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HIGHER EDUCATION**

**Country Studies of Great Britain**

(Guidebook for the 1<sup>st</sup> year students of the Philology department)



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## CONTENTS

FOREWORD	007
1. UK BASIC FACTS	008
1.1 Geographical Features. Climate and Weather	008
1.2 England	010
1.3 Scotland	012
1.4 Wales	013
1.5 Northern Ireland	015
2. EARLY BRITAIN. INVASIONS	017
2.1. Primitive Society on the Territory of the British Isles. Invasions	017
2.1.1 The Celts	017
2.1.2. The Roman Conquest of Britain	018
2.1.3. The Anglo-Saxon Invasion	019
2.1.4. Danish Raids on England	020
2.1.5. The Norman Invasion	021
2.2 The Middle Ages	022
2.2.1 War at Home and Abroad	022
2.2.2 The Black Death	023
2.2.3 Legal and Political Changes	024
2.2.4 A Distinct Identity	025
2.2.5 The Wars of the Roses	026
2.2.6 The Tudors and Stuarts. Religious conflicts	026
2.2.7 The Reformation in Scotland. Mary, Queen of Scots	028
2.2.8 Exploration, Poetry and Drama	028
2.2.9 The Rise of Parliament	029
2.2.10 The Beginning of the English Civil War	029

2.2.11 Cromwell and the English Republic	030
2.2.12 The Restoration	031
2.2.13 Catholic King	031
2.2.14 The Glorious Revolution	032
2.3 The Enlightenment	033
2.3.1 The Industrial Revolution	033
2.3.2 The slave trade	034
2.3.3 The American War of Independence	035
2.3.4 War with France	035
2.4 The Victorian Age	036
2.4.1 The British Empire	036
2.4.2 Trade and industry	036
2.4.3 The Crimean War	037
2.5 The 20th century	037
2.5.1 The First World War	037
2.5.2 The inter-war period	038
2.5.3 The Second World War	039
2.6 Britain since 1945	041
2.6.1 The welfare state	041
2.6.2 Social change in the 1960s	042
2.6.3 Conservative government from 1979 to 1997	042
2.6.4 Labour government from 1997 to 2010	043
2.6.5 Coalition government 2010 onwards	043
3. FROM THE HISTORY OF THE UK FORMATION	043
3.1 The UK Formation. English Expansion on the British Isles	045
3.1.1 Wales and Scotland	045
3.1.2 Britain and Ireland	046
3.2 National Symbols	047
3.2.1 Union Jack	047

3.2.2 The Royal Coat of Arms	048
3.2.3 British National Anthem	049
3.2.4 Values and Principles of the UK	050
4. LARGE CITIES	050
4.1 London	051
4.2 Edinburgh	055
4.3 Glasgow	057
4.4 Liverpool	058
4.5 Cardiff	058
4.6 Oxford	059
4.7 Stratford-upon-Avon	060
5. BRITISH INDUSTRY	061
5.1 Historical Survey	061
5.2 Southern England. East Anglia. North of England	063
5.3 Scotland. Wales. Northern Ireland	065
5.4 Finance. Currency	067
6. BRITISH SCIENCE	069
6.1 The Learned Societies	072
6.1.1 The Royal Society	071
6.1.2 The Royal Society of Arts	073
6.1.3. The British Association	073
6.2 Famous Scientists	073
6.2.1 Isaac Newton	073
6.2.2 Ernest Rutherford	074
6.2.3 Michael Faraday	075
6.2.4 George Stephenson	076
6.2.5 Charles Darwin	076
7. BRITISH CULTURE AND LANGUAGE FORMATION	078
7.1. The Language of the British Isles	078

7.2. The Main Periods in the Evolution of English	079
7.3 How People of the UK Speak	080
7.4 The English Language	082
7.5 Typically English Words	082
8. THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN	083
8.1 Secondary Education	083
8.1.1. Comprehensive, Selective and Private Systems of Education	084
8.1.2 Examinations	085
8.2 Higher Education	086
8.2.1 Oxford and Cambridge	088
8.2.2 Exams and qualifications	088
8.2.3 Degree	089
9. POLITICAL SYSTEM	090
9.1 The Government	090
9.2 Parliament	092
9.2.1 The House of Commons	094
9.2.2 The House of Lords	096
9.3 Political Parties	098
9.4 British Royalty	099
10. MASS MEDIA	101
10.1 Mass Media as the Most Powerful Propaganda Weapon	101
10.2 British Press	103
10.3 British Radio	104
10.4 British Television	106
11. LEISURE AND PASTIME	107
11.1 Clubs	107
11.2 Pubs	107
11.3 Gardening. Pets	109
11.4 Traditions	110

11.5 British National Food and Drink	112
12. CULTURAL LIFE	114
12.1 Historical Background	114
12.2 Theatre	117
12.3 Cinema	118
12.4 Edinburgh International Festival	119
13. MUSIC	120
13.1 Folk Music	121
13.2 From Classical to Modern Music	122
13.3 The Beatles	125
13.4 Royal Academy of Music	126
14. BRITISH ART	127
14.1 The «Golden Age» of English Painting	127
14.2 English Portrait Painting	128
14.3 Landscape Painting	129
15. SPORTS	131
15.1 Sports Facilities. Tourism	131
15.2 Football. British Sport Fans	132
15.3 Other Kinds of Sport	133
16. BRITISH YOUTH	134
16.1 British Youth Today	134
16.2 Youth Organizations	136
17. ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION	139
17.1 Protection of the Environment	139
17.2 Pollution	140
CONCLUSION	142
REFERENCES	143

## **FOREWORD**

Modern world development is characterized by the expansion of interstate relations, the formation of a qualitatively new type of world order, which is influenced by a variety of factors — historical, political, economic, religious, ethnic, environmental, etc.

«Country Studies» is a normative subject that aims to teach students to understand geographical, political, social, demographic realities, the nature and consequences of complex processes taking place in the modern world.

The guidebook contains materials and tasks for practical classes and independent work of students in the subject «Country Studies» for training bachelor degree specialists.

The materials of the guidebook will contribute to students' understanding of the historical and socio-cultural features of the UK; cultural values and moral and ethical norms of other nations; formation of a humanistic worldview, spiritual world, moral and aesthetic beliefs, personal traits of a citizen of Ukraine who perceives and shares national and universal values, feels his belonging to the European community; development of linguistic, intellectual and cognitive abilities, creative and critical thinking, the ability to compare and contrast societies, deeper analysis of the culture of their own country; purposeful formation of the innovative culture of the future teacher.

The use of the proposed materials in practical classes will ensure students' mastery of program material, thematic vocabulary, socio-cultural and sociolinguistic knowledge as components of successful communication; will allow them to demonstrate awareness of the culture and traditions of the UK, the rules of speech etiquette, work effectively in a team as part of a student group, carry out research, heuristic activities based on a combination of theoretical knowledge and practical



skills, carry out professional and personal reflection, set perspective goals for self-development.

