th century, but it still exists. Snob is a person who plays too much respect to social position or wealth. Because of snobbery many people give their suburban house a name, such as 'The Poplars', etc. as people of high social position have country houses with names, so a house with a name seems 'better' than a house with a number.

The devotion of the English to animals is well-known. They will speak affectionately to and of their dogs and horses, which is more than they will do concerning their friends and family. Animals are protected by law. You can be sent to prison if you leave a cat to starve in an empty house while you go for your holiday. There are even special dogs' cemeteries (in Kensington Gardens).

Most people in Britain work a five-day week, from Monday to Friday (as well as colleges, schools, universities which are also closed on Saturdays and Sundays). Saturday morning is a very busy time for shopping, as this is the only day when people who are at work can shop for any length of time. On weekdays shops close between 5.30 and 6.30 p.m. and they are closed all day on Sunday. Saturday evening is the favourite time for parties, dances, going to the pictures or the theatres, in fact for going out, generally.

Sunday for many English families begins with by the now traditional 'lie-in', when instead of getting up at 7.30 or at 8 o'clock, as during the rest of the week, most people stay in bed for at least another hour. During the mid-morning most people indulge in some fairly light activity such as gardening, washing the car or taking the dog for a walk. Another most popular pre-lunch activity consists of a visit to a pub – either a walk to a 'local' or often nowadays to a

more pleasant ‘country pub’. It is unusual for anyone to drink a lot during a lunch-time ‘session’, the idea is to have a quiet drink and a chat. Sunday has always been a favourite day for inviting people – friends, relatives, colleagues – to afternoon tea, and this custom has not lost its popularity. Some people spend Sunday evening quietly at home, others go to see friends, go to a concert or film, or go out for a drink.

Much leisure time is spent in individualistic pursuits, of which the most popular is gardening. Most English people love gardens, their own above all and this is probably one reason why so many people prefer to live in houses rather than flats. For many people gardening is the foundation of social and competitive relationships.



Gardens are popular throughout the United Kingdom, and gardening is a favourite pastime. This formal garden is the Royal National Rose Society’s garden at Chiswell Green, St. Albans, in England

Flower-shows and vegetable shows, with prizes for the best exhibits are immensely popular, and to many gardeners the process of growing the plants seems more important than the merely aesthetic pleasure of looking at the flowers or the prospect of eating the vegetables.

The British people are the world’s greatest tea drinkers. They drink a quarter of the tea grown in the world each year. Many of them drink it on at least eight different occasions during the day. They drink it at meals and between meals. They drink early-morning tea in bed, and some early-morning tea drinkers have automatic tea-making machines connected to their alarm clocks.

PUBS AND CLUBS

In England the national drink is beer, and the pub, where Englishmen go to drink it, is a peculiarly English institution. The word ‘pub’ itself is an abbreviation of ‘public house’. The pub is the only indoor place where the average person can comfortably meet others, even strangers, and get into prolonged conversation with them. In cafés and fast food restaurants, people are expected to drink their coffee and get out. One of the notable aspects of pubs is

that there is no waiter service. If you want something, you have to go and ask for it at the bar. You can get up and walk around whenever you want – it is like being in your own house. Another notable respect of pubs is their appeal to the idea of tradition.



Inside a pub

Any self-respecting pub has a sign outside it, mounted on a post or fixed to the wall above the door. On it will be the pub's name – 'The Pig and Whistle' or 'The Elephant and Castle' – with a gay painting depicting the name.

Most pubs, besides beer, sell all kinds of alcohol, from whisky to

wine. Many of them also offer light meals. Normally pubs are divided into at least two separate bars – the public and the saloon bar, which is more comfortable and slightly more expensive. 'Bar' also means the counter at which the drinks are served. Beer and cider, a drink, made from apples, are always sold in pint or half-pint glasses. A pint is equivalent to 0.57 litre. No alcoholic drinks may be served to young people under 18, and no children under 16 are allowed inside the bar. Most pubs favour the 'traditional' image – a roaring log fire, old oak beams supporting a low ceiling, and brass ornaments on the walls.

Comfort is essential, for here people do not drop in for a quick drink and then go. They tend generally to 'make an evening of it' and stand or sit, glass in hand, talking to friends or strangers, until closing time, when with a cry of 'Time, gentlemen, please!' the landlord ceases to serve further drinks. This is usually at half past ten in the evening. However, customers do not have to leave immediately. They still have 'drinking-up time'. This is a concept recognised in law and is assumed to last about ten minutes.

In the bar of every English pub there is a dart-board, and on most evenings one may find the game of darts being played. Many pubs have a darts team which plays matches against teams from other pubs.

Clubs are another unchallenged English invention. The point of a club is not who it lets in, but who it keeps out; and few things can provoke more anger, than the non-membership of an English club. The club is based on two ancient

British ideas – the segregation of classes, and the segregation of sexes: and they remain insistent on keeping people out, long after they have stopped wanting to come in. Viewed from the outside, the clubs have an air of infinite mystery. There exist school clubs and college clubs, political clubs and cultural clubs, town clubs and country clubs. There are sports clubs of all sorts including yacht clubs and driving ones. There are numerous Shakespeare clubs which appeared as the predecessors of the Scottish groups celebrating their ‘Burn’s Nights’ and of Dickensian Fellowships. There are more than 820 ‘official’ music clubs and societies belonging to the National Federation of Music Societies. With the Folk revival in the late fifties folk clubs began to develop on a large scale, the main catalyst being the political and cultural ferment among the contemporary young.

