Дрогобицький державний педагогічний університет

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***ВІРА СЛІПЕЦЬКА***

**COUNTRY STUDIES:**

**THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND**

**Навчально-методичний посібник для студентів**

**Спеціальності 6.020303 Філологія. Мова і література (англійська)**

**Дрогобич – 2010**

**Вступне слово**

Навчально-методичний посібник є спробою конденсованого викладу теоретичного матеріалу і практичних завдань з курсу "Країнознавство Великої Британії та Північної Ірландії". Метою посібника є ознайомлення студентів з етапами історичного розвитку країни, з державним устрієм та сучасним політичним положенням країни, з соціальною дійсністю та освітнім, культурним життям у Великій Британії.

Навчально-методичний посібник укладено відповідно до вимог програми навчальної дисципліни "Країнознавство Великої Британії та Північної Ірландії" для підготовки фахівців ОКР "Бакалавр". Посібник складається з курсу лекцій, до якого входять завдання усного та письмового контролю знань, та планів семінарських занять з переліком рекомендованої літератури. Виконання практичних завдань сприятиме засвоєнню теоретичного матеріалу, розвитку креативного потенціалу студентів.

Входження України у європейський освітній простір передбачає введення у вищих навчальних закладах кредитно-модульної системи у навчальний процес. Актуальним у цьому аспекті є поділ тематики семінарських занять на три модулі. У посібнику подано, як зразок, три модульні контрольні роботи для самостійної перевірки рівня засвоєння знань студентами. У Додатках подано хронологічний довідник для кращої орієнтації студентів у історичному просторі Великої Британії. Словник термінів також включено у Додатках.

Методика викладу матеріалу, запропоновані вправи відповідають вимогам, які передбачені програмою вивчення іноземної мови на рівнях Intermediate та Upper-Intermediate.

Посібник адресований студентам-філологам, вчителям англійської мови.

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**I. Physical Background of Great Britain.**

1. Territory and Structure.

2. Rivers and Lakes of Great Britain.

3. Mountains of Great Britain. Fauna and Flora.

4. Climate.

5. Mineral Resources.

The British Isles consist of a group of islands located in North-west Europe between the North Sea and the Atlantic Ocean. This group of islands lies between latitudes 50 and 61(deg) North and longitudes 1 deg 45 East and 8.10 deg West, the prime meridian of 0 deg passing through the old observatory of Greenwich.

The British Isles consist of the 2 large islands of Great Britain and Ireland and over 5.000 small islands. The total area of the British Isles is 322,246 sq. km.

Britain formally known as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland constitutes the greater part of the islands. It comprises England, Wales, Scotland and the Northern part of Ireland. The Southern part of Ireland the second largest island of the group is the Irish Republic of Eire.

The most important islands are as follows: the Isle of Man, the Isle of White. The largest of them is the Isle of Man. Its territory is 571 sq. km. It is in the Irish Sea. The Isle of White is off the southern coast of England. The Isles of Scilly are off the South-west coast of England and Anglesey is off North Wales.

Western Scotland is fringed by numerous islands and to the far North are the important groups: the Orkney Islands and the Shetlands.

Great Britain is washed by the Atlantic Ocean on the north-west, north and south-west. It is separated from Europe by the North Sea, the Strait of Dover or Pas de Calais and the English Channel commonly called the Channel. The Channel is 220 km wide and the Straight of Dover is only 32 km wide. The North Sea and the English Channel are very often called “narrow seas”. They are not deep but they are frequently rough and difficult to navigate during storms. In 1996 France and England were connected by the tunnel under the Channel.

On the West Great Britain is separated from Ireland by the Irish Sea and the North Channel. The Seas around Britain are shallow and provide good fishing grounds.

The coastline of Great Britain is deeply indented. No part of the country is more than 120 km from the sea. The country has a great number of bays and natural harbours. The western coasts are very broken and the eastern are more regular in outline.

The British Isles belong to the class of islands which is called continental as they rest on a raised part of the sea-bed, usually called the continental shelf which thousands years ago used to be dryland and which constituted part of mainland Europe. The Channel now covers what was once a wide valley. There are many proofs of this.

Strictly speaking, "Great Britain" is a geographical expression but "The United Kingdom" is a political expression. "Britain" and "British" have two meanings. They sometimes refer to Great Britain alone, and sometimes to the United Kingdom including Northern Ireland. "England" and "English" are often incorrectly used to refer to the whole of Great Britain.

**Rivers and Lakes of Great Britain**

There is a wide network of rivers in the BI, though generally short in length and navigable but in their lower reaches, especially during the high tides. Mild maritime climate keeps them free of ice throughout the winter months. The rivers of Great Britain are short. They run either from the east to the west or from the west to the east. Most of them run in the eastward direction. Due to the mild climate the water-level in British rivers is always high. The rivers seldom freeze in winter, but they are not navigable for ocean-going ships. The most important rivers are: the Severn, the Tyne, the Clyde. The longest river in Ireland is Shannon (384 km). The Thames is 332 km long, the Severn (the largest river) is 390 km long.

In the Middle Ages river transport played a major role in the British internal transport system, and all the large towns of the time were situated on navigable rivers. But since the beginning of the 19th century the waterways, including numerous canals, have steadily declined in importance, and many have fallen into disuse.

The drainage map of the British Isles seems to contain no clear pattern. The largest **river** the **Severn** follows a particularly puzzling course. After rising on the slopes of Plynlimmon in central Wales, it flows at first north-eastwards, but later turns sharply through the Ironbridge gorge and then runs southwards and southwestwards to the Bristol Channel. The courses of the Trent (274 km) and the upper Thames (332 km) also show many changes in direction. Many of the largest rivers in Scotland such as the Tweed, Forth, Dee and Spey drain directly to the North Sea. Scotland’s longest river, the river Tay (170 km long) also follows this course. Among other important rivers which flow eastwards, to the North Sea, are the rivers Trent, Tyne, Tees in England.

A number of streams flow down to the west coast, to the Irish Sea, including the Clyde in Scotland, the Eden, the Mersey and the Severn. A few small rivers flow to the English Channel.

There are 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 river Shannon (384 km), flowing from north to south of Ireland.

The Quaternary glaciation has further modified the river patterns in many areas. This is especially true of central Ireland, where the uneven surface of the drift cover has led, as in the basin of the Shannon, to much bad drainage, many peat bogs and numerous large lakes, such as Loughs Ree and Derg.

Most of the British lakes are in part the result of glacial erosion and in part due to chemical solution of the underlying limestone. There is a host of small winding lakes in Scotland, in Cumbria and in Ireland. Most of the British lakes are rather small. They are practically not used in the system of water ways of GB. The largest **lake** is **Loch Lomond** in Scotland covering an area of 70 sq. km. Lochness occupies 56 sq. km and has a great volume of water. The lake is best known because of the monster which is believed to live in its waters. The nickname of the monster is Nessie. There are many lakes in the Lake District but they are very small. The largest lake is here is the Lake Windermere.

**Mountains of Great Britain**

Geographically the country is divided into two main parts: Highland Britain and Lowland Britain. Highland Britain includes Scotland, the Lake District, the Pennines, Wales and the counties of Devon and Cornwall. The soil in many parts of Highland Britain is poor. Naturally all British mountains are to be found in Highland Britain. The most important range of mountains in England is the Pennine range which is a kind of a backbone of England. Across the north end of the Pennine range there are the Cheviot Hills which serve a kind of border between England and Scotland. In the north-west of England there are the Cumbrian mountains. In Wales there are the Cambrian mountains known as the Welsh Massif. In Scotland there are the Scottish Highlands and to the South there are the Grampians.

**Fauna and Flora of Great Britain**

With its mild climate and different ground Britain has various vegetation. When the islands were first settled, oak forests covered the greater part of lowland, giving place to pine forests on higher ground and perhaps some open moorland. In the course of centuries that followed nearly all the forests were cut especially by the Anglo-Saxons to make more place for farming. Now only about 7 per cent of the territory in the forest. The middle part of Britain seems to be covered with forest because of many hedges and individual trees. The greatest number of forests is in the North and East of Scotland, in some parts of south-east England and in Wales.

The most common trees are oak, beech, ash and elm. In Scotland – pine and birch.

The fauna of Great Britain is similar to that of north-western Europe, though there are fewer species. Some of larger mammals including the wolf, the bear, the reindeer have become extinct, but red deer, protected for sporting reasons flourish in Scottish Highlands. There are foxes in most rural areas and others are found along many rivers and streams. Seals may be seen in various parts of the coast. Smaller animals are rats, squirrels, hares, etc. There are about 430 kinds of birds including many song-birds. About 230 are resident and the rest are regular visitors to Great Britain. During recent years the number of ducks and geese has been cut. There are only three species of snakes and one of them is dangerous. There are no snakes in Ireland.

There are more than 21 000 different kinds of insects. Britain gives about 5% of the world production of sea-fish. But river fishing is now unimportant, except salmon, trout, perch and pike.

**Climate**

Britain has mild and temperate climate. The Gulf Stream, a warm current affects the climate of the British Isles. Summers are not so warm and winters are not so cold as in the rest of Europe. The temperature seldom rises 32 d or falls below 0. Still the wind may bring cold in spring or summer days in October. One of the most striking things about the British Isles is the rapidity with which the weather changes from day to day or during the day. A warm sunny day may be followed one with cool or cold dry winds. The driest period is from March to June and the wettest months are from October to January. During a normal summer the temperature is 27 degrees.

The climate of the south of England is much milder than that of Scotland. When there are 8 degrees below 0 they say that it freezing hard and everyone complains of the cold weather. This is because the damp climate that makes them feel the cold. On a frosty morning the ground is covered with hoar-frost. The rivers may be sometimes frozen over. Sometimes it snows. The snow never lies on the ground for a long time. Occasional snowfalls immobilize traffic. But fogs are the worst weather hazard causing collisions on roads and railways. Fogs often prevail in many parts of the country. The English often grumble about the weather but you should not pay much attention to that. The devil is not so black as it is painted.

**Mineral Resources**

The rise of Britain as an industrial nation in the late 18th. and early 19th. century was partly due to the presence of considerable mineral resources, which provided raw materials as well as sources of power. The Country possessed abundant supplies of coal and iron ore – the 2 chief minerals on which the Industrial revolution was based. The leading mineral resource in Britain is coal. It contributes much to the development of many industries. Coal has been worked in Britain for 700 years and as an industry, coal-mining has been in existence for over 300 years, twice as long as in other European country. Coal-mining is therefore one of the most important industries of the country and naturally the oldest one as since times immemorial people needed coal. For over a century coal was the most important source of power and fuel in Britain. Great Britain had enough non-ferrous metals – copper, lead, tin to meet the needs for a time. But in the course of the last 100 years or so the situation has gradually changed. Many of Britain’s most valuable and accessible deposits have been worked out. Moreover, coal has lost some of its former importance, and such minerals as petroleum and uranium ores have become essential materials in modern world. At the same time British industry has become oriented towards lighter industry. The absence in Great Britain of high-grade iron ore, manganese, chrome, nickel and many other rare materials makes the economy greatly dependent on imported raw materials.

**Coal.** The highly compressed remains of swamp forests, which at various times covered large areas of Britain, exist today as seams of coal. Coalfields are generally situated on the edges of the upland masses of the north and west. Coal was first obtained on a commercial scale as far back as the 13th century, notably in Northumberland, from sites where the seams actually outcropped, where the nearby rivers or coast afforded a means of transport. Much of coal in the exposed areas has been exhausted. Coal is mined from seams under the sea in Durham, Cumberland, Fifeshire (Scotland). In certain areas the coal occurs at easily worked depths, as in South Wales. Most coal comes from the **Yorkshire-Nottinghamshire*-*Derbyshere**field, which produces about 60 per cent of Britain output. This field is one of the easiest to mine, the coal seams are particularly thick. Some 10 per cent of total output is produced in **South Wales** and the **Central Lowlands** of Scotland. Both these areas have suffered from declines in the coal industry, the South Wales coalfield has suffered particularly from a fall I the export of coal. Other important coalfields are to be found in **North-East England, the Cumberland coalfield, the South** Lancashire**coalfield*.*** The production of coal in **Kent** started in 1918, and the annual output is of about 1 million tonnes is used only in the local domestic market.

Although many good seams of local coal have now been worked out due to the early development of the industry, total coal reserves in Britain are estimated 190 000 million tones, which are sufficient for at least 300 years at the present rate of consumption.

Another important mineral resource to be found on the British Isles is **iron** **ore** though the content of most of the ore is very low. The total reserves of it in Britain are estimated at 3,8 billion tonnes. In Britain 2 types of iron ore are found: haematite and Jurassic. Haematite contains up to 70 per cent of metal and usually occurs in rocks of **Cumberland**. The Jurassic iron ores contain only about half as much iron as haematite or even less. They are found in the rocks of the **Cleveland** **Hills** in Yorkshire as well as in Lancashire.

There is also **tin, copper and lead**. Tin-ore mining used to be very intensive but now it takes a low percentage in the heavy industry of Britain.

In 1970 large deposits of **oil** and **gas** were discovered in the North Sea. Now the oil is coming ashore through the submarine pipeline which is 105 miles long. The Brent field lies off the Shetlands where the production is more difficult because of the severe weather. The discovery of oil in the North Sea had a great impact on the pattern of crude oil transport. With the growth of oil production Britain has become an important oil exporter, mostly to the USA. The share of imports has fallen though Britain continues to import heavy crude oil of lower quality from Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Norway, primarily for the production of diesel oil widely used by motor transport. In charge of the British oil industry are 2 leading companies – British Petroleum and Shell, which gain tremendous profit from industry. Onshore production of crude oil accounts for only a small fraction of the country’s requirements.

Most of **gas** has been found at the depth of 300 m but new finds off the Norfolk coast have been tapped at under 1,520 m. The national pipeline system of some 5, 000 km provided for distribution of national gas. It is supplied by feeder mains from North Sea shore terminals and from Canvey Island terminal. The British Gas Corporation is also developing the Morecambe gas field in the Irish Sea.

One should also mention such minerals as salt and clay. The latter is mined in many places of the country and is the basis of the ceramics production. The deposits of **clay** in the **Bedford** and **Peterborough** areas are important in the manufacture of bricks. **Chalk** is used in the cement industry and is mined on both banks of the Thames estuary, the South Downs and on the banks of the Humber. **Sand** and **gravel** for building industry generally come from pits which are fairly widespread throughout midland and northern England and central Scotland, and on the river terraces in Midlands and Southern England. Certain special varieties of sand are used in the glass-making industry, and these are concentrated in Bedfordshire, Norfolk and Lancashire.

**Kaolin**, a fine, white **china-clay**, occurs in Cornwall and Devon. It is shipped for use in cotton, paper and pottery manufacture. Common **salt** and rock salt form the basic raw materials for variety of chemicals essential in the textile and soap-making industry. Important areas of concentration of common and rock salts are Cheshire and Teesside. Deposits which exist 24-26 m below the surface represent the site of an inland sea in former geological times, the waters of which have long since been evaporated.

Certain other less common minerals are also obtained in Britain, although in smaller quantities: **gypsum** occurs in semicrystalline form and is used to produce plaster of Paris and alabaster. **Potash** has been proved to exist in workable quantities in North Yorkshire. **Peat** is widespread on upland moors or lowland fens and dug for fuel.

**Progress Test Questions and Assignments**

**Exercise 1.** *Answer the questions:*

1. Outline the geographical position of the British Isles.
2. Examine the territory and structure of the British Isles.
3. Describe the relief of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.
4. Give an account of the main rivers and lakes of Great Britain.
5. Which factors influence the variations in Britain’s climate?
6. Discuss the vegetation of the British Isles.
7. Which are the most important British coalfields?
8. Give some account of the location of British offshore oilfields.
9. Examine the iron-mining industry, indicating the most important iron-mining areas in Great Britain.
10. Comment on the distribution of clay, chalk and salt fields in the British Isles.

**Exercise 2.** *Work in pairs:*

1. Decide which is the most important geographical difference between highland and lowland Britain.

2. Compare Britain to your own country. Which are the most obvious geographical differences?

**Exercise 3.** *Work in pairs:*

Which of the following words would you associate with Scotland, London or Brighton? Explain your reasons:

skiing, summer, traffic, mountains, seaside, densely, sunshine, densely.

**Exercise 4.***Writing:*

Summarize in writing the advantages and disadvantages of the geographical position of the British Isles.

**Exercise 5.** *Writing:*

In writing describe briefly the most important features of Britain’s climate.

**Exercise 6.**

Draw a sketch map of Great Britain and locate the main mineral resources in it.

**Exercise 7.** *Writing:*

Write an essay on the topic “Flora and Fauna of Great Britain”.

**II. Historical Outline of Great Britain**

1. The First Inhabitants of the Island.
2. The invasion of Britain by the Celts.
3. The Roman Conquest.
4. The Growth of Feudalism in Britain. The Anglo-Saxon Conquest.
5. The Struggle against Danes.
6. The Norman Conquest.
7. The life of the Anglo-Saxons after the Norman Conquest.
8. England in the Middle Ages (11-15th centuries).
9. Development of Culture in Feudal England.
10. Britain in the 16th-20th centuries.

In prehistoric times Britain was joined to the rest of the continent. The first human inhabitants of Britain and many of its animal inhabitants came there over dry land.

Towards the end of the **Ice Age** the mighty prehistoric river which joined the present day Thames with the Rhine, overwhelmed the land joining Britain to the Continent and formed the present English Channel. In the period immediately after its formation the Channel was too stormy and full of strong currents to allow access to Britain by the nearest overseas route. The hunters of the **Neolithic Age** (New Stone Age) crossed the sea to Britain to the west of the Channel and settled along the western shores in their search for food. They found a country practically covered with virgin forest of oak and ash and swamps, except where the higher ground of the hills rose above the forest.

The first inhabitants of the island for whom a traditional name exists are the **Iberians** and **Megalithic** men, who probably form the basis of the present-day population in Western England, Wales North and Western Scotland and Ireland. This race is supposed to have arrived in Britain from the region of the Mediterranean and inhabited it between 3000 and 2000 BC.

Soon after 2000 BC a new race of Apline stock came from the East of Europe. The entered the country, this time from the south-east and east. From their characteristic pottery found in their graves they are known as the Beaker Folk.

The race was certainly familiar with the use and working of bronze. The 2 peoples were closely related in culture and the newcomers spread along the east coast. Although a certain level of civilization was reached in the Early and Middle Bronze Ages, it was spread over only a small part of Britain. The ancient people, who gradually merged together, left behind impressive monuments, connected with religious rites at Stonehenge. The name “Stonehenge” comes from the old English “hengan”, meaning hanging stones. Stonehenge also served as an ancient observatory.

Soon after **700** BC Britain was invaded by the **Celts**, who are supposed to have come from Central Europe. A commonly accepted theory of their invasions is that they came from in **3** distinct waves. **The first group** was called the Goidels or **Gaels**. These first Celts were driven by later invaders into the less fertile and more mountainous western and northern regions. The original language of Ireland and of North-West Scotland is thus Goidelic Celtic (Gaelic). **The second wave of Celtic tribes,** the Brythonic Celts or the Brythons, from whose name is derived the word Britain, arrived in England between **600** and **500** BC and settled in the South of England, in Wales and in North-West England and South-west Scotland. Their language developed into the Celtic language of modern Wales.

**The third wave** of invades, Belgae from Northern Gaul, containing many people of **Teutonic** origin, arrived about **100** **BC** and occupied the greater part of what are known as the Home Counties (the Central part of Great Britain).

The earliest Celts were in the bronze stage of development, but later Celtic invaders brought with them knowledge of iron working. Trade, industry and agriculture flourished, as did sheep and cattle raising.

**The Roman Conquest and Occupation.**

It was the close relations of Britain to Gaul which first attracted the notice of the Romans. Julius Caesar was the first to carry the Roman banner to the British Isles. The Greeks called the island “Albion”, and the Romans said that this meant “white-land”, because the first view for most visitors was the white cliffs near Dover. In **55 BC Julius Caesar** landed and engaged the Britons but soon withdrew because local opposition was strong. In the following year with an army of 25 000 he landed again and penetrated to where London now stands and defeated the Celtic tribesmen. He levied tribute upon them but again withdrew without making a permanent occupation.

It was not until **AD 43,** nearly 100 years later, that the Roman Emperor Claudius sent an army to Britain which conquered the southern part of the island.

In the North and West the older social order remained much untouched, while in the south-eastern region of England, where the Romans built most of their towns and where the Roman type villas were concentrated, the slave-owning system developed. Otherwise the old way of life of the British Celts did not change very much.

A further important legacy of the Roman Empire was the network of military roads which the Romans built throughout the occupied region. In some parts of the country these roads to this day form the basis of road communication. The routes of some of these roads such as Walting Street from London to Chester, Icknield Way connecting London with Gloucester are still used today. The towns were fortified. Most British towns with names ending with ‘chester’ were, in Roman times fortified camps. Many defensive walls were built to defend the country from attacks of the barbarians living in the North and the West of the country. Most outstanding was the wall built on the orders of Emperor Hadrian, which roughly divided England from Scotland and was to keep out the Picts. The largest of the towns was called Londinium. It was on the river Thames, where London is today.

The destruction of the Roman Empire was due to a unique combination of internal and external causes. The slave-owning system hampered the development of the productive forces. Unproductive slave labour led to the economic decline of the Empire. The incessant revolts of slaves weakened the Empire too. They were coupled with the attacks of the barbarian tribes from outside. In the 5th century the barbarian Germanic tribes brought about the overthrow of the Roman Empire in Western Europe.

**The Growth of Feudalism in Britain. The Anglo-Saxon Conquest, the Struggle against the Danes.**

After **the departure of the Romans (407)** the Celts retained their independence for a short period of time. From the middle of the 5th century they were the subject to the attacks of the Germanic tribes of the Jutes, the Saxons, the Angles. The Jutes and the Angles came from Jutland peninsula (southern Denmark) and the Saxons from the territory between the Rhine and the Elbe rivers (northern Germany).

By the 5th century the German tribes were expanding into the Roman Empire, as well as into Britain. The Angles Saxons and Jutes turned their special attention to the British Isles.

The **Jutes** **landed** in Kent somewhere in **450**. They were followed by the Angles and the Saxons. The Celts offered stiff opposition and it took them more than a century for the country to be subdued. Eventually the invaders settled down and formed a number of small kingdoms. The **Angles** in the North and East made kingdoms called **Northumbria, Mercia and East** **Anglia**. The **Saxons** in the centre and south had **Wessex, Sussex** and **Essex**. The **Jutes** had **Kent** in the south–east. The Anglo-Saxons and Jutes were close to each other in speech and customs and they gradually merged into one people. The name Jute soon died out and the invaders were generally referred to as the Anglo-Saxons.

Although the German invaders occupied most of the British Isles, certain refuge areas were left to the natives. They retained territory in the West and North Wales and in the northern territory of Cumbria. The Northern part of Britain was the home of the Picts and Scots 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 **9th** century this northern territory came to be called Scotland and a united Scottish kingdom was formed in the **11th** cent. In the course of the struggle of the Celts against the Anglo-Saxons many legends emerged of which most famous is the legend of the Court of King Arthur.

Anglo-Saxon society was much more backward as compared with the social organization which prevailed among the Celts in Britain. The establishment of Anglo-Saxon rule in Britain hampered the development of class relations. The Anglo-Saxons settled mainly in small villages consisting of about 20-30 families all faithful to their leader. The **churls** or free men formed the majority of the population of the communities. They received their share of land – a “**hide**” – of about 20 acres from the community. Local rules were made by the “**moot**”. The moot was a small meeting held on a grassy hill or under a tree. Sometimes it judged cases between the people of the village. Many villages were grouped into “**hundreds**”, and hundreds were grouped into **shires**. Each hundred had an open-air court of justice, the judges being the leaders of the district, who were called **aldermen**. Important cases were judged by the **sheriff** of shire or by a **king’s officer** called a **reeve**. These cases were discussed at a shire moot which met usually twice a year.

The king’s council was called **the** **Witan**. It could make laws and choose or elect new kings. Initially the king’s power was mainly symbolic. Gradually class inequality increased. The nobility distributed the land and cattle among the tribesmen seizing the best lands and gradually becoming great landowners. The tribal nobility could no longer cultivate the land themselves, so initially the slaves worked their fields. As slave labour was unproductive the slaves began to receive plots of land for their personal use.

In the **7th** – **9th** centuries important changes took place among the members of the Anglo-Saxon communities: land held by separate families became their private property which could be sold, inherited or used as a payment for debts. Thus in this period feudal relations began to make slow progress within the Anglo-Saxon society.

At first the invaders spoke different dialects but little by 7 little the dialect of the Angles of Mercia prevailed. Soon the people living in Britain were referred to as the English after the Angles and the name England became widely used as the whole country. The Anglo-Saxons were pagans and remained for some time. Anglo-Saxon folklore, the greatest monument of which is ***the Poem of Beowulf*** created in the 7th century, reflected the life of society and its beliefs.

The Saxon kingdoms warred one against the other, at times one kingdom would gain supremacy, then another, but at the beginning of the 9th century Wessex became the leading kingdom and united the rest of England in the fight against the Danes. Since **829** the greater part of the country was united under the name England.

The adoption of Christianity in **664** contributed to the development of class relations in the country. The spread of the Christian faith influenced the growth of culture and contributed the revival of Latin too.

**The Struggle against the Danes**

Having become the most powerful kingdom of England, Wessex began to faith the most dangerous enemy. They were the Danes from Denmark and the Northmen from the Scandinavian peninsula. They are frequently called as the Vikings. These two Scandinavian peoples were closely related with one another, but in the main the Danes were the invaders of England and the Northmen were the invaders of Ireland and Scotland. At first they were contented with sudden invasions in small bands, but later they came in larger numbers conquering one territory after another. The kingdom of Wessex was left alone to resist them. Fortunately at this time there appeared a Saxon King whose military genius was one of the main reasons for the defeat of the Danes. This was **Alfred** (ruled 871-901). He gathered his men and defeated the Danes by surprise attack. As a result the treaty of Wedmore was signed between Alfred and the Danes (**886**). According to this treaty England was divided into 2 parts by a line drawn from London to Chester: the Danelaw under Danish rule, lying north and East and Saxon England which remained under Alfred’s rule lying south and west of the line. There were renewed attempts to defeat Alfred. He was not only a bold warrior but he was a wise statesman. Alfred saw the best way to keep off the Danes was by fighting them at sea, so he built ships bigger and faster than the Danish ships. He is considered to be the founder of the English fleet. Alfred is also important as a lawgiver. He compiled and published a code of laws.

**The Norman Conquest and the Establishment of Feudalism in England**

The end of the **10th** century in England is marked by the advance towards feudalism. At this period the Danish invasions were renewed under king Sweyn, who had managed to unite Denmark and Norway. The invaders demanded a payment of money as a condition of withdrawal. These payments were made several times and they formed a huge sum of money later turning into a permanent property tax. The tax was an important part of the budget of the kings used to maintain a standing army and fleet.

The Danish invasions of the **9th** – **10th** century gave a powerful fillip to the development of feudal relations in England. The principal features of these relations “No man without a lord and no land without a lord” can be easily applied to England from this time.