## **1. UK BASIC FACTS**

### **1.1 Geographical Features. Climate and Weather**

The British Isles lie off the north-west coast of continental Europe, roughly between latitudes 50 and 60 degrees North.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland comprises the four countries of England, Scotland (including the Orkney and Shetland Islands), Wales and Northern Ireland. The word «region» is used to any of these four large areas of the country. The chief regional administrative units are called «counties» in England and Wales, «regions» in Scotland, and «districts» in Northern Ireland.

Britain constitutes the greater part of the British Isles. The largest of the islands is Great Britain. The next largest comprises Northern Ireland, and the Irish Republic. Western Scotland is fringed by the large island chain known, as the Hebrides and to the north-east of the Scottish mainland are Orkney and Shetland. All these have administrative ties with the mainland, but the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea and the Channel Islands between Great Britain and France are largely self-governing, and are not part of the United Kingdom.

With an area of some 244,000 square kilometres, Britain is just under 1,000 kilometres from the south coast to the extreme north of Scotland and just under 800 kilometres across in the widest part.

The main areas of high land are in Scotland, Wales and Cumbria. In the centre of England there is a range of hills called the Pennines, which are also known as the «backbone of England». The highest mountains are in Scotland and Wales: Ben Nevis is 1,342 metres and Snowdon is 1,085 metres. The longest rivers are the Severn (354 km) and the River Thames (346 km). The considerable contrasts of the climate within the comparatively small area of Britain are partly due to the elongated shape of the country. The pronounced regional contrasts are also due to Britain's position

between a great land mass and a vast ocean. The climate of the western part of Britain is maritime in character (humid and cloudy), while eastern and southeastern England have certain of Europe's climatic attributes, including biting cold wind and snow showers in winter. Relief is the third factor in creating broad contrasts of climate. There is, in fact, a clear climatic distinction between highland Britain (approximately north and north-west of a line from the River Exe to the River Number) and lowland Britain.

Substantial differences in climate also occur within comparatively small areas. The sides of valleys receive more sunshine if they face south, and are therefore warmer, while valley bottoms act as reservoirs for air draining off the surrounding slopes, and are susceptible to frost and fog. Near the edge of large, deep lakes the extremes of climate are frequently moderated: on hot summer days the air is cooled as it blows over the water, while on cold nights the water provides a protection from frost.

The climate is generally mild and temperate. Prevailing winds are south-westerly and the weather from day to day is mainly influenced by depressions moving westwards across the Atlantic. The weather is subject to frequent changes. In general, there are few extremes of temperature, with the temperature rarely above 32 °C or low -10 °C.

Time and place must both be considered in drawing generalizations about the weather in the British Isles.

Needless to say that spring is the most favourite season and poets are very fond of it.

In autumn and winter fog is most frequent, particularly over the low lying parts of the Midlands, where cold air gathers in hollows, and in the polluted parts of cities. Fogs are the densest when skies are clear and winds light. They are therefore less common in coastal regions and in the Highlands, where autumn and winter winds are strong.

In summer thunderstorms occur over small areas and are most frequent in the warmest parts of the country. Many summer storms form over France and move north-east to die over East Anglia.

Annual rainfall decreases from west to east and increases with height. The highest parts of Britain, where rain falls two days out of three, receive more than 100 inches. In East Anglia, rain falls one day out of three and evaporation often exceeds rainfall. Elsewhere in Britain rain falls about one day out of two. Rain is a familiar feature of the British climate.

The most glorious of spring and summer mornings, the sun rising in a cloudless sky, give no proof or even sign that the afternoon will be fine. There is a saying on the North Devonshire coast: «If you can see the sun on the Welsh shores in the morning, look out for rain by noon».

Talking about the weather is a part of polite conversations which may be extremely short. There are a lot of jokes and stories about the British climate in common use. British people say, «Other countries have a climate, in England we have weather».

The currency is pound, it consists of 100 pence

The anthem is based on a 17<sup>th</sup> century song. The British national anthem was established as such in 1745, making it the oldest in the world.

The main factors in creating broad contrasts of the climate of the British Isles:

- the elongated shape of the country
- the position between a great land mass and a vast ocean
- the relief.

## **1.2. England**

England occupies the largest part of the island of Great Britain. England has an area of more than 50 thousand square miles and a population of more than 46 million people.

Together with Wales it forms the southern portion of the island of Great Britain.

England is bounded on the north by Scotland, on the east by the North Sea, on the south by the Strait of Dover and the English Channel, and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, Wales and the Irish Sea.

On the north of England the Pennine mountains run from the Scottish border as far south as Derbyshire. Other areas of high ground are the Yorkshire moors in the north-east, Exmoor and Dartmoor in the south-west. The south-west and west form a plateau, while the south-east and the Midlands (the name of the central part of England) are low-lying. The most important rivers are the Thames, the Severn and the Trent. There are many ports, including Bristol, Liverpool, Hull, London and Southampton. The climate is temperate: temperatures range from  $-5^{\circ}\text{C}$  in winter to  $+25^{\circ}\text{C}$  in summer.

England is a densely populated part of the UK. Scotland and Wales have wide open spaces, but in England people are crammed 920 to a square mile', (more thickly than in any other European country save Holland. The population of England is, and has been for centuries, greater than that of all other parts of the United Kingdom combined. About 30 million people live within the area which runs approximately from the mouth of the River Thames in the east to the mouth of the River Mersey in the west and contains five of the biggest cities, a number of other sizable towns and much rich agricultural land.

England is the heart of Britain. It is the richest, the most fertile and most populated in the country. The north and the west of England are mountainous, but all the rest of the territory is a vast plain.

In Northwest England, there are many beautiful lakes with green, wooded or grassy shores and gray mountains all around. It is called the Lake District.

Southern England (also called the South) is dominated by London and its suburbs, which stretch for miles around the capital into what is called «home counties» — the name given to the counties near London: Kent, Surrey, Essex, and occasionally Hertfordshire and East and West Sussex.

This is the most important region in the country in terms of industry, agriculture and population. This region includes both the South East and the South West. The South is a region of various industries and of intensive agriculture.

The South-East is the largest and more highly developed region with London and the Greater London area as the major centres.

A county is the chief regional administrative unit in England. This part of the UK is divided into 39 nonmetropolitan and 7 metropolitan (that is, including a big city) counties.

### **1.3 Scotland**

Scotland forms the northern part of Great Britain, including the islands of the Hebrides, Orkney and Shetland.

Scotland is a very mountainous country; three-fourth of the area of Scotland is occupied by mountains with a great amount of moorland, in which few people live.

Scotland is famous for its beautiful large lakes with mountains round them. They are not like the English ones; there are not so many trees and flowers, and green hills around them as in England. There are many rivers in Scotland, but they are not long. The longest and the most important Scottish river is the Clyde.

In its climate, its vegetation, its deeply indented west coast, its general mountain and valley structure, Scotland resembles other regions of north-west Europe that look out towards the Atlantic.

Roughly the country falls into three main regions: that of the Border (i.e. the frontier with England), a pastoral area with low hills, that of the central Lowlands, the least picturesque region, containing most of its heavy industries and minerals and agricultural wealth, and the Highlands with their infertile soil, their waning population, their beautiful landscape and seascape-moor, fresh water running in torrents, lying in lochs (lakes) — and their damp climate. A total Scottish population is over 5 million.