In London Clubland is concentrated in the palatial houses in and around St. James’s Street and Pall Mall. Among the most famous clubs of London The Other Club occupies a special niche. It was founded in 1911 by Winston Churchill and has developed into a powerful pillar of the Establishment. Members of the club gather for dinner once a month when Parliament is in session and their traditional meeting place is the Private Room of the Savoy Hotel, for it has no premises of its own. Their meetings are strictly private and uninhibited; informality and gastronomic distinction jointly reign. The Other Club is rich in traditions, many of them attributed to Winston Churchill. At his behest, and smacking of superstition, a large wooden black cat was seated near him at dinner with a napkin tied around its neck. The name of the black cat was Kaspar. It was designed and carved from a piece of plane tree and was placed near to Winston Churchill whenever there were only thirteen at table. Limited to fifty, the list of membership includes members of the Commons and the Lords and other prominent people. It was given the name The Other Club because it aims always to hear the other man’s point of view.

If the title of this club is odd, so were many in the past. There used to be an Everlasting Club which failed to go on forever; the notorious Hell Fire and the Humbug; the Mug House which succumbed in disorder, and the Ugly with a taste for disfigured faces.

LEISURE AND SPORTS

Britain is the only country in the Common Market whose employers are not forced by law to give their workers paid holidays. However many employers have written agreement with their workers giving them three or four weeks’ holiday a year.

It was the British who started the fashion for seaside holidays. The coast is the most popular objective of English people for their annual holiday. Few English people rent houses or flats for their holidays, but one of the traditional ways of spending a summer holiday is in a boarding-house.

Camping holidays (with tents) are not so developed in England as on the continent. The summer weather too often is very unpleasant for tent-dwellers. On the other hand, caravans have become extremely popular. Some people bring their own caravans, pulling them behind cars; others hire caravans, already in position.

The British people have shown themselves very ready to take to new places. Each year more English people become familiar with some part of continental Europe. Many take their cars, often with tents and caravans, crossing the Channel in ferries; others use the travel agents' scheme for group travel and hotel booking.

There are holiday camps all round the coast of Great Britain. They are ideal places for people who do not want the effort of looking for entertainment. Trained staff look after the children so that the parents can have time off to enjoy themselves. There are youth hostels in different parts of Britain. It is possible to arrange a walking or cycling tour, moving from hostel to hostel.

The English are great lovers of competitive sports. The game peculiarly associated with England is cricket. For the great mass of the British public the eight months of the football season are more important than the four months of cricket. Football is the most popular team game in Britain. There are plenty of amateur association football (or soccer) clubs, but professional football is big business. Every large town has at least one professional football club. The players are sold and bought between the clubs. There is no British team. England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland compete separately in European and World Cup Matches.

Rugby football, or 'rugger' is played with an egg-shaped ball, which may be carried and thrown (but not forward). If a player is carrying ball he may be 'tackled' and made to fall down. Each team has 15 players. There are two forms of Rugby – Rugby Union, which is strictly amateur, and Rugby League, which is a professional sport. Rugby Union is played throughout the British Isles. Rugby got its name from the English public school, Rugby, where about a century ago, a boy picked up a soccer ball and ran with it.

Next to Association Football, the chief spectator sport in English life is horse racing. Most horse racing takes place on working days and during working hours (horse racing is forbidden on Sundays). One of the famous horse race meetings is the Grand National which takes place at Aintree, near Liverpool, in

March or April (steeplechase – race over fences). Another important horse race meeting is the Derby, taking place at Epsom, south of London, in May or June (not over fences – flat race). A very fashionable is ‘Royal’ Ascot: (near Windsor) horse racing, at which women’s fashion is given as much attention by the media as the racing, in June. The Queen always attends it.



Horse racing is a popular spectator sport in Britain. Races take place nearly every day, except most Sundays. The Royal Ascot race meeting, is held every June. This fashionable event is usually attended by members of the royal family

A popular sporting event in Great Britain is the Open Golf Championship (Golf was invented by the Scots).

The Wimbledon Tennis Tournament, in July at Wimbledon, south London, is regarded by many tennis players as the most important championship to win. There is great public interest in the tournament.

No less popular is the Boat Race between Oxford and Cambridge universities, on the river Thames in London at Easter. This course is over seven kilometres. Oxford has won about 60 times, Cambridge nearly 70.

A sport which is popular among a small but important minority is foxhunting. The foxhunting season used to be from November to March. In 2004 The United Kingdom’s Parliament passed a Bill forbidding foxhunting. In the Scottish Highlands deer are hunted on foot, with a gun. This is called ‘deer stalking’. Many of the male hunters wear pink (that is, red coats). On the whole hunting is a sport for the rich.

However, the most popular country sport is fishing, and there are more than 4 million anglers in Britain. Many fish for salmon and trout particularly in the rivers and lochs of Scotland, but in England and Wales the most widely practised form of fishing is for coarse fish such as pike, perch, carp, roach, dace, tench chub, bream.

Progress Questions and Assignments

1. Answer the following questions.

1. What factors contributed to making a distinctive British character?
2. Outline the most important features and qualities of the British character.

3. How do British people spend their holidays?
4. How do the British spend their weekends?
5. Describe the pub, a traditional 'peculiarly English institution'.
6. Give an explanatory account of the social significance of the English club.
7. What club is one of the most famous in Britain?
8. Outline the most popular objectives of English people for their annual holiday.
9. What are holiday camps?
10. Where do many British people like to go abroad?
11. Do many British people have summer houses or dachas? What do they have instead?
12. Are the British great lovers of sports?
13. What are the most popular sports in Britain?

II. Do the following tasks.

Read and memorize the expressions.