In the **9**th century another branch of the Northmen of Scandinavia plundered the Northern coast of France and formed the territory called **Normandy**. They themselves were known as the Normans. The newcomers acquired customs and traditions of the French people as well as their language. By the 11th century feudalism had been established in France. The Normans were subordinate to their duke who in turn acknowledged the French king, though this was a formality because the king’s domain was smaller than the Dutchy of Normandy.

In 1017 Canute (1017-1035), son of Sweyn, became king of England as well as of Norway and Denmark. This unity was artificial and therefore ended with the death of the king. Canute’s rile also witnessed the development of local rulers called **earls**. He organized the country into four **earldoms** and allowed them to retain their old laws and customs. Within the reign of Canute there was the rise of the Saxon house of Godwin, whom Canute had made the Earl of Wessex. When Canute died his sons were incapable of holding his kingdom together and the Witan restored the old English line without a serious opposition. The new king, Edward the Confessor (1042-66), was the descendant of the old English royal line. Edward spent his youth in Normandy so he brought to the court his Norman advisors and supporters. During the last part of Edward the Confessor’s reign the most important man in England was Harold, the son of Earl Godwin. Harold had the bad luck of being taken a prisoner in Normandy when a ship which he was in was driven by winds on the coast of Normandy. The ruler of Normandy, Duke William, made Harold promised that he would have William chosen a king on/after Edward’s death. It is said that Harold promised to support William, after which William released him. But when Edward died, the Witan chose Harold to be the king in January 1066. Duke William said that he had been tricked and prepared the army for the invasion of England. This was only the pretext, for Norman influence had already been established before the Conquest.

On the **14th** of October **1066** at **Hastings** the decisive battle took place: the army of the ruler of Normandy, William, and the Saxon army. The Saxon army fought bravely. After the victory William and his army proceeded to London and took it. He was crowned the King on the **25**th of December **1066** at Westminster as William I though was widely known as **William the Conqueror**. This conquest opens the period of final establishment of feudalism in England. William proceeded to suppress rebellions against his authority. The Conqueror seized the lands of his foes and established fortified castles. It was under his order that the White Tower of London was erected to guard the town against outside attack. The Normans strengthened the feudal system of society. In **1086** William ordered a record or register of all land-holdings to be made. The Anglo-Saxons were afraid of the registration and hated it. They were threatened for giving false information. In this register, which Saxons called the **Domesday Book**, the officers who took down the records were so merciless that the English t5hought that Judgement Day had come. The necessary information was prepared in each shire for the royal officials by a special commission of the wealthiest and most respectable representatives of the community. The Anglo-Saxons were afraid of the registration and hated it. They were threatened to be severely punished for false information as on Doomsday, when according to the Bible, God will judge them on the last day of the world. This accounts why the book was called the Domesday Book by the people. Despite its ruthless character, we know now that the population of England was about 2 million and 90% of the population were serfs. It may be regarded as the first population census in European history. The feudal yoke of the Normans meant cruel suffering for the people of England. The Norman feudal lords and those of the Saxon lords who accepted Norman rule organized the increasing exploitation of t5he toil of free and unfree peasants, who were obliged to pay large dues to their landlord. The forced labour of peasants was controlled by the reeve. The state organization was built around William’s power as a military leader of a victorious army.

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, the official language of the state. Latin was the language of the Church, law and learning. The wealthy Anglo-Saxons copied their superiors and also learned French. The common people continued to speak English. The Norman invaders had to communicate with the natives and this made them speak English in times. Many of the Normans married the Anglo-Saxons and their children grew to know English. In a few generations the Norman descendants knew no other language than English. This was a slow and gradual process. In its development English borrowed many French words relating to feudal relations, administration. Latin too exerted a positive influence. In the **14th** century the English language emerged as the language used in speech and writing – the official language of the State.

**England in the Middle Ages (11-15th centuries).**

The whole economic development of the country from the 11th-15th centuries illustrates the increasing degree of exploitation of peasants by the feudal lords. Trade was increasing throughout the country with merchants and middlemen who travelled from market to market. Much trading consisted of wool which could be profitably sold not only at the local market but to the cloth-manufacturing towns of the European continent. England was not originally a cloth-weaving country and when Flemish weavers were brought in the country in the 14th century to teach the secrets of their trade to English peasants and craftsmen (the result – cloth manufacture meant a rapid increase of the volume of trade). The towns grew rapidly in size, importance and wealth and became centres of handicraft production of all kinds.

The lords began to increase their wealth by the sale of agricultural products at the markets. In the **12th** century a new dynasty was established in England – the so-called **Plantagenet dynasty**. **Henry II** (1154-89) became the king of England. He came from France. The name **Plantagenet** was taken from their badgewhich was a sprig of *planta genista*, the Latin name for *broom*. His domain included large possessions in France. To his new English possessions he soon added the Scotch territory, established his lordship over Wales and made conquests in Ireland. Henry was the first English King to attempt the conquest of Ireland, he was recognized as the Lord of Ireland. He succeeded in establishing his authority only in a small district around Dublin known as **the Pale**. The events marked the beginning of the long struggle of the Irish people for independence against the English yoke. Henry II had four sons, two of which died in his lifetime. When Henry II died he was succeeded by Richard, best known as Lionhearted. On Richard’s death John, the fourth son of Henry II became the king (1199-1216). **John Lackland** as he was known in English history because he practically lost everything he possessed. John was unwise enough to make an attack on the church over the filling of the vacant seat of Archbishop of Canterbury at the time when Pope Innocent III was in power, for then the Catholic church was extremely powerful. Pope Innocent III declared John excommunicated and deposed of his powers as king. Pope Innocent III persuaded the kings of France and Scotland to make war on him. John’s forces were crushed and the English barons refused to fight. John stood alone. Unwillingly he submitted and on **June 15**, **1215**, at field called Runnymede by the river Thames John signed the programme of demands expressed by the barons in a document known as **Magna Charta** or the **Great Charter**. This document of **63** sections provided that the church and the barons were to retain their old rights and liberties. The ancient liberties of London and other towns were guaranteed. Merchants were to be permitted to trade without paying heavy tolls. No free man was to be detained or punished except by the lawful judgement of his peers and the law of land. 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 were kept. It also said that John must govern with the Council’s advice and permission. Magna Charta meant great changes in the feudal system. The moment the barons dispersed, John denounced the Charter and gathered an army. A war followed which was interrupted by the death of John. His son Henry was only nine. Government was carried out in his name by a group of barons. They became stronger than ever before. Within this period the principles of Magna Charta came to be accepted as the basis of the law at least in theory. In **1258** the barons and churchmen held an assembly and drew up the Provisions of Oxford. This document provided that the Chancellor and Treasurer be appointed with their consent. A **Council of Fifteen** was to govern England and control the ministers. Then a new leader of the barons appeared in the person of Simon de Montfort. **Simon de Montfort** summoned the first English Parliament in January **1265**. Besides the barons there were knights from the towns (representatives of the well-to-do dwellers of the towns). Simon had summoned these representatives in order to gain their support and consolidate power. However, he failed in the latter. Prince Edward escaped, defeated Simon and killed him. Although the king was now back in power, the parliamentary experiment had made its mark. Simon’s creation didn’t die with him. Two knights from each county were summoned and two burgesses from each town. Under future kings the custom grew. It continued calling to council not only the barons, but persons to represent the “commons” – that is the local communities. The composition of parliament, where there were knights and burgesses, was of important significance. The knights or lesser landowners lived on their estates and made the largest possible income from them. They were greatly interested in the development of wool-trade. In the course of the 14th century parliament took its modern shape consisting of two Houses – the House of Lords and the House of Commons. In this division the knights of the shire took their places in the House of Commons with burgesses, whereas the lords and the top clergy sat in the House of Commons.

**Development of Culture in Feudal England**

With the Norman Conquest the Norman-French language became the official language in the country. It was the tongue spoken by the ruling class., the language of the court. Court literature was written in Norman-French. But it was not the language of the people and couldn’t become the means of communication between the various layers of society. The English were now subdued, separated from their rulers by birth and language. Even today we are reminded by synonyms that Anglo-Saxon peasantry tended: the *cows*, *calves,* *swine* and *sheep*, but that it was the Normans who ate them as *beef*, *veal*, *pork* and *mutton*.

Although the development of English from Anglo-Saxon to Middle English showed a very strong French influence especially on the vocabulary, English didn’t lose its fundamental linguistic characteristics, either in Grammar or in its basic vocabulary. During the 13th century various dialects of Middle English came ever closer to forming a single language and in the 14th century the dialect of London and South-East Midlands began to be accepted as the standard written language. In 1475 **William Caxton** the printer set up his press at Westminster and printed the first book in English – *the History of Troye*. It was a remarkable event that contributed to the spreading of the English language, which could be understood by the largest number of people. Caxton printed nearly 100 books, including *The Canterbury Tales* by G.Chaucer.

Norman-French ceased to be used in the daily intercourse of the upper classes, though knowledge of French was still a mark of good education. Latin was still the language of learning, the language of church, grammar schools, which were beginning to be founded in the towns for the sons of merchants. Already in Early Middle Ages in England there developed an interest in learning. More schools were established, with theology and philosophy added to the curricula. Classical literature declined in popularity, and a greater interest developed in medicine, astronomy. Law and history also received some attention. One notable result of this intellectual revival was the rise of universities. About **1167** the University of Oxford was established. Shortly afterwards the University of Cambridge (**1209**) appeared. Scholars began to use their own language instead of Latin for writing and thus tended to fix the form of literary English. Of the works of literature the most outstanding were *The Canterbury Tales* by G. Chaucer. From the 12th to the 15th centuries there is the great period of English Gothic architecture. Many fine cathedrals throughout the country: Wells Cathedral, Salisbury Cathedral were the most perfect examples of the first phase of early English architecture. Many simple but beautiful village churches, cottages still bear witness to the skill of medieval craftsmen.

In **1295**, during the reign of Edward I, the **House of Commons** appeared, which included elected representatives from urban and rural areas.

The 14th century was ruinous for Britain, because of the effects of wars and plagues. The terrible plague of **1348**, known as the Black Death, reached almost every part of Britain. It killed one-third of the British population, whole villages disappeared, and some towns were almost completely deserted until the plague itself died out. The Hundred Years' War fought between France and England was ruinous for the English economy. The high taxation necessary to finance the war led to a peasant revolt in 1381. The leader of the revolt, Wat Tyler, was the first to call for fair treatment of En­gland's poor people. The idea that God had created all people equal called for an end to feudalism and respect for honest labour. Al­though the revolt was severely put down, it finally led to the abo­lition of serfdom in the country.

The Middle Ages ended with a major technical development: William Caxton's first English printing press was set up in 1476. Caxton's printing press was an important technological revolution, it provided books for people and encouraged literacy. Printing be­gan to standardise spelling and grammar.

**England in the 16-20th centuries**

**England in the 16th century.**

The power of the English monarchy increased during the Tudor rule (1485-1603). The first of the Tudor dynasty, Henry VII, built the foundations of a wealthy nation and a powerful monarchy. He based his royal power on the growing classes of merchants and landed gentry. Henry VII created a new nobility which was completely dependent on the Crown. Henry realised that England's future would depend on inter­national trade and he created the fleet of merchant ships and the Royal Navy. His son, Henry VIII, consolidated his power. It was during his reign that the Reformation took place. The **Act of Supremacy** passed by Parliament in **1534** declared Henry VIII the supreme head of the Church in England. A number of famous people, including Sir Tho­mas More, were executed because they did not accept Henry VIII as head of the Church. The Act of Supremacy swept away the power of the Roman Church in England, making it independent of Rome. England became a Protestant country. The monasteries were dissolved and all church lands came under the King's control, it gave him a large new source of income. Elizabeth I, daughter of Henry VIII, was an outstanding ruler. Her reign is considered by many as the Golden Age of English history. Spain at that time was England's greatest trade rival and enemy. In **1588**, England defeated the powerful navy of Spain, boast­fully called the Invincible Armada.

The discovery of America placed Britain at the centre of the world's trading routes. Brilliant naval commanders (Francis Drake, John Hawkins, Walter Raleigh) enabled England to dominate these trade routes. During this period great trading companies, like the East India Company, were established. The companies attained a charter from the Crown granting them the monopoly of trade. Eliza­beth also encouraged English traders to settle abroad and created colonies. This policy led directly to Britain's colonial empire of the 17th and 18th centuries. The Elizabethan age is also called **the English Renaissance**. It was one of the greatest artistic periods in England's history. There were important developments in portrait painting, music and sci­ence. This period gave a lot of warriors, explorers, philosophers, poets, writers and actors.

**England in the 17th century**

After the death of Elizabeth I, James VI of Scotland became **James I** of England and Scotland uniting the crowns of the two countries. The Stuart kings James I and Charles I believed in the divine right of kings to be responsible only to God which brought them to the conflict with Parliament. Charles I ignored Parliament and raises taxes without its permission. He dissolved Parliament and ruled without it for 11 years. In addition, Protestants, especially Puritans, thought the luxurious lifestyle of the king and his follow­ers was immoral and sinful. They were also suspicious of the appar­ent sympathy towards Catholicism of the Stuart monarchs.

The conflict led to the **Civil War** which broke out in **1642**. The majority of the nobles supported Charles and the majority of the gentry supported Parliament. The Parliamentary army, led by Oliver Cromwell, defeated the King's army. The victory of Parliamentary forces led to the execution of Charles I (**1649**), abolition of monar­chy and the establishment of the Commonwealth and the Protector­ate under **Oliver Cromwell**.

The monarchy (together with the Anglican Church and the House of Lords) was restored in **1660**, two years after Cromwell's death, when Charles II, the son of the executed king, was invited to sit on the English throne. However, the conflict between monarch and Parliament soon re-emerged. James II tried to give full rights to Catholics, and he pro­moted them in his government. The 'Glorious revolution' of 1688 fol­lowed ('glorious' because it was bloodless). Parliament invited the Prot­estant ruler of Netherland, William of Orange, and Mary, James II's daughter, to taice the Crown as joint sovereigns. Parliament adopted the **Bill of Rights** (**1689**), which assured the ascendancy of Parliamentary power over the royal power. Britain became **a** **parliamentary mon­archy** in which political supremacy belonged to Parliament.

**England in the 18th century**

The 18th century was called the century of the **Enlightment**, when people believed that they could use their reason to dominate both nature and society. Important political changes took place in British history at that time. At the beginning of the century (**1707**), the Scottish Parliament joined with the English and Welsh Parliaments in Westminster in London. However, Scotland retained its own system of law, more similar to continental system than to that of England. Within Parliament two groups were formed. One group, **the** **Whigs**, supported the protestant values of hard work and thrift and believed in gov­ernment by monarch and aristocracy together. The other group, **the** **Tories**, had a greater respect for the idea of monarchy and the importance of the Anglican Church. That could be said to be the beginning of the party system in Britain.

The modern system of annual budget which was to be approved by Parliament was established during this century, another tradi­tion that was born at that time was the appointment by the mon­arch of principal, or 'Prime', minister from the ranks of Parliament to head his government and- to run the day-to-day affairs of the country. The government ministers worked together in a small group, which was called the **'cabinet'**. All members of the Cabinet were together responsible for policy decisions. The power of the king was limited by the constitution. The king could not remove or change laws; the king was dependent on Parliament for his financial income and for his army. Parliament pursued a vigorous trading policy, as a result of it, large areas of Canada and India were colonized. Britain also ex­panded its empire in the Americas, along the West African coast and in the West-Indies. Britain's international trade increased rap­idly. Britain's colonies were an important marketplace in which the British sold the goods they produced. The country became wealthy through trade. This wealth, or 'capital', made possible both an ag­ricultural and an industrial revolution which turned Britain into the most advanced economy in the world.

The **Industrial Revolution** is the name given to the period begin­ning in the second half of the 18th century when industry was trans­formed from hand-work at home to machine-work in factories. Many new towns appeared in the north of England, where the raw materials for industry were available. In this way, the north, which had previously been economically backward compared with the south, became the industrial heartland of the country. The right condi­tions for industrialisation also existed in Lowland Scotland and South Wales. In the south of England, London came to dominate, not as an industrial centre but as a business and trading centre.

**Britain in the 19th century**

The **19th** century was the time when the British Empire was formed. One section of this empire was Ireland. It was during this century that the British culture and way of life came to predomi­nate. By the end of the century almost the whole population were using English as their first language.

Another part of the empire was made of Canada, Australia and New Zealand, where settlers from the British Isles formed the ma­jority of the population. Another was India, an enormous country with a culture more ancient than Britain's. Large parts of Africa also belonged to the empire. The empire included numerous smaller areas and islands which were acquired because of their strategic position along trading routes. Between 1884 and 1900, Britain acquired 3 700 000 sq. miles of new colonial territories. By 1914 the British Empire covered 12.7 million sq. miles, of which the United Kingdom represented one-hundredth part. The British Empire covered one quarter of the earth's surface and one-quarter of the world's population.

There were great changes in the social structure. Most people now lived in towns and cities. The factory owners held the real power in the country, along with a new and growing class of trades­people. As they established their power, so they established a set of values which emphasized hard work, thrift, religious observance, family life, sense of duty, honesty in public life and extreme respect­ability in sexual matters. This is the set of values which we now call Victorian.

**Queen Victoria** reigned from 1837 to 1901. It was during her reign that Britain reached the height of its commercial, political and economic leadership. She became a popular symbol of Britain's success in the world. As a hard-working religious mother of nine children, devoted to her husband, Prince Albert, she was regarded as a personification of contemporary morals.

The Industrial Revolution now entered its second stage: new industries were developed, new factories were built, Britain's prod­ucts were exported all over the world, and Britain became known as 'the workshop of the world. Life in the new factories and towns was one of terrible hardship. Men, women and children worked 15 or 16 hours a day in dangerous, unhealthy conditions, they received poor wages and lived in dirty slums. Writers and intellectuals of this period protested against the horrors of life (as Dickens did in his works). The Romantic poets praised the beauties of the countryside and the simplicity of country life.

Parliament was forced to pass laws to protect workers from some worst forms of exploitation. In **1833** the first law regulating factory working conditions was passed. It set a limit on the number of hours that children could work. In the last quarter of the century there was a massive increase in trade unionism.

The **Reform Act** of **1832** extended the right to vote to tenants of land. It was followed by many social reforms: the creation of the police force; free, compulsory education; gradual legal recognition of trade unions; the extension of the vote, first to town labourers and then to agricultural labourers.

**Britain in the 20th century**

Queen Victoria's death in **1901** coincided with the beginning of decline in the power of the British Empire. In the first decade, Canada, Australia, South Africa and New Zealand became domin­ions and drew up their constitutions. Britain was no longer the greatest world power it had been in the 19th century. Germany was rapidly becoming the dominant economic power in Europe. Like the USA, it was producing more steel than Britain, and used it to build strong industries and a strong navy.

The rivalry between the great European powers led to the out­break of **World** **War I** in **1914**. In the course of preparation for the war the main powers settled their disputes and formed opposing alliances. Thus a Dual Alliance between Germany and Austria was expanded into a Triple Alliance by the Adhesion of Italy in 1882. In 1904 the Anglo-French "Entente cordiale" (cordial agreement) was signed and Anglo-French colonial disputes settled. This agreement was of great international importance. From then on Britain and France could join forces against their common rival – Germany. Tsarist Russia defeated in the war against Japan (1904-05) became financially more and more dependent on France and later on Britain. The money was given by bankers of Paris and London. In 1907 an Anglo-Russian agreement was signed. Great Britain and Russia settled to mutual satisfaction all heir conflicts in Iran, Afghanistan and Tibet. The Triple Alliance was formed and old rivals united their forces against their common enemy – Germany which headed the Triple Alliance with Austria-Hungary and Italy. War was becoming imminent. The assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, in Sarajevo on June 28, 1914 was the pretext which led to open conflict. On August 1, 1914 Germany declared war on Russia, on August 3 it declared war on France. On August 4 Britain declared war on Germany.

After **four** years of bitter fighting the war ended in victory for the Allied Powers over Germany. Despite British victory, the war drained the nation of wealth and manpower, and in the postwar years Brit­ain faced severe economic problems.

An important political development during the war was the rapid growth of the Labour Party and trade unions. The trade unions became stronger, they grew from two million members to five mil­lion by 1914 and eight million by 1918. In 1918, for the first time, all men aged 21 and some women over 30 were allowed to vote. The war was followed by a period of **depression in economy**. It was a period of great social unrest. Unemployment was high, wages low and there were numerous strikes. In 1926 discontent led to a general strike by all workers. The crisis affected Britain most se­verely from 1930 to 1933, when over 3 million people, out of the total workforce of 14 million, were unemployed. During the world economic crisis the drop in industrial production exceeded 25% and unemployment rose rapidly to nearly 3 mln in 1931. The highest pitch of in the conflict between labour and capital in this period was the **General Strike of 1926** when the pressure of working class solidarity forced the leaders of the Trade Union Congress to call a general strike. Its aim was to support the miners in resisting a savage attack by the mine-owners, who wanted to cut their wages and lengthen their hours of work. The government backed the mine-owners. The General Strike began on May 3. Its overwhelming success surprised everyone and greatly strengthened the self-confidence of the organized workers.

Britain was soon involved into another war, for which it was ill-prepared. Britain declared war on Germany on September 3, **1939,** after Hitler's invasion of Poland. As Germany swept through Europe, Britain was almost alone fighting against Germany. In **August** **1940** Hitler ordered to begin massive air-raids on British towns. The raids greatly damaged London, Birmingham, Liverpool and Glasgow. On November 15, 500 heavy bombers almost completely destroyed Cov­entry. In 1941 Germany attacked the Soviet Union, and Japan at­tacked the United States, involving into the battlefield two of the most powerful nations in the world. When the Japanese fleet in December 1941 attacked the American naval base of Pearl Harbour the USA declared war both on Japan and Germany. This added anew dimension to the war: the antifascist coalition of the Soviet Union, the USA and Britain was created. The Anglo-Soviet treaty signed in London in May 1942 obliged Britain together with the USA to open a second front. Further Churchill-Roosevelt meetings took place in Casablanca (January 1942) and Washington (May 1943) where it was finally decided to open the second front in May 1944. Finally, at Teheran, Churchill and Roosevelt met Stalin to agree on a united strategy for this decisive stage of the war. In May 1945, Germany finally surren­dered. The war had cost Britain a quarter of its national wealth. Material damages and losses were about 25 billion pounds. In that situation Britain tried to maintain its social and economic position by accepting the role of junior partner of the USA. This was the background to the policy described as a **"special relationship"** with the United States.

The war also quickened the disintegration of the British Empire. In 1947 Britain left India and Palestine. Ceylon and Burma be­came independent the following year. Between 1945 and 1965, about 500 million people in former colonies became completely self-gov­erning. Many independent countries remained on friendly terms with Britain. They joined the Commonwealth as free and equal members. Nowadays the Commonwealth represents a voluntary association of 50 independent states. The Commonwealth has nearly a quarter of the world's population in its member states, having the Queen as their Head of States.

The Labour government, which came to power in **1945**, national­ised the railways, mines, civil aviation, steel, shipbuilding, gas and electricity industries. The government adopted a new system of social security. It introduced old-age pensions, disability pensions, insurance against unemployment. The Act of 1946 established free medical aid.

The Conservative government returned to office in **1951**. Under three consecutive Conservative Cabinets headed by Winston Churchill there was a period of massive growth in the private sector, above all in the new industries, particularly car and aircraft production. By the start of the 1960s, however, production was beginning to slow, while wages and prices continued to rise. The Government's policy of freezing wages as a cure enabled the Labour Party to win the **1964** election.

In the 70s and 80s Britain was faced by two major problems: its continuing loss of influence in world affairs and economy. Britain also experienced new social problems, connected with **the arrival of immigrants**. In 1991, the average ethnic minority population of Great Britain numbered about 2.7 million (some 5% of the total popula­tion), of whom 46% were born in Britain. Just over half of the ethnic minority population was of Indian, Pakistani or Bangladeshi origin. The relationship between new immigrants and the white population of Britain was not easy. Immigrants found it harder to find jobs, and were only able to live in the worse housing. The government passed laws to prevent unequal treatment of black people but also to con­trol the number of immigrants coming to Britain. The Race Rela­tions Act (1976) made discrimination on grounds of colour, race, nationality unlawful. According to the Public Order Act of 1986 it is a criminal offence to incite racial hatred.

**Progress Test Questions and Assignments**

**Exercise 1.** *Answer the questions:*

1. Give a short survey of Ancient Britain.
2. How did the Roman conquest occur?
3. When was Britain invaded by the Anglo-Saxons?
4. When was the treaty of Wedmore signed?
5. What were the main features of feudalism? Narrate William’s conquest of England?
6. What Act swept away the power of the Roman Church in Britain?
7. What century is called the century of Enlightment in Britain? Why was it called so?
8. What is the period of Industrial Revolution in Great Britain?
9. What was the pretext of World War I?
10. When did World War II begin?

**Exercise 2.** *Match the events in the first column to the dates in the second column:*

The Romans led by Julius Ceasar landed in Britain 1086

The Domesday Book 55-54 BC

The Brythonic Celts invaded Britain 700 BC

The Gaelic Celts invaded Britain 600 BC

The Jutes landed in Kent 664 AD

The adoption of Christianity 886 AD

The Wedmore Treaty 1534

The struggle against the Danes 800-900 AD

**Exercise 3.** *Define the meaning of the following words:*

a hide, a reeve, a moot, an alderman, a churl, the Witan.

**Exercise 4.** *Identify the events in English history related to the following names:*

the Roman Emperor Claudius, William of Normandy, Simon de Montfort, King Arthur, King Alfred, Julius Caesar, Edward the Confessor, King Harold, King Henry III, King John Lackland, King Henry VII, King Henry VIII, King Charles I, Queen Elizabeth I, Oliver Cromwell.

**Exercise 5.** *Writing:*

Write a short summary of English history from Roman times till the Middle Ages (11th-15th centuries).

**Exercise 6.** *Writing:*

Write an essay on the topic “The Norman Conquest and its Influence on the English Language”.

**Exercise 7.** *Writing:*

Write a short summary of the English history in the 20th century.

**III. The State System in Great Britain**

1. Great Britain – a constitutional monarchy.
2. Parliament: the House of Lords; the House of Commons.
3. Legislative Proceedings.
4. Functions of Parliament.
5. The Cabinet. Functions of the Prime Minister.
6. The British Constitution.