In the middle ages the Border was the scene of many bloody conflicts between the feudal lords of the two nations. A number of these battles have been immortalized in

the famous Border Ballads. Nowadays the Border is undefined because since 1707 England and Scotland have been united under one government.

The Highlands of Scotland are among the oldest mountains in the world. They reach their highest point in Ben Nevis (4,406 feet). Many of the deep V-shaped valleys between the hills are filled with lakes, called by the Gaelic names of lochs. The beautiful Loch Lomond with its 30-odd islands is the largest. Out of a total Scottish population of over 5 million, only about a tenth lives beyond the Highland Line.

The area of the Lowlands contains three quarters of the whole population and all the towns of considerable size are situated in it. The largest of them are Glasgow and Edinburgh. The Lowlands are the cradle of the Scottish nation. They are the centre of heavy industry. About 300 years ago the glens of the Highlands were the scene of a vigorous way of life. But a highlander who never bowed to foreign conquerors was shorn of his land. The Scottish hills are rich in the songs with their themes of forced emigration and deportation.

Since 1745 aristocracy and land-owning bourgeoisie have carried out a systematic and brutal policy of land enclosure. The small farmers were ejected to make room for more profitable sheep-walks and deer forests. The highlanders were driven by force to manufacturing towns. The Highlands in Scotland in the 18th and 19th centuries were the proving grounds for British colonial methods. In the 1950s the farmers were compelled to leave their homes to make room for a rocket testing range.

#### **1.4. Wales**

Wales is a small country, bounded on the north and west by the Irish Sea, and on the south by the Bristol Channel.

If you look at the map of Britain, you'll find that the land midway along the western side of the island juts out into the sea in the form of a rectangle about 120 miles long and 60 miles wide. It has an area of more than 8 thousand square miles (20 thousand square kilometres) and a population about 3 million people.

Approximately 70 per cent of the population resides in the three industrial counties of the South — Glamorgan, Monmouth and Carmarthen.

One county in South Wales — Hamorganshire — holds about one half of the total population of the country. Its supremacy is due to coal.

Wales is bounded on the east by the English counties and on the west by St George's Channel. North Wales is a country of rugged mountains and deep valleys, South Wales is a land of high hills and wide valleys stretching into downland and plains. So its surface is largely mountainous, reaching 3,560 feet in Snowdon (the mountain in north-west Wales), the highest point in southern Britain (in England and Wales). 6 per cent of Wales is covered by forest, and much of the country is pastureland for sheep and cattle. Although some parts of Wales are good for farming, the mountainous area running all the way up the centre of the country has very poor land.

Wales is noted for mineral wealth, producing iron, coal, copper, lead, zinc, slate and limestone.

To the north of Wales is the large port of Liverpool, and to the south — the busy port of Bristol. In between these two English towns you'll hear two languages spoken: Welsh and English. The western pocket of Britain is almost a separate nation, with its own language, music, culture. The inhabitants of Wales are largely of Welsh stock, and the Welsh language is commonly spoken by about 20 per cent of the population (although only about 32,000 speak no English at all).

The industrial development of Wales was integrated with the British economy with the result that Wales was hit in the economic crises, especially between the two World Wars. Not only were its rural areas depopulated but there was large — scale migration. More than 500,000 left either for England or abroad. The result is that the population of Wales now is hardly more than it was at the beginning of the 20th century?] It is about 3 million people. About one half of the total population of 3 million people lives in the South Wales coastal area, where the three biggest towns are located — Swansea, Cardiff and Newport.

The ancient capital of Wales is Caernarvon, where the British monarch's eldest son is traditionally crowned Prince of Wales.

Wales is traditionally divided into North Wales and South Wales (sometimes into North Wales, Mid Wales and South Wales). A county is its chief regional administrative unit, and according to this official division Wales consists of 8 counties.

South Wales is a region of contrasts. The industrial cities of Swansea, Cardiff and Newport are only a short journey away from sandy beaches and busy holiday resorts.

Mid Wales is rather sparsely populated. Along the coast there are many fishing ports. North Wales has several impressive castles built by English kings. Anglesey is flat, but the rest of the region is very mountainous. There are two nuclear power stations: one in North Wales, the other in Anglesey.

Tourism is mainly concentrated in the northern coastal strip. Surrounded on three sides by an attractive coastline, Wales has become a popular holiday resort. It is also well known for its hills and dales, and in these places a great number of people derive their livelihood from tourists and holiday-makers.

There are several more lakes and artificial reservoirs, some of them providing the water supply for the cities of Birmingham and Liverpool in England as well as one or two power dams providing electricity.

There is no other part of the British Isles where national spirit is stronger, national pride more intense or national traditions more cherished than in Wales. The Welsh still proudly wear their national dress on festive occasions; the Welsh language is still very much a living force and is taught side by side with English in schools; and Welshmen, who have a highly developed artistic sense, have a distinguished record in the realm of poetry, song and drama. Aberystwyth is the centre of Welsh education and learning.

The Welsh call their country Cymru, and themselves they call Cymru, a word which has the same root as «camrador» (friend or comrade).

## **1.5 Northern Ireland**



Ireland is the second largest of the British Islands lying in the Atlantic off the west coast of Great Britain.

The island of Ireland is politically divided into two parts: Northern Ireland (Ulster), which forms part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, capital Belfast, and the Republic of Ireland — a separate state named Eire in Irish; its capital is Dublin.

Northern Ireland has a population of about 1.5 million. It occupies 1/5 of the island of Ireland.

Northern Ireland is a unique region within the United Kingdom, for in addition to economic problems similar to those seen in other national outlying regions, there are political divisions, which reflect the unsettled Irish issue. At present Northern Ireland in the political sense comprises six counties of Ulster, which was one of the four provinces of ancient Ireland. Three other provinces of Ulster form part of the Irish Republic.

The majority of people are descendants of Scots and English settlers who crossed to the north-east of Ireland, mainly in the 17th century. Most are Protestants, British by culture and tradition and committed to maintaining the constitutional link with the British Crown. The remainder are Roman Catholics, who are Irish by culture and history and who favour union with the Irish Republic.

Northern Ireland is surrounded by sea to the north and east and by the Republican counties to the west and to the south. The Antrim Coast (to the east) is a remarkable stretch of the country. Its geographical composition goes back 300 million years.

The west coast of Northern Ireland is characterized by steep cliffs and hundreds of small islands torn from the mainland mass by the powerful forces of the Atlantic Ocean.

The outstanding feature of the Irish weather is its changeability. Extremely high or low temperatures are unknown. The Irish Sea also has some warming influence in winter. The rainfall over most of the island is not as great as it is sometimes supposed. Ireland is considered as a whole, drier than either Wales or Scotland. There

is an old Irish saying that Ireland must be the cleanest place in the world, because God washes it every day. Ireland is also called the Emerald Isle because of its beautiful green fields.

However it is not very cold in Ireland because it is the first European country to meet the warm waters of the Gulf Stream.