Sporting Language

<p>The central place of sport in Britain is indicated by the very large number of sporting expressions and metaphors which has entered the everyday language. Here are some of them.</p>			
<p>From Cricket <i>On a sticky wicket:</i> in a difficult situation <i>On an easy wicket:</i> in a fortunate situation <i>Stumped:</i> at a loss for an answer to a question or solution to a problem <i>Hit something for six:</i> dismiss something emphatically <i>Play with a straight bat:</i> do something in an honest and straightforward way <i>It's not cricket:</i> it is not the proper or fair way of doing something <i>Have a good innings:</i> have a large or adequate amount of time in a certain post; have a long life <i>Off one's own bat:</i> without help from anyone else</p>	<p>From Boxing <i>Saved by the bell:</i> saved from a bad or dangerous situation by a sudden event <i>On the ropes:</i> in a weak position; close to defeat or failure <i>Floored:</i> defeated or confused in an argument or discussion <i>Throw in the towel:</i> admit defeat</p>	<p>From Horse-racing and Riding <i>First past the post:</i> the winner <i>Have the bit between the teeth:</i> determined <i>To be given free rein:</i> to be allowed to do exactly what one wants, without restrictions <i>In the saddle:</i> in control (in modern times the expression <i>in the driving seat</i> is often used instead)</p>	<p>From Other sports or Sport in General <i>Team player:</i> somebody who is good at co-operating with other people in groups <i>Run with the pack:</i> to have no individual principles but just blindly follow the majority <i>Go to the dogs:</i> to start to lead an aimless or self-destructive life <i>In the final straight / on the last lap:</i> in the last stage of some process <i>A safe pair of hands:</i> a reliable person</p>

III. Project.

Write an essay (500 – 600 words) giving a survey of the British holidays and traditions.

SEMINAR 8

1. Describe the main characteristics of the British character, the factors which influenced it.
2. Speak on the British clubs and pubs.
3. Speak on the way the British spend their free time.
4. Account for the most popular sports in Britain.

Round Britain Quiz

1. The person who runs a pub is referred to as the '___'.
2. When people refer to ___ as the English national game, they are not thinking so much of its level of popularity or of the standard of English players, but more of the very English associations that it carries with it. ___ is much more than just a sport; it symbolizes a way of life – a slow and peaceful rural way of life.
3. The most widespread form of hunting used to be ___ – indeed, that is what the word 'hunting' usually means in Britain.
4. The ___ ___: a rowing contest between crews from Oxford and Cambridge Universities takes place in March and April.
5. The increase in car ownership has encouraged many people to take ___ holidays.
6. ___ Saturday's morning is a very busy time for ___, as this is the only day when people, who are at work can ___ for any length of time.
7. The British are very ___, they love familiar things in familiar places. They are against any suggestion that some modification of their habits, or the introduction of something new and unknown into their lives, might be to their advantage.
8. It is the ___ ___ of the country that contributed largely to making a distinctive character of its inhabitants.

MINI-TESTS

FORM A

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The advantages of the geographical position of Great Britain created favourable conditions for the development of ____, ____, ____.
2. Britain possessed abundant supplies of ____ and ____ ____, the two chief minerals on which the Industrial Revolution was based.
3. For electoral purposes the United Kingdom is divided into ____ electoral districts called ____.
4. The word 'comprehensive' expresses the idea that the schools in question take all the children in a given area without ____.
5. The British economy is mainly based on ____ ____.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer.

1. The Channel Islands have been attached to the English Crown since ____.
 - a) the Roman Conquest;
 - b) the Anglo-Saxon Conquest;
 - c) the Norman Conquest.
2. British industry has become increasingly orientated towards ____.
 - a) heavier industry;
 - b) more sophisticated industry;
 - c) agriculture.
3. The three crosses of the Union Jack ____.
 - a) reflect the three main religions in the country;
 - b) are the crosses of England, Scotland and Ireland;
 - c) symbolize the union of Wales, England and Scotland.
4. The political division of Ireland was to a great degree ____.
 - a) the result of economic differences between the north and the south of the island;
 - b) the result of religious differences when in the north of Ireland the Protestants were in majority;
 - c) caused by geographical factors.
5. The Druids were a special group among the Celts ____.
 - a) who were both priests and doctors;
 - b) responsible for making different weapons for the warriors;
 - c) who acted as judges during different conflicts among the tribes.
6. The Thames valley between London and Bristol ____.
 - a) is an area of concentration of high technology industries;
 - b) is famous for its small towns with many gardens;
 - c) is an area of concentration of heavy industry.
7. The main Bills are introduced first in the Commons; the Lords can only hold up for one year, and they cannot do this to ____.
 - a) economic Bills;
 - b) financial Bills;
 - c) political Bills.

8. Many principles of the British Constitution by which Britain is governed are principles of the ____.

- a) rules of custom;
- b) rules of law;
- c) precedent.

III. Are the statements true or false?

- 1. Britain remains self-sufficient in poultry meat and eggs.
- 2. The oldest of the public schools were founded to give free education to clever boys whose parents could not afford to educate them privately.
- 3. Stonehenge is located in the middle of Salisbury Plain in the north of Scotland.
- 4. The Iberians came to Britain after 2000 BC from Africa.
- 5. Glen More contains several lakes including Lough Neagh.

FORM B

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

- 1. The Cheviot Hills serve as a natural ____ between England and ____.
- 2. Because of the North Atlantic Drift and the predominantly maritime air masses that reach the British Isles from the ____, the range in ____ throughout the year is never very great.
- 3. After the departure of ____ Britain became conquered by the Germanic tribes of ____, ____ and ____.
- 4. The chief officer of the House of Commons is the ____.
- 5. In ____ the ____ ____ was introduced, which means that there is now greater government control over what is taught in schools.
- 6. Eighty per cent of industrial and agricultural production of the United Kingdom is concentrated in ____.
- 7. Today Britain is ____ in energy, and exports some of its ____ to other countries.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer.

- 1. In north-west England, separated by the Pennines and by the valley of the river Eden, lie ____.
 - a) the Cambrian mountains;
 - b) the Cumbrian mountains;
 - c) The Grampian mountains.
- 2. In the 1960s several discoveries of natural gas were made on the continental shelf off the east coast of Britain, in the bed of ____.
 - a) the Irish Sea;
 - b) the North Sea;
 - c) the English Channel.
- 3. The Roman occupation of Britain ____.
 - a) began when Caesar crushed the opposition of the Celts;
 - b) started in 43 AD and ended at the beginning of the 5th century;
 - c) brought much disorder in the country.
- 4. The problem of Northern Ireland is closely connected ____.
 - a) with the geographical position of this province;
 - b) with religion because the Irish people can be divided into two religious groups: Catholics and Protestants;
 - c) with the fact that agriculture is the main branch of the economy.