The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy with a King or a Queen at the head. Only once in the history of England monarchy was broken by Oliver Cromwell who for 9 years (1649-1658) after the revolution establishes his protectorate. The present ruler of the United Kingdom is **Queen Elizabeth II**, who is the descendant of the Saxon King Edward. She was born in 1926 and in **1953** she came to throne. Elizabeth II is married to Philip the Duke of Edinburgh who is half German himself. They have 4 children: 3 sons, 1 daughter. The eldest son is Prince Charles (1948), he is the prince of Wales, princess Anne (1950), Prince Andrew (1960), Prince Edward (1964). The Queen’s mother – Queen Elizabeth died in 2003. The Queen has done much to simplify the formalities of the monarchy including her allowing the BBC to make a documentary film about everyday life of the royal family. She has also initiated the tradition of the so called “walk about” (when she walks about among the public crowds she stops to talk to some people).The Queen has been regarded with considerable respect and affection. The annual Christmas broadcast made by the Queen on radio, television has become popular. The Queen is the personification of the State. She is the head of the judiciary staff, the Commander-in-chief of the armed forces of the Crown, the temporal head of the established Church of England, the Head of the Common Wealth. Today the Queen of Britain acts only on the advice of the Ministers. She reigns but she doesn’t rule. However the monarchy has a good deal more power than it is commonly supposed. One of the most important duties is appointing the Prime Minister. Nobody but the Queen can summon Parliament or dismiss it. Nobody but the Queen can confer peerages or orders. The Queen has access to all Cabinet papers, reports, decisions. The Sovereign must be informed of and consulted on all important problems. All Foreign office dispatches, all defense measures are submitted for her approval. The British are great lovers of colorful ceremonies such as the opening of Parliament, the changing of the Guards near Buckingham Palace, the Horse parade on the day of the Queen’s birth. Since WW I the ruling Monarch began visit working class areas and chat with people. This was done to strengthen the belief that the Monarch understands, is aware of the needs of the people. Thus the supreme legislative authority in the United Kingdom is the Queen and the two Houses of Parliament – the House of Lords and the elected House of Commons.

**Parliament**

Britain has the oldest Parliament in the world. It has existed since 1265. The first English Parliament was called by **Simon de Monfort** who led a group of powerful barons and city merchants in the wool trade against King Edward the Third. The first Parliament included Knights and the clergy. Their intention was to limit the absolute power of the King and to make him accept certain proposals of the upper classes as the class differences between the aristocracy and the bourgeoisie became more marked, the two sections began to assemble separately and thus the two Chambers were formed. The Kin g soon established contacts with the House of Lords but they were never allowed to enter the House of Commons under the penalty of death. This tradition is observed nowadays too.

**The House of Lords** consists of nearly 1200 non-elected members including the Lords spirituals and the lords temporal. The former are 26 in number (2 archbishops of the church of England). These members are peers only while hold their office and they cannot transmit their title. The lords temporal have the right to sit in parliament during their life-time and transmit their right to their eldest sons at the age of 21 or older. Occasionally a woman can inherit the title. Descendants of the ancient British aristocracy are in minority now. Very many new lords and peers are created on the advice of the Prime Minister. Prominent politicians, scientists, writers are made lords. Very often wealth has been determining factor. Most hereditary peers are men. Women peers are called “lady peers”. The work of the House of Lords is largely complementory to that of the House of Commons and includes examining and revising bills from the Commons. It also acts in a legal capacity as a final court of appeal. The House usually sits for 4 days a week (155 days a year), the average daily attendance is about 320 peers. The chief peer in the House of Lords is Lord Chancellor. His seat is called Woolsack because it is a large bag of wool covered with red cloth.

**The House of Commons** is the lower house of the British Parliament consisting of **650** members: 523 for England, 38 for Wales, 72 for Scotland and 17 for Northern Ireland. The main purpose is to make laws by passing various Acts (of Parliament) as well as to discuss current political issues. The House sits for 5 days a week. Each sitting starts in the afternoon and may go on throughout the night. The House sits for about 175 days in the year and has the maximum term of 5 years, at the end of which a general election must take place. The chief officer is the Speaker. In debates all speeches are addressed to him. They say he must be a very clever man with a good sense of humour. The speaker is elected by members to preside over proceedings and keep order. There are benches in the House of Commons. We get the terms “back benches”, “front benches”, “cross benches”. The term “front benches” stands for the two benches, one on each side of the House as far as the centre gangway. The front bench on the Speaker’s right is for the Prime Minister and the leading members of the Government. That on the Speaker’s left is for the leaders of the Opposition and members of the Shadow Cabinet. The back benches are the seats for the members who have no right to front benches seats. The cross benches may be used by those independent members of Parliament who do not vote regularly. Only 4 members of the House of Commons have reserved seats. One is for the Speaker, the other is for the oldest member of the House who sat in the House for the longest period of time and he is called the “Father of the House of Commons”. The other two reserved seats on each side of benches are for the Prime Minister and for the Leader of the Opposition.

Any member of the House of Parliament may introduce a Bill and ask permission to bring it to the notice of the House. The Bill is brought for reading. The first reading is scarcely objected to and the date it fixed for the second reading. When the second reading takes place the member who has introduced the Billmakes his speech. Then follows the discussion. To vote the members leave their seats and walk out into 2 corridors called lobbies to show which way they are voting. There are 2 tellers on each lobby. One of these lobbies is “AYE” [ai], “YES” lobby, the other is “NAY” [nei], “NO” lobby. Two tellers on each side count the votes as the members of Parliament return to their seats. The Speaker reads the results of the voting.

One of the duties of the House of Commons is to control the Cabinet. There are opportunities for questioning the Ministers and the Prime Minister as well as for criticism. Questions may be asked by any member on any aspect during special Question Time. Members of Parliament cannot ask questions concerning the activities of MI (Military Intelligence) and other secret police organizations, questions in which the Queen is mentioned or the House is criticized.

The three element of **Parliament** – **The Queen**, **2 Houses** **of Parliament** are separate and constituted on different principles, and they meet together only on occasions of symbolic significance: coronation, 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 Parliament (the House of Commons) at 5 years, although it may be dissolved and a general election held before the end of this term.

The life of Parliament is divided into 2 sessions. Each session usually lasts for 1 year. Each session begins and ends in October or in November.

Parliament is usually dissolved either at the end of its 5-year term or when the Government requests a dissolution before the terminal date. The House of Commons sits on about 175 days, the House of Lords – 140 days. The periods when Parliament is not sitting are known as “recesses”.

Since the beginning of Parliament the balance power between two Houses has undergone complete change. The centre of parliamentary power is in the House of Commons, but until the 20th century the Lords’ power of veto over measures proposed by the Commons was unlimited. The Parliament ACT 1911 curtailed the veto of the Lords to a period of 2 years for Bills passed by the Commons.

In the House of Lords the **Lord Chancellor** carries **no** **authority** to control debate. Members don’t address themselves to the Lord Chancellor but to their fellow members. If during the debate 2 peers rise to their feet at the same time, the House itself determines who shall speak: the Lord Chancellor has no power/right to decide which peer shall take the floor. In the Commons on the contrary the Speaker has full authority. He presides over the House of Commons. In debate all speeches are addressed to him. Voting in the House of Commons is carried out under the direction of the Speaker, whose duty is to pronounce the final result. In the event of a tied vote (when equal number of votes is cast) the Speaker must give his decisive vote. Members’ votes are recorded by 4 clerks and 4 tellers. The voting procedure in the House of Lords Commons is similar to that in the House of Commons except that the Speaker has an original, but no casting vote.

The two Houses share the same building – the palace of Westminster. The present buildings of the palace were erected between 1840-1852. Parts of the Palace including the commons Chamber itself, which were badly damaged in an air raid in 1941, have been rebuilt since 1945.

The House of Commons has **6** administrative and **executive departments**: the department of the Clerk of the House, the department of the Serjeant-at-Arms, the d. of the Library, the department of the Official Report, the Administration Department, the Refreshment Department. These departments are under the supervision of the House of Commons Commission.

The House of Lords consists of the **Lords Spirituals** and the **Lords** **Temporal**. The Lords Spiritual (**26**) are the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, the Bishops of London, Durham, Winchester and 24 senior Bishops of the Church of England. The **Lords** **Temporal** consist of all **hereditary** **peers** and peeresses (792), **life** **peers** (348) (created by the Crown), and **Law Lords** (21) to assist the House in its judicial duties. Temporal peerages both hereditary and life are conferred on the advice of the Prime Minister.

**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 and the Queen must signify her approval (which is a formality). The Bill then becomes an act and comes into force on the day in which it receives the Royal Assent.

Most Bills are public bills involving measures relating to public policy. There are also private Bills which deal with matters of individual. Public Bills can be introduced by a Government Minister or by a private member. Most public legislation is sponsored by the Government.

Before a government Bill is finally drafted there is a considerable consultation with professional bodies. Proposals for legislative changes are set out in government “**White Papers**” which may be debated in Parliament before a Bill is introduced. From time to time consultative documents called “**Green** **Papers**” are published setting out for public discussion.

Public Bills can be introduced in either House. As a rule, Government Bills likely to raise political controversy go through the Commons before the Lords. A Bill with a mainly financial purpose is nearly always introduced in the Commons. A Bill involving taxation or the spending public money must be based on resolutions agreed by the House, often after debate, before it can be introduced. The process of passing a public Bill Is similar in both Houses of Parliament.

The various **stages** through a Bill has to pass are as follows: the 1st reading; the second reading; committee; report; the third reading. The stages follow at intervals of between 1 day and several weeks. In the House of Commons the report and the third reading are usually taken on the same day.

The first reading of a public Bill is a formality. Once presented it is printed and proceeds to a second reading.

The stage of second reading provides the first main occasion for a wide debate on general principles of the Bill, including alternative methods of achieving its purposes. The Opposition may decide to vote against the Bill on its second reading.

When a Bill has passed its second reading, it is usually referred for detailed examination to a standing committee of 16-50 members. The object of the committee stage is to study the details of a measure.

During the report stage the House considers the Bill as amended and makes any further amendments that may be necessary. Only the amendments of the Bill are discussed.

At the third formal reading a Bill is reviewed in its final form, which includes the amendments made at earlier stages.

**Functions of** **Parliament**

1. Making laws.
2. Providing money for government, through taxation.
3. Examining government policy, administration and spending.
4. Debating political questions.

**The Cabinet**

The Cabinet is the executive group of Ministers usually about 20 in number who are chosen by the Prime Minister that is the leader of the party that has win the election. The Cabinet determines Government policies, exercises supreme control of Government and coordinates government departments, all decisions on foreign policy, finance, defense.

The prime Minister appoints the Ministers to compose the Government. Besides the Prime Minister who presides over the Cabinet there are 20 members of the Cabinet. They are the Chancellor of Exchequer (канцлер казначейства), who is in charge of the nation’s money, the Lord Chancellor (the Speaker of the House of Lords), the Lord Privy Seal (лорд, хоронитель печаті), Secretary of State for Home and Foreign Affairs, Secretary of State for Defense, Secretary of State for Education and Science, Secretary of State for Employment, the Secretary of State of Energy, the Secretary of State for industry, the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland, the Secretary of State for Scotland, the Secretary of State for Trade, the Secretary of State for Social Services, the Secretary of State for Transport and so on. The Cabinet meets regularly once or twice a week in the residence of the Prime Minister in Downing Street, 10. It decides what subjects shall be debated in the House of Commons. It drafts and proposes all important legislations. The Cabinet never votes and the Prime Minister’s decision is final. The Shadow cabinet has the same structure as the Cabinet in office. Every Minister in the Shadow Cabinet studies the weak points of his counterpart in the Cabinet in office in order to argue with him in Parliament.

Since the 18th century the Cabinet has been increasingly responsible for deciding policies and controlling and coordinating government administration. It meets in private and its discussions are secret. When a policy has been decided, an individual minister must either support it or resign, because the Cabinet acts as one body with “collective responsibility”.

**Functions of the Prime Minister**

* 1. Leading the majority party.
  2. Running the Government.
  3. Appointing Cabinet Ministers and other ministers.
  4. Representing the nation in political matters.

**It's interesting to know.**

**Margaret Thatcher** was born on October 13, 1925 in Grantham, England, the younger daughter of Alfred and Beatrice Roberts. M. Thatcher first stood for Parliament in 1950, but won her first election campaign in 1959, winning the seat of Finchley in London, which she held until she retired in 1992. She rose within the ranks of the Conservative Party, holding a variety of positions, and entered the Shadow Cabinet in 1967. In 1970 she became the Minister for Education, advocating an increase in spending on education and the creation of more comprehensive school, but she rose to public prominence after cancelling a programme providing free milk to primary school children which led to the nickname "Thatcher the Milk Snatcher". When the Conservative Party leader Edward Heath lost two General Elections in 1974, Margaret Thatcher became the only cabinet minister prepared to challenge him for the leadership of the party. She won by 130 votes to 119, though she only gained one vote from her Shadow Cabinet colleagues. She led the party in opposition and then in the 1979 elections, winning largely because the opposition was so divided and unpopular, and because of a series of major strikes the winter before; hers was the lowest margin of victory since 1922. As the Prime Minister M. Thatcher battled the country's recession by initially raising interest rates to control inflation. She was best known for her destruction of Britain's traditional industries, through her attacks on labour organizations such as miner's union, and for the massive privatization of social housing and public transport.

Forging a close relationship with US President Ronald Reagan, M. Thatcher expressed a strong anti-communism and portrayed the USSR as an evil which should be opposed. She earned her nickname "the Iron Lady" in the Soviet media, and the west soon adopted it. M. Thatcher faced a military challenge during her first term. In April 1982, Argentina invaded the Falkland islands. This British territory had long been a source of a conflict between the two nations as the islands are located off the coast of Argentina. Taking swift action, M. Thatcher sent British troops to the territory to retake the islands in what became known as the Falklands War. Argentina surrendered in June 1982. Returning for a third term in 1987 M. Thatcher sought to implement a standard educational curriculum across the nation and make changes to the country's socialized medical system. On November 28, 1990 M. Thatcher left office, departing from Downing Street, 10.

**Tony Blair** (born 6 May 1953) is a British Labour politician, who served as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom from 2 May 1997 to 27 June 2007. He was the Member of Parliament for Sedgefield from 1983 to 2007 and the Leader of the Labour Party from 1994 to 2007. On the day he resigned as the Prime Minister, he was appointed the official Envoy of the Quartet on the Middle East on behalf of the United Nations, the European Union, the United States and Russia. T. Blair was elected the Leader of the Labour Party in 1994 following the sudden death of his predecessor, John Smith. Under the leadership of t. Blair the party adopted the term "New Labour", abandoned policies it had held for decades and moved towards the centre ground. T. Blair led the Labour Party to a landslide victory in the 1997 general election. In the first years of the New Labour government, T. Blair handed over control of interest rates to the Bank of England; introduced the minimum wage; signed the Belfast Agreement; introduced tuition fees and established Scottish Parliament, the National Assembly for Wales and the Northern Ireland Assembly. T. Blair is the Labour Party's longest-serving Prime Minister; the only person to have led the Labour Party to three consecutive general election victories. He was succeeded as the Leader of the Labour Party on 24 June 2007 and as Prime Minister on 27 June 2007 by Gordon Brown.

**James Gordon Brown** (born 20 February 1951) was the [**Prime Minister of the** **United Kingdom**](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prime_Minister_of_the_United_Kingdom) and [**Leader**](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Labour_Party_%28UK%29#Leaders_of_the_Labour_Party_since_1906)of the [**Labour** **Party**](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Labour_Party_%28UK%29). Brown became the Prime Minister in June 2007, after the resignation of [**Tony Blair**](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tony_Blair) and three days after becoming leader of the governing Labour Party. Immediately before this he had served as Chancellor of Exchequer in the Labour government from 1997 to 2007 under Tony Blair. James Gordon Brown has a Ph in History from the University of Edinburgh and spent his early career working as a television journalist. He has been a Member of Parliament since 1983. As Prime Minister he held the offices

of First Lord of the Treasury and the Minister for the Civil Service. Brown's time as Chancellor was marked by major reform of Britain's monetary and fiscal policy. In foreign policy J. Brown was committed to the Iraq War, but said in a speech in June 2007 that he would 'learn the lessons' from the mistakes made in Iraq. Brown said in a letter published on 17 March 2008 that the United Kingdom would hold an inquiry into the Iraq war. In May 2010 the Conservative Party won the election and **David Cameron** became the Prime Minister.

**The British Constitution**

The United Kingdom of Great Britain is one of the few developed countries in the world where a constitutional Monarchy has survived with its customs, traditions and ceremonies. The British Constitution unlike the Constitutions of most countries of the word is not contained in any simple document.In fact, there is no written Constitution in the country. The term “English Constitution” means the leading principles, conventions, laws which are expressed in such documents as Magna Charta, the Bill of Rights and some others. These conventions can be altered by act of Parliament or general agreement to create, to change or to abolish one of the items. One of the characteristic features of the English Constitution is the fact of its perpetual modification. So we may say that it is a flexible Constitution. To say figuratively it bends but it does not break. Another feature of the Constitution connected with its flexibility is its unbroken continuity. There was no moment in the history of the country when the Englishmen wrote a wholly new Constitution. Each change in the Law was to develop and improve something. Even revolutions didn’t change the Constitution radically.

**Key Principals of the UK Constitution**

The first principal of the Constitution is the principal of parliamentary sovereignty and the second one is the rule of Law. The latter is the idea that all laws and government actions conform to certain fundamental and unchanging principles. One of these fundamental principles is of equal application of the law: **everyone is equal before the law**, including those in power. The Rule of Law is an aspect of the British Constitution that has been emphasized by A.V. Dicey and it, therefore, can be considered an important part of British Politics. It involves: the rights of individuals are determined by legal rules and not the arbitrary behavior of authorities; there can be no punishment unless a court decides there has been a breach of law; everyone, regardless of the position in society, is the subject to the law. The critical feature to the Rule of Law is that individual liberties depend on it. Its success depends on the role of trial by jury and the impartiality of judges. It also depends on Prerogative Orders. The limits of the doctrine of Parliamentary sovereignty have been debated for a number of years. One purported example of its limits which is often given is provided by the category of statutes that were passed to grant independence to former British colonies. Another important principal is that the UK is **a** **unitary state** rather than a federation or a like a confederation. The authority of local and devolved bodies like Scottish Parliament is dependent on Acts of Parliament, and they can be abolished at the will of British Parliament in Westminster. Under the British Constitution known as the royal prerogative are nominally vested in the Sovereign. In exercising these powers the Sovereign normally defers to the advice of the Prime Minister or other ministers. This principle includes the following powers, among others:

1. the power to appoint and dismiss the Prime Minister;
2. the power to appoint and dismiss other ministers;
3. the power to summon, prorogue and dissolve Parliament;
4. the power to make war and peace;
5. the power to command the armed forces of the United Kingdom;
6. the power to regulate the Civil Service;
7. the power to ratify treaties;
8. the power to issue passports.

**Sources of the UK Constitution**

Actsof Parliament are among the most important sources of the Constitution. According to the traditional view, Parliament has the ability to legislate however it wishes on any subject it wishes. For example, most of the iconic mediaeval statute known as Magna Carta has been repealed since 1828, despite previously being regarded as sacrosanct. It has traditionally been the case that the courts are barred from questioning any Act of Parliament, a principle that can be traced back to the mediaeval period. On the other hand, this principle has not been without its dissidents and critics over the centuries, and attitudes among the judiciary in this area may be changing.

Treaties do not automatically become incorporated into the UK law. Important treaties have been incorporated into domestic law by means of Acts of Parliament. The European Convention on Human Rights has been incorporated into domestic law through the Human Rights Act 1998.

The United Kingdom uses the common law legal system (except in Scotland where some civil law is incorporate) and court judgments also commonly form a source of the Constitution: generally speaking, judgments of the higher courts form precedents or case law that binds lower courts and judges. Many British constitutional conventions are ancient in origin, though others (like the Salisbury Convention) date from within living memory.

**Progress Test Questions and Assignments**

**Exercise 1.** *Answer the questions:*

1. Which of this people are not elected: a peer, an MP, a civil servant, the Prime Minister?

2. What is the difference between a life peer and a hereditary peer?

3. Which areas of government do these people deal with: the Chancellor of Exchequer, The Home Secretary, Lord Chancellor?

4. Name two functions of Parliament and two of the Prime Minister.

5. Which of the two Houses of Parliament has more power?

6. What is the difference between a Bill and an Act of Parliament?

7. What do you see as the advantages and disadvantages of having a monarchy?

**Exercise 2.** *Work in pairs:*

1. What differences are there between Parliament and the Government?

2. List some similarities and differences between the United Kingdom parliamentary system and parliamentary system in your country.

**Exercise 3.** *Check the meanings of these expressions. Make one sentence from each set of these words:*

MPs, election, House of Commons, Prime Minister, Cabinet, majority, House of Lords, Royal assent, bill, Act of Parliament, hereditary.

**Exercise 4.** *Turn the following nouns into adjectives:*

Constitution, ceremony, politics, administration, empire, royalty.

**Exercise 5.***Work in pairs:*

1. If the Prime Minister wants to introduce a new law, what do the following do: the Cabinet, the House of Commons, the House of Lords, the Queen?

2. Make a list of features of the British constitution which you consider important and compare them with the constitution of your own country.

3. Which members of the British royal Family are best known in your own country?

4. What powers does the Queen have in Government?

5. Do you think being a member of the Royal family is a "proper job"? What sort of work do they do?

**Exercise 6.** *Writing:*

Compare the constitutional system of Great Britain to the constitutional system of your country.

**Exercise 7.** *Writing:*

Write an essay on the topic “The State System in Great Britain”.

**IV. Political Parties in Great Britain.**

1. The Conservative Party.
2. The Labour Party.
3. The Social-Liberal Democratic Party.
4. Elections in Great Britain.
5. Changes in the electorate and political parties.

Thereare **3** main political parties in Great Britain: the Conservative, the Labour, the Social-Liberal Democratic Party. The Conservative and the Labour party are the 2 governmental ruling parties. These parties as a rule control Parliament. According to the results of the general elections to the House of Commons one or the other of them comes into power while the other one forms the opposition. This is the famous 2-party system which the English find so democratic. The Conservative and Labour parties share power, they control the state mechanism, only these 2 parties have access to the management of the state.

**The Conservative Party** (the official name ‘The National Union of Conservative and Unionist Associations’) is the oldest party. It is the major right-wing party. It was founded in the 60-ies of the 19th century (1867) as a result of the evolution of the Tory Party which had been existing since the end of the 17th century. It was organized on the basis of political groups of the English landed aristocracy. The Tories (formed in 1679) supported the claims of monarchy. “Tory” was initially a nickname meaning an Irish bandit. In the course of its evolution in the 19th century the Conservative Party became the main party of British top monopoly capital. The Conservative Party is the party of big business, financed and led by Big Business carrying its policy. The name “Conservative” implies that the party aims to maintain and preserve the existing Constitution and conserve what is good. The party developed in its present form in 1830 and supports enterprise, encourages property owning and has been responsible for many social reforms. The Tories find their support mainly in middle and upper class or establishment circles. Its home policy is aimed at the limitation of trade union rights and prohibition of strikes. The foreign policy of the Conservative Party is usually motivated by the interests of the British ruling class.

The Conservative Party has no permanent programme. On the eve of general elections the party issues a pre-elections manifesto which states the main aspects of home and foreign policies. Being the party of big business it reduces state allocations for social security, gives priority to private enterprise. Structurally the party consists of 650 local associations, each one covering an electoral constituency. One should remember that the House of Commons is formed by the deputies who have won majority in each of the 650 constituencies.

The Conservative Party has no official membership, no membership cards and party dues. Formally the highest organ in the party is the annual conference. However, the actual power is concentrated in the hands of the leader of the party. The leader is not elected by the annual conference, but by the MPs sitting in Parliament on behalf of the Conservative Party – the so-called parliamentary party. The leader personally appoints the holders of the key positions in the central office.

The Youth organization of the Conservative Party is the “Young Conservatives”. The party issues its own paper *Newsletter*, the journals *Time* *and* *Tide, Politics Today.* The majority of the British press supports the Conservative Party. The papers and journals are owned by big monopolies.

In the 1980s, the British politics was dominated by Margaret Thatcher: she was Britain's first woman Prime Minister, leader of the ruling Conservative Party and the longest-serving Prime Minister in the 20th century. Under Thatcher, it was Conservative policy to return state-owned industries to private ownership, cut taxation and control inflation. In 1997 her successor John Major was beaten by Tony Blair of Labour.

**The Labour Party** was established in 1900 on the initiative of trade unions and several socialist organizations (the independent Labour party, the Fabian Society). The main aim was to win the working class representation in Parliament. It was initially reflected in the name of the party – Labour Representation Committee. In 1906 it adopted the title of the Labour party. It is a classical party of social-democratic reformism. Up to 1918 the party had no clear-cut programme. The Labour Party hasalways been an association of different class elements – the working class and groups of bourgeoisie. The working class mass organizations, the trade unions provided the main body the membership and the finance.

The party has no long term political programme which would determine the final aims and means to achieve them. Instead the party endorses current political issues containing measures, which the future Labour government intends to implement if the party takes office as a result of a majority in the general elections. The home policy is based on the principles of reformism. However, the Labour Party politicians acknowledge the necessity of carrying out limited socio-economic reforms. In this context they favoured the nationalization of the economy (greater state control of the economy), a state-run health and educational system, some improvements in social security, better housing. In foreign policy the party supports NATO, military, political and economic cooperation with the USA. At the same time the Labour Party politicians display flexibility and in their policy statements support peace, arms control.

According to the new rules the leader of the party is elected by a college of electors including representatives of **3** bodies – the trade unions, local organizations, the Labour Parliamentary party. These rules provided wider opportunities for the rank-and-file members (in the trade unions, local organizations of the party) to have a greater say in the election of the leader and in the nomination of candidates of the Labour Party to represent it in Parliament.

The positive changes in the Constitution of the party carried out under the pressure of the working class infuriated the right-wing members. In protest some right-wing politicians left the Labour Party in 1981 and formed another party known as the Social-Democratic Party. The latter formed an alliance with the Liberal party. In 1988 the 2 parties finally merged together under the name the Social-Liberal Democratic Party. The split in the Labour Party revealed new important developments in the labour movements.

There are about **7.3** mln members in the Labour Party. Local party organizations which exist in most of the electoral constituencies form the basis of the party. The annual conference which elects the **National Executive** with 25 members is the highest organ of the party. The Executive is responsible for everyday affairs of the party outside Parliament. The leader of the party, his deputy, the treasurer, the Chairman of the party and the general secretary are all members of the National Executive. Debates at annual Labour Party conferences are mainly based on resolutions or policy statements from the Executive, and resolutions from the local organizations of the party. Resolutions from trade unions are generally few in number.

There is a constant struggle between the right and left wings in the party. The general trend is such that the right wing has a majority among the members of the parliamentary party, whereas the left wing exerts greater influence in the National Executive. When in opposition the party elects by secret ballot the “shadow cabinet” to guide the activity of the Labour faction in the House of Commons. The “shadow cabinet” includes the leading politicians of the Labour Party. The Labour Party issues its weekly paper *Labour News.*

**Elections in Great Britain**

The House of Commons is a body of persons chosen at a general elections. So once in 5 years general elections take place in Great Britain. The English consider their electoral system the most democrative one in the world. Before the elections each candidate must put forward 150 pounds of sterling, and he loses this sum of money if does not get more than 1/8 of the total votes cast. The whole country is divided into 650 electoral districts called “constituencies” of approximately equal population and each constituency elects one member of the House of Commons. Big cities are divided into several constituencies the so-called “boroughs”. The size of the constituencies varies. The British citizens can vote provided they are 18, resident in the United Kingdom, registered in the annual register of elections for constituency. Voting is on the same day (usually Thursday).