An Irishman does not really expect it to rain every day, just every other day; two days out of three on the west coast. It rarely rains hard, but the water does not seem to keep dripping down most of the time. It is hard to grow crops or even to make hay, when the June sun can't break through the clouds for more than six hours a day. But it is a fine climate for ducks, umbrella-makers, and the rich pastures whose emerald green has given the island its nickname.

## **2. EARLY BRITAIN. INVASIONS**

### **2.1. Primitive Society on the Territory of the British Isles. Invasions**

#### **2.1.1 The Celts**

During the period from the 6th to the 3rd century B.C. people called the Celts spread across Europe from the east to the west.

The Celts were (ancient people who lived in Central and Western Europe during the New Stone Age, the Bronze Age and moved to the British Isles during the Iron Age. They stayed in Ireland and Scotland and resisted here foreign invasions, but in other areas they were conquered by Germanic and other tribes. The Celtic languages are a subdivision of the Indo-European language family; They are spoken by about five million people. They include Gaelic, Welsh, Breton, Cornish.

More than one Celtic tribe invaded Britain. From time to time these tribes were attacked and overcame by other Celtic tribes from the continent. Tribes of Scots crossed over to Ireland and settled there. Later the Scots returned to the larger inland and in time the name of Scotland was given to the country. Powerful Celtic tribes, the Britons, held most of the country, and the southern half of the island was named Britain after them.

The Celts had no towns, they lived in villages. They were acquainted with the use of copper tin and iron and they kept large herds of cattle and sheep. They also cultivated crops. The clothes of Celtic tribes of the Britons who inhabited the south-eastern parts of the island were made of wool while the other Celts wore skins.

More of Celtic tribes were quite large and fighting was common among them. In war times the Celts wore skins and painted their faces with a blue dye to make themselves look fierce. They were armed with swords and spears.

The Celts worshipped Nature. They lived under the primitive system. They worked collectively in clans or family communities, they owned common property and were all equal. In the last centuries B.C. and the first centuries A.D. the Celts were in a period of transition from primitive communal society to class society.

Not only the Celts but the Iberians inhabited the British Isles about three thousand years ago. They inhabited many parts of Europe as well. They are still found in the north of Spain (later they were mixed with the Celts).

During the Iron Age (400 B.C.) the Celts armed with weapons of iron, conquered Kent and much of Southern England. They spread north and imposed their language on the natives, its Gaelic form was used in Ireland and Scotland, the Brythonic form was used in England and Wales. And it was the Brythonic tribe that gave its name to the whole country. In the 6th-3rd centuries B.C. the Celts invaded Britain and overcame the Iberians.

### **2.1.2. The Roman Conquest of Britain**

Two thousand years ago the Celts were living in tribes. The Roman society differed greatly from that of the Celts. It was a slave society divided into antagonistic classes (slaves, and slave-owners). One of the last countries, to be conquered by Rome, was France. The war against the Gaels, who were Celtic tribes, lasted for eight years.

In the course of his campaigns Caesar reached the Channel. In 55 B.C. a Roman army of 10.000 men crossed the Channel and invaded Britain. The Celts «fought

bravely for their independence, but they were not strong enough, in spite of their courage, to drive the Romans off.

Although Julius Caesar came to Britain 'Twice' in the course of two years, he was not able to conquer it. In 43 A.D. the Roman army invaded Britain and conquered the South — East. Other parts of the country were taken from time to time during the next 40 years.

In the 1st century A.D. the Romans who ruled a.11 of the civilized world at that time conquered Britain. Straight roads were built for the legions to march quickly. They can still be found in Britain today.

The civilized Romans were city dwellers and they began to build towns, splendid villages (York, Gloucester, Lincoln, London). The Roman towns were military stations surrounded by walls for defense which were guarded by the Roman warriors, Among the Celts inequality began to grow — the tribal chiefs and nobility became richer than other members of the tribe. The noble' Celts adopted the' mode of life of their conquerors. They lived in rich houses and dressed as the Romans.

In the 3rd-4th centuries the power of the Roman Empire gradually weakened. Early in the 5th century (407) the Roman legions were recalled from Britain to defend the central provinces from the attacks of the barbarian tribes — Germanic tribes.

In 55-54 B.C. Julius Caesar first visited England. The Britons, now predominantly Celtic, opposed the landing of Julius Caesar and his legions. His summer expedition was a failure.

43 A.D. — the beginning of the Roman conquest. The traces of their conquest at Bath, Hadrian's Wall, Watling Street, London, Dover.

### **2.1.3. The Anglo-Saxon Invasion**

After the Roman legions left Britain the Celts remained independent but not for long. From the middle the 5th century they had to defend; the country against the attacks of Germanic tribes from the continent. In the 5th century the first Jutes and then other Germanic tribes — the Saxons and the Angles began to migrate to Britain. In 449 the Jutes landed in Kent and this was the beginning of the conquest. The

British natives fought fiercely against the invaders and it took more than a hundred and fifty years for the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes to conquer the country. The new conquerors brought about changes. They disliked towns preferring to live in small villages. They destroyed the Roman towns and villas. The roads were broken. The Jutes, the Saxons and the Angles, were closely alike in speech and customs and they gradually merged into one people. They called the Celts «welsh» which means «foreigners» as they did not understand the Celtic language.

The Anglo-Saxon villages were small. Nearly all villages were engaged in cultivating the land. Corn was grown on the arable land — that is ploughed land. They used the two — field system (the land was given a rest every second year). The plough was made of wood covered with iron. Besides arable-farming they continued cattle-breeding, hunting and fishing.

There was very little trading at that time. Roads were very poor. This natural economy predominated in Britain in early medieval times. By the beginning of the 9th century changes had come in the Anglo-Saxon society. Rich landowners were given great power over the peasants. The king's warriors and officials held more land and they ruled the country.

#### **2.1.4. Danish Raids on England**

For the centuries struggle went on between the little Anglo-Saxon kingdoms. At the end of the 8th century another branch of Germanic people began to attack Britain. The Danes were of the same Germanic race as the Anglo-Saxons themselves. The Danes still lived in tribes. They were well armed with swords, spears, daggers, battle axes and bows. In 793 the Danes carried their first raids on Britain. They began the fourth conquest of Britain. They burnt houses, churches and monasteries. Their raids were successful because England had neither a regular army nor a fleet in the North Sea to meet them.

In the 10th century under the rule of Alfred the Saxon monarchy was further consolidated and they won several victories over the Danes. The Danes were not driven out of the country, but they were made subjects of Wessex. They were not

very much different from the Anglo-Saxons among whom they lived because they were also of Germanic origin. The Danes influenced the development of the country greatly. They were good sailors and traders. They were skillful shipbuilders. At the beginning of the 11th century England was conquered by the Danes once more. The Danish king Canute (1017-1035) became king of Denmark, Norway and England. He made England the centre of his power. But he was often away from England in his kingdom of Denmark and so he divided the country into four parts called earldoms. They were Wessex, Mercia, Northumbria and East Anglia. The earls ruled over great territories and became very powerful. The clergy grew more powerful. After the death of Canute the Anglo-Saxon king came to the throne (1042) and the line of Danish kings came to an end.