5. In some areas children moving from state primary to secondary education are still selected for certain types of schools ____.
- grammar schools and secondary modern schools;
 - comprehensive schools;
 - secondary modern schools.
6. Britain's agriculture is famous for its high level of ____.
- efficiency;
 - diversity;
 - productivity.
7. The Parliament Act of 1911 deprived the Lords of much of their power, so that the House of Lords ceased to be a determining factor in ____.
- government;
 - legislation;
 - law making.
8. Special regional development programmes have been worked out for Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland ____.
- and now these regions are flourishing economically;
 - and new industries have been attracted to the regions which now make the face of these regions;
 - but so far the problem remains unsolved.

III. Are the statements true or false?

- During the 19th century Britain became increasingly independent on imported food.
- Traditionally Britain's trade balance is positive, that is she exports more than she imports.
- Two characteristics of the British Constitution confuse most foreigners; there is no written constitution, it is not contained in any single document.
- To this very day Scotland continues to keep its own system of law, education and have an independent church.
- St. David is the patron saint of Ireland.
- In a British election the candidate who wins the most votes is elected, even if he or she does not get as many as all the votes of the other candidates taken together.
- The German invaders occupied all of the British Isles.

FORM C

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

- The Welsh flag is a red ____ on a ____ and ____ ground.
- The traditional old British industries as ____, ____, ____, ____ have declined.
- The last invasion of Britain took place in ____ when the country was conquered by the ____.
- Secondary education in the United Kingdom is compulsory up to the age of ____, and pupils may stay on at school voluntarily until they are ____.
- Saturday morning is a very busy time for ____, as this is the only day when people who are at work can ____ as long as they want.
- The final unification of ____ and ____ took place in 1707 when both sides agreed to form a single parliament in London.

7. There are many people who believe that ___ was built by sun-worshippers as a ___ to the Sun.
8. The name Britain come form a ___ tribe known as the Britons.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer.

1. From the European continent the British Isles are separated by ____.
 - a) the North Sea and the Atlantic Ocean;
 - b) the Irish Sea and the English Channel;
 - c) the English Channel and the North Sea.
2. The longest river of the British Isles is the river ____.
 - a) Severn;
 - b) Thames;
 - c) Shannon.
3. There is a great number of French words in English ____.
 - a) because they were borrowed by the English when Christianity spread in England;
 - b) due the influence of the Celts;
 - c) because French became the official language in Britain after the Norman invasion.
4. The National Curriculum places greater emphasis on the more ____.
 - a) theoretical aspects of education;
 - b) practical aspects of education;
 - c) advanced skills teaching.
5. The Irish Free State and Northern Ireland were formed ____.
 - a) at the end of the 19th century in the course of the struggle of the Irish people for their independence;
 - b) in 1921 when the partition of Ireland took place;
 - c) as a result of an agreement between the southern and northern parts of Ireland
6. Scotland due to its physical features which influence the development of its economy ____.
 - a) may be divided into two parts;
 - b) is divided into the Scottish Highlands, the Central Lowlands and the Southern Uplands;
 - c) is regarded as one mountainous region.
7. Modern British farming displays two important characteristics ____.
 - a) intensive farming and mixed farming;
 - b) extensive farming and mixed farming;
 - c) intensive farming and extensive farming.

III. Are the statements true or false?

1. British agriculture is protected by an artificial price structure and by taxes imposed on imported food.
2. In the United Kingdom the candidates can be nominated by different parties, but the real contest is between the two big parties – the Conservative Party and the Labour Party.
3. The Beaker people were called so because of the weapons found in their graves.
4. The Union Jack is made up of three crosses on a green ground.
5. Today Belfast is a small town which has no important industrial activity.
6. One of the fundamental principles of the constitution of Great Britain is the supremacy of Parliament.
7. The separation of the British Isles took place 5000 years ago.
8. The rise of Britain as an industrial nation in the late 18th and early 19th centuries was partly due to the presence of considerable mineral resources.

FINAL TEST

1. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The advantages of geographical position of Great Britain created favourable conditions for the development of ____.
2. The separation of the British Isles took place ____.
3. The British Isles are known for their greatly ____ coastline.
4. The Pennine range forms a large table-land the highest point of which is ____.
5. The Cheviot Hills serve as a natural ____ between England and ____.
6. Because of the North Atlantic Drift and the predominantly maritime air masses that reach the British Isles from the ____, the range in ____ throughout the year is never very great.
7. Britain possessed abundant supplies of ____ and ____, the two chief minerals on which the Industrial Revolution was based.
8. The Welsh flag is a red ____ on a ____ and ____ ground.
9. The name Britain comes from the name of a ____ tribe known as the Britons.
10. Many scholars believe that London began as a Celtic ____ called Llyn-dyn.
11. The most outstanding wall which the Romans built in the north of the country was ____.
12. After the departure of ____ Britain became conquered by the Germanic tribes of ____, ____ and ____.
13. Many Celts fled to the regions which were not occupied by the Germanic tribes: ____, ____, ____.
14. It was lucky for Wessex to have a talented king whose name was Alfred and who led the struggle against the ____.
15. The last invasion of Britain took place in ____ when the country was conquered by the ____.
16. The final unification of ____ and ____ took place in 1707 when both sides agreed to form a single parliament in London.
17. For years there has been a conflict between the ____ and ____ in Northern Ireland.
18. There are many people who believe that ____ was built by sun-worshippers as a ____ to the Sun.
19. The story of the heel stone is connected with the ____ and the ____ who saw the ____ at work.
20. One of the fundamental principles of the constitution of Great Britain is the ____ of ____.
21. For electoral purposes the United Kingdom is divided into ____ electoral districts called ____.
22. The chief of the House of Commons is the ____.
23. The Cabinet is a ____ organ of Government composed of about ____ most important ____.
24. In ____, however, the ____ was introduced, which means that there is now greater government control over what is taught in schools.
25. The word 'comprehensive' expresses the idea that the schools in question take all the children in a given area, without ____.
26. Secondary education is compulsory up to the age of ____, and pupils may stay on at school voluntarily until they are ____.