The Prime minister chooses the date of the next General Election, but doesn’t have to wait until the end of the five years. A time is chosen which will give as much advantage as possible to the political party in power. Other politicians and the newspapers try very hard to guess which date the Prime Minister will choose. About a month before the election the Prime Minister meets a small group of close advisors to discuss the date which would best suit the party. The date is announced to the Cabinet. The Prime Minister formally asks the Sovereign to dissolve Parliament. Once Parliament is dissolved, all MPs are unemployed, but government officers continue to function. Party manifestos are published and campaigning begins throughout the country, lasting for about three weeks with large-scale press, radio, television coverage. Voting takes place on Polling Day (usually Thursday). The results from each constituency are announced as soon as the votes have been counted, usually the same night. The national result is known by the next morning at the latest. As soon as it is clear that one party has a majority of seats in the House of Commons, its leader is formally invited by the Sovereign to form a government.

**Changes in the electorate and political parties.**

Electoral results in the period 1979-1987 showed a growing north-south divide, with the preponderance of Conservative control of the "core", and intensified Labour dominance in the "periphery". By the late 1980s electoral commentators were seriously questioning whether Labour would be able to win another election since its constituency of support was dwindling. Labour's declining constituency had been foreseen. a leading party member had forecast in 1959: " The Labour Party will probably decline … by about 2 per cent at each successive general election." It was a prophecy that proved reasonably accurate. The Conservatives experienced a slight but progressive loss of middle-class votes. But this didn't compare with the large loss of blue-collar and clerical votes lost by the Labour Party. The Labour Party faced severe problems at the beginning of the 1990s. In the 1960s and 1970s it had needed no more than a 3 or 4 per cent swing to get into power. By 1990 Labour could expect only 35 per cent of the national vote, and it needed more than a 10 per cent swing in its favour overall to win. Since the "blue-collar" manual worker class was rapidly shrinking, Labour also needed to build support in those areas in which it was not represented, the inner and outer "core" areas, by reinventing itself and throwing off its less electorally attractive characteristics. It began to distance itself from the trade union movement, openly accepting that the unions had wielded too much power in the past and had been too undemocratic. Each union had been able to cast a "block vote" at the annual Labour Party conference, in other words the entire vote of the union's membership. At one time all trade union members supported Labour, they might not agree with their own union's use of their vote. Many party decisions at the conference were merely the outcome of a trial of strength between the unions. From 1993 Labour no longer allowed trade unions to cast "block vote" on behalf of its membership at the annual party conferences. This was a controversial decision since Labour largely depended on union funding., particularly for election campaigns. Labour was able to persuade the unions to continue to support the party financially, but it also made a major effort to build up the membership among those who did not belong to a union. Labour also formally abandoned its philosophy of nationalisation for major industries in 1995, and also quietly abandoned central economic planning. In addition, although traditionally suspicious of Britain's membership of the European Community, from 1987 Labour openly supported full participation as essential to the country's political and economic future. It also began a strategic campaign in favour of a less class-based ideological stance, and "working for the many not the few", as its slogan stated. It began to call itself "New Labour", to make a crucial distinction from traditional Labour. It also concentrated its efforts on young people, particularly those voting for the first time. All these efforts were reawarded in 1997 with a landslide victory. Labour's biggest gains were in the south east of Britain, with precisely those groups it had aimed at. Overall 45 per cent of women and 56 per cent of the under 30-year-olds voted for Labour. The size of Labuor victory indicated how a party could pick itself up after a period of great weakness by good strategic planning and a careful change of image.

In May 2010 The Labour Party lost the election. Gordon Brown resigned. The leader of the Conservative Party **David Cameron** became the Prime Minister.

**Progress Test Questions and Assignments**

**Exercise 1.** *Answer the questions:*

1. When did the party system emerge in Britain?
2. What contributed to the domination of the two largest parties in Britain?
3. Expand on the role, influence, policy of the Conservative Party?
4. Which party did Margaret Thatcher lead? Which of policies are mentioned?
5. Expand on the role, influence, policy of the Labour Party.
6. Comment on the new observed tendencies in the political life of contemporary Britain as regards the activities of other parties.
7. How often do elections take place in Great Britain?
8. How is the date of a British general election decided?
9. What were the changes in the electorate in the 1990s?

**Exercise 2.** *Use these words and expressions from the unit to fill the gaps in the sentences below:*

constituencies, opposition, private sector, general election, devolution, manifesto

1. The United Kingdom is divided into about 650 parliamentary ……….
2. A …….. takes place every four or five years.
3. Before an election, each party prepares a ……… which outlines their policies.
4. An important Conservative policy was the return of state industries to the ………….
5. The Labour government asked the public to vote on ……….. in Scotland and Wales.
6. While the Conservatives were in power, Labour formed the official ………. .

**Exercise 3.** *Work in pairs:*

* 1. What is the United Kingdom's Policy towards Ukraine and could it be improved?
  2. How many of the political issues mentioned in this unit are important in Ukraine? Which parties are for and against them?

**Exercise 4.** *Use the six expressions in Exercise 2 to write sentences about the political system in your country.*

**Exercise 5.** *Work in pairs:*

* 1. What advantages would a government have if it had a large parliamentary majority?
  2. If you were a British voter, which party do you think you would vote for and why?

**Exercise 6.** *Writing:*

What are the equivalents of MPs in your own country? What does their work involve? List their responsibilities and write a short paragraph describing their work.

**Exercise 7.** *Writing:*

Write an essay on the topic “Political Parties in Great Britain”.

**V. The Law**

1. The Legal System.

2. History of Courts.

3. The System of Courts in England and Wales.

4. Scottish Legal System.

5. People in Law Cases.

6. The Police.

7. Crime and Punishment.

.

**The Legal System**

British law comes from two major sources: laws made in Parliament (usually drawn up by government departments and lawyers), and Common Law, which is based on previous judgments and customs. Just as there is no written constitution, so England and Wales have no criminal code or civil code and the interpretation of the law is based on what happened in the past. The laws which are made in Parliament are interpreted by the courts, but changes in the law itself are made in Parliament. The most common type of law court in England and Wales is magistrates’ court. There are 700 **magistrates’ courts** and about 30, 000 magistrates.

More serious criminal cases then go to the **Crown Court**, which has 90 branches in different towns and cities. Civil cases (divorce and bankruptcy cases) are dealt with in **County courts**. Appeals are heard by higher courts. For example, appeals from magistrates’ courts are heard by the Crown Court, unless they are appeals on points of law. The highest court of appeal in England and Wales is the House of Lords. (Scotland has its own **High Court** in Edinburgh which hears all appeals from Scottish courts). Certain cases may be referred to the **European Court of Justice** in Luxembourg. In addition, individuals have made the British Government change its practices in a number of areas as a result of petitions to the **European Court of Human Rights**.

The legal system also includes **juvenile courts** (which deal with offenders under seventeen) and **coroners' courts** (which investigate violent, sudden or unnatural deaths). There are **administrative tribunals** which make quick, cheap and fair decisions with much less formality. Tribunals deal with professional standards or disputes between individuals and government departments (for example, over taxation).

**Criminal law** is concerned with wrongful acts harmful to the community.

**Civil law** is concerned with individuals' rights, duties and obligations towards one another.

**Lexical Clinic**

The ***nouns jurisdiction, dominion, authority*** *and* ***power***refer to the ability or right to rule.

**Jurisdiction** is the most formal of these nouns and the most re­stricted in application. It indicates an officially or legally predeter­mined division of a large whole, a division within which someone or something has the right to rule or decide: *the jurisdiction* of a mili­tary court over soldiers.

**Dominion** is less clear-cut in its implications. It can refer, on one hand, to assigned partial rule, like jurisdiction: a call by nationalists for Scotland and Wales to have *dominion* over their internal affairs. On the other hand, it can refer to absolute control, although here it often refers strictly to the control of a superior over on inferior: the ines­capable *dominion* of the rich and educated over the poor and un­schooled. As an actual title for a territory, dominion can suggest a colony that has gained internal self-rule but whose external affairs are still under the colonial power: the colony advanced to the status of a *dominion* and finally to that of a republic.

**Authority** and **power** are less formal than the other nouns here and more general in application. **Power** refers to any exercise of control over something, often with a stress on forcefulness or strength: After the period of greatest *power* the monarchy began to fade. Often, this noun refers to any sort of mental or physical strength or power: a work of great emotional *power;* brute *power* used to put down the revolt. **Authority** can indicate an officially de­termined right to rule: a committee given *authority* to rule on the credentials of disputed delegations. But authority can also refer to anyone exercising power, whether assigned to do so or not: a power vacuum in the new republic that remained until several tribal leaders assumed *authority* and formed a government. This noun can also indicate the taking on or delegating of responsibility: You have my *authority* to proceed with the investigation. As an abstraction, authority can indicate all sources of power taken as a whole: a child who always rebelled against *authority.*

**Itis interesting to know**

1**. Justice** is often represented as a woman with her eyes covered, holding a sword in one hand and a pair of scales in the other. There is a very famous figure of Justice which surmounts the Old Bailey, the main court for criminal cases in London. The statue symbolizes the just weighing of evidence. But the scales of justice go back to time imme­morial. The ancient Egyptians held that the good deeds of a departed soul would be weighed against his evil deeds, and justice done between them. The Koran also teaches that the merits and demerits of souls are weighed on the scales of the Archangel Gabriel.

2. **Old Bailey** (now the name of the Central Criminal Court in London) was the name given to the exterior wall of the mediaeval castle (from Old French "bailler" – "to enclose"), and also to the outer court of the castle between the inner and outer walls. The word subsequently came to include not only the court, but also the buildings surrounding it. When the court was abolished, the term was attached to the buildings of the castle itself, hence the Old Bailey.

3. Court buildings situated by the River Liffey in Dublin are known as **Four Courts** though they house a range of courts, including the Supreme Court, the High Court and a District Court as well as court offices and the law library. The name derives from the fact that the building originally housed the four courts of King's Bench, Exchequer Chamber, Common Pleas and Equity. The site has been extended but the name remains unchanged.

**History of Courts**

**Tribal councils** or groups of elders served as the first courts. They settled disputes on the basis of local custom. Later civilizations developed written legal codes. The need to interpret these codes and to apply them to specific stations resulted in the development of for­mal courts.

The ancient Romans developed the first complete legal code as well as an advanced court system. After the collapse of the West Roman Empire in the AD. 400’s, the Roman judicial system gradu­ally died out in western Europe. It was replaced by feudal courts, which were conducted by local lords. These courts had limited juris­diction and decided cases on the basis of local customs.

**Developmentofcivil-law and common-law courts*.***During the early 1100's, universities in Italy began to train lawyers ac­cording to the principles of ancient Roman law. Roman law, which relied strictly on written codes gradually replaced much of the feudal court system throughout mainland Europe. By the 1200's England established a nationwide system of courts. These courts developed a body of law that was called common law because it applieduniformly to people everywhere in the country. Common-law courts followed traditional legal principles and based their decisions сhiefly on precedents. English common-law became the basis of the court system for most countries colonized by England, including the USA and Canada.

**The System of Courts in England and Wales**

When someone is arrested by the police, a magistrate decides where there is enough evidence against the person for the person to go to court. If there is enough evidence and the case is a serious one, the person accused of the crime (called "the accused") is sent to a higher court. In most cases this will be **a Crown court**, where a professional lawyer acts as a judge and the decision regarding guilt or innocence is taken by a jury. If the verdict of the jury is that the accused is guilty, the judge decides the sentence. **A Crown court** is a part of **the Supreme Court of England and Wales** which hears serious criminal cases and appeals from a Magistrates' Court. **The Central Criminal Court** in London is also known as **the Old Bailey**. It is to be found in the street with the same name. Many famous criminals, including murderers and traitors, have been tried at **the** **Old Bailey**, and most British people are familiar with the name and with the figure of Justice on top of the building.

If there is enough evidence against the accused but the crime is not a serious one (for example, a traffic offence) then the case is heard in a **Magistrates' Court**. Magistrates' courts are another example of the importance of amateurism in British public life. Magis­trates, who are also called Justices of the Peace (JPs), are not trained lawyers. They are just ordinary people of good reputation who have been appointed to the job by a local committee.

**Magistrates' courts** which are open to members of the public are the lowest courts in England and Wales. Over 90% of all criminal cases are heard in these courts. In them, a panel of magistrates (usu­ally three) passes judgment. In cases where they have decided somebody is guilty of a crime, they can also impose a punishment.

There also exist **local courts** of law in Britain which are known as county courts. In Britain county courts are used only for civil cases. They are peopled by judges of the Supreme Court, circuit judges and recorders. Most cases are heard by a district judge but more valu­able cases may be heard by a circuit judge. The most important civil court of first instance in England is the High Court.

If found guilty in **the** **Crown Court** the accused may apply to **the Court of Appeal (Criminal Division)** (generally known just as the Appeal Court) in London where he or she will be heard by a judge. A convicted person may appeal to this court either to have the convic­tion quashed, i.e. the jury's previous verdict is overruled and he or she is pronounced "not guilty", or to have the sentence reduced. Sometimes a High Court judge from the Queen's Bench Division assists in dealing with criminal matters in the court of Appeal or Crown Court. In civil matters the Court of Appeal (Civil Division) receives appeals from **the High Court** (all divisions) and from the **County Court**.

**The High Court of Justice** (also High Court) is the lower branch of the Supreme Court of England and Wales consisting of the Queen's Bench Division, the Chancery Division, and the Family Di­vision. The High Court, the Court of Appeal and the Crown Court form the Supreme Court of England and Wales.

**The Administrative Court** since October 2000 is the new name for the old Crown Office in the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court that dealt with Crown and ministerial business. It is now a part of the Central Office of the Supreme Court.

**The Admiralty Court** is a section of the Queen's Bench Division made up of puisne judges (High Court judges who are quite senior) assisted by a nautical assessor.

One more part of the High Court called **the commercial court** deals with actions arising out of transactions of merchants and traders, especially actions relating to mercantile documents, export and import matters and cases arising from agency banking and insurance.

The highest court of all in Britain is **the House of Lords**. Twenty or so most senior judges in the land have seats in the House of Lords not by hereditary right, but because of their position. They are called the Lords of Appeal or the "Law Lords". By tradition, the House of Lords is the final court of appeal in the country. In fact, however, it is only the Law Lords who vote on the matter.

There is a separate investigative body for England and Wales known as **the** **Criminal Cases Review Commission** which has the power to review alleged miscarriages of justice. It cannot quash convictions but may remit cases to **the Court of Appeal.**

**Scottish Legal System**

Scotland has its own legal system, separate from the rest of the United Kingdom. Although it also uses an adversarial system of legal procedure, the basis of its law is closer to Roman and Dutch law. The names of several officials in Scotland are also different from those in England and Wales.

After a person is arrested by the police, an official called the procurator fiscal is in charge of deciding whether there is enough evidence against a person to be sent to court for a trial. If there is enough evidence and the crime is a very serious one, the accused is sent to **the High Court of Justiciary**. It is composed of Commission­ers of Justiciary. The high Court goes on circuit. For trials, it com­prises a judge and jury (in Scotland there are 15 people on jury). The High Court of Justiciary is the high criminal court of Scotland, dealing with murder, rape, and all cases involving heavy punishment. A very noticeable feature about the legal system of Scotland is that there are three, not just two, possible verdicts. As well as "guilty" and "not guilty", a jury may reach a verdict of "not proven", which means that the accused person cannot be punished but is not completely cleared of guilt either.

Appeals can be heard by the High Court sitting as the court of Criminal Appeal. If there is enough evidence but the crime is less serious one, the case is heard in a **Sheriff Court**. It is the main lower court of law in Scotland, dealing with both civil and criminal cases. Appeals from the Sheriff Court go to the High Court of Justiciary.

**People in Law Cases.**

**Solicitors.** There are about 50, 000 solicitors, a number which is rapidly increasing , they make up by far the largest branch of the legal profession in England and Wales. They are found in every town, where they deal with all the day-to-day work of preparing legal documents for buying and selling houses, making wills, etc. Until the 1990s, only barristers represented clients in the higher courts. Today the situation is changing and solicitors may represent clients in a range of courts, in addition to preparing court cases for their clients and briefing barristers.

**Barristers.** There are about 5,000 barristers who defend or prosecute in the higher courts. Although solicitors and barristers work together on cases, barristers specialise in representing clients in court. While both types of lawyers take the Common Professional examination, thereafter their training and career structure are separate. In court, barristers wear wigs and gowns in keeping with the extreme formality of the proceedings. The highest level of barristers have the title QC (Queen's Counsel).

**Judges.** Here are a few hundred judges, usually trained as barristers, who preside in more serious cases. There is no separate training for judges.

**Jury.** A jury consists of twelve people (jurors), who are ordinary people chosen at random from the Electoral Register (the list of people who can vote in elections). The jury listen to the evidence given in court in certain criminal cases and decide whether the defendant is guilty or innocent. If the person is found guilty, the punishment is passed by the presiding judge. Juries are rarely used civil cases.

**Magistrates.** There are about 30, 000 magistrates (Justices of the Peace, or JPs), who judge cases in the lower courts. They are usually unpaid and have no formal legal qualifications., but they are respectable people who are given some training.

**Coroners.** Coronershave medical or legal training (or both), and inquire into violent or unnatural deaths.

**Clerks of the court.** Clerks who look after administrative and legal matters in the court room.

**The Police.**

Each of Britain’s **52** police forces is responsible for law enforcement in its own area. In addition there are various national and regional connections, and local forces cooperate with each other. Some special services, such as the **Fraud Squad** (who investigate financial crimes), are available to any local force in England and Wales. In general, the local police forces work independently under their own **Chief Constables.** Each force is maintained by a local police authority. The exception is London, where the Metropolitan Police are responsible to the Home Secretary.

Police duties cover a wide range of activities, from a traffic control to more specialized departments such as river police. Each independent force has a uniformed branch and a **Criminal Investigation Department (CID)** with detectives in plain clothes. In addition the police authorities in England and Wales employ over 50,000 civilians and over 3,000 traffic wardens. Britain has relatively few police – approximately one policeman for every 400 people – and traditionally they are armed only with truncheons except in special circumstances. However, recent years have seen some major changes in police policy in response to industrial disputes and inner city violence in Great Britain. There has been an increase in the number of special units trained in crowd and riot control and in the use of firearms, a controversial area for the British police. The number of police has risen along with the crime rate. In recent years they have become more accountable as a result of highly publicized cases of police corruption and racism.

**Crime and Punishment.**

About 90% of all crimes are dealt with by magistrates’ courts. Sentences vary a lot but most people who are found guilty have to pay a fine. Magistrates’ courts may impose fines or prison sentences of up to 6 months. If the punishment is to be more severe the case must go to the **Crown Court**. The most severe punishment is life imprisonment: there has been no death penalty in Britain since 1965. The level of recorded crime and the number of people sent to prison both rose rapidly during the last 30 years of the 20th century. The weekly cost of keeping someone in prison is higher than the average wage.

There are some of the punishments available to judges:

1. prison;
2. suspended sentences: the offender does not go to prison unless he or she commits another offence;
3. probation: normal life at home, but under supervision;
4. youth custody in special centres for young adults;
5. short disciplinary training in detention centre;
6. community service: decorating old people’s houses, etc.;
7. compensation: paying or working for a victim;
8. fines: the punishment in 80% of cases;
9. disqualification from driving;
10. fixed penalty fines: especially for parking offences.

**Progress Test Questions and Assignments**

**Exercise 1.** *Answer the questions:*

1. Who is responsible for making law in Britain?
2. In the United Kingdom what is the difference between criminal and civil law?
3. What is the most common type of law court in England and Wales? Name three other types of British courts.
4. What is the difference between a solicitor and a barrister?
5. How are people chosen to serve on a jury?
6. Give three examples of basic police work.
7. Do police officers in Britain carry guns?
8. Is there a national police force in Britain?
9. What is the common form of punishment?
10. There is no death penalty in Britain, is there?

**Exercise 2.** *Match these words with their definitions:*

a) arrest person charged in a court law

b) bankruptcy give a punishment

c) burglary found to have broken a law

d) defendant stick carried by a policeman

e) fraud inability to pay one’s debts

f) guilty breaking into a building to steal

g) prosecute deceiving to make money

h) sentence seize a person by law

i) statute law established by Parliament

j) truncheon bring a criminal charge against someone

**Exercise 3.***Define the following words:*

vandalism, magistrate, firearm, tribunal, juvenile, jury, barrister, coroner, solicitor.

**Exercise 4.***Work in pairs:*

* 1. Which courts do you think deal with the following:

a) robbery?

b) a divorce case?

c) a burglary committed by a fifteen-year-old?

d) a drowning?

e) a case of driving too fast?

2. Which do you think is better: judgment by one trained lawyer or judgment by twelve ordinary people?

3. Which punishment do you think is suitable for each of the following crimes:

a) murder of a policeman;

b) vandalising a telephone box;

c) drinking and driving without causing an accident;

d) robbing a supermarket with a gun;

e) stealing goods from a shop;

f) parking a car illegally.

**Exercise 5.** *Discussion:*

1. The average prison population in England and Wales has risen almost every year since the Second World War. One possible solution is to continue building new prisons. Is this the only possibility?
2. In Britain the average salary of an eighteen-year-old trainee police officer is about 30% higher than for a newly qualified teacher. Should police officers be paid more than teachers?

**Exercise 6.** *Writing:*

Write a short paragraph on the work of a solicitor in England.

**Exercise 7.** *Writing:*

Write an essay on the topic “The Legal System in the UK”.

**VI. The Principal Economic Regions and Towns of Great Britain**

1. Southern England.

2. The Central Industrial Region.

3. Northern England.

4. Scotland.

5. Wales.

6. Northern Ireland.

7. Business and Economy. Patterns of Change.

Themain landofGreat Britain can be divided into such economic regions: Southern England, Central Industrial Region, Northern England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland.

**Southern England**

When speaking about Southern England we think of the county of **Kent** which is the nearest English county to the continent. Only 20 miles separate it from France. The climate of region approaches the continent more closely than any other part of Britain. The climate is semi-continental: hotter summers, colder winters. The rainfall is low. The long duration of sunshine especially along the South coast is a prominent climate feature. This has an important result on **agriculture** and the popularity of South **coast resorts**. The large resorts of South East England are **Hove**, **Brighton, Eastbourne, Hastings**. **Dover** is truly called the “Gateway of England”. The voyage from Dover to Calais takes just over an hour.

The most extensive crop is orchard fruit which takes nearly a quarter of all cropland. Hops, flowers and vegetables other than potatoes are also of great importance. The work of hop-picking requires a large seasonal labour supply. Kent is also noted for its orchard fruit such as apples and cherries. The production of fruits especially soft fruits relies on rapid transport heavily. Grain crops take more than half the arable land. Wheat is a leading crop. This part of England is densely populated. Small rural settlements are scattered over large parts of the country.

The costal towns are suffering from permanent unemployment. Women find employment in the holiday industry, but there is high male unemployment rate and many boys leave Kent after finishing school.

South-Eastern England is often called **Green England** for its meadows, fields of wheat, barley, oats and grasses used for fodder. There are many market gardens and orchards. Green England (or East Anglia and Lincolnshire) is an agricultural area. However, agricultural specialization is different in the South West and South East and East. Owing to the mild, moist climate of the South west, grass grows for a long period of in the year, and faring chiefly consists of rearing livestock. On the fertile lowland soils cattle are the principal farm animals, especially dairy breeds which thrive on the lush pastures. Hence, dairying is the main farming activity here. Oats and barley make up the principal cereal. The former are grown for fodder for the cattle. In the very south-west horticulture is developed: the growing of early vegetables and flowers. In the very south of the country barley is the most important grain crop, grown in rotation with other crops, while wheat is produced on the heavier soils. An increasing demand for milk has stimulated dairy farming.

Cereals occupy an important of arable farmland in the South East, with barley the main crop and wheat second in importance. However, the region is much better known, especially Kent, for its fruit farms. In the Thames basin there is an emphasis on market gardening – the production of vegetables and flowers.

Agricultural specialization in the east, which consists of **East Anglia** and **the** **Fens**, is quite different. The Fens is the district situated round the Wash. It is an area of low-lying, marshy land. The climate of this part of the country is more continental in character. This has determined the growing of cereal crops, which are the mainstay of the local economy. East Anglia and the Fens are one of the most important farming areas in the British Isles, with a special emphasis on arable farming. Wheat and barley cover a high proportion of farmland. More than 90% of farmland is occupied with wheat and barley. Sugar beet and potatoes are also important crops.

The largest towns in this region are **Portsmouth**, **Southampton**, **London**. Portsmouth is a naval centre and the naval activity is the source of the town’s growth. Everything reminds of the sea. The harbour is crowded with ships of different kinds and sizes. Southampton is another big port with a very large passenger traffic. It is a university town. The most important industry is shipbuilding.

Much smaller but very important towns of this region are **Cambridge** and **Oxford** where the oldest and famous universities of Britain are situated. Cambridge is situated on the river Cam which is running along the backs of several colleges. There are **30** colleges which are largely autonomous. To a great extent it includes industries dependent on university connections. Oxford is an industrial town and one of the main producers of motor cars. But its importance as an industrial town is masked by its importance as a university centre. It became a leading educational centre and by the end of the 13th century the earliest colleges of its famous university had been founded. There are 21 colleges for men and 4 for women. There are numerous educational institutions which are not directly connected with the University.

**London** – the administrative, financial and political centre of Great Britain. It is the centre of many industries. It is well known for printing film printing film-production, the manufacture of clothing, food and drink, furniture and other specialized products. It is also important for light engineering. London has seen greater expansion in recent years in the service industries. Service industries provide employment for twice as many people as manufacturing industries. This is due to enormous concentration of population in the city and the resultant need for services, such as shops, public transport. But in addition there are service industries which occur there on a scale found nowhere else in Britain. For example, more than half of the national labour force employed in banking and insurance, the civil service and scientific research, work in London. Thousands of commuters travel to central London each day to work in offices, banks, insurance companies and shops. Add to these the work of force catering for tourist trade.

**The Central Industrial** **Region**

The Central Industrial Region can be subdivided into **Midlands**, **Yorkshire** and **Lancashire**. The Midlands is the area which lies roughly between the Southern fringe of the Pennines in the North, the Welsh border in the West and the Avon in the South East. No large river flows through this area and this is a great disadvantage and one of the main reasons for its great network of Canals.

**Agriculture activities.** The Midland plains have large pastures in the West where cattle breeding and dairying are important. The amount of arable land is greater in the East where wheat, barley, oats and sugar beet are cultivated. In the South of the plain there is the valley of Stratford-on-Avon where people are engaged in fruit-growing and market-gardening.

**Industries.** For the past two hundred years the Midlands has been on of Britain's leading industrial regions. It was the presence of coalfields, especially in the South Staffordshire coalfields, which set the area on the path of industrial expansion and eventually the development of the great West Midlands conurbation, which is the industrial focus of the region and includes Birmingham, Coventry and several other larger towns. Today it is one of the chief industrial areas in the United Kingdom. Quite often it is called the Birmingham Black Country conurbation.