#### **2.1.5. The Norman Invasion**

Many changes came about in the life of the Danes after the 9th century. By the 11th century the Danes had finally settled down as subjects of the English kings. As time went on they gradually mixed with the Anglo-Saxons among whom they lived. But the Normans who had settled down in France lived among the French people, who were different people, with different manners, customs and language. These descendants of the Northmen who settled in northern France in the 9th century became the new conquerors of England. In 1066 William, the Duke of Normandy, began to gather an army to invade Britain. William wanted the English throne. He began preparations for a war to fight for the Crown. Many big sailing-boats were built to carry the army across the Channel. The Normans were well trained, used skillful combination of heavy-armoured cavalry and archers.

William landed in the South of England and the battle between the Normans and the Anglo-Saxons took place on the 14th of October 1066 at a little village in the neighbourhood of the town now called Hastings. The history at Hastings was only the beginning of the Conquest. It took several years for William and his barons to subdue the whole of England. Thus the Norman duke became king of England — William I, or William the Conqueror. He ruled England for 21 years (1066-1087). There were

several uprisings in the North, and William who was a fierce man, ruined the Anglo-Saxon villages, cottages, killed many people, destroyed crops and orchards.

The Iberians brought their metal-working skills and the first real civilization to Britain in the third millennium B.C. and were then overrun by the various Celtic invasions that began in the 8th century B.C. The Celts introduced their tribal organization and an early form of agriculture before they were forced westwards into Cornwall, Wales and Ireland (where the Celtic language still exists in different forms) by the Roman invasion begun by Claudius in 43 A.D.

The Romans ruled Britain for over two hundred years and left behind three things of importance: their roads, the sites of important cities (notably London), and the seeds of Christianity. The Latin way of life — villas, arts, language and political organization — all vanished, however, after the invasions from Northern Europe by the Angles, Saxons and Jutes from the 5th century onwards.

These pagan peoples were easily converted to Christianity and the preachers from Rome brought with them learning and civilization. Christianity was an important factor in enabling the various kingdoms created by the Nordic invaders to be united under Egbert in the 9th century. The Vikings (the name means «warriors») first raided England to plunder it, then in the days of Alfred of Wessex they began «to win wide lands to plough and to rule». In the 10th century England fell under Danish rule, with King Canute finally managing to unite the Anglo-Saxons and Danes at the beginning of the 11th century.

After defeating the Anglo-Saxon king Harold at the Battle of Hastings in 1066, William of Normandy introduced the Norman feudal system, rewarding his French-speaking followers with land in return for their continued support, and French remained the language of the upper classes and administration until the 14th century.

## **2.2 The Middle Ages**

### **2.2.1 War at Home and Abroad**

The period after the Norman Conquest up until about 1485 is called the Middle Ages (or the medieval period). It was a time of almost constant war. The English

kings fought with the Welsh, Scottish and Irish noblemen for control of their lands. In Wales, the English were able to establish their rule. In 1284 King Edward I of England introduced the Statute of Rhuddlan, which annexed Wales to the Crown of England. Huge castles, including Conwy and Caernarvon, were built to maintain this power. By the middle of the 15th century the last Welsh rebellions had been defeated. English laws and the English language were introduced.

In Scotland, the English kings were less successful. In 1314 the Scottish, led by Robert the Bruce, defeated the English at the Battle of Bannockburn, and Scotland remained unconquered by the English.

At the beginning of the Middle Ages, Ireland was an independent country. The English first went to Ireland as troops to help the Irish king and remained to build their own settlements. By 1200, the English ruled an area of Ireland known as the Pale, around Dublin. Some of the important lords in other parts of Ireland accepted the authority of the English king.

During the Middle Ages, the English kings also fought a number of wars abroad. Many knights took part in the Crusades, in which European Christians fought for control of the Holy Land. English kings also fought a long war with France, called the Hundred Years War (even though it actually lasted 116 years). One of the most famous battles of the Hundred Years War was the Battle of Agincourt in 1415, where King Henry V's vastly outnumbered English army defeated the French. The English left France in the 1450s.

### **2.2.2 The Black Death**

The Normans used a system of land ownership known as feudalism. The king gave land to his lords in return for help in war. Landowners had to send certain numbers of men to serve in the army. Some peasants had their own land but most were serfs. They had a small area of their lord's land where they could grow food. In return, they had to work for their lord and could not move away. The same system developed in southern Scotland. In the north of Scotland and Ireland, land was owned by members of the «clans» (prominent families).



In 1348, a disease, probably a form of plague, came to Britain. This was known as the Black Death. One third of the population of England died and a similar proportion in Scotland and Wales. This was one of the worst disasters ever to strike Britain. Following the Black Death, the smaller population meant there was less need to grow cereal crops. There were labour shortages and peasants began to demand higher wages. New social classes appeared, including owners of large areas of land (later called the gentry), and people left the countryside to live in the towns. In the towns, growing wealth led to the development of a strong middle class.

In Ireland, the Black Death killed many in the Pale and, for a time, the area controlled by the English became smaller.

### **2.2.3 Legal and Political Changes**

In the Middle Ages, Parliament began to develop into the institution it is today. Its origins can be traced to the king's council of advisers, which included important noblemen and the leaders of the Church.

There were few formal limits to the king's power until 1215. In that year, King John was forced by his noblemen to agree to a number of demands. The result was a charter of rights called the Magna Carta (which means the Great Charter). The Magna Carta established the idea that even the king was subject to the law. It protected the rights of the nobility and restricted the king's power to collect taxes or to make and change laws. In future, the king would need to involve his noblemen in decisions.

In England, parliaments were called for the king to consult his nobles, particularly when the king needed to raise money. The numbers attending Parliament increased and two separate parts, known as Houses were established. This nobility, great landowners and bishops sat in the House of Lords. Knights, who were usually smaller landowners, and wealthy people from towns and cities were elected to sit in the House of Commons. Only a small part of the population was able to join in electing the members of the Commons.

A similar Parliament developed in Scotland. It had three Houses, called Estates: the lords, the commons and the clergy.

This was also a time of development in the legal system. The principle that judges are independent of the government began to be established. In England, judges developed «common law» by a process of precedence (that is, following previous decisions) and tradition. In Scotland, the legal system developed slightly differently and laws were «codified» (that is, written down).

#### **2.2.4 A Distinct Identity**

The Middle Ages saw the development of a national culture and identity. After the Norman Conquest, the king and his noblemen had spoken Norman French and the peasants had continued to speak Anglo-Saxon. Gradually these two languages combined to become one English language. Some words in modern English — for example, «park» and «beauty» — are based on Norman French words. Other — for example, «apple», «cow» and «summer» — are based on Anglo-Saxon words. In modern English there are often two words with very similar meanings, one from French and one from Anglo-Saxon. «Demand» (French) and «ask» (Anglo-Saxon) are examples. By 1400, in England, official documents were being written in English, and English had become the preferred language of the royal court and Parliament.