27. Though limited in number the ___ schools are the largest and most important of the independent schools.
28. Britain today is fifth in size of its ___.
29. The traditional old industries as ___, ___, ___, ___ have declined.
30. The British economy is mainly based on ___ ___.
31. Today Britain is ___ in energy, and exports some of its oil abroad.
32. Eighty per cent of industrial and agricultural production is concentrated in ___.
33. It was decided to support agriculture by paying ___ to farmers which would help them to compete with foreign producers.
34. It is part of the Englishman's code not to ___ upon his neighbours and their way of doing things.
35. Saturday morning is a very busy time for ___, as this is the only day when people who are at work can ___ for any length of time.
36. Rugby football is played with an ___ ___, which may be carried and thrown.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer.

1. From the European continent the British Isles are separated by ____.
 a) the North Sea and the Atlantic Ocean;
 b) the Irish Sea and the English Channel;
 c) the English Channel and the North Sea.
2. The Channel Islands have been attached to the English Crown since ____.
 a) the Roman Conquest;
 b) the Anglo-Saxon Conquest;
 c) the Norman Conquest.
3. The chief islands of the group of the Channel Islands are the Isles of ____.
 a) Wight and Jersey;
 b) Jersey and Scilly;
 c) Guernsey and Jersey.
4. In north-west England, separated by the Pennines and by the valley of the river Eden, lie ____.
 a) the Cambrian mountains;
 b) the Cumbrian mountains;
 c) the Grampian mountains.
5. The South-West Peninsula includes the counties of ____.
 a) Kent, Somerset, Devon;
 b) Devon, Cornwall, Somerset;
 c) Wiltshire, Kent, Devon.
6. The longest river of Great Britain is the river ____.
 a) Severn;
 b) Thames;
 c) Shannon.
7. Relief is the most important factor controlling the distribution of ____.
 a) temperature and sunshine;
 b) sunshine and precipitation;
 c) precipitation and temperature.

8. Although the British are crowded very closely in a very small country, there is one respect in which they are very fortunate: this is their ____.
- weather;
 - climate;
 - geographical position.
9. Many of Britain's most valuable and accessible deposits of non-ferrous metals have been ____.
- developed;
 - worked out;
 - exhausted.
10. At the same time British industry has become increasingly orientated towards ____.
- heavier industry;
 - agriculture;
 - more sophisticated industry.
11. The most important coal deposits are to be found in such industrial regions as Yorkshire, Lancashire, North-East England, the Midlands, Central Scotland and ____.
- North-West England;
 - Northern Ireland;
 - South Wales.
12. In the 1960s several discoveries of natural gas were made on the continental shelf off the east coast of Britain, in the bed of ____.
- the Irish Sea;
 - the North Sea;
 - the English Channel.
13. The three crosses of the Union Jack ____.
- reflect the three main religions in the country;
 - are the crosses of England, Scotland and Ireland;
 - symbolize the union of Wales, England and Scotland.
14. The influence of the Celts was greatest ____.
- in the south-east of the country near London;
 - in Wales, Scotland and Ireland;
 - during the invasion of the Romans.
15. The Roman occupation of Britain ____.
- began when Caesar crushed the opposition of the Celts;
 - started in 43 A.D. and ended at the beginning of the 5th century;
 - brought much disorder in the country.
16. The Saxon kingdoms fought one against the other, but at the beginning of the ninth century ____.
- Wessex became the leading kingdom which united all the country in the struggle against the Danes;
 - the Danes occupied all Britain under their rule;
 - peace was established as a result of the adoption of Christianity.

17. There is a great number of French words in English ____.
- because they were borrowed by the English when Christianity spread in England;
 - due to the influence of the Celts;
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18. The problem of Northern Ireland is closely connected ____.
- with the geographical position of this province;
 - with religion, because the Irish people can be divided into two religious groups: Catholics and Protestants;
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19. The Irish Free State and Northern Ireland were formed ____.
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 - as a result of compromise between the southern and northern parts of Ireland.
20. In 1969 conflict started between the Catholics and Protestants in Northern Ireland ____.
- because the Catholics did not have equal rights with the Protestants;
 - when the Catholics started a campaign to unite with the Irish Republic;
 - because the two communities could not agree on the land question.
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- who were both priests and doctors;
 - responsible for making different weapons for the warriors;
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22. The stones of Stonehenge were ____.
- brought by the ancient people as far away as from south Wales and north Wiltshire;
 - collected from a nearby hill;
 - erected in the form of a square.
23. The Parliament Act of 1999 deprived the Lords of their right to pass a ____ in the House of Lords.
- title;
 - fortune;
 - seat.
24. Britain is almost alone among modern states in that it does not have a ____ at all.
- president;
 - constitution;
 - army.
25. The parliamentary electoral system of Great Britain encourages the domination of ____.
- one major political party;
 - two major political parties;
 - three major political parties.
26. The main Bills are introduced first in the Commons and the Lords can only hold up them for one year, and they cannot do even this to ____.
- economic Bills;
 - financial Bills;
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27. The new curriculum places greater emphasis on the more ____.
- a) theoretical aspects of education;
 - b) practical aspects of education;
 - c) advanced skills teaching.
28. The practical application of knowledge is based around the core subjects of ____.
- a) mathematics and chemistry;
 - b) English, mathematics and science;
 - c) science.
29. In some areas children moving from state primary to secondary education are still selected for certain types of schools ____.
- a) grammar schools and secondary modern schools;
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31. Parents who wish to send their children to a public school often send them first to ____.
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32. Special regional development programmes have been worked out for Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland ____.
- a) and now these regions are flourishing economically;
 - b) and new industries have been attracted to the regions which now make the face of these regions;
 - c) but so far the problem remains unsolved.
33. The South Industrial and Agricultural region is the most important region in the country ____.
- a) in terms of industry, agriculture and population;
 - b) as regards the development of the fishing industry;
 - c) because it attracts the greatest number of tourists from abroad.
34. The Thames valley between London and Bristol ____.
- a) is an area of concentration of high technology industries;
 - b) is famous for its small towns with many gardens;
 - c) is an area of concentration of heavy industry.
35. Scotland due to its physical features which influence the development of the economy ____.
- a) may be divided into two parts;
 - b) is divided into the Scottish Highlands, the Central Lowlands and the Southern Uplands;
 - c) is regarded as one mountainous region.
36. Britain's agriculture employs about ____ of the working population.
- a) 5 %;
 - b) 2 %;
 - c) 25 %.