There is a remarkable industrial contrast between the eastern and western parks of the region. Manufacturing industry and pottery is the leading occupation in the West. Both the metal manufacture and pottery making of the West are concentrated on coal fields. In the East, that is in Nottingham and Leicerster, the leading occupation is the making of textiles and clothes.

**The Black Country** is the name given to the cluster of villages and towns which lie around **Birmingham**. A large number of tall chimneys can be seen there. They send forth their smoke and soot day and night covering the countryside with soot and blotting the sun. At night the region glitters with millions of lights, the flames from coal-tips, engines and blast furnaces. This is one of the richest areas in England. There is a local saying “where there’s muck there’s money”. The variety of goods produced is unimaginable – everything from a pin to a railway engine, chains, nails, anchors, motor cars, tubes, pipes, needles and guns. Birmingham is the centre of the cultural life of this area. It is a university centre. It is a big industrial city. Once it was called **the town o**f **a thousand trades**. Birmingham’s manufactures comprise particularly everything in metal. It is also well known for its motor vehicles, electrical equipment and machine tools.

**Coventry** is an old city 90 miles north-west of London. The city was already well known in the Middle Ages. Trading in wool, and later making woolen cloth, was the chief occupation. During the 19th century on the basis of local coal the metal-working and engineering industries developed. However, these industries were on a small scale, and it was not until the 20th century that rapid growth took place. The silk industry of the past was strengthened by the introduction of artificial fibres and the engineering industry concentrated first on bicycles and later on motor vehicles. During the early years of the 20th century , the first car assembly lines were built, machine tool factories grew up to supply them and a host of component industries appeared. During World War II the centre of the town was destroyed by the German air raids in which more than 50 000 houses were damaged. Now the most important among a wide variety of industries are motor vehicles, agricultural machinery, aircraft, machine tool, radio, television, synthetic fibres and other goods. There are three major industrial centres situated to the east and north-east of Coventry. They are **Leicester**, **Nottingham** and **Derby**.

Today **Leicester** is a leading centre of knitwear industry (including hosiery), and associated with this is the manufacture of knitting machines. **Nottingham** resembles **Leicester** in being the seat of a university and inhaving developed a major interest in knitwear production and the manufacture of knitting machinery. Nottingham lace also became famous. Other industries in Nottingham are the manufacture of bicycles, pharmaceutical products and cigarettes.

**Derby** is an important railway engineering centre because of its central position. More important than the railway work-shops today, however, there are the Rolls Royce factories.Textile manufacture developed with the building of the country's first silk mill. Man-made fibres, initially rayon, later took place of silk.

**Lancashire and Yorkshire**

Two major industrial regions are situated to the North of the Midlands. **Lancashire** is a historic centre of British industry. It is known throughout the world as the centre of the British cotton country.

Spinning and weaving are carried on in all the towns of Lancashire but **Manchester** has become a centre of the clothing trade and commerce. Manchester is the city of 30 inches rainfall damp with fogs and sunshine reduced the industrial smoke. Manchester’s position makes it one of the major ports of England. It is also a financial centre. It is well known for its electrical and heavy engineering, the production of the machine tools. Manchester is a newspaper publishing centre: 3 morning, 2 evening, 5 weekly and 2 Sunday newspapers are published. It is the home of the famous Manchester Guardian, now called the Guardian.

**Liverpool** is a big port, commercial centre. It stands on the river Mersey. It is known for exporting primary products and importing manufactured goods. Flour milling, sugar refining and rubber products are of great importance.

Due to extensive industrial development agricultureis less developed in Lancashire. There is a limited proportion of permanent grassland on the fertile lowlands of south Lancashire. Cattle and sheep relatively few, but there is a concentration of poultry. Potatoes are an important crop. Other vegetables such as cabbages and peas are also cultivated, and market gardening supplies nearby towns. On some of the lowlands in the north dairy farming predominates.

**Yorkshire** is the largest county in Britain. It is divided into 3 administrative areas. These areas are called **ridings**. The West riding is the industrial centre with a lot of textile mills, spinning and weaving sheds while Sheffield is the home of iron and steel.

In the North Riding large areas ofthe moors are under sheep pastures. Moors dominate the countryside. Dry stone walls dividing the fields creep along the countryside like blackened snakes and add much to the wildness of the scenery. The largest town is York. In Roman times it was called Eboracum. It has long been important as a route centre. Railway engineering developed, and another leading industry is the manufacture of confectionery (including chocolate). York attracts many tourists on account of its famous minster and the medieval city walls.

The East Riding is an agricultural area. The main towns are **Leeds** and **Sheffield.** The city of Sheffield is famous for steel industry. Two distinct types of products are made of steel here: machinery parts and cutting tools. Leeds is a commercial centre of the area. It is known for its wool industry as well as for its engineering plants.

The economy of Yorkshire was always closely connected with wool. This is vividly reflected in the development of agriculture. The highlands along the Pennines covered with coarse grass form rough pasture for sheep grazing, especially in the western and northern regions. North Yorkshire is mainly a rural farming region. Farming is mixed and includes cattle rearing and cultivation of root crops such as potatoes, carrots and cereals, mainly barley. In the north dairy cattle outnumber beef cattle. Much of the territory to the east, especially near the coast is under the plough. Barley and wheat are major crops, and sugar beet and potatoes are also important.

**Northern England**

Northern England is situated between Lancashire and Yorkshire in the south and Scotland in the north. Within this economic region we may distinguish two main centres of industrial activity: one situated in the north-east and the other in the north-west in Cumberland. Most important is the North-East. For centuries the North-East depended for its prosperity ion the Northumberland and Durham coalfield and the industries associated with it. The iron industry also grew up at an early date in the North-East because all of the basic raw materials were available locally. Among the major traditional industries of the North-East, shipbuilding alone was a finishing industry, i.e. an industry which produced finished goods rather than materials for other industries. Most of the part of Northern England is mountainous and the high bare moorland or fell as it is called here serve as a pasture for sheep. The lower slopes of the valleys of the Tyne and Tees were old traditional centres of coal-mining and iron smelting. The relative proximity of the mineral resources to the sea made shipping the easier form of transport to the other industrial and trade centres in the South. All along the coast ship-building centres are developed. The ship yards of Newcastle, Middlesborough became world famous.

Industrial development in the **North-West** is less extensive than in the North-east. It is mainly concentrated in Workington and in the Furness district around Barrow. The occurence of coal and iron ore near Whitehaven and Workington gave rise to an important iron and steel industry, as well as to engineering. Whitehaven has a chemical industry. At Barrow-in-Furness shipbuilding developed from iron and steel production.

On the North-west side of the Pennine system lies **the** **Lake District**, containing the beautiful lakes which give its name. Sometimes the county is called **the Lake Country**. Almost the whole county is a vast natural park. It is thinly populated. The small villages nestling among the mountains provide shelter for tourists. There are numerous swift and clear streams and small water-fall, high peaks which attract many English mountaineers and rock-climbers as well as thousands of hikers and campers who want to be “away from it all”. The region because of its high rainfall has become a source of fresh water for the industrial area of Yorkshire. Farming areas surround the highland. They are known for production of milk. Britain’s first atomic power station was built here (its name is Calder Hall). The Lake District is not only famous for its beauty but for the group of poets who settled here in the 18th century. Wordsworth, Coleridge and Southey lived and worked in this countryside. They are called Lakists. Wordsworth is considered to be of the founder of the Lake School Poets.

**Scotland**

Scotland is the most northern of the three countries constituting Great Britain. It is much smaller than England. The Cheviot Hills mark the boundary between the two countries.

Physically **Scotland** is divided into 3 structural regions: **the Highlands, the Central Lowlands and the Southern Uplands.**

**The** **Highlands** occupy the northern part of the country. Nearly all the region is high ground deeply trenched with valleys and lochs. Some lochs are exceptionally deep. The deep sea lochs cut deep into the land making the coast rugged and irregular. The Highlands cannot boast of a dense population. You can walk for miles over the hills and moors and never meet a soul. There are some isolated clusters of houses and even solitary cottages, the only sign of human life. The Highlands are not rich in minerals. There are only a few workings such as iron ore and a little coal is found. The development of hydroelectric power is becoming important. The Highlands’ population is principally engaged in sheep-farming.

**The Cenral Lowlands** are located between the highlands and Southern Uplands. In the Lowlands there are hills in plenty. The population is comparatively dense. The Lowlands are the cradle of the Scottish nation. The area contains two-thirds of the whole population of Scotland. Agriculture is one of the major branches of industry. Cattle and sheep graze and nearly everywhere there are signs of good husbandry.

There are some coal fields in the rocks of Lowlands. Iron and lead are worked in some areas.

**The Southern Uplands** lie to the South of the Central Lowlands and naturally much of this part of the country consists of high ground. But the ground is much less elevated than the Highlands. The country is less rugged. The Cheviot Hills are included into the Southern Uplands. They are based on volcanic rocks and granite. There is a great deal of moor in the eastern part of the Uplands. That’s why grazing has been practised here for a long time. There are black face sheep which are raised for their mutton and Cheviot sheep which are raised for their wool. Dairy farming is highly developed too.

The largest towns of Scotland are: **Glasgow**, **Edinburgh**, **Aberdeen**. **Glasgow** has a population of over 7 million. It is an important sea port. Its leading industries are heavy industries including shipbuilding, iron, steel, machine tools are among many metal products. It is also an important textile centre of Great Britain. It is famous for its woolen cloth and carpets. Glasgow is also a great publishing and book producing centre.

**Edinburgh** is the capital of Scotland. Its population is 600 000. There many ancient buildings the famous University which was founded in 1582. Edinburgh is considered a major centre of rubber production. There are also baking and milling industries.

**Aberdeen** the third city in Scotland is a port on the seacoast. It is a great centre of fish-canning industry. Aberdeen University was founded in the 15 th century and it is world famous.

**Wales**

Wales is a small country bounded on the North and West by the Irish Sea, on the South by the Bristol Channel, on the East by England. Its total area is 8 006 square miles, population – about 2 600 000 people. It is noted for its long rivers, big lakes and hilly peaks in the North and sloping hills in the South. The longest rivers are **the Wye** (130 miles), **the Dee** (70 miles), **the Towy** (68 miles). Wales is almost entirely an upland region. The highest mountains the Snowdon Massif in the North-West is the highest point in England and Wales. There is only the one large island of Anglesey off North-West Coast.

The largest natural lake is **Bala** which is 4 miles long and 1 mile wide. There are several more lakes. Some of them provide water supply for the cities of Birmingham and Liverpool in England, as well as one of two power dams providing electricity. Wales is the region of heavy rainfall. It lies, however, on the warmer western side of Britain.

South Wales is the main area of industrial activity, because it was coal that first gave life to industry. The 19th century saw a tenfold increase in the population of South Wales coalfield region. On the coast Cardiff and Newport handled the coal that came down by the valley railways. By the 1930s coal exports were already declining, causing economic depression and unemployment. The overseas trade disappeared in World War II, and only partly revived in peace time.

Like coal mining the iron and steel industry is long established in the South. For much of the 19th century, South Wales was the leading producer in Britain. As iron ores were exhausted, and foreign ores had been imported, the iron and steel works were moved to the sites near the coast. A major integrated steel works are situated in Port Talbot., where a new harbour was opened in 1970. However by the end of the 1970s the steel industry faced widespread recession and steel production was drastically reduced. Other metal i8ndustries in South Wales notably the manufacture of tinplate, are in Swansea district. South Wales is an important centre for the manufacture of non-ferrous metals. Its main centre is Swansea.

**Cardiff** is the capital of Wales. It is situated near the mouth of the river Taff. It is very well situated to develop an export trade in coal. Today the cargoes it handles are mainly imports, to be distributed throughout South Wales. On imported grain flour milling developed as well other food processing. Engineering in Cardiff includes ship-repairing and the production of railway carriages, oil engines, vehicles. It is known for a wide range of light industry.

**Swansea** is a large city and a good port too. It was founded in the 12th. century. It is an important centre of metallurgy. It has highly developed copper, tin, zinc industries. The main port of Wales is **Milford Hayen** (situated in the very south west) because of its oil tanker traffic. It is one of the leading oil terminals of Britain. Refineries grew up on opposite shores and Milford Hayen became an important refining centre. A pipeline takes petroleum to a refinery near Swansea.

North Wales is mountainous. In the north-west is the district known as Snowdonia, where the Snowdonia National Park is situated and where Snowdon towers over its mountain group. Sheep raising is the main occupation of the population. Despite the small coalfield, industrialization has had little effect on North Wales. Two nuclear power stations were built: one in North Wales, the other in Anglesey. They both supply to the national grid system. Tourism is mainly concentrated in the northern coastal strip. On Holy Island, which lies off the coast of Anglesey, is Holyhead, terminus of road and rail routes from London and chief ferry port, for services to the Irish republic – via Dun Laoghaire (pronounced Dunleary), near Dublin.

**Northern Ireland**

The area of Northern Ireland is small but varied. It comprises 6 counties. The insular position influences the climate greatly. Rains are frequent and abundant. The insular position also accounts for the absence of many plants and animals which are common in Britain. Ulster is lacking in mineral resources: no coal, the deposits of iron bauxite are very poor. However there are rich agricultural soils there and mixed farming is practiced. Oats are the main crop and there is a big production of potatoes. Many farmers grow flax and fruit is grown in suitable districts. The chief agricultural exports are cattle, poultry, eggs, dairy products, potatoes and apples. Northern Ireland is known for its **textile industries**. The linen industry is of great importance and gives employment to many workers though the unemployment rate is very high. The textile industry of Northern Ireland came to depend almost entirely on linen which was made from flex grown in the province. The industry started as a cottage industry, scattered throughout the region wherever flax and soft water were available. It was not until the 19th century that the first large mills were built and then the Belfast region began to emerge as the main centre of production. But production of flex and its preparation needed a great deal of costly manual labour and farmers gave up cultivation. Now the flex is imported from chiefly from Belgium.

Northern Ireland has one of the largest concentrations of man-made **fibre** **production**. The engineering industry of Northern Ireland has been dominated by ship-building. During the 19th century bit grew very rapidly. With the introduction of iron ships, the industry was forced to import Britain most of its raw materials, including coal, iron and steel. It was during this period that the industry became centred on the shores of Belfast Lough where there were deep-water anchorages and where large area of flat land surrounding the lough provided sites for docks and yards. The 20th century has seen the continuation of this process and by 1950 there was one large shipbuilding concern in Northern Ireland – Harland and Wolff – which employed some 20 000 men produced 10% of the total British output. Attempts have been made to attract new industries. Meat packing and food processing were expanded on the basis of increased meat production. Electronics, electrical engineering and chemical industry also developed, mainly in the east near Belfast.

The two largest cities are **Belfast** and **Londonderry**. Belfast is the capital of Ulster (the population is about 450 000). It has a well-developed machine-building and ship-building industries. It provides employment mainly for males. Belfast is a large port too. A deep water harbour, a large area of surrounding lowland suitable for development contributed to the rapid growth of the city. Most of people came from rural areas, attracted buy the opportunities to work in the shipyards and linen industry. Today Belfast, besides being a major centre of textile manufacture, shipbuilding, aircraft production, electrical engineering and food processing, also handles most of the overseas trade of Northern Ireland. Its University was founded in 1845.

**Londonderry** is the second largest city in Ulster with the population of about 150 000. It is a navy base and a port. The city is known for its clothing industry especially shirt industry. Besides its textile and clothing industries, flour milling and bacon curing also developing. "Derry" is also a market centre.

**Business and the Economy. Patterns of Change.**

Nowadays nation's industries can be divided into three sectors of activity. The primary sector is concerned with raw materials such as cereals and minerals. Processing these materials is the field of manufacturing sector. The service sector provides services of various kinds such as transport and or distribution, but does not manufacture goods. The construction industry can be thought of either as part of manufacturing sector, or as a separate fourth sector.

Earlier in its history, Britain had a very large manufacturing sector. Food, fuel and raw materials such as cotton were imported in large quantities and paid for with finished goods manufactured in Britain: it was known as 'the workshop of the world'. Today the manufacturing sector and the small primary sector are employing even fewer people. For example, during the first half of the 1980s the mining and energy industries lost 20% of their jobs. This was mainly through increases in productivity, so that fewer workers were producing the same output more efficiently. Productivity rose by 14% in the same period in British industry as a whole, though it had previously been low by comparison with other advanced industrial nations. Meanwhile service industries like banking and catering were expanding their workforce.

Britain has a mixed economy, based partly on state ownership but mainly on private enterprise. In the mid-eighties the private sector accounted for 72% of total employment and 74% of the goods and services produced in Britain. Government policy throughout the 1980s was to sell state-owned industries such as British Telecom and British Airways to private investors, thereby further increasing the size of the private sector. Britain's energy and transport industries were originally run by companies in the private sector. But in the late 1930s and 1940s these essential services were nationalized under huge state-owned corporations. In later years the state took over other companies that were in the economic difficulties in order to protect jobs: some car manufacturers (including Rolls-Royce) and shipbuilders became state-owed in this way. From 1979 it was Conservative government policy to return nationalised industries to the private sector. In 1979 less than a third of shares in the London stock market were owned by private individuals. The rest were owned by large financial institutions such as insurance companies. Privatization altered the picture dramatically. However, it is impossible to say whether share ownership has made individuals generally richer as that depends on the state of the stock market at any given time.

**The City of London**

London has been an important centre for finance for many years. The financial district known simply as the City occupies one square mile of central London. It is the site of the original walled city, and still has its own Lord Mayor and local government. Although the City is central to internal finance, to many observers it seems increasingly independent of the British domestic economy. When London was an imperial capital, the City was its financial heart, but in the age of telecommunications, the City could be situated anywhere.

**The Bank of England. The Stock Exchange.**

This is Britain's central reserve bank. It controls other British banks, issues banknotes (although the Scottish banks still issue their own notes), and acts as the government's banker. The City has the greatest concentration of banks in the world and is responsible for about a quarter of international bank lending.

London has had a **Stock Exchange** for dealing in stocks and shares for over 200 years. Since 1973 it has been the single International Stock Exchange for the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland. In March 1986 membership of the London Stock Exchange was opened to overseas companies, and commissions became negotiable. In October 1986 it became possible for stockbrokers to deal in shares through telephones and computers instead of face-to-face on the floor of the Exchange. These dramatic changes in City practices became known as "Big Bang": they linked London much more closely with the other major international financial centres in Tokyo and New York. A number of international exchanges are also based in the City. These provide an International market where materials and services can be bought and sold. For example, the London Metal Exchange arranges the sale of half of the world's ships and most of the world's sea cargo.

The City is also a major centre for insurance services. Lloyd's of London insures everything from houses to ships through its underwriters, insurance specialists who accept risks on behalf of groups of members who are responsible for meeting any insurance claims. Lloyd's currently publishes detailed information on ships and their movements.

**It is interesting to know**

A stock exchange is an entity which provides trading facilities for stock brokers and traders, to trade stocks and other securities. To be able to trade a security on a certain stock exchange, it has to be listed there. Usually there is a central location at least for record keeping, but trade is less and less linked to such a physical place, as modern markets are electronic networks. The London Stock Exchange is the world’s first one. It was founded in 1773 and it reflects more than 200 years of the development of share-based enterprise. At the end of the 19th century the London Stock Exchange revised its charters. Changes in the Deed of settlement in 1875 created a more corporate-based entity for the Exchange, which now operated on behalf of its owner-members opposed to being operated by its members while members remained responsible for the company’s debts and operational obligations. A further evolution occurred in 1890, when the country’s stock exchanges were linked together for the first time under an Association of Stock Exchanges. The individual exchanges continued to operate independently, however. At the beginning of the 20th century a new set of guidelines refined the Stock Exchange’s member lists into ‘broker’ and ‘jobber’ classes. Disruption in European trade caused by the outbreak of World War I led to the closure of the continent’s stock exchanges. The London Stock Exchange was forced to follow suit, suspending trades in July 1914, the last of the European exchanges closed. The London Stock Exchange reopened at the beginning of 1915. Normal trading conditions were not restored, however, until the end of the war in 1918, when the British government introduced a highly successful series of ‘victory bonds’. After World War II the devastation of the European economy brought on a vast change in the world economic and stock market landscape. The rise of the United States as world’s preeminent economic force saw the New York Stock Exchange outplace the London Stock Exchange as the world’s busiest and richest exchange. The rise of Japan as an economic power beginning in the 1960s and especially into the 1970s and 1980s saw the Tokyo Stock Exchange take over the number two position. Nonetheless London remained the center of the European community’s financial markets, and the London Stock Exchange gained increasing importance in the market for international stocks.

**Progress Test Questions and Assignments**

**Exercise 1.** *Answer the questions:*

1. Explain the role of London in the South Industrial Region.
2. Give a detailed description of the other industrial centres in the South.
3. List the main types of farming in the south.
4. What is meant by the Black Country?
5. Does agriculture play an important role in the economy of Lancashire?
6. What advantages did West Yorkshire have for the development of its woolen industry?
7. Make a short survey of the development of agriculture in Yorkshire.
8. What is the main region of industrial activity in Wales?
9. List the traditional industries of the Central Lowlands.
10. Expand on ship-building in Northern Ireland.

**Exercise 2.** *Answer the questions*:

1. What are the three main sectors of industry in any economy.
2. Which sectors of British industry are increasing in size, and which are decreasing?
3. What proportions of the British workforce are involved in manufacturing?
4. What is the difference between privatisation and nationalisation?
5. What exactly is "the City"? Name four of the City's major financial institutions.
6. When was "Big Bang"? What changes were introduced?

**Exercise 3.** *Match each expression in the first column with its opposite in the second. Give an example of each.*

a) domestic manufacturing

b) raw materials state-owned

c) privatisation finished goods

d) primary sector nationalisation

e) private international

**Exercise 4.** *Give an example of a job connected with each of the following words:*

Lloyd's, the Stock Exchange, The Bank of England, British airways, BP, British Telecom, the retail trade, the catering industry, a nationalised industry, the private sector.

**Exercise 5.** *Discussion. Work in pairs:*

1. What contribution does each sector of the economy make the production of: a sweater, a hamburger, a telephone call, a book.

2. If British industries continued to change at the same rate, what would you expect them to look like now?

3. Britain has been described as "the first post-industrial society". What trends described would support that view?

4. Which industries do you think should be controlled by the state and which by private shareholders? Give reasons for your choice.

**Exercise 6.** *Writing:*

Summarize the changes in the British economy. Compare the situation in Britain to the situation in Ukraine.

**Exercise 7.** *Writing:*

Write an essay on the topic “Principle Economic Regions in Great Britain”.

**VII. Population in Great Britain**

1. The density of population in Great Britain.

2. Four-fold division of rural population in Great Britain.

3. The English, the Scots, the Irish and the Welshmen.

4. The Ukrainian Community in Great Britain.

5. Social classes in Britain.

6. Ethnic minorities in Great Britain.

Britain has a population of about 60 million people the 17th largest in the world. The great majority of people live in England 49,3 million. Naturally not all parts of the United Kingdom are evenly populated. Although Britain is densely populated, there are large areas which contain fewer than 100 people per square kilometre (for example, much of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland). Densities of more than 500 people per square kilometre are only founding the main industrial areas (such as the Midlands and South-East England). There are only five cities with population over 500,000, although Manchester, Liverpool and Newcastle also exceed this figure if neighbouring towns are included. England is the most densely populated with 375 people per square km, Wales – with 141 people per square km, Northern Ireland – with 116 people per square km. Scotland is the least populated with 65 people per square km. Throughout Britain urban and suburban population predominates. More than half the people of Britain live in large towns of 50 000 or more inhabitants or in the suburbs of such towns. Each of great cities has gathered round it a group of suburbs or satellite towns. They are either nearly built areas or old towns and villages that have been sucked by the town into its orbit. Thus we may see that the great majority of people are concentrated in towns and cities though there has been a trend especially in the capital for people to move away from congested, overcrowded centres into the suburbs. Some 89% of Britains are urban dwellers. But this figure is a bit misleading because the so called rural areas include most of coal fields. There are 2 kids in a typical English family. The proportion of married people is decreasing and people are marrying older. The average age of women having children has risen (over 28 years). Life expectancy for men in Britain is about 74 years and for women – 79 years. There is the highest marriage and divorce rate in Britain. There are 309 000 marriages each year in Britain of which 40 percent are remarriages. The average age for the first marriage in England and Wales is 29 for men and 27 for women. In England and Wales there are14 divorces foe every 1000 married couple. Now when the law made it easier to divorce the number of divorces has increased. In fact one marriage in every three ends in divorce. That means that there are a lot of one parent families. The society is now more tolerant than it used to be.

In Great Britain as well as in many other Western European countries there has been an increase of cohabitants (unmarried people living together). About 14 percent of non-married men and women aged 16 and over in Great Britain are cohabitating. There is some evidence of a growing number of stable non-married relationships.

The proportion of people over retirement age has been increasing over the last 30 years. Today they are some 11 million and their number continues to grow. Most elderly people live healthy and independent lives. Nearly all of them want to live in their own houses. Only 5 percent of people aged over 65 live in institutional accommodations.

The home is the central focus of most of young people especially those who are still attending school. There is a ratio of about 104 females to every 100 males in Britain. Women now make up over one-third of the workforce in Britain. There is an established **four-fold division of the rural population** in Great Britain:

1. landlords possessing land (their income is chiefly from agricultural rent);
2. owner-farmers possessing their own farms and lands (they are living of the sale-production);
3. tenant-farmers renting their farms from the gentry;
4. labourers owning and renting no land and working for wages.

The owner farmer is the characteristic countryman in modern Britain.

Great Britain is inhabited by the English (44,7 mln people) who constitute 8% of the population, the Scots (about 5 million 150 thousand people), the Irish (1 mln 350 thousand people) and about 900 thousand Welshmen who live in Wales. Among other nationalities inhabiting Great Britain there are Jews, Germans, Poles, Frenchmen, Italians as well as migrants from India, Pakistan, African countries. In 2005 there were 30 000 Ukrainians in Britain.

English is the official language in England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. But in the Highlands of Scotland and in the Uplands of Wales a remnant of Celtic speech still survives. The Scottish form of Gaelic is spoken in some parts of Scotland while a few people in Northern Ireland speak the Irish form of Gaelic. Welsh which is a form of British Celtic is the first language in most parts of Wales. The existence of this great variety of languages is easy to understand. The people who inhabit Britain nowadays are descended from pre-Celts, Celts, Romans, Anglo-Saxons. Some of them inhabited the Isles many centuries ago, others came there as invaders from Scandinavia and the Continent of Europe.

After WW II the growth of the British population temporarily increased. The demographers called that growth “baby boom”. The natural growth of the population is rather small (4.2 per 1000 people against 14 in the middle of the 19th century).

Since 1801 a Census has been taken every 10 years (but 1941). According to the Census taken in 1961 48,4% of residents are men, 51,6% – were women. For centuries people from overseas have settled in Great Britain either to escape political or religious persecution or in search of better economic opportunities. Emigration played an important role in the history of Great Britain. Englishmen began to immigrate to their first colony Ireland at the end of the 16th century. Later the first emigrants started for America. The emigration from Great Britain culminated in the 19th cent. and in the years preceeding WW I. Now the descendants of the emigrants from Great Britain and Ireland make the bulk of the whole population of the USA, Canada, Australia.