In the years leading up to 1400, Geoffrey Chaucer wrote a series of poems in English about a group of people going to Canterbury on a pilgrimage. The people decided to tell each other stories on the journey, and the poems describe the travellers and some of the stories they told. This collection of poems is called *The Canterbury Tales*. It was one of the first books to be printed by William Caxton, the first person in England to print books using a printing press. Many of the stories are still popular. Some have been made into plays and television programmes.

In Scotland, many people continued to speak Gaelic and the Scots language also developed. A number of poets began to write in the Scots language. One example is John Barbour, who wrote *The Bruce* about the Battle of Bannockburn.

The Middle Ages also saw a change in the type of buildings in Britain. Castles were built in many places in Britain and Ireland, partly for defence. Today many are in ruins, although some, such as Windsor and Edinburgh, are still in use. Great

cathedrals — for example, Lincoln Cathedral — were also built, and many of these are still used for worship. Several of the cathedrals had windows of stained glass, telling stories about the Bible and Christian saints. The glass in York Minster is a famous example.

During this period, England was an important trading nation. English wool became a very important export. People came to England from abroad to trade and also to work. Many had special skills, such as weavers from France, engineers from Germany, glass manufacturers from Italy and canal builders from Holland.

### **2.2.5 The Wars of the Roses**

In 1455, a civil war was begun to decide who should be king of England. It was fought between the supporters of two families: the House of Lancaster and the House of York. This war was called the Wars of the Roses, because the symbol of Lancaster was a red rose and the symbol of York was a white rose. The war ended with the Battle of Bosworth Field in 1485. King Richard III of the House of York was killed in the battle and Henry Tudor, the leader of the House of Lancaster, became King Henry VII. Henry then married King Richard's niece, Elizabeth of York, and united the two families. Henry was the first king of the House of Tudor. The symbol of the House of Tudor was a red rose with a white rose inside it as a sign that the Houses of York and Lancaster were now allies.

### **2.2.6 The Tudors and Stuarts. Religious conflicts**

After his victory in the Wars of the Roses, Henry VII wanted to make sure that England remained peaceful and that his position as king was secure. He deliberately strengthened the central administration of England and reduced the power of the nobles. He was thrifty and built up the monarchy's financial reserves. When he died, his son Henry VIII continued the policy of centralising power.

Henry VIII was most famous for breaking away from the Church of Rome and marrying six times. To divorce his first wife, Henry needed the approval of the Pope. When the Pope refused, Henry established the church of England. In this new church,

the king, not the Pope, would have the power to appoint bishops and order how people should worship.

At the same time the Reformation was happening across Europe. This was a movement against the authority of the Pope and the ideas and practices of the Roman Catholic Church. The Protestants formed their own churches. They read the Bible in their own languages instead of Latin; they did not pray to saints or at shrines; and they believed that a person's own relationship with God was more important than submitting to the authority of the Church. Protestant ideas gradually gained strength in England, Wales and Scotland during the 16th century.

In Ireland, however, attempts by the English to impose Protestantism (alongside efforts to introduce the English system of laws about the inheritance of land) led to rebellion from the Irish chieftains, and much brutal fighting followed.

During the reign of Henry VIII, Wales became formally united with England by the Act for the Government of Wales. The Welsh sent representatives to the House of Commons and the Welsh legal system was reformed.

Henry VIII was succeeded by his son Edward VI, who was strongly Protestant. During his reign, the Book of Common Prayer was written to be used in the Church of England. A version of this book is still used in some churches today. Edward died at the age of 15 after ruling for just over six years, and his half-sister Mary became queen. Mary was a devout Catholic and persecuted Protestants (for this reason, she became known as «Bloody Mary»). Mary also died after a short reign and the next monarch was her half-sister, Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn.

Queen Elizabeth I was a Protestant. She re-established the Church of England as the official Church of England. Everyone had to attend their local church and there were laws about the type of religious services and the prayers which could be said, but Elizabeth did not ask about people's real beliefs. She succeeded in finding a balance between the views of the Catholics and the more extreme Protestants. In this way, she avoided any serious religious conflict within England. Elizabeth became one of the most popular monarchs in English history, particularly after 1588, when the

English defeated the Spanish Armada (a large fleet of ships), which had been sent by Spain to conquer England and restore Catholicism. Elizabeth I never married and so had no children of her own to inherit her throne. When she died in 1603 her heir was her cousin James VI of Scotland. He became King James I of England, Wales and Ireland but Scotland remained a separate country.

### **2.2.7 The Reformation in Scotland. Mary, Queen of Scots**

Scotland had also been strongly influenced by Protestant ideas. In 1560, the predominantly Protestant Scottish Parliament abolished the authority of the Pope in Scotland and Roman Catholic religious services became illegal. A Protestant Church of Scotland with an elected leadership was established but, unlike in England, this was not a state Church.

The queen of Scotland, Mary Stuart (often now called «Mary, Queen of Scots») was a Catholic. She was only a week old when her father died and she became queen. Much of her childhood was spent in France. When she returned to Scotland, she was the centre of a power struggle between different groups. When her husband was murdered, Mary was suspected of involvement and fled to England. She gave her throne to her Protestant son, James VI of Scotland. Mary was Elizabeth I's cousin and hoped that Elizabeth might help her, but Elizabeth suspected Mary of wanting to take over the English throne, and kept her prisoner for 20 years. Mary was eventually executed, accused of plotting against Elizabeth I.

### **2.2.8 Exploration, Poetry and Drama**

The Elizabethan period in England was a time of growing patriotism: a feeling of pride in being English, English explorers sought new trade routes and tried to expand British trade into the Spanish colonies in the Americas. Sir Francis Drake, one of the commanders in the defeat of the Spanish Armada, was one of the founders of England's naval tradition. His ship, the Golden Hind, was one of the first to sail right around («circumnavigate») the world. In Elizabeth I's time, English settlers first began to colonise the eastern coast of America. This colonisation, particularly by

people who disagreed with the religious views of the next two kings, greatly increased in the next century.

The Elizabethan period is also remembered for the richness of its poetry and drama, especially the plays and poems of William Shakespeare.

### **2.2.9 The Rise of Parliament**

Elizabeth I was very skilled at managing Parliament. During her reign, she was successful in balancing her wishes and views against those of the House of Lords and those of the House of Commons, which was increasingly Protestant in its views.

James I and his son Charles I were less skilled politically. Both believed in the «Divine Right of Kings»: the idea that the king was directly appointed by God to rule. They thought that the king should be able to act without having to seek approval from Parliament. When Charles I inherited the thrones of England, Wales, Ireland and Scotland, he tried to rule in line with this principle. When he could not get Parliament to agree with his religious and foreign policies, he tried to rule without the Parliament at all. For 11 years, he found ways in which to raise money without Parliament's approval but eventually trouble in Scotland meant that he had to recall Parliament.

### **2.2.10 The Beginning of the English Civil War**

Charles I wanted the worship of the Church of England to include more ceremony and introduced a revised Prayer Book. He tried to impose this Prayer Book on the Presbyterian Church in Scotland and this led to serious unrest. A Scottish army was formed and Charles could not find the money he needed for his own army without the help of Parliament. In 1640, he recalled Parliament to ask it for funds. Many in Parliament were Puritans, a group of Protestants who advocated strict and simple religious doctrine and worship. They did not agree with the king's religious views and disliked his reforms of the Church of England. Parliament refused to give the king the money he asked for, even after the Scottish army invaded England.