37. Although cultivable land is found in almost every lowland, particular concentrations of such land occur in ____.
- eastern England and eastern Scotland;
 - western Scotland;
 - eastern Scotland and northern England.
38. Modern British farming displays two important characteristics: ____.
- intensive farming and mixed farming;
 - extensive farming and mixed farming;
 - intensive farming and extensive farming.
39. The game that is especially connected with England is ____.
- cricket;
 - basketball;
 - ice-hockey.
40. For the great mass of the British people the eight months of ____.
- lawn tennis are more important than the four months of ice-hockey;
 - football playing are more important than the four months of cricket;
 - fishing are most popular starting in early October.
41. Each team in rugby football or rugger ____.
- has 15 players who spend much time trying to seize the egg-shaped ball;
 - has 12 players who wear such protective clothing as men playing American football;
 - plays inside sport halls where there are special facilities for the game to be played.

III. Are the statements true or false?

- A famous race-course is located near Edinburgh, where a popular annual horse race is held called the Derby Cup.
- It was not the British who started the fashion for seaside holidays.
- Church bells are another typical feature of an English Sunday morning, and many people go to morning service.
- During the 19th century Britain became increasingly independent on imported food.
- British agriculture is protected by an artificial price structure and by taxes imposed on imported food.
- Of root crops cultivated in Britain, most important are potatoes and sugar beet.
- Britain remains self-sufficient in poultry meat and eggs.
- Unemployment in Britain is not high because the new industries compensate the decline of the old industries.
- Today the government's policy is aimed at encouraging and expanding nationalization.
- About 40 % of Britain's working population is engaged in agriculture.
- Traditionally Britain's trade balance is negative, that is she exports more than she imports.
- Today, among the economic and social problems of the country we may speak about the gap between the 'depressed' North and the 'flourishing' South.

8. Although the British are crowded very closely in a very small country, there is one respect in which they are very fortunate: this is their ____.
- weather;
 - climate;
 - geographical position.
9. Many of Britain's most valuable and accessible deposits of non-ferrous metals have been ____.
- developed;
 - worked out;
 - exhausted.
10. At the same time British industry has become increasingly orientated towards ____.
- heavier industry;
 - agriculture;
 - more sophisticated industry.
11. The most important coal deposits are to be found in such industrial regions as Yorkshire, Lancashire, North-East England, the Midlands, Central Scotland and ____.
- North-West England;
 - Northern Ireland;
 - South Wales.
12. In the 1960s several discoveries of natural gas were made on the continental shelf off the east coast of Britain, in the bed of ____.
- the Irish Sea;
 - the North Sea;
 - the English Channel.
13. The three crosses of the Union Jack ____.
- reflect the three main religions in the country;
 - are the crosses of England, Scotland and Ireland;
 - symbolize the union of Wales, England and Scotland.
14. The influence of the Celts was greatest ____.
- in the south-east of the country near London;
 - in Wales, Scotland and Ireland;
 - during the invasion of the Romans.
15. The Roman occupation of Britain ____.
- began when Caesar crushed the opposition of the Celts;
 - started in 43 A.D. and ended at the beginning of the 5th century;
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13. The oldest of the public schools were founded to give education to clever boys whose parents could afford to educate them privately.
14. The school year is divided into two terms of about 19 weeks each.
15. The candidates can be nominated by different parties, but the real contest is between the two big parties – the Conservative Party and the Labour Party.
16. In a British election the candidate who wins the most votes is elected, if he or she gets more votes than the other candidates.
17. The process of passing a Bill is not the same in the House of Lords as in the House of Commons.
18. Two characteristics of the British Constitution confuse most foreigners: there is no written constitution; it is not contained in any single document.
19. As head of state the Queen, in international affairs, has no power to declare war and make peace, to recognize foreign states and governments to conclude treaties.
20. Today Belfast is a small town which has no important industrial activity.
21. When Northern Ireland was formed in 1921 it received its own Parliament which is located in the very center of Belfast.
22. Edward I made his son Prince of Wales because he was born in Wales and spoke Welsh very well.
23. Stonehenge is located in the middle of Salisbury Plain in the north of England.
24. The Beaker people were called so because of the furniture found in their graves.
25. The IRA wanted to achieve a united Ireland by peaceful means.
26. The German invaders occupied all of the British Isles.
27. The Scottish Kingdom was formed in the 9th century as a result of the unification of the Scots and the Anglo-Saxons.
28. To this very day Scotland continues to keep its own system of law, education and have an independent church.
29. The Union Jack is made up of four crosses on a green ground.
30. St. David is the patron saint of Scotland.
31. The Iberians came to Britain after 2000 BC from Africa.
32. Caesar's second expedition in Britain was successful.
33. The rise of Britain as an industrial nation in the late 18th and early 19th centuries was partly due to the presence of considerable mineral resources.
34. With the introduction of new sources of power and fuel the production of coal has decreased considerably and constitutes at present about 100 million tons.
35. Glen More contains several lakes including Lough Neagh.