After WW II when the unemployment was high in Wales and Ireland many people emigrated to Canada, Australia, the USA in search of job. Wales lost about 3 mln people. On the other hand the number of people who arrived in the country is also high. About 5000 people arrive in Great Britain each year. Among them there are Indonesians, Pakistani, Indians and the others.

**Social Classes in Britain.**

**A –** Upper Middle Class 3 %

**B –** Middle Class (middle managerial) 16%

**C1 –** Lower middle (junior managerial/clerical, non-manual workers) 26%

**C2 –** Skilled working class 26%

**D –** Semi-skilled/unskilled working class 17%

**E –** Residual (dependent on state benefit, unemployed, occasional part-time) 13%

**Ethnic Minorities**

The ethnic minority community in Britain comprises 5.7% of the total population but are likely to rise to about 7% in 5 years, on account of their higher birth rate. In 1950 there were only about 40 000 non-white Britons, mainly in ports of Liverpool, Bristol and Cardiff. People from the West Indies began immigrating to Britain in substantial numbers at that time, in response to labour shortages. During the 1960s and 1970s a large number of people also came from India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. People of Afro-Caribbean and Asian origin have generally had the worst-paid jobs, lived in the worst housing and encountered hostility from white neighbours. The initial view that non-white immigrants would assimilate into the host community was quickly proved wrong. Since the mid-1960s the government has introduced three race relations acts in order to eliminate racial discrimination. But laws were also introduced to restrict immigration, which seemed particularly aimed at thwarting non-white immigrants.

The first Ukrainian community appeared in Manchester in 1893. Those were people who on their way to North America had decided to stay in England. By 1912 the community numbered some 500 persons. Most of them immigrated to the USA before the outbreak of WW I in 1914. Those who remained worked mostly as tailors and had their Ukrainian club.

More Ukrainians appeared in Britain after WW II. Among them there were soldiers of the Canadian armed forces. In 1947 some 8 360 Ukrainians – former soldiers of the Division Halychyna came to Britain from the camp in Rimini (Italy). They arrived as contract workers.

**Ethnic Minority Communities in Britain**

**Origin Number**

Indian 840,000

Caribbean 500,000

Pakistani 477, 000

Black African 212, 000

Bangladeshi 163,000

Chinese 157,000

These minorities have areas of high concentration. London has the largest concentration of ethnic minority members, particularly Afro-Caribbean, 60% of whom are Londoners. But people of Indian origin are also highly concentrated in Leicester, those of Pakistani origin have high concentrations in the West Midlands and also in West Yorkshire, while those of Bangladeshi origin are concentrated in east London. In 1997 205 of Londoners belonged to an ethnic minority group, a proportion which will rise to 28% by 2011. Many British believe they inhabit an overcrowded island. Governments have seldom told their electorate that immigrant labour has filled essential areas the British workforce was reluctant to fill.

**Progress Test Questions and Assignments**

**Exercise 1.** *Answer the questions:*

1. Name some cities in Britain with large populations. Which is the furthest from the sea?

1. Which countries in Western Europe are bigger than Britain? Which are more densely populated?
2. Name the four-fold division of rural population in Great Britain.
3. Name social classes in Great Britain.
4. What are ethnic minority communities in Great Britain?

**Exercise 2.** *Work in pairs:*

1. Name some of the thinly populated areas of Britain.

2. Write a few short sentences to describe the distribution of population in your own country.

**Exercise 3.** *Discussion:*

Dwell on the Ukrainian community in Great Britain.

**Exercise 4.** *Discussion:*

What is the policy of Great Britain concerning ethnic minority communities. Compare the policy of Great Britain concerning ethnic minority groups to that one in Ukraine.

**Exercise 5.** *Writing:*

Compare social classes in Great Britain to social classes in Ukraine.

**Exercise 6.** *Writing:*

Put down the four-fold division of the rural population in Great Britain.

**Exercise 7.** *Writing:*

Write an essay on the topic “Population in Great Britain”.

**IX. Education in Great Britain**

1. The School System.

2. Education after Sixteen.

3. Higher Education. Types of universities.

**The School System**

Education is compulsory from the age of five to sixteen, and there is usually a move from primary to secondary school at about the age of eleven, but schools are organized in a number of different ways. The Department for Education and skills maintains overall control although local education authorities and head teachers have considerable powers in planning and administration. The National Curriculum introduced in 1988 sets levels of attainment for all pupils at the end of **Key Stages** 1-3 at ages 7, 11 and 14. Until the 1960s most children took an examination at the end of primary school (the Eleven Plus): those who passed went to grammar school while those who didn't went to secondary modern schools. A few areas still select at the age of eleven, but about 90% of secondary schools in Britain are now comprehensive, taking children of all abilities from their local area.

Most parents choose to send their children to free state schools financed from public funds but an increasing number of secondary pupils attend free-paying independent schools outside the state system. Many of these are boarding schools, which provide accommodation for pupils during term time. Many independent boarding schools are confusingly called public schools in England and Wales. Schools in Britain have three terms a year, each with a short half-term break in the middle, and longer holidays at Christmas and Easter and in the summer.

**The School System in England and Wales**

**1. Pre-school**: age 3-5 (**voluntary**) (**64**% of 3-4-year olds in the UK attend some form of pre-school education: **16**% of 4-year olds in England attend some form of non-school education such as playgrounds in the private and voluntary sector).

**2. Primary school**: ages 5-11 (compulsory) **95**% of 5-11 year-olds go to state-funded primary schools, many of which are still run by churches. Like secondary school students they follow a **National** **Curriculum** with standardised tests at key stages every two years; **5%** go to independent fee-paying schools. Some of these are called **preparatory** schools.

**3. Secondary school**: ages 11-16 (compulsory) (**85**% of 11-16 go to comprehensive schools, which do not select pupils by ability; **7**% go to independent fee-paying schools which are also known as **public** schools. Some areas still have a selection test at age eleven, called Eleven Plus: 5% who pass go to **grammar** schools, 2% who fail go to **secondary** modern schools and the rest to **comprehensive** schools).

**4. Sixth form**: ages 16-18 (**voluntary**): 75% of pupils now continue in full-time education after the end of compulsory schooling at age 16. They may study for **"A levels''** or **vocational** qualificationsat**:** the sixth form of their own secondary school (state or private), a separate **sixth** form from **college** or a college of **further** education.

Changes in educational policy in Britain have frequently been the result of political decisions or changes of government. For, example, the Labour government which came to power in 1964 immediately encouraged the spread of comprehensive schools and the abolition of selection at eleven. In the 1980s and 1990s the Conservatives made radical changes throughout the education system. Labour continued to change parts of the system from 1997 onwards.

**Education after Sixteen**

Since 1988, most sixteen-year-olds have taken the General Certificate of Secondary Education (**GCSE**) or the Scottish Certificate of Education (**SCE**) in five, ten or even fifteen subjects. Pupils going on to higher education or professional training usually take "**A**" level examinations in two or three subjects. These require two more years of study after GCSE, either in the sixth form of secondary school, or in a separate sixth-form college. Other pupils may choose vocational subjects such as catering, tourism, secretarial or building skills. Subsidised courses in these subjects are run at colleges of further education. School-leavers with jobs sometimes take-part vocational courses, on day-release from work. Colleges of further education and some schools offer vocational; courses leading to national vocational qualifications (**NVQs**) as well as "**A**" level courses.

**Higher Education**

There are over **100** universities in Britain plus other institutions including teacher training colleges. Undergraduate courses normally take three years of full-time study, although a number of subjects take longer, including medicine, architecture and foreign languages (where courses may include a year abroad). They lead in most cases to a Bachelor's degree in Arts or Science. There are various postgraduate degrees, including Master of Philosophy. The last two being awarded for research in Arts or Sciences. Degrees are usually awarded by the institution itself. Students of law, architecture and some other professions can take qualifications awarded by their own professional bodies instead of degrees.

In the 1980s the main sources of income for students in higher education were parental contributions and the maintenance grant (money paid by the local authority to cover living expenses, books and travel). By the 1990s this had changed and student loans gradually replaced the old system of grants. By 1999 loans formed 24% of total income for students.

Universities accept students mainly on the basis of their "**A**" level results, although they may interview them as well. The Open University was started in 1971 to cater for adults who did not have these formal qualifications. The emphasis has changed in all forms of higher education to include greater numbers of students and encourage people from different backgrounds to apply. In 1970 there were 620, 000 students in higher education of whom 33% were women. By 1999 these figures had increased to 2.1 million students of whom 53% were women. Life-long learning skills have also become more important.

**Types of Universities in Great Britain**

British universities can be roughly divided into 3 groups: 1) Oxford and Cambridge and the older Scottish universities: 2) the red brick universities: 3) the new universities.

1. **The universities of Oxford and Cambridge** date from the12th and 13th centuries and the older Scottish universities of St. Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh from the 15th and 16th centuries. All the others were founded in the 19th or 20th centiries. Oxford and Cambridge have dominated British education for seven hundred years. These universities consist of a number of residential colleges founded at different times, most of them for men, but few (of a later foundation) for women. Oxford has 5 women’s colleges, Cambridge three. Each college has its own building, its own internal organization, its own staff and students. In order to enter the university, one must first apply to a college and become a member of the university through the college. The colle­ges are not connected with any particular study and are governed by twenty to thirty **'Fellows'**. Fellows of a college are **'tutors'** (teachers, often called **dons**). They teach their own subject to those students in the college who are studying it, and they are responsible for their progress.

The university is like a federation of colleges. It arranges the courses, the lectures and the examinations, and awards the degrees. Today some of the men's colleges are co-educational. The universi­ties of Oxford and Cambridge each have over 10,000 full-time students. Oxford is older than Cambridge, more philosophi­cal, classical and theological. Cambridge, on the other hand, is more scientifically biased. But in many respects (especially their prestige and wealth) they look very alike, therefore they are often refer­red to collectively for convenience as **Oxbridge**. Admission to the universities is based on the old tribal patterns which guide boys from traditional schools to tra­ditional universities. Candidates to Oxford and Cambridge are largely self-selected, much influenced by parents, schoolfriends and family backgrounds. The older Scottish universities were founded before Scotland was joined to England, and to a great measure they take their traditions from the continental universities.

2. **The universities, which were founded between 1850 and 1930**, including London University, are known as ***redbrick universities****.* They were called so because that was the favourable building material of the time, though they are rarely referred to as 'redbrick' today. The University of London 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). Later many other colleges, schools and institutes were added, and it also could be called a kind of federation of colleges, but the system is entirely different. The largest of the London colleges are like universities in themselves, having many different faculties and departments. Others specialize in certain subjects, like the London School of Economics and Political Science, the Imperial College of Science and Technology, the School of Slavonic and East European Studies, the School of Oriental and African Studies, the School of Architecture.

There are also institutes attached to London University as well as to other universities. Whereas colleges within a university teach all subjects, and schools a group of subjects, these institutes specialize more narrowly, and are often more occupied with research than with teaching undergraduates. In London University, for example, there are the Institute of Archeology, the Courtauld Institute (specializing in the history of art) and some others. Most of the redbrick universities founded in the nineteenth century are scattered throughout the country and are to be found in Birmingham, Bristol, Exeter, Hull, Leeds, Manchester, Liverpool, Nottingham, Sheffield, Southampton and some other cities.

The redbrick universities organize their academic work in a variety of ways. Subjects are taught in individual departments which are in turn grouped into faculties covering the main subject grouping, like arts, science, engineering, social science. For example, these are the faculties at Manchester: Arts, Science, Techno­logy, Medicine, Law, Economic and Social Studies, Business Administration, Theology, Music, Education.

3. ***The new universities***were all founded after the Second World War. Some of them quickly became popular because of their modern approach to university courses. The first of this group was Keele University (in Staffordshire), founded in 1948. In 1961 seven new universities were approved: the universities of East Anglia, Essex, Kent, Lancaster, Sussex, Warwick, York. The traditional faculty structure in these universities has been avoided in an attempt to prevent overspecialization. One form of organization (at Sussex) is school, which embraces a range of related subjects. Some of the technological universities have boards of studies. York and Warwick have structures which are closer to the older universities.

***Polytechnics****.* They are products of modern times and somehow stand apart from traditional universities. The first 'polytechnic' was set up in 1838 in Regent Street, London, and was revived and enlarged in 1881. But the term now usually refers to those, the plans for which were announced by the Labour Government in 1966. These plans were to turn sixty colleges of technology, commerce and art into thirty new polytechnics, which have become centres for advanced courses in a wide range of subjects. Many of the thirty polytechnics today take part-time students and serve as comprehensives of further education. But some of them take full-time students, their work is of university level and thus is officially described as the higher education sector within further education, where students are able to take on a full-time degree course.

***The Open University.***The Open University was founded in 1971 by the Labour Government to cater for those people who, for some reason, had not had a chance to enter any of the other universities, especially those above normal student 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. The first courses began in 1971, and in a decade the number of undergraduates reached 65,000. It is a non-residential university. In teaching the Open University uses a combination of television and radio broadcasts, correspondence courses and summer schools, together with a network of viewing and listening centres. Written work is corrected by part-time tutors who meet their students once a month to discuss their work with them. 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 B.A. Honours degree. The time of staying on at the Open University is unlimited.

**Progress Test Questions and Assignments**

**Exercise 1.***Answer the questions:*

1. What choices do pupils have at the age of sixteen?

2. What does the abbreviation ***GCSE***stand for?

3. What have been the major changes in higher education in Britain over the last 25 years?

4. If you wanted practical basic training, where would you like to study in Great Britain?

**Exercise 2.** *Explain the following expressions:*

pre-school education, post-school, half-term, National Curriculum, independent school, eleven Plus, compulsory education, life-long learning, Open University.

**Exercise 3.** *Describe the differences between the following pairs:*

school college

primary secondary

state school public school

day school boarding school

undergraduate postgraduate

**Exercise 4.** *Work in pairs:*

1. What are the main differences between university courses in Britain and in Ukraine?

2. How are college and university courses paid for in your own country?

**Exercise 5.** *Discussion:*

1. Do you think education should be free? Are there advantages in a free-paying system?
2. Do you think children should be tested at the ages of seven and eleven?
3. What are your views of boarding schools?
4. How usual is it to enter the university in Ukraine?
5. Is a university education necessary for professional jobs?
6. What are other ways to get professional jobs?

**Exercise 6.** *Writing:*

Compare the system of higher education in Great Britain to the system of higher education in Ukraine.

**Exercise 7.** *Writing:*

Write an essay on the topic “The School System in Great Britain”.

**X. The media:**

**the press, radio and television**

1. The press. Types of newspapers.
2. Radio and television.
3. Government and the media.
4. Privacy and self-regulation of the press.

**The press.**

Britain's first newspapers appeared over 300 years ago. Now, as then, newspapers receive no government subsidy, unlike in some other European countries today. Advertising has always been a vital source of income. As long ago as 1660, King Charles II advertised in a newspaper for his lost dog. Today, income from advertising is as crucial as income from sales. In 1995, for example, 5,465 million was spent on press advertising, making the press by far the largest advertising medium in Britain.

There are approximately 130 **daily** and Sunday papers, 1,400 **weekly** papers and over 6,500 **periodical** publications. More newspapers, proportionately, are sold in Britain than in almost any other country. On average, two out of three people over the age of 15 read a **national** **morning** **newspaper**. National newspapers have a circulation of about 13 million on weekdays and 17 million on Sundays, but the readership is twice this figure. At first glance, therefore, the British press seems in good health.

**National dailies:**

Populars:

*Daily Mirror* (1903)

*Doily Star* (1978)

*Sun* (1964)

*Daily Express* (1900)

*Daily Mail* (1896)

Qualities:

*The Financial Times* (1888)

*The Daily Telegraph* (1855)

*The Guardian* (1821)

*The Independent* (1986)

*The Times* (1785)

**National Sundays:**

Populars:

*News of the World* (1843)

*Sunday Express* (1918)

*Sunday Mirror* (1963)

*Mail on Sunday* (1982)

Qualities:

*The Sunday Telegraph* (1961)

*The Observer* (1791)

*The Sunday Times* (1822)

*The Independent on Sunday* (1990)

The national newspapers, both on weekdays and on Sundays, fall into two broad categories: the **'popular'** and **'quality'** **press**. Ownership of the press, as can be seen, is in the hands of a few large publishing groups. The most significant of these are *News International*, owned by the Australian-born press tycoon Rupert Murdoch, and the Mirror Group. Although the law provides safeguards against undue concentration of control in one company, the acquisitions of News International have caused concern. Its purchase of *The Times* in 1981 marked the beginning of a shift in that paper from an establishment view, politically slightly right of centre but independent, to a more openly right-wing position, in line with the right-wing flavour of the Conservative governments in the 1980s. It also acquired *The Sunday Times,* and two popular papers, *the* *Sun,* a daily, and the *News of the World,* a Sunday paper, both of which it successfully turned into the two largest circulation newspapers. Thus News International owns the papers read by over one-third of the newspaper-reading public. In 1989 it entered the television market by launching a satellite television network, now known as BSkyB Television. Private ownership affects the political viewpoint of most newspapers. Most proprietors, or owners, are more sympathetic to a right of centre political viewpoint. Until the 1990s it could be claimed that 70 per cent of the newspapers sold supported a Conservative viewpoint. Among the populars, only the *Daily* and *Sunday Mirror,* and *the* *People,* express a left of centre view, while among the qualities *The Guardian,* and its sister *Sunday paper*, the *Observer,* reflect a moderate left-of-centre view. *The Independent* and *The Financial Times* tend to be left of centre on social issues while right of centre on economic ones, but would prefer to be viewed as non-aligned. In fact several right-of-centre papers supported a Labour victory in 1997, partly because of Conservative disarray, and partly because of Labour's perceived shift to the right.

All the popular papers, with the exception of the *Sunday Express,* are **'tabloid'** in format. The tabloids are essentially mass entertainment. They are smaller than the other papers, and are distinguished by large illustrations, bold captions and a sensational prose style. In the words of one ex-editor of *The Times:*

*The values of mass journalism are the traditional romantic values of energy, intuition, personality, sexuality, excitement and myth. The romantic element in the mass mind responds instinctively to the energy in the mass newspaper. Readers are presented with an exciting world of demons and temptresses, a flickering and exotic fairy tale ...By contrast the values of the serious press are those of analysis, rationality, truth, lucidity, balance, reality and, I would hope, compassion.*

The result is that the tabloids' news content is minimal and their emphasis is on gossip, emotion and scandal. By contrast quality newspapers, known as **'broadsheets'** on account of their larger, rather cumbersome format, emphasise news coverage, political and economic analysis and social and cultural issues.

Since 1971 over three million readers have been lost, mainly from the populars. A fundamental reason lies with television becoming the main medium for news. Consequently all newspapers now give more attention to sports results, city finance and entertainment, but this has failed to halt the decline in readership. Sunday readers have also declined. Since 1991 there has been a drop of one million in the number of populars sold each Sunday. Sunday quality papers have become fatter as the market competition increased during the 1980s. No Sunday quality paper can afford a circulation of less than about 400,000 without serious difficulty in attracting enough advertising. *The Independent on Sunday* (1990) was integrated with the daily *The Independent* in order to reduce production costs, but both seriously need to increase their circulation if their future is to be assured.

During the 1980s virtually every paper was radically affected by new printing technology. Bitter conflicts were fought between management and the unions as the new technology was introduced. Almost every newspaper left its historic home in Fleet Street, known colloquially as 'the Street of Shame', the centre of the British press for over a century. Some went to new sites in London's Docklands, while others moved elsewhere. New technology increased the profitability of the press, and this in turn allowed the creation of new newspapers. Some of these flopped. The most important new paper was *The Independent.* Established in 1986, it rapidly seized the centre ground vacated by *The Times,* which had moved to the right following its purchase by Murdoch's News International. By 1990 its circulation was only slightly behind its two main competitors, *The Times* and *The Guardian,* and it rivalled *The Times* as 'the newspaper of the establishment'. However a sustained price war by *The Times* from 1993 seriously damaged *The Independent's* sales and by the mid-1990s, its future looked uncertain. Circulation of *The Times,* however, increased from 350,000 in 1993 to 680,000 as a result of what its critics would describe as 'predatory' pricing.

Britain has a substantial number of **regional** **newspapers** also. Of these the two Scottish ones, *The Scotsman* (Edinburgh) and *the* *Herald* (Glasgow) are the most important, since they are also national papers. They each sell about 750,000 copies daily. But others with a large circulation include *the* *Birmingham Evening Mail* (200,000), *the* *Wolverhampton Express and Star* (208,000), *the* *Birmingham Sunday Mercury* (145,000), and *the* *Leeds Yorkshire Post* (75,000). These, too, are all in numerical decline.

Britain's ethnic minority communities also produce their own papers, both in English and in the vernacular languages. The oldest of these is the *Jewish Chronicle,* founded in 1841. But there are Asian, Caribbean and even Arabic newspapers published in Britain.

Finally, there are over 800 free newspapers, popularly known as **'freebies'**, almost all of them weekly and financed entirely by advertising. They achieve a weekly circulation of over 40 million. They function as local noticeboards, where local events are advertised, and anyone can advertise in the 'for sale' or 'wanted' columns.

The best-selling weeklies are those giving details of the forthcoming week's television and radio programmes, *What's On TV,* the *Radio Times* and *TV Times,* with circulations in 1996 of 1.6 million, 1.4 million and 1 million, respectively. Second to them in popularity are women's magazines, of which easily the best-selling is *Take a Break,* with a weekly sale of almost 1.5 million, and *Woman's Weekly, Woman's Own, Woman, Woman's Realm,* which sell between 300,000 and 800,000 copies each week. During the early 1990s some recently established men's magazines, *Loaded, GQ* and *Esquire,* became popular with circulations of 100,000 to 240,000. The leading opinion journals are *The Economist,* a slightly right-of-centre political and economic weekly, *the* *New Statesman and Society,* a left-of-centre political and social weekly, *the* *Spectator,* a right-of-centre political weekly, and *Private Eye,* a satirical fortnightly with a reputation for devastating attacks on leading personalities, and some libel suits against it in the law courts.

With almost 1,500 staff in 91 countries, no newspaper anywhere can compete with Britain's formidable news agency, Reuters. Across the world its name has become an assurance of objectivity, accuracy and reliability. Although run from London, Reuters deliberately avoids any image of being a British institution with English news values. As the day progresses, its world news file is edited from three different cities, switching time zones from Hong Kong to London to New York. Its reports are filed in French, German, Japanese, Arabic and Spanish, as well as English. Reuters also owns Reuters Television (RTV), the largest international television news agency in the world, providing news video to broadcasters in 89 countries.

**Radio and television**

In **1936** the government established the British Broadcasting Corporation (**BBC**) to provide a public service in radio. It also began broadcasting that year on the recently invented television. At first solely through its agency, television and radio changed the entertainment habits and the culture of the nation. In 1955, however, the establishment of independent and commercial television and radio removed the BBC's broadcasting monopoly. In spite of its much reduced evening audience, BBC radio still provides an important service. Its five radio stations (BBC Radio 1-5) provide: 1) non-stop pop music; 2) light entertainment; 3) minority interests, e.g. classical music, arts programmes and academic material (some for Open University courses); 4) news and comment and discussion programmes; 5) sport. The BBC additionally runs 38 local radio stations, providing material of local interest.

Commercial radio offers three nationwide services: Classic FM, which broadcasts mainly classical music; Virgin 1215, broadcasting popular music; and Talk Radio UK, a speech-based service. In addition there are 180 independent local radio stations which provide news, information, music and other entertainment, coverage of local events, sports commentary, chat shows and 'phone-in' programmes. The latter provide an important counselling service to isolated, aggrieved or perplexed people.

An important but separate part of the BBC's work is its 'external services'. The BBC World Service broadcasts by radio in English and 43 vernacular languages. The service is funded separately from the rest of the BBC, by the Foreign Office. Although the BBC has freedom in the content of what it broadcasts, the government decides in which foreign languages it should broadcast, and the amount of funding it should receive. As such, the service is a promotional part of British foreign policy. The BBC World Service reaches an audience of approximately 140 million listeners, who are predominantly young (aged between 25 and 35) and male. The strength of the BBC's external services has been the provision of relatively objective and impartial news and comment to listeners in countries where local censorship exists.

In **1991** the BBC also commenced a commercial operation called **Worldwide** **Television**, which provides 24-hour news coverage and entertainment to broadcast networks in 80 countries and reaches an estimated 45 million homes. BBC World has only one rival, the American network, CNN. Where CNN has three times as many camera crews, the BBC has almost twice as many correspondents.

Television is the single most popular form of entertainment in Britain. In the mid-1990s viewers spent on average over three and a half hours daily in front of the television set. Until 1997 they had four terrestrial channels to choose from: BBC1 and BBC2, ITV (Independent Television) and Channel 4. Channel 4, which was established in 1982, specialises in minority interest programmes, but has proved highly successful. A third commercial channel, Channel 5, began broadcasting in 1997 and terrestrial broadcasting is likely to expand further. In 1996 legislation provided for transition of all broadcasting and telecommunications services from analogue frequency to digital transmission, probably early in the twenty-first century. Satellite broadcasting has been available since 1989. The major provider of satellite programmes is BSkyB. Cable television was introduced in 1993 and currently has 1.3 million subscribers.

BBC television and radio derives its income from an annual licence fee for television, while ITV and Channel 4 are financed solely through advertising. The question of financing by licence fee was strongly challenged by the Conservative government which argued that the BBC had to demonstrate its ability to operate with commercial efficiency in order to continue to enjoy public funding. As a consequence the BBC underwent a radical restructuring in the mid-1990s, with six separate components: **BBC Broadcast**, which schedules and commissions services for audiences; **BBC Production**, which develops in-house radio and television production; **BBC News** which provides an integrated national and international news operation; **BBC Worldwide**, to be responsible for generating income in Britain and abroad, and for the World Service; **BBC Resources**, to provide support and expertise to programme-makers; and **BBC Corporate Services**, to provide strategic services to the BBC as a whole. The danger, however, is that the drive for managerial efficiency will undermine the high quality of individual programmes. Take, for example, the new news operation. All news is now centrally gathered rather than by particular programmes. Leading BBC journalists protested strongly that this would threaten the distinctive ethos of particular news and current affairs programmes with a growing, and possibly bland, homogeneity. A compromise was struck, but the danger remains. In the words of one retired World Service director:

*The tragedy is that a once great organisation - one of the finest creations of the liberal mind, one dedicated to an open and humane dialogue with its listeners and viewers, one that could carry out such dialogue because it conducted it internally first - has been subjected to such brutalising so-called 'managerialism'.*

**(**John Tusa, *The Independent***)**

The fear is that the BBC's wonderful variety will be replaced by a unified and homogenised service, in news, sport, and other areas. Since 1991 ITV has been governed through the Independent Television Commission, which is empowered to give regional franchises for a 10-year period to a number of different companies. There are 15 such companies, providing programmes many of which are sold or broadcast on other regional networks. When commercial television commenced in 1955 there had been fears that advertising would erode the high standards already set by the BBC. In fact ITV became fiercely competitive with the BBC in the production of high-quality programmes which, like the BBC's, were sold profitably to many foreign networks. Channel 4 provides an alternative service with more documentary, cultural and informative programmes. Channel 5 aspires to the same standards of quality as ITV, but has yet to achieve this. In Wales there is a special fourth channel, S4C (Sianel Pedwar Cymru) which provides a minimum of 32 hours of Welsh-medium broadcasting weekly. Since 1993 there has also been a Gaelic TV fund to assist the provision of Gaelic broadcasting on commercial television and radio.