Another rebellion began in Ireland because the Roman Catholics in Ireland were afraid of the growing power of the Puritans. Parliament took this opportunity to

demand control of the English army — a change that would have transferred substantial power from the king to Parliament. In response, Charles I entered the House of Commons and tried to arrest five parliamentary leaders, but they had been warned and were not there. (No monarch has set foot in the Commons since.) Civil war between the king and Parliament could not now be avoided and began in 1642. The country spilt into those who supported the king (the Cavaliers) and those who supported Parliament (the Roundheads).

### **2.2.11 Oliver Cromwell and the English Republic**

The king's army was defeated at the Battles of Marston Moor and Naseby. By 1646, it was clear that the Parliament had won the war. Charles was held prisoner by the parliamentary army. He was still unwilling to reach any agreement with the Parliament and in 1649 he was executed.

England declared itself a republic, called the Commonwealth. It no longer had a monarch. For a time, it was not totally clear how the country would be governed. For now, the army was in control. One of its generals, Oliver Cromwell, was sent to Ireland, where the revolt which had begun in 1641 still continued and where there was still a Royalist army. Cromwell was successful in establishing the authority of the English Parliament but did this with such violence that even today Cromwell remains a controversial figure in Ireland.

The Scots had not agreed to the execution of Charles I and declared his son Charles II to be king. He was crowned king of Scotland and led a Scottish army into England. Cromwell defeated this army in the Battles of Dunbar and Worcester. Charles II escaped from Worcester, famously hiding in an oak tree on one occasion, and eventually fled to Europe. Parliament now controlled Scotland as well as England and Wales.

After his campaign in Ireland and victory over Charles II at Worcester, Cromwell was recognised as the leader of the new republic. He was given the title of Lord Protector and ruled until his death in 1658. When Cromwell died, his son, Richard, became Lord Protector in his place but was not able to control the army or the

government. Although Britain had been a republic for 11 years, without Oliver Cromwell there was no clear leader or system of government. Many people in the country wanted stability. People began to talk about the need for a king.

### **2.2.12 The Restoration**

In May 1660, Parliament invited Charles II to come back from exile in The Netherlands. He was crowned King Charles II of England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland. Charles II made it clear that he had «no wish to go on his travels again». He understood that he could not always do as he wished but would sometimes need to reach agreement with the Parliament. Generally, Parliament supported his policies. The Church of England again became the established official Church. Both Roman Catholics and Puritans were kept out of power.

During Charles II's reign, in 1665, there was a major outbreak of plague in London. Thousands of people died, especially in poorer areas. The following year, a great fire destroyed much of the city, including many churches and St Paul's Cathedral. London was rebuilt with a new St Paul's, which was designed by a famous architect, Sir Christopher Wren. Samuel Pepys wrote about these events in a diary which was later published and is still read today.

The Habeas Corpus Act became law in 1679. This was a very important piece of legislation which remains relevant today. Habeas corpus is Latin for «you must present the person in court». The Act guaranteed that no one could be held prisoner unlawfully. Every prisoner has a right to a court hearing.

Charles II was interested in science. During his reign, the Royal Society was formed to promote «natural knowledge». This is the oldest surviving scientific society in the world. Among its early members were Sir Edmund Halley who successfully predicted the return of the comet now called Halley's Comet, and Sir Isaac Newton.

### **2.2.13 A Catholic King**

Charles II had no legitimate children. He died in 1685 and his brother, James, who was a Roman Catholic, became King James II in England, Wales and Ireland and



King James VII of Scotland. James favoured Roman Catholics and allowed them to be army officers, which an Act of Parliament had forbidden. He did not seek to reach agreements with Parliament and arrested some of the bishops of the Church of England. People in England worried that James wanted to make England a Catholic country once more. However, his heirs were his two daughters, who were both firmly Protestant, and people thought that this meant there would soon be a Protestant monarch again. Then James's wife had a son. Suddenly, it seemed likely that the next monarch would not be a Protestant after all.

#### **2.2.14 The Glorious Revolution**

James II's elder daughter, Mary, was married to her cousin William of Orange, the Protestant ruler of the Netherlands. In 1688, important Protestants in England asked William to invade England and proclaim himself king. When William reached England, there was no resistance. James fled to France and William took over the throne, becoming William III in England, Wales and Ireland, and William II of Scotland. William ruled jointly with Mary. This event was later called the «Glorious Revolution» because there was no fighting in England and because it guaranteed the power of Parliament, ending the threat of monarch ruling on his or her own as he or she wished. James II wanted to regain the throne and invaded Ireland with the help of a French army. William defeated James II at the Battle of the Boyne in Ireland in 1690, an event which is still celebrated by some in Northern Ireland today. William re-conquered Ireland and James fled back to France. Many restrictions were placed on the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland and Irish Catholics were unable to take part in the government.

There was also support for James in Scotland. An attempt at an armed rebellion in support of James was quickly defeated at Killiecrankie. All Scottish clans were required formally to accept William as king by taking an oath. The McDonalds of Glencoe were late in taking an oath. The memory of this massacre meant some Scots distrusted the new government.

Some continued to believe that James was the rightful king, particularly in Scotland. Some joined him in exile in France; others were secret supporters. James's supporters became known as Jacobites.

## **2.3 The Enlightenment**

During the 18th century, new ideas about politics, philosophy and science were developed. This is often called «the Enlightenment». Many of the great thinkers of the Enlightenment were Scottish. Adam Smith developed ideas about economics which are still referred to today. David Hume's ideas about human nature continue to influence philosophers. Scientific discoveries, such as James Watt's work on steam power, helped the progress of the Industrial Revolution. One of the most important principles of the Enlightenment was that everyone should have the right to their own political and religious beliefs and that the state should not try to dictate to them. This continues to be an important principle in the UK today.

### **2.3.1 The Industrial Revolution**

Before the 18th century, agriculture was the biggest source of employment in Britain. There were many cottage industries, where people worked from home to produce goods such as cloth and lace.

The Industrial Revolution was the rapid development of industry in Britain in the 18th and 19th centuries. Britain was the first country to industrialise on a large scale. It happened because of the development of machinery and the use of steam power. Agriculture and the manufacturing of goods became mechanised. This made things more efficient and increased production. Coal and other raw materials were needed to power the new factories. Many people moved from the countryside and started working in the mining and manufacturing industries.

The development of the Bessemer process for the mass production of steel led to the development of the shipbuilding industry and the railways. Manufacturing jobs became the main source of employment in Britain.

Better transport links were needed to transport raw materials and manufactured goods. Canals were built to link the factories to towns and cities and to the ports, particularly in the new industrial areas in the middle and north of England.

Working conditions during the Industrial Revolution were very poor. There were no laws to protect employees, who were often forced to work long hours in dangerous situations. Children also worked and were treated in the same way as adults. Sometimes they were treated even more harshly.