APPENDIX

Chronology of Significant Dates in British History

Early history:

Prehistory	British-Irish islands once part of European land mass: warmer conditions alternated with Ice Ages
500,000 BC	earliest human bones found in southern England
250,000 BC	nomadic Old Stone Age (Palaeolithic) peoples
50,000 BC	warmer climate encouraged the arrival of distant ancestors of the modern populations
10,000 BC	end of Ice Ages. Population consisted of hunter-gatherers and fishers
6000 BC	contemporary islands gradually separated from continental Europe
3000 BC	New Stone Age (Neolithic) peoples populated the western parts of the islands. Farming introduced
2400 BC	Beaker Folk (Bronze Age) settled in southeast and eastern England
800 BC	settlement of the Celts (Iron Age) began
55-54 BC	Julius Caesar's exploratory expeditions
AD 43	Roman conquest of England, Wales and (temporarily) lowland Scotland by Claudius. Christian influences
200-400	the Scots from Ireland colonized western Scotland
122-38	Hadrian's Wall built between Scotland and England
409	Roman army withdrew from Britain
410	Germanic (Anglo-Saxon) invasions began; Anglo-Saxon kingdoms created from the 450s in England. Mainly Celtic peoples in Wales, Ireland, parts of Scotland and Cornwall
430	Existing Christianity in Ireland later spread by St. Patrick and others in Ireland and Scotland
597	St. Augustine converted Anglo-Saxons to Christianity
664	Synod of Whitby chose Roman Catholic church model
789-95	Scandinavian (Viking) raids began
820	the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms dominated by Wessex
832-60	union of the Celts (Scots and Picts) in Scotland to form most of the eventual kingdom of Scotland
878	Vikings defeated in England by King Alfred of Wessex
954	the Kingdom of England formed
1014	Vikings defeated in Ireland

The early Middle Ages

1066	William the Conqueror defeated King Harold at Hastings and ascended the English throne. Feudalism introduced
-------------	--

- 1086** *Domesday Book* (tax records) compiled in England
- 1169** Henry II invaded the east coast of Ireland
- 1215** King John signed Magna Carta, which protected English feudal (aristocratic) rights against royal abuse
- 1220** first Oxford and Cambridge colleges created
- 1258 and 1264** first English parliamentary structures
- 1275** the Model Parliament (first regular English Parliament)
- 1282** much of Wales controlled by England under Edward I
- 1296** the Scots defeated by Edward I
- 1297** first Irish Parliament
- 1314** battle of Bannockburn regained Scottish independence
- 1326** first Scottish Parliament

The late Middle Ages

- 1337** Hundred Years War between England and France began
- 1348-49** Black Death (bubonic plague) destroyed a third of the islands' population
- 1362** English replaced French as the official language
- 1381** Peasants' Revolt in England
- 1387-1394** Geoffrey Chaucer wrote *The Canterbury Tales*
- 1400-10** Failed Welsh revolt by Owain Glyndwr against English
- 1407** the House of Commons became responsible for taxation
- 1411** the first university in Scotland founded (St. Andrews)
- 1415** the Battle of Agincourt; England defeated France
- 1455-87** Wars of the Roses between Yorkists and Lancastrians
- 1477** first book printed in England, by William Caxton

Towards the nation state (Britain)

- 1509** accession of Henry VIII
- 1534-40** English Reformation; Henry VIII broke with Papacy and became Head of the English Church (Roman Catholic)
- 1536-42** Acts of Union integrated England and Wales
- 1547-53** Protestantism became official religion in England under Edward VI
- 1553-58** Catholic reaction under Mary I
- 1558-1603** Elizabeth I. Protestant ascendancy
- 1558** Calais, England's last possession in France, lost
- 1560** creation of Protestant Church of Scotland by John Knox
- 1584** first English colony (Virginia) in North America
- 1587** Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, executed in London
- 1588** defeat of Spanish Armada
- 1590-1613** plays of William Shakespeare written

1600	East India (trading) Company founded
1603	union of the two crowns under James VI of Scotland (James I of England)
1607	Plantation of Ulster with Scottish and English settlers
1611	the Authorized (King James) Version of the Bible issued
1642-48	Civil Wars between King and Parliament
1649	execution of Charles I, monarchy abolished
1653-58	Oliver Cromwell ruled as Lord Protector
1660	monarchy restored under Charles II
1665	the Great Plague in England
1666	the Great Fire of London
1679	Habeus Corpus Act passed. Party political system grew
1688	the Glorious Revolution: accession of William III and Mary II to the throne
1689	the Declaration of Rights
1690	Irish defeated by William III at the Battle of the Boyne

The eighteenth century

1707	Acts of Union joined England/Wales and Scotland (Great Britain)
1715	Scottish Jacobite rebellions crushed Walpole became Britain's first prime minister
1739	War with Spain
1742	War with France
1745	Failed Scottish rebellion under Bonnie Prince Charlie
1760s-1830s	Industrial Revolutions
1761	opening of the Bridgewater Canal began the Canal Age
1769	the steam engine and the spinning machine invented
1775-83	American War for Independence; loss of 13 Colonies
1793-1815	Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars

The nineteenth century

1801	Act of Union joined Great Britain and Ireland (United Kingdom)
1805	Battle of Trafalgar. Nelson defeated the French navy
1807	abolition of the slave trade in the British Empire
1815	Napoleon defeated by Wellington at Waterloo
1825	opening of the Stockton and Darlington Railway, the world's first passenger railway
1829	Catholic emancipation (freedom of religious worship)
1832	First Reform Act extended the male franchise (vote)
1838	the People's Charter and the beginning of trade unions
1839	The Durham Report on dominion status for some colonies
1845	disastrous harvest failure in Ireland

1851	first trade unions appeared
1853-56	The Crimean War
1868	Trades Union Congress (TUC) established
1870	elementary state school education introduced
1871	legal recognition of trade unions
1899	The Boer War (South Africa)