The strength of British television lies in its high quality. '*Go anywhere in the* *world'* one leading political journalist has written, and British television is an object of envy and admiration. The foundation of Britain's excellence in the field of television is the tradition of public service broadcasting as upheld by the BBC. Many involved in television, including foreigners living in Britain, claim that British television is the best in the world. Its export record and high audience ratings certainly suggest it is among the best. The reason lies in the quality of its innovation and its willingness to experiment. For example, British television enthusiastically took *The Muppet Show,* when its creator, Jim Henson, had been rejected by the American networks. In the fields of documentary, comedy and satire, or drama, British television is a world leader.

In 1990 the government passed the Broadcasting Act, which promised to change the basis of television from 1992 onwards. This act was inspired by two factors: the Conservative government's free-market ideology and the reality that satellite television would make it possible for viewers to receive programmes transmitted from outside Britain, which would effectively destroy the regulatory controls previously applied by government. In order to prepare Britain's own commercial television for the 'white heat' of competing with satellite television for audiences, and thus for advertisers, the intention of the Act was to open British commercial television to genuine and open competition. In 1992, an Independent Television Commission (ITC) replaced the Independent Television Authority and auctioned television transmission licences. It had the authority to use its discretion in awarding franchises on the basis of high quality, not merely to the top financial bidders. It is a recognition that there cannot be a wholly free market in television. As a result of the auction two major networks, Thames Television and also the morning service, TV-AM, both lost their franchises. The ITC also planned for a fifth television channel. But the danger remains that a larger number of channels will not, as is argued, provide greater choice. The greater the number of transmitting channels, the smaller the audiences will be for each individual channel. The smaller the audience, the less will be the advertising revenue possible, and if less advertising revenue is expected the production budget will be proportionately smaller. This is bound to hit hard a wide range of programmes, particularly minority ones. It remains to be seen how this affects television in the long term. By the late 1990s it seemed that companies were generally less willing to invest heavily in the origination of expensive new programmes unless they were assured they would enjoy a franchise long enough to recoup their investment. Television is still unquestionably something Britain does really well. It remains to be seen whether the Broadcasting Act supports Britain's leading position, or weakens it.

Ever since the beginning of the 1980s there has been growing anxiety concerning pornographic and violent programmes. **The Broadcasting Act** provides for increased censorship. Any policeman of superintendent rank or above may demand access to any untransmitted material under the obscenity or public order laws. In addition, the Broadcasting Standards Council, created in 1989, is empowered to veto transmission of any programme it considers indecent. It is also empowered to censor imported material, although this is made meaningless by the high number of joint ventures in which British television is now engaged. Many parents have expressed considerable concern at the amount of sex and violence portrayed on television, particularly before 9 p.m., the time when younger children are expected to have gone to bed. On the other hand many journalists were suspicious of the Conservative government's intentions and, in the words of one of them, *'found it hard to separate zeal for market-led reform from a desire to destabilise a system capable of delivering tough and challenging programmes.'* They are likely to watch Labour policy towards the media very closely.

**Government and the media**

Writing in 1741, the philosopher David Hume praised press freedom in Britain with the words: *'Nothing is more apt to surprise a foreigner, than the extreme liberty which we enjoy in this country, of communicating whatever we please to the public, and of openly censuring every measure entered into by the King or his ministers.*' Is such a boast still justified? The relationship between government and the media is bound to be an uneasy one in any democracy. Governments are concerned with maintaining their own authority. The media must watch the exercise of that authority, and criticise when they feel it is wrongly used.

For over 50 years the government has had an arrangement for the protection of national security in the media. Its Defence, Press and Broadcasting Committee has agreed that in some circumstances the publication of certain information might endanger national security. In such cases a **'D (Defence) Notice'** is issued. A 'D Notice' does not quite have the force of law, but no newspaper editor would ignore a 'D Notice' without incurring major penalties. Over the past 25 years there has been increasing criticism of the apparent abuse of the 'D Notice' system in order to conceal not matters of national security but potentially embarrassing facts.

During the 1980s the government frequently tried to prevent discussion of sensitive issues. In 1989 the new Official Secrets Act greatly strengthened the government's ability to prevent disclosure of sensitive information. Any revelation of material obtained in any unauthorised way from a government source would make a journalist liable to prosecution. Not surprisingly, this provoked strong criticism from journalists. As the Deputy Director General of the BBC wrote in 1989:

*Only a threat to vital interests should prevent disclosure by journalists. Those interests include the safety of the realm: they do not include the sensitivities of foreign leaders or the avoidance of embarrassment to the United Kingdom government. A journalist who discovers - say from a confidential Foreign Office document - that a foreign government is using torture faces a dilemma. He or she will wish to publish. The journalist is aware that the regime concerned may respond by refusing contracts to British firms. The story would 'jeopardise' UK interests abroad; and the journalist would face criminal sanction. But at a trial he or she would not be able to argue that the benefit that may result from the revelation of torture outweighs the loss of business.*

(John Birt, *The Independent)*

Nowhere is the issue of journalistic freedom more sensitive than in the case of the BBC, for it occupies a curious position. It is generally regarded as admirably independent of government. But is this really true? It is controlled by a board of 12 governors appointed by the government. They are answerable to the government for all aspects of BBC broadcasting, and in the end the Home Secretary has the authority to replace them. In 1986 the governors came under intense pressure from the government on account of certain programmes which angered the government. One senior Cabinet minister publicly referred to the BBC as the *'Bashing Britain Corporation'.* The BBC's Director General was sacked on account of two programmes that angered the government, an act which suggested that the BBC had less independence than many thought.

Nevertheless, the BBC is freer today than in the 1950s when its sense of national loyalty was defined in terms of loyalty to the state rather than the people. There has been a subtle change in vocabulary. Forty years ago, people would have asked of a controversial programme, *'Was it in the national interest?'* Today, people are more likely to ask whether it is *'in the public interest'*.

There was another way in which the government exercised a hold on the media in order to reduce its true independence. This was through the 'Lobby', a system whereby government ministers and MPs made disclosures to certain accredited journalists on the understanding that it was 'off the record'. The Lobby system began in 1884. The advantage to journalists was that they learnt many things officially not admitted. The advantage to politicians was that they could make things public in an anonymous or deniable way. Officially such meetings between journalists and politicians 'never took place'. Typical newspaper reports begin, *'Senior government sources are saying ...*' or, *'Sources close to the Prime Minister* ... Politicians used this method for various purposes, often to attack a colleague in a way they could not possibly do publicly. Prime Ministers, for example, used this technique to undermine a minister's public standing before sacking him or her. Or it was a way of manipulating information to mislead, possibly to attract attention to one issue in order to avoid press attention on something else.

Journalists found it useful, but as a result of the increased use of the Lobby system in the 1980s for the disclosure of sensitive or damaging material, two newspapers, *The Guardian* and *The Independent* refused to accept anything from government ministers which they were not prepared to state 'on the record', and withdrew from the Lobby. After it came to power, Labour announced the appointment of an official spokesperson, and the end of the Lobby system.

**Privacy and self-regulation of the press**

It might seem that in the face of government secrecy, journalists must be allowed the fullest investigative powers. But how free should the press be? During the 1980s there was growing popular disgust at the way in which some newspapers, most notably *the* *Sun,* attempted to investigate the private lives of well-known people. Many had their careers ruined or damaged when their sexual activities were made public. The prime targets have been, of course, members of the Royal Family who found it increasingly difficult to escape from the voyeurism of the popular press. The dramatic death of Princess Diana while being chased by paparazzi is unlikely to bring press intrusion to an end. Admittedly Diana was a unique phenomenon. As she said of herself, *'You see yourself as a good product that sits on a shelf and sells well, and people make a lot of money out of you*.' Only a few days before their death, the blurred pictures of Diana supposedly embracing her friend Dodi al Fayed, sold an extra 1 75,000 copies of *the Sun*. Little wonder the editor of *the* *Sun* said at the time: *'There is an absolute fascination with her that never wanes from our readers' point of view.'* It was not only newspapers. Magazines with a picture of Diana on the front could see their circulation leap by as much as 30 or 40 per cent. Diana may have been unique, but other public figures will also fascinate the public. In the end the voyeuristic appetite of the public is an inevitable component in the struggle between the tabloids for a greater share of the market. The tabloids will do whatever is necessary to maintain or increase their share of the market. Diana was a highly public figure who often courted the press. Many people, however, feel that the press has no right to publicise personal matters when they have no relevance to any public issue, and that the victims of inaccurate reporting are entitled to a right of reply. As a result of public anger at the end of the 1980s, most newspapers appointed an ombudsman to deal with individual complaints. As one correspondent noted, however, *'Most of the ombudsmen are from inside the papers that have appointed them. Not all are experienced in journalism. Almost the only thing they have in common is that they are (all) men'.*

Beyond each newspaper is a final court of appeal for outraged members of the public. This is the Press Complaints Commission established at the beginning of 1991. The Commission replaced a previous body, the Press Council, which progressively lost its authority since its own establishment in 1953. If the new Commission cannot convince the public that press self-regulation can be made to work, the government may bring in legislation to control the worst excesses of the press.

***WEBSITES OF THE BITISH TV CHANNELS AND NEWSPAPERS***

**www.bbc.co.uk (use search facility)**

**www.research.expressnewspapers.co.uk**

**www.telegraph.co.uk**

**www.economist.com**

**www.ft.com**

**www.guardian.co.uk**

**www.independent.co.uk**

**www.observer.co.uk**

**www.the-times.co.uk**

**www.online.reuters.com**

**www.pad.press.net**

**Progress Test Questions and Assignments**

**Exercise 1.** *Answer the questions:*

1. How has newspaper business changed in recent years?
2. What types of newspapers do you know?
3. Which national newspapers sell the most copies?
4. How do newspapers affect the way people think?
5. What are the main differences between BBC Radios 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5?
6. Why is the BBC External Service important?
7. What sort of programmes are the most common in Great Britain?

**Exercise 2.** *What are the following and which part of the media are they connected with:*

Colour magazines, advertisements, tabloids, soap operas, documentaries, bingo games, independent production companies.

**Exercise 3.***Discussion:*

British TV has been described as "*the least worst TV in the world".* What do you think this description is trying to say?

**Exercise 4.** *Writing:*

Write a paragraph giving your opinion on the advantages and disadvantages of television in modern society.

**Exercise 5.** *Writing:*

Write an essay on the topic “The British Media”.

**XI. National Icons**

England has a vast number of cultural icons and the British Government De­partment of Culture has a website of icons for each nation of the UK accessed at **cultureonline.gov.uk/projects/icons.asp**. When BBC news recently carried out a survey to gather nominations for sub­jects for the site, the winner with the most nominations was a cup of tea.

While many symbols like **cricket, the red London double-decker bus, the Spit­fire plane, James Bond, the black taxi cab, fish-and-chips and British beer** made pre­dictably strong showings, coming a close second to **tea** was, perhaps surprisingly, **the Rolling Stones**, led by Sir Mick Jagger.

**A cup of tea** represents Englishness and the his­tory of the industrial revolution, with mass produc­tion of china (including tea cups) a significant fea­ture of Britain's exploding manufacturing output. Simultaneously, people across society were suddenly drinking a safe drink, made with boiling water so that germs were killed and with the antiseptic proper­ties of several components of tea. Coffee was always much more expensive and workers could suddenly afford tea relatively easily, giving volume to the sup­ply and sale of tea. Tea came to England from India and China, al­though black Indian tea was always more popular, drunk with milk as in many regions of India.

It is totally unclear as to whether the British drink more tea or coffee. Research gave many contradictory results, which gives the overall impression that the two are probably neck-and-neck. What is certain is that the English drink a very high percentage of "instant" processed coffee, while most of the rest of the world pre­dominantly drinks natural coffee.

**Beefeaters, National Costume and London Gin**

**Gin** is English in the way that whisky is Scot­tish, cognac is French and Horilka is Ukrainian. One of the most successful brands is "**Beef­eater**" that uses the traditional symbol of a cer­emonial guard at the Tower of London, dressed in a costume that dates back to Tudor times. There is no national costume of England, so for many years, when entrants for the Miss World contests had to wear national costume for the initial pageant, Miss England wore a modi­fied Beefeater costume.

The reality of gin was rather more unpleasant, however and in the 18th century, what started out as being a medicine became a very serious social problem. Gin had become the poor person's drink as it was cheap, and some workers were given gin as part of their wages. Duty paid on gin was 2 pence a gallon, as opposed to 57 pence a gallon on strong beer.

With 45 million litres drunk per an­num in London, from 7000 'gin palaces' in 1730, the Government was forced to act, especially as much of the gin was drunk by women, consequently the chil­dren were neglected, daughters were sold into prostitution, and wet nurses gave gin to babies to quieten them. Leg­islation and social reform gradually re­duced the problem, but gin is still known in England as "**Mother's Ruin**".

**Thatched Cottages**

Perhaps since tradition is such a deep-rooted part of the English character, perhaps because privacy in quiet sur­roundings is so important to the English or perhaps because they're beautiful, thatched cot­tages are the most prized (and expensive) housing for many. One surprise greeting tour­ists to England is how many thousands of cottages like this there are around the country.

**Toby Jugs**

The name "Toby" seems to have been long associated with conviviality, hos­pitality and socialising. Perhaps the most famous was **Sir Toby Belch** in Shake­speare's Twelfth Night who was fat, boisterous, given to hard drinking and spend­ing all night with his friends. Toby Shandy in Laurence Sterne's Tristam Shandy, published in 1760 seemed to reinforce this image; and in 1761 appeared an English print with verses describing "Old Toby Philpot, as a thirsty soul.

In the 18th century, jugs for beer depicting Sir Toby Philpot began to be made by several companies in the "Staffordshire Potteries", a region of the West Midlands with suitable clay that became a centre for pottery during the Industrial Revolution. They proved popular and production by hundreds of potteries reached a peak during Victorian times and the early 20th century.

Today it is difficult to find antique toby jugs in Britain as they are highly collect­able and bought by people all over the world as symbols of England by, especially anglophiles in the USA and Japan.

**Vehicles**

One of the enduring and best known symbols of London is the classic *red double-decker bus,* known correctly as **the Routemaster***.* It was developed between 1947 and 1956 to replace the trolleybuses, which had themselves re­placed the trams. It was first introduced in 1956 and designed and built specifi­cally for London.

Although the last new Routemaster took to the roads in 1968, they are a major tourist attraction and through refurbishment there were still 500 in service in Lon­don in 2005.

In the United Kingdom, a hackney carriage is a taxicab licensed by the Public Carriage Office in the London Metropolitan Area or by the local authority in other parts of the country. They were originally Hansom cabs, horse-drawn carriages that operated as vehicles for hire. Today a *hackney carriage* is a taxicab that is al­lowed to travel the streets looking for passengers to pick up, as opposed to private hire vehicles sometimes called minicabs, which may only pick up passengers who have previously booked or who visit the taxi operator's office. Since 1928, these taxis have been built by Carbodies in Coven­try and are renowned for durabil­ity and reliability. A common sou­venir of London for both adults and children is a set of models of a Routemaster and *a black cab* in a presentation box.

Carbodies changed its name to London Taxis International during the '90s and now exports to the USA, Japan and many other countries, where a *"London Cab"* may give novelty and competitive advantage to a local taxi company. In London, Hackney Carriage drivers have to pass a test called *The Knowledge* to demonstrate they have an intimate knowledge of London streets and buildings, before they can have a licence.

**King Arthur**

King Arthur is an important figure in the mythology of Great Britain. He is the central character in Arthurian legends al­though there is disagreement about whether Arthur ever actually existed and in the earli­est mentions and Welsh texts he is never giv­en the title "king". Early texts refer to him as "dux bellorum" (war leader) and High Medi­eval Welsh texts often call him "amerauder" (emperor). However, a recent translation of newly discovered documents may have re­ferred to him as a king.

One school of thought believes Arthur to have lived some time in the late 5th century to early 6th century, to have been of Romano-British origin, and to have fought against the Saxons. His power base was probably in either Wales, Cornwall or the west of what would become England, but controversy over the centre of his power and the extent and kind of power he wielded continues.

Arthur first appears in Welsh literature. In the *"Gododdin",* (around 594) the poet *Aneirin* mentions Arthur, while possibly of an earlier date are the poems "The Chair of the Sovereign" which refers to "Arthur the Blessed", and the poem "Journey to Deganwy" which contains the passage "as at the battle of Badon with Arthur, chief giver of feasts, with his tall blades red from the battle which all men remember".

Another early reference to Arthur is in the "Historia Britonum", attributed to the Welsh monk Nennius, who is said to have written this compilation of early Welsh history around the year AD 830. In this work Arthur is referred to as a "lead­er of battles" rather than as a king. Two separate sources within this compilation list twelve battles that he fought, culminating in the battle of Mount *Badon,* where he is said to have single-handedly killed 960 men. According to the "Annales Cambriae", Arthur was killed at the Battle of *Camlann* in 537. Early Welsh Literature mention Arthur and locate his court in *Celliwig,* which is located in Cornwall. Later theories place Camelot at *Tintagel* Castle in Cornwall.

In 1133, Geoffrey of Monmouth produced a manuscript called the "Historia Regurn Britanniae". This work was the mediaeval equivalent of a best seller and helped draw the attention of other writers who then expanded on the tales of Arthur.

In the versions of the legends, which gained popularity beginning in the 12th century, Arthur gathered the Knights of the Round Table *(Lancelot, Gawain, Gala­had,* and others). At his court, most often held at *Camelot* in the later prose romanc­es, could sometimes be found the wizard *Merlin.* Arthur's knights engaged in fabu­lous quests, famously including one for the *Holy Grail.* In the late prose romances the love affair between Arthur's champion, Lancelot, and the Queen, *Guinevere,* becomes the central reason for the fall of the Arthurian world.

In 1191, the monks of Glaston-bury Abbey announced that they had found the burial site of Arthur and Guinevere. Their grave was shown to many people, and the reputed remains were moved to a new tomb in 1278. The tomb was destroyed during the Reformation, and the bones lost.

**Robin Hood**

Robin Hood is the archetypal English folk hero, an outlaw who, in 20th century versions of the legend, stole from the rich to give to the poor.

Court records from the year 1225 in York state that a fine of almost a whole year's typical income of a country laborour was levied on a Robert Hood, an out­law or fugitive from justice. The following year there is a reference to Hobbehood ("that devil Hood') as a robber. Over the next few decades, many outlaws brought to justice insisted that their name was also 'Robin Hood' indicating that the name was associated with a popular outlaw. During his lifetime, songs and ballads about him appeared, which is unusual as most such ballads appeared after the death of a character. His first appearance in a manuscript (i.e. written) is in "Piers Plowman" of 1377 by William Langland in which Sloth, the lazy priest boasts "I ken ('know') 'rimes of Robin Hood."

Printed versions of Robin Hood ballads appear in the early 16th century – shortly after the advent of printing in England. In these bal­lads, Robin Hood is a yeoman, an independent tradesman or farmer. It is only in the late 16th century that he becomes a nobleman, Robert of Locksley or other such nobleman. The late 16th century is also the period when the Robin Hood story is moved back in time to the 1190s, when King Richard was away at the crusades.

The idea of Robin Hood as a high-minded Saxon fighting Norman Lords origi­nates in the 19th century, most notably in the part Robin Hood plays in **Sir Walter Scott's "Ivanhoe"** (1819). The folkloric Robin Hood was deprived of his lands by the villainous Sheriff of Nottingham and became an outlaw. The Sheriff does in­deed appear in the early ballads (Robin kills and beheads him), but there is nothing as specific as this allegation. Robin's other enemies include the rich abbots of the Catholic Church and a bounty hunter named Guy of Gisbourne. Robin kills and beheads him as well. The early ballads contain nothing about giving to the poor, although Robin does make a large loan to an unfortunate knight.

In the ballads, the original **"Merry Men"** (though not called that) included: Friar Tuck, Will Scarlet (or Scathlock), Much the Miller's Son, and Little John – who was called "little" because he wasn't.

Songs, plays, games, and, later, novels, musicals, films, and TV series have de­veloped Robin Hood and friends according to the needs of their times, and the mythos has been subject to extensive ideological manipulation.

Maid Marian, for instance, something of a warrior maiden in early Victorian novels was reduced in demeanour to being a passive girlfriend during the period of the women's suffrage movement. As the media power of the modern feminist movement gathered momentum, Marian reacquired an altogether more active role, until in recent years she has become the leader of the outlaws in the British children's TV show "Maid Marian and her Merry Men" (1989 - 1994), and the US "Princess of Thieves" in 2001.

Robin Hood himself has been transform­ed from a bandit with an occasional element of generosity mixed with barbaric cruelty in the original tales, to the contemporary readi­ng, where he is depicted more as a medieval Che Guevara leading a small rebel force fig­hting a guerrilla war against Prince John and the Sheriff on behalf of the oppressed and King Richard I in Walt Disney and Hollyw­ood films. The Hollywood image of Robin Hood has often been far from historical reality, and pla­yed as a hero by Errol Flynn, Kevin Costner and others.

**National Personalities**

In November 2002, the British public voted Sir **Winston Churchill** the Greatest Briton of all time following a nationwide poll organised by the BBC that attracted over a million votes. The top ten, oddly all English, was selected from a list of 100 voted for by BBC TV, internet and radio users and the order, with number of votes, was:

**Winston Churchill** 456,498 votes – 28.1 %

**Isambard Kingdom Brunei** 398,526 votes – 24.6 %

**Diana, Princess** **of Wales** 225,584 votes – 13.9 %

**Charles Darwin** 112,496 votes – 6.9 %

**William Shakespeare** 109,919 votes – 6.8 %

**Isaac Newton** 84,628 votes – 5.2 %

**Queen Elizabeth I** 71,928 votes 4.4 %

**John Lennon** 68,445 votes 4.2 %

**Horatio Nelson** 49,171 votes 3%

**Oliver Cromwell** 45,053 votes 2.8 %

Although Sir Mick Jagger was only just in the top 50, he and the Rolling Stones were voted the second most important icon of England in a later survey by the BBC.

**Winston Churchill**

Churchill, Sir Winston (1874-1965), was one of the greatest statesmen in world history. Churchill reached the height of his fame as the heroic prime minister of Great Britain during World War II (1939-1945). He offered his people only "blood, toil, tears, and sweat" as they struggled to keep their freedom. Churchill was also a noted author, painter, and soldier. Churchill not only made history, he also wrote it. As a historian, war reporter, and biographer, he showed an excellent command of the English language. In 1953, he won the Nobel Prize for literature. Yet as a schoolboy, he had been the worst stu­dent in his class. Churchill spoke as he wrote-clearly, vividly, and majestically – but he had stuttered as a boy.

Churchill joined the armed forces in 1895 as an army lieutenant under Queen Victoria. He ended his career in 1964 as an MP, a member of the House of Commons under Queen Elizabeth II, the great-great-granddaughter of Queen Victoria.

Winston Leonard Spencer Church­ill was born in 1874, in *Blenheim Palace* in Oxfordshire. He was the elder of the two sons of Lord Randolph Churchill and an American, Lady Churchill. Blenheim Palace today is a popu­lar tourist attraction. In 1893, aged 18, Winston entered the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, fail­ing the entrance examinations twice before passing them. But he soon led his class in tactics and fortifications, the most important subjects. In 1895, Churchill was ap­pointed a second lieutenant in the 4th Hussars, a cavalry regiment. In 1900, Churchill returned to England as a *Boer War* hero and Oldham's voters elected him to Parlia­ment. He soon began to criticize many Conservative policies openly and sharply. In 1904, Churchill broke with his party completely. He dramatically crossed the floor of Commons, amid the howls of Conserva­tives and the cheers of Liberals, to sit with the Liber­als. In the next election, in 1906, Churchill ran as a Liberal and won.

Three days before the 1922 election campaign began, Churchill had to have his appendix removed. He was able to campaign only briefly, and lost the election. He said he found himself "without office, without a seat, without a party, and without an appendix."

In 1924, Churchill was returned to Parliament as the MP for Epping after he rejoined the Conservative Party. He did not hold a Cabinet position again until 1939 but he kept his seat in Parliament throughout this period. He became Prime Minis­ter in 1940. In April 1953, Churchill was knighted by Queen Elizabeth. Churchill had been offered this honour in 1945 but had refused it because of his party's defeat in the election. He had also refused an earldom and a dukedom. As an earl or a duke, he could not have served in the Commons. Late in 1953, Sir Winston won the Nobel Prize for literature. He was honoured for "... his mastery of historical and biograph­ical presentation and for his brilliant oratory...."

In April 1955, Churchill retired. He suffered a stroke on Jan. 15, 1965. He died nine days later, at the age of 90. He was buried in St. Martin's Churchyard at Bladon, Oxfordshire, near his birthplace, Blenheim Palace.

**The Beatles and the Stones**

Almost as much an icon of England as a cup of tea, "The Rolling Stones", led by Sir Mick Jagger, have become more of an icon than "The Beatles", overtaking them in 2004.

Formed in 1961, "The Rolling Stones" are due to release their latest album in 2005 but their live performances have been suspended since appearing in Toronto in 2003, while the drummer Charlie Watts has been successfully treated for throat cancer.

"The Beatles" were the most influential popular music group of the rock era and one of the "Liverpool Scene". They affected the post-war baby boom generation of Britain, the United States and many other countries during the 1960s. Cer­tainly they are the most popular group in rock history, with global sales exceeding 1.1 billion records.

Most people around the world of all ages can name at least a few of their songs, mostly written by Lennon and McCartney. McCartney's "Yesterday" is the most covered song in history, appearing in the Guinness Book of Records with over three thousand recorded versions. It is also the most played song in the history of inter­national radio. They disbanded in 1970. John Lennon was murdered in 1980, Sir Paul McCart­ney was knighted in 1997 and George Harrison died in 2001.

**Diana, Princess of Wales**

In the survey of the greatest Britons, Diana, Princess of Wales, came third, ahead of all the English Royal fam­ily throughout history. From the time of her marriage to the Prince of Wales in 1981 until her death in a car ac­cident in Paris in 1997, she was one of the world's most high-profile, most photographed, and most iconic celeb­rities. She was the mother of the second and third in line to the British throne, HRH Prince William of Wales and HRH Prince Henry ("Harry") of Wales.