The twentieth century

1901	death of Queen Victoria (born 1837)
1911	political power of the House of Lords restricted
1914-18	First World War
1916	Easter Rising against Britain in Dublin
1918	all men over twenty-one receive the vote
1921-22	Irish Free State established. Northern Ireland remained part of the United Kingdom
1924	the first Labour government
1926	the General Strike
1928	votes for all women over twenty-one
1931	the Commonwealth officially formed
1939-45	Second World War (W. Churchill, Prime Minister (1940))
1944	the Butler Education Act; compulsory secondary school education
1945	United Nations formed
1947	Independence for India and Pakistan
1948	National Health Service created
1949	Irish Free State became Republic of Eire. NATO created
1952	accession of Elizabeth II
1956	the Suez Canal Crisis
1965	death penalty abolished
1965-69	oil and gas discoveries in the North Sea
1968	protest and violence erupted in Northern Ireland
1972	direct rule from Westminster in Northern Ireland
1973	Britain entered European Economic Community (now EU)
1975	referendum on Britain's continued membership of EEC
1979	Margaret Thatcher: Britain's first woman Prime Minister
1982	the Falklands War with Argentina
1994	the Channel Tunnel between France and Britain opened
1997	referendums on devolution for Scotland and Wales
1999-2000	devolution structures in Scotland (a Parliament) and Wales and Northern Ireland (Assemblies)

Kings and Queens of England from Alfred

871-901	Alfred		
901-25	Edward the Elder		
925-40	Athelstan		
940-6	Edmund		
946-55	Edred		
<i>Saxon Line</i>		<i>House of York</i>	
955-9	Edwy	1461-83	Edward IV
959-75	Edgar	1483	Edward V
975-8	Edward the Martyr	1483-5	Richard III
978-1016	Ethelred II, the Unready		
1016	Edmund Ironside	<i>House of Tudor</i>	
		1485-1509	Henry VII
		1509-47	Henry VIII
<i>Danish line</i>		1547-1553	Edward VI
1016-35	Canute	1553-8	Mary
1035-40	Harold Harefoot	1558-1603	Elizabeth I
1040-2	Hardicanute		
		<i>House of Stuart</i>	
<i>Saxon Line</i>		1603-25	James I
1042-66	Edward the Confessor	1625-49	Charles I
1066	Harold Godwinson	1649-60	in exile Charles II
		1660-85	
		1685-8	James II
<i>House of Normandy</i>		1689-94	William III and Mary II
1066-87	William the Conqueror	1694-1702	William III (alone)
1087-1100	William II (Rufus)	1702-14	Anne
1100-35	Henry I		
1135-54	Stephen		
		<i>House of Hanover</i>	
<i>House of Plantagenet</i>		1714-27	George I
1154-89	Henry II	1727-60	George II
1189-99	Richard I	1760-1820	George III
1199-1216	John	1820-30	George IV
1216-72	Henry III	1830-7	William IV
1272-1307	Edward I	1837-1901	Victoria
1307-27	Edward II		
1327-77	Edward III	<i>House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha</i>	
1377-99	Richard II	1901-10	Edward VII
<i>House of Lancaster</i>		<i>House of Windsor</i>	
1399-1413	Henry IV	1910-36	George V
1413-22	Henry V	1936	Edward VIII
1422-61	Henry VI	1936-52	George VI
		1952-	Elizabeth II

British Prime Ministers and Governments

<i>Name</i>	<i>Party</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Party</i>	<i>Date</i>
Spenser Perceval	Tory	1809	H.H. Asquith	Liberal	1908
Earl of Liverpool	Tory	1812	H.H. Asquith	Coalition	1915
George Canning	Tory	1827	D. Lloyd-George	Coalition	1916
Viscount Goderich	Tory	1827	A. Bonar Law	Conservative	1922
Duke of Wellington	Tory	1828	Stanley Baldwin	Conservative	1923
Earl Grey	Whig	1830	J. Ramsay MacDonald	Labour	1924
Viscount Melbourne	Whig	1834	Stanley Baldwin	Conservative	1924
Sir Robert Peel	Tory	1834	J. Ramsay MfcDonald	Labour	1929
Viscount Melbourne	Whig	1835	J. Ramsay MacDonald	Coalition	1931
Sir Robert Peel	Tory	1841	Stanley Baldwin	Coalition	1935
Lord John Russell	Whig	1846	Neville Chamberlain	Coalition	1937
Earl of Derby	Tory	1852	Winston S. Churchill	Coalition	1940
Earl of Aberdeen	Peelite	1852	Winston S. Churchill	Conservative	1945
Viscount Palmerston	Liberal	1855	Clement R. Attlee	Labour	1945
Earl of Derby	Conservative	1858	Sir Winston Churchill	Conservative	1951
Viscount Palmerston	Liberal	1859	Sir Anthony Eden	Conservative	1955
Earl Russel	Liberal	1865	Harold Macmillan	Conservative	1957
Earl of Derby	Conservative	1866	Sir Alec Douglas-Home	Conservative	1963
Benjamin Disraeli	Conservative	1868	Harold Wilson	Labour	1964
W.E. Gladstone	Liberal	1868	Edward Heath	Conservative	1970
Benjamin Disraeli	Conservative	1874	Harold Wilson	Labour	1974
W.E. Gladstone	Liberal	1880	James Callaghan	Labour	1976
Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative	1885	Margaret Thatcher	Conservative	1979
W.E. Gladstone	Liberal	1886	Margaret Thatcher	Conservative	1983
Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative	1886	Margaret Thatcher	Conservative	1987
W.E. Gladstone	Liberal	1892	John Major	Conservative	1990
Earl of Rosebury	Liberal	1894	John Major	Conservative	1992
Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative	1895	Tony Blair	Labour	1997
A.J. Balfour	Conservative	1902	Tony Blair	Labour	2000
Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman	Liberal	1905	Tony Blair	Labour	2005

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