Diana was born in 1961, the youngest daughter of Edward Spencer, Viscount Althorp, and his wife Frances. Known at birth as The Honourable Diana Spencer, she was a descendant of King Charles I. Her wedding to Prince Charles took place at St Paul's Cathedral in London on July 29,1981 before 3,500 invited guests (including Camilla Parker-Bowles) and an estimated 750 million television viewers around the world. The Lady Diana was the first Englishwoman to marry an heir to the throne since 1659. In the later 1980s her marriage to the Prince of Wales fell apart, an event at first suppressed and then sensationalised by the world media. During the mid-to-late 1980s, she was headlined in many newspapers when caught having love affairs with a number of celebrities, including the England Rugby team captain. To balance this, the Princess of Wales became publicised for her support of charity projects, and is credited with considerable influence for her campaigns against the use of landmines and helping the victims of AIDS. Although the Prince and Princess of Wales separated on December 1992, their divorce was not finalised until August 1996. The following year, she was killed with her current lover in a car crash, trying to escape at extremely high speed from the *paparazzi* following her.

**Part II. Plan of Seminars**

**Module I.**

**Seminar I. Geographical Position of the British Isles**

1. Territory and structure of the British Isles.
2. Surrounding seas and coastline.
3. Physical structure and relief.
4. Rivers and lakes.
5. Climate and weather.
6. Flora and fauna.
7. Mineral resources.

**Literature Recommended:**

1. Baranovskyi L.S., Kozikis D.D. Panorama of Great Britain. – Minsk: Vysheishaya Shkola Publishers, 1990. – 343 p.
2. David McDowall. Britain in Close-up. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 208p.
3. David McDowall. Britain Explored. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 200 p.
4. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. – 224 p.
5. Peter W. Scott. The Real Mineral Resources of the United Kingdom. – Camborne: Camborne School of Mines, 2004. – 187p.
6. Гапонів А.Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство / Алекс Гапонів, Марина Олександрівна Возна. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2005. – 463 c.

**Seminar II.** **Historical Outline of Great Britain The Celts. The Roman Conquest of Britain.**

1. The Earliest Men.
2. The Celts.
3. Celtic Mythology.
4. The Celtic language today.
5. The Roman Empire.
6. The Roman Conquest of Britain.

**Literature Recommended:**

1. Baranovskyi L.S., Kozikis D.D. Panorama of Great Britain. – Minsk: Vysheishaya Shkola Publishers, 1990. – 343 p.
2. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. – 224 p.
3. Zaitseva S.D. Early Britain. Second edition. – Moscow: Prosveshcheniye, 1981. – 264 p.
4. Гапонів А.Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство / Алекс Гапонів, Марина Олександрівна Возна. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2005. – 463 c.

**Seminar III.** **Historical Outline of Great Britain. Britain in the Early Middle Ages.**

1. The Anglo-Saxon conquest of Britain.
2. The Anglo-Saxons and how they lived.
3. The growth of the big landed estates and the introduction of serfdom.
4. Unification of the Anglo-Saxon Kingdoms.
5. Danish Raids on England.
6. Strengthening of the Kingdom in the reign of Alfred the Great (871-899).
7. The kingdom of England in the 10th-11th centuries.

**Literature Recommended:**

1. Baranovskyi L.S., Kozikis D.D. Panorama of Great Britain. – Minsk: Vysheishaya Shkola Publishers, 1990. – 343 p.
2. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. – 224 p.
3. Zaitseva S.D. Early Britain. Second edition. – Moscow: Prosveshcheniye, 1981. – 264 p.
4. Гапонів А.Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство / Алекс Гапонів, Марина Олександрівна Возна. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2005. – 463 c.

**Seminar IV.** **Historical Outline of Great Britain.**

**The Norman Conquest.**

1. The Normans. The Norman Invasion.
2. The battle of Hastings.
3. Subjugation of the country.
4. The strengthening of the royal power. The king's supporters.
5. The life of the Norman conquerors in England.
6. Effects of the Conquest on the language.

**Literature Recommended:**

1. Baranovskyi L.S., Kozikis D.D. Panorama of Great Britain. – Minsk: Vysheishaya Shkola Publishers, 1990. – 343 p.
2. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. – 224 p.
3. Zaitseva S.D. Early Britain. Second edition. – Moscow: Prosveshcheniye, 1981. – 264 p.
4. Гапонів А.Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство / Алекс Гапонів, Марина Олександрівна Возна. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2005. – 463 c.

**Seminar V. England in the Middle Ages. England in the 19th-20th centuries**

1. England in the 14th-16th centuries.
2. England in the 17th-20th centuries.
3. World War I, World War II, a post war period.
4. Great Britain in the second part of the 20th century.

**Literature Recommended:**

1. Baranovskyi L.S., Kozikis D.D. Panorama of Great Britain. – Minsk: Vysheishaya Shkola Publishers, 1990. – 343 p.
2. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. – 224 p.
3. Гапонів А.Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство / Алекс Гапонів, Марина Олександрівна Возна. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2005. – 463 c.
4. [www.themiddleages.net/](http://www.themiddleages.net/)
5. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Middle> Ages

**Module II.**

**Seminar VI. The State System of the United Kingdom.**

1. Great Britain – a constitutional monarchy. The Constitution.
2. The sovereign. Functions of the sovereign.
3. The royal family.
4. Westminster – the seat of Parliament. Houses of Parliament.
5. Whitehall – the seat of Government Functions of the Prime Minister.
6. Legislative Proceedings.
7. The electoral system.

**Literature Recommended:**

1. Baranovskyi L.S., Kozikis D.D. Panorama of Great Britain. – Minsk: Vysheishaya Shkola Publishers, 1990. – 343 p.
2. David McDowall. Britain in Close-up. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 2008p.
3. David McDowall. Britain Explored. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 200 p.
4. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. – 224 p.
5. Гапонів А.Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство / Алекс Гапонів, Марина Олександрівна Возна. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2005. – 463 c.

**Seminar VII. Politics.**

1. The electoral system.
2. The political system.
3. The Conservative Party.
4. The Labour Party.

**Literature Recommended:**

* 1. Baranovskyi L.S., Kozikis D.D. Panorama of Great Britain. – Minsk: Vysheishaya Shkola Publishers, 1990. – 343 p.
  2. David McDowall. Britain in Close-up. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 208p.
  3. David McDowall. Britain Explored. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 200 p.
  4. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. – 224 p.

1. Гапонів А.Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство / Алекс Гапонів, Марина Олександрівна Возна. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2005. – 463 c.

**Seminar VIII. The Legal System in Great Britain.**

1. Forces of law and order.
2. The police.
3. Crime and punishment. Types of punishment.
4. People in law cases.

**Literature Recommended:**

1. David McDowall. Britain in Close-up. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 208p.
2. David McDowall. Britain Explored. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 200 p.
3. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. – 224 p.
4. Гапонів А.Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство / Алекс Гапонів, Марина Олександрівна Возна. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2005. – 463 c.
5. Коцюба З.Г. Британська та американська системи правосуддя. – Львів: ВАТ Львівська книжкова фабрика "Атлас", 2004. – 323 с.

**Module III.**

**Seminar IX. Population.**

1. Ethnical formation of the population of Great Britain.
2. Ethnic minorities.
3. Main languages spoken in Great Britain.
4. Natural growth of the population. Density of the population.
5. Family life. Ways of life.
6. Young and elderly people.
7. Social structure of the British society. Employment.

**Literature Recommended:**

1. David McDowall. Britain in Close-up. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 208 p.
2. David McDowall. Britain Explored. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 200 p.
3. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. – 224 p.

**Seminar X. The Principal Economic Regions and Towns of Great Britain**

1. Southern England.
2. The Central Industrial Region.
3. Northern England.
4. Scotland.
5. Wales.
6. Northern Ireland.
7. Business and Economy. Patterns of Change.
8. The City of London. The Bank of England.

**Literature Recommended:**

1. David McDowall. Britain in Close-up. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 208 p.
2. David McDowall. Britain Explored. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 200 p.
3. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. – 224 p.
4. Гапонів А.Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство / Алекс Гапонів, Марина Олександрівна Возна. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2005. – 463 c.

**Seminar XI. Education**

1. The School System.
2. Education after Sixteen.
3. Higher Education. Types of Universities.
4. The media: the press, radio and television.

**Literature Recommended:**

1. David McDowall. Britain in Close-up. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 208 p.
2. David McDowall. Britain Explored. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 200 p.
3. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. – 224 p.
4. Look at Britain / [уклад.: О.І.Близнюк, Н.М.Жилко]. – К.: Т-во Знання, КОО, 2001. – 158 с.
5. Oxford Guide to British and American Culture. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005. – 533 p.
6. Timanovskaya N. Spotlight on English-Speaking Countries. – Тула: Автограф, 2000. – 383 с.

**Module Test I**

**I. Choose the right answer.**

1. The Severn flows from the Cambrian Mountains in Wales into the …

a) North Sea; c) English Channel;

b) Bristol Channel; d) Atlantic Ocean.

2. The coastline of Great Britain is greatly indented, especially in the …

a) east and north-east; c) south and south-west;

b) west and north-west; d) south and south-east.

3. The Hebrides are situated off the … coast of Great Britain.

a) north-eastern; c) south-eastern;

b) north-western; d) south-western.

4. Anglesey is situated in the …

a) Bristol Channel; c) Irish Sea;

b) English Channel; d) North Sea.

5. Ben Nevis is located in …

a) England; c) Wales;

b)Scotland; d) Ireland

6.Match the events in the first column to the dates in the second column*:*

Battle of Hastings 600 BC

The Brythonic Celts invaded Britain 700 BC

The Gaelic Celts invaded Britain 1066

The Jutes landed in Kent 664 AD

The adoption of Christianity 886 AD

The Wedmore Treaty 1534

The Act of Supremacy 1832

The Reform Act 450 AD

7. The first British Parliament was summoned in

1. 1215; c) 1340;
2. 1265; d) 1400.

8. The Romans arrived in GB for the first time in:

a) 55 BC; b) 54 BC; c) 60 BC;

9. The Black Death spread in England in:

1. 1245; b)1348; c)1354; d) 1456

10. The Wedmore Treaty was signed in:

a) 726; b) 736; c) 886; d) 856

**II. Define the meaning of the following words: *a hide, a reeve, the Witan.***

**III. Identify the events in English history related to the following names:**

the Roman Emperor Claudius, William of Normandy, Simon de Montfort, King Arthur, King Alfred, Oliver Cromwell, King Henry VIII.

**IV. Write an essay**: “The Norman Conquest and its effect on the language”.

**Module Test II**

**I. Choose the right answer.**

1. In the house of Lords there are:

* + 1. 20; b) 24; c) 32; d) 26 Lords Spiritual.

2. The House of Commons is an assembly elected by universal adult suffrage and consists of …

1. 650 MPs; c) 780 MPs;
2. 340 MPs; d) 500 MPs.

3. The first British Parliament was summoned in:

1. 1215; c) 1340;
2. 1265; d) 1400.

4. In the UK the minimum voting age is …

1. 20; b) 18 c) 19; d) 21.

5. The Labour Party is … wing party:

a) left; b) right.

6. M.Thatcher became known as the:

1. Iron Woman; c) Iron Prime Minister;
2. Iron Lady; d) Iron Leader of the Conservative Party.

7. The House of Commons is elected for:

a) 4 years; b) 6 years; c) 5 years; d) 3 years

8. The Labour Party was formed in

a) 1912; b) 1900; c) 1897; d) 1920.

9.The Conservative Party is the only major … wing party in Britain.

a) left; b) right.

10. The Chief Officer of the House of Lords is called …

a) Lord Chancellor; b) Lord Privy Seal; c) the Speaker.

**II. Identify the events in English history related to the following names:** Simon deMontfort**,** M. Thatcher, T. Blair, G. Brown.

**IIІ. Enumerate types of courts in the UK and specify their functions.**

**IV. Write an essay**: “British Parliament”.

**Module Test III**

**I. Choose the right answer.**

1. The population of London is … people.

1. 2,2 million; c) 10,2 million;
2. 7,1 million; d) 8,1 million.

2. Compulsory education in Britain begins at the age of

a) 8; b) 7; c) 5; d) 6.

3. The most densely populated part is:

1. Scotland; c) England;
2. Wales; d) Northern Ireland.

4. The population of Britain is at present about … million people.

a) 49; b) 60; c) 69; d) 39.

5. The first Ukrainian community appeared in Great Britain in

a) 1900; b) 1920; c) 1893; d) 1899.

6. Nearly half of the entire minority ethnic population lives in …

1. Liverpool; c) Glasgow;
2. London; d) Belfast.

7. One of the oldest industries in Great Britain is …

1. electronics; c) engineering;
2. chemical; d) coal-mining.

8. The saying ‘To carry coal to Newcastle’ means that the city is:

a) poor in coal deposits; b) rich in coal deposits;

1. needs badly coal from other regions for its industries.

9. The Black Country is situated in

a) the Midlands; b) the District; c)Kent; d) Wales.

10. The oldest center of textile industry is

a) Birmingham; b) Manchester; c) London; d) Liverpool.

**II. Enumerate types of schools in Great Britain.**

**III. Write an essay**: “The Principal Economic Regions and Towns of Great Britain”.

**IV**. **Write an essay**: “The System of Higher Education in Great Britain”.

**Sources of Information**

1. Baranovsky L.S., Kozikis D.D. Panorama of Great Britain. – Minsk: Vysheishaya Shkola Publishers, 1990. – 343 p.
2. David McDowall. Britain in Close-up. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 208 p.
3. David McDowall. Britain Explored. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 2006. – 200 p.
4. Oxford Guide to British and American Culture. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005. – 533 p.
5. James o’Driscoll. Britain. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. –

224 p.

1. Look at Britain / [уклад.: О.І.Близнюк, Н.М.Жилко]. – К.: Т-во Знання, КОО, 2001. – 158 с.
2. Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture/Ed. Director D.Summers. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 1992. – 1528p. .
3. Musman R., D'Arcy A. Britain Today. – Longman Group UK Ltd., 1996. – 156p.
4. Timanovskaya N. Spotlight on English-Speaking Countries. – Тула: Автограф, 2000. – 383 с.
5. Гапонів А.Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство / Алекс Гапонів, Марина Олександрівна Возна. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2005. – 463 c.
6. Коцюба З.Г. Британська та американська системи правосуддя. – Львів: ВАТ Львівська книжкова фабрика "Атлас", 2004. – 323 с.
7. <http://www.bbc.co.uk>.
8. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/>
9. <http://www.encyclopedia.com/>
10. <http://www.news.google.co.uk>.
11. http://www.bbc.co.uk
12. http://www.research.expressnewspapers.co.uk
13. http://www.telegraph.co.uk
14. http://www.economist.com

**Appendices**

**Chronological** **Outline**

**BC**

3000-2000 – Iberians and the Beaker folk inhabited England

700-100 – Celts invaded and settled in England

**AD**

43 – the Roman Conquest of England under the Emperor Claudius

407-410 – The roman army withdrawn from England

450-500 – The Anglo-Saxons and Jutes conquered England

800-900 – The struggle against the Danish invaders

886 – The treaty of Wedmore was signed

**England in the Middle Ages (11th- 15th Centuries)**

1066 – The Norman Conquest, the Duke of Normandy, William defeated Harold near Hastings.

1086 – the Domesday Book was made

1215 – Magna Charta, a document signed by John Lackland and barons

1265 – the first English Parliament summoned by Simon de Montfort

1282 – Edward I conquered Wales

1314 – the Scots defeated the English at Bannockburn

1337-1453 – The Hundred Years War between England and France

1455-1485 – the Wars of the Roses

1476 – William Caxton set up the first English printing press at Westminster

1516 – Thomas More wrote *Utopia*

**The 20th century**

1900 – the British Labour Party was founded

1911 – the Parliament Act restricted the veto power of the House of Lords

1914 – World War I

1924 – the first Labour government was formed

1926 – the General strike

1929 – the World economic crisis started

1930 – the *Daily Worker* began to be published

1939-1945 – World War II

1944 – D-Day. Anglo-American forces landed in Normandy

1945 – the Potsdam Agreement was signed

1949 – the NATO was formed

1966 – the *Daily Worker* became renamed the *Morning Star*

1969 – the voting age was reduced to 18

1973 – Britain joined the European Economic Community

1979 – Margaret Thatcher became the first woman the Prime Minister

1982 – the war for the Falkland Islands

1990 – Margaret Thatcher was forced to resign

1997 – the victory of the Labour party led by Tony Blair

1998 – the passage of the Scotland Act

1999 – the Scottish Parliament reopened

2007 – James Gordon Brown became the Prime Minister of the UK.

2010 – David Cameron, the leader of the Conservative Party, became the Prime Minister of the UK.

**Glossary**

***Albion*** a Roman name for Great Britain, rarely used after the 19th century.

***Balti cuisine***a fusion-cooking range of Indian-style dishes using certain sets of spices and sauces, invented in England. "Balti kievs" are sold in several super­market chains in the UK.

***Bangers***a popular name for British sausages, but also used in the singular to mean an old car in poor condition.

***Bank Holiday***most holidays are national holidays and are called *Bank Holi­days,* because banks and government offices normally close on those days.

***Beefeater***the popular name for the monarch's guard soldiers at the Tower of London.

***Black cab***the popular name for a licensed taxi, more correctly called a Hack­ney Carriage.

***Blighty***a popular slang term for the UK, mostly used during the first half of the 20th century.

***The Blitz***the bombing by the German air force during WW2.

***Bobbies***the old-fashioned popular name for the police, after the Home Secre­tary who introduced then in the 18th century, Sir Robert Peel. Bobby is a diminutive of Robert.

***Boxing Day***December 26th, the second day of Christmas.

***Camelot*** the (probably) mythical castle of King Arthur, becoming an essential part of the legend in Victorian times.

***Chicken Tikka Masala*** *(CTM)* a fusion dish of roast marinated chicken, Indian tikka, with a sauce based on garam masala spices, probably invented in Glasgow, Scotland.

***Chocolate limes***boiled sweets with a lime-flavoured outer shell and a choco­late centre.

***Christmas crackers***tubes of decorated carton that pull apart with a bang to reveal a gift, joke on a slip of paper and a party hat.

***City of London* or *Square Mile***the original central city of London, now prima­rily a financial and banking centre.

***Cockney***a Londoner generally, but more accurately, someone born in a par­ticular small area of east London, within hearing of the bells of Bow Church.

***Cornish pasty***a savoury pie with meat and vegetable filling from Cornwall, but originally made half with a savoury filling and half with a sweet filling for shepherds.

***Counties***administrative areas determined, counted, by population, used in the USA and the UK.

***Custard***amilk, egg, cornflower and vanilla sauce eaten hot with a variety of sweet puddings.

***Danelaw*** the area controlled by the Vikings (Danes and Norsemen) from the 9th to the late 11th century, comprising about half of England.

***Domesday Book***an extremely comprehensive survey and inventory made by the Normans after they took control of England.

**Dons** most often senior members of staff at Oxford or Cambridge colleges but now often applied to most university teachers.

***Easter Bunny***an Americanized cute version of the ancient fertility symbol of a hare, breeding traditionally at Easter.

***Fish and Chip Shop***a shop selling freshly-cooked chips and fish, pies and black pudding, often with a range of other similar food, cooked whenever possible in a deep-fat-fryer.

***Geordies***a colloquial name for, strictly, a native of Tyneside in northeast Eng­land, but often used more widely to describe those from the northeast region.

***Ginger beer***a non-alcoholic soft drink flavoured with ginger.

***Greater London***a name for the wider area around and including London, de­fined differently by different authorities.

***Haggis***a Scottish traditional dish of mixed, minced offal baked in a sheep's stomach with suet, oatmeal and other ingredients. Regarded either as a delicacy or an abomination, with few neutral observers.

***Holy Grail***popularised in the legends of King Arthur, whose knights are said to have searched for the cup used by Jesus during the Last Supper. The Holy Grail has not only been thought of as a chalice but many other religious objects or ideas over the centuries.

***Home Counties***a popular, ill-defined name for the administrative areas bor­dering London, sometimes including areas of Greater London, such as Middlesex.

***Hundred***originally an area of a hundred households and the basic counting unit for counties.

***Hundred-man* or *hundred eolder***the head of a hundred, between the 7th and the 11th centuries.

***Industrial Revolution***the introduction of machinery to make goods and to improve farming efficiency, and the migration from rural to urban life for most.

**IRA** the Irish Republican Army, the original body fighting for Ireland's inde­pendence.

***Iron Lady***a popular nickname for Margaret Thatcher, used both by her sup­porters and her opponents.

***Kedgeree***a rice dish with fish and hard-boiled eggs.

***Kippers*** a herring cut in half along its spine and smoked.

***The Knowledge***the mandatory examination given to potential taxidrivers in London to test their knowledge of the streets and buildings of Greater London. No licence is given until the candidate passes this extremely strict test.

***Law Lords***the judicial members of the House of Lords, the highest court of appeal in the UK.

***Les Rosbifs***the French colloquial nickname for the British, literally "the roast-beefs".

***Limeys***the American colloquial name for the British, after the limes they took on ships to give them vitamin C and combat their disease scurvy.

***Lions ofAnjou***the original banner of King Richard the Lionheart, still used as a national symbol of England.

***London Met* or *Scotland Yard***the former is the London Police force and the latter is its historical headquarters. The Met named the area of their new offices "New Scotland Yard".

***Lord Protector*** the title given Oliver Cromwell, and his son after Oliver's death, as Head of State after Charles I was executed and until Charles II was chosen to be Head of State.

***Luddites*** a group named after Ned Ludd; artisans who rioted and destroyed machinery 1811-1816. The term is used more loosely and even today to describe those who are against progress.

***Malt vinegar***vinegar traditionally brewed with malt (and hence brown) rather than just acetic acid mixed with water.

***May King and May Queen***symbolic male and female monarchs chosen during a May Day celebration, to govern over the festivities.

***May tree or Maypole***the symbol around which villagers danced, during part of the May Day celebration.

***Merlin*** the legendary wizard at the court of King Arthur.

***Metropolitan area***an urban, built-up area used to define administrative areas and usually sub-divided into counties.

***Milk floats***once horse-pulled carts used by milkmen, since the '60s these are vans driven by electric motors, used by most dairies for domestic milk deliveries.

***Mincemeat and mince pies***meat was in the Middle Ages a word to describe all manner of foodstuffs - the former now uses the contemporary use of meat while the latter is a mixture of preserved fruits cooked together in a thick sweet sauce.

***Mushy peas***large mature peas boiled until converted into a paste.

***Normans***a descendant of the mixed Scandinavian and Prankish people, inhab­iting Normandy in France from the 10th century, who invaded England in 1066.

***Oxbridge*** a term used to denote the two top universities in England, from a combination of their names, Oxford and Cambridge.

***Pickle***a mixture of finely chopped vegetables in brown sauce with other pro­prietary ingredients, such as mustard, dates, garlic and lemon. "Branston" is the most common brand name.

***Picts*** a Scottish tribe, one of the few indigenous tribes to have survived the many invasions of Great Britain, until they were assimilated into the tribes now making up Scotland in the 7th century.

***Ploughman's lunch***aplate of bread, cheese, salad, pickle and pickled onion often served in pubs at lunchtime.

***Public Schools***private, fee-paying schools, despite the name.

***Red double-decker bus***the Routemaster bus characteristic of London.

***Redbrick University***one of a group of major British universities founded in Victorian times in major industrial cities, usually with a Gothic-style central build­ing built in red brick.

***Riding***an old subdivision of a county, where the population was low but the territory large.

***Routemaster*** ared double-decker London bus.

***Sassenachs***aname still used by many Scots to denote the English.

***Scouse*** aadjective from 'Scouser', a native of Liverpool and also a stew made with corned beef and assorted vegetables.

***Scrumpy***unfiltered cider, traditionally extremely high in alcoholic content.

***Shires***an area under the control of a Governor, later made up of a number of hundreds and later redefined as a county.

***Simnel cake***arich fruit cake associated with Lent and Mothering Sunday which falls in that period. In some areas simnel cakes are made for Easter.

***Sinn Fein***the political wing of the IRA.

***Stout***a dark beer brewed from charred malt, mostly brewed nowadays in Ire­land.

***Tartare sauce***asauce made from mayonnaise and very finely chopped capers, gherkins and other proprietary ingredients.

***Tithings***an adminitrative unit of ten households in Saxon times, when ten tithings made up a hundred.

***Toad in the Hole***British sausages baked in a Yorkshire pudding-style batter, a London dish often served with onion gravy.

***Toby jug***atraditional ceramic English beer jug, in the form of 'Sir Toby Phillpot'.

***Treacle toffee, or cinder toffee*** made with treacle or molasses, which gives it an almost black colour.

***Tube***the popular name in London for the London Underground train service.

***Union Flag***the correct name for the flag of the United Kingdom and Northern Ireland. A 'jack' and hence 'Union Jack' is strictly the name only for a flag hung from a ship's mast.

***West End***the theatre district of London, second only to Broadway, New York, in importance.

***Yorkshire puddings***a baked dish from pancake batter, usually bowl shaped.

***Yule cake* or *Christmas cake***rich fruit cake, often with added brandy, eaten at Xmas.

***Yule log***traditionally a log burned in a grate at X-mas but today most likely to be a chocolate cake on the shape of a log, again to be eaten at Xmas.

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**Web Addresses Recommended**

**BBC:** [***http://www.bbc.co.uk***](http://www.bbc.co.uk)

**British Library:** [***http://www.bl.uk***](http://www.bl.uk)

**British Tourist Authority:** [***http://www.visitbritain.com***](http://www.visitbritain.com)

**National Statistics:** [***http://www.statistics.gov.uk***](http://www.statistics.gov.uk)

**Schoolsnet: *http://www.schoolsnet.com***

**UK Online:**[***http://www.ukonline.gov.uk***](http://www.ukonline.gov.uk)

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**УДК 811. 111 (07)**

**ББК 81.432.4–923.3**

**С47**

Рекомендовано до друку вченою радою Дрогобицького державного педагогічного університету імені Івана Франка

(протокол № 7 від 17.06. 2010 р.)

**С 47. Сліпецька В.Д. COUNTRY STUDIES: THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND:** Навчально-методичний посібник. – Дрогобич: Редакційно-видавничий відділ Дрогобицького державного педагогічного університету імені Івана Франка, 2010. – 155 с. (англ.)

Навчально-методичний посібник укладено відповідно до програми ВНЗ "Країнознавство Великої Британії та північної Ірландії" для підготовки фахівців напряму 6.020303 "Філологія. Мова та література (англійська)", затвердженої вченою радою Дрогобицького державного педагогічного університету імені Івана Франка. Навчально-методичний посібник є спробою конденсованого викладу теоретичного матеріалу і практичних завдань курсу країнознавства Великої Британії та північної Ірландії. Навчально-методичний посібник призначений для студентів філологічних спеціальностей денної та заочної форм навчання. Матеріал посібника може бути використаний вчителями англійської мови загальноосвітніх шкіл, гімназій та ліцеїв.

**Рекомендовано Міністерством освіти і науки України як навчальний посібник для студентів вищих навчальних закладів (лист 1/11-8077 від 20.08.10).**

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**В.Д. СЛІПЕЦЬКА**

**КРАЇНОЗНАВСТВО:**

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**Навчально-методичний посібник для студентів**

**Спеціальності 6.020303 Філологія. Мова і література (англійська)**

**Дрогобич – 2010**