This was also a time of increased colonisation overseas. Captain James Cook mapped the coast of Australia and a few colonies were established there. Britain gained control over Canada, and the East India Company, originally set up to trade, gained control of large parts of India. Colonies began to be established in southern Africa.

Britain traded all over the world and began to import more goods. Sugar and tobacco came from North America and the west Indies; textiles, tea and spices came from India and the area that is today called Indonesia. Trading and settlements overseas sometimes brought Britain into conflict with other countries, particularly France, which was expanding and trading in a similar way in many of the same areas of the world.

### **2.3.2 The slave trade**

This commercial expansion and prosperity was sustained in part by the booming slave trade. While slavery was illegal within Britain itself, by the 18th century it was a fully established overseas industry, dominated by Britain and the American colonies.

Slaves came primarily from West Africa. Travelling on British ships in horrible conditions, they were taken to America and the Caribbean, where they were made to work on tobacco and sugar plantations. The living and working conditions for slaves were very bad. Many slaves tried to escape and others revolted against their owners in protest at their terrible treatment.

There were, however people in Britain who opposed the slave trade. The first formal anti-slavery groups were set up by the Quakers in the late 1700s, and they petitioned Parliament to ban the practice. William Wilberforce, an evangelical Christian and a member of Parliament, also played an important part in changing the law. Along with other abolitionists (people who supported the abolition of slavery), he succeeded in turning public opinion against the slave trade. In 1807, it became illegal to trade slaves in British ships or from British ports, and in 1833 the Emancipation Act abolished slavery throughout the British Empire. The Royal Navy stopped slave ships from other countries, freed the slaves and punished the slave traders. After 1833, 2 million Indian and Chinese workers were employed to replace the freed slaves. They worked on sugar plantations in the Caribbean, in mines in South Africa, on railways in East Africa and in the army in Kenya.

### **2.3.3 The American War of Independence**

By the 1760s, there were substantial British colonies in North America. The colonies were wealthy and largely in control of their own affairs. Many of the colonist families had originally gone to North America in order to have religious freedom. They were well educated and interested in ideas of liberty. The British government wanted to tax the colonies. The colonists saw this as an attack on their freedom and said there should be «no taxation without representation» in the British Parliament. Parliament tried to compromise by repealing some of the taxes, but relationships between the British government and the colonies continued to worsen. Fighting broke out between the colonists and the British forces. In 1776, 13 American colonies declared their independence, stating that people had a right to establish their own governments. The colonists eventually defeated the British army and Britain recognised the colonies» independence in 1783.

### **2.3.4 War with France**

During the 18th century, Britain fought a number of wars with France. In 1789, there was a revolution in France and the new French government soon declared war on Britain. Napoleon, who became Emperor of France, continued the war. Britain's

navy fought against combined French and Spanish fleets, winning the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805. Admiral Nelson was in charge of the British fleet at Trafalgar and was killed in the battle. Nelson's Column in Trafalgar Square, London, is a monument to him. His ship, HMS Victory, can be visited in Portsmouth. The British army also fought against the French. In 1815, the French Wars ended with the defeat of the Emperor Napoleon by the Duke of Wellington at the Battle of Waterloo. Wellington was known as the Iron Duke and later became Prime Minister.

## **2.4 The Victorian Age**

In 1837, Queen Victoria became queen of the UK at the age of 18. She reigned until 1901, almost 64 years. At the date of writing (2013) this is the longest reign of any British monarch. Her reign is known as the Victorian Age. It was a time when Britain increased in power and influence abroad. Within the UK, the middle classes became increasingly significant and a number of reformers led moves to improve conditions of life for the poor.

### **2.4.1 The British Empire**

During the Victorian period, the British Empire grew to cover all of India, Australia and large parts of Africa. It became the largest empire the world has ever seen, with an estimated population of more than 400 million people.

Many people were encouraged to leave the UK to settle overseas. Between 1853 and 1913, as many as 13 million British citizens left the country. People continued to come to Britain from other parts of the world. For example, between 1870 and 1914, around 120, 000 Russian and Polish Jews came to Britain to escape persecution. Many settled in London's East End and in Manchester and Leeds. People from the Empire, including India and Africa, also came to Britain to live, work and study.

### **2.4.2 Trade and industry**

Britain continued to be a great trading nation. The government began to promote policies of free trade, abolishing a number of taxes on imported goods. One example of this was the repealing of the Corn Laws in 1846. These had prevented the import

of cheap grain. The reforms helped the development of the British industry, because raw materials could now be imported cheaply.

Working conditions in factories gradually became better. In 1847, the number of hours that women and children could work was limited by law to 10 hours per day. Better housing began to be built for workers.

Transport links also improved, enabling goods and people to move more easily around the country. Just before Victoria came to the throne, the father and son George and Robert Stephenson pioneered the railway engine and a major expansion of the railways took place in the Victorian period. Railways were built throughout the Empire. There were also great advances in other areas, such as the building of bridges by engineers such as Isambard Kingdom Brunel.

British industry led the world in the 19th century. The UK produced more than half of the world's iron, coal and cotton cloth. The UK also became a centre for financial services, including insurance and banking. In 1851, the Great Exhibition opened in Hyde Park in the Crystal Palace, a huge building made of steel and glass. Exhibits ranged from huge machines to handmade goods. Countries from all over the world showed their goods but most of the objects were made in Britain.

### **2.4.3 The Crimean War**

From 1853 to 1856, Britain fought with Turkey and France against Russia in the Crimean War. It was the first war to be extensively covered by the media through news stories and photographs. The conditions were very poor and many soldiers died from illnesses they caught in the hospitals, rather than from war wounds. Queen Victoria introduced the Victoria Cross medal during this war. It honours acts of valour by soldiers.

## **2.5 The 20th century**

### **2.5.1 The First World War**

The early 20th century was a time of optimism in Britain. The nation, with its expansive Empire, well-admired navy, thriving industry and strong political institutions, was what is now known as a global «superpower». It was also a time of

social progress. Financial help for the unemployed, old-age pensions and free school meals were just a few of the important measures introduced. Various laws were passed to improve safety in the workplace; town planning rules were tightened to prevent the further development of slums; and better support was given to mothers and their children after divorce or separation. Local government became more democratic and a salary for members of Parliament (MPs) was introduced for the first time, making it easier for more people to take part in public life.

This era of optimism and progress was cut short when war broke out between several European nations. On 28 June 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria was assassinated. This set off a chain of events leading to the First World War (1914-18). But while the assassination provided the trigger for war, other factors — such as a growing sense of nationalism in many European states; increasing militarism; imperialism; and the division of the major European powers into two camps — all set the conditions for war.

The conflict was centred in Europe, but it was a global war involving nations from around the world. Britain was part of the Allied Powers, which included (amongst others) France, Russia, Japan, Belgium, Serbia — and later, Greece, Italy, Romania and the United States. The whole of the British Empire was involved in the conflict, for example, more than a million Indians fought on behalf of Britain in lots of different countries, and around 40, 000 were killed. Men from the West Indies, Africa, Australia, New Zealand and Canada also fought with the British. The Allies fought against the Central Powers — mainly Germany, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the Ottoman Empire and later Bulgaria. Millions of people were killed or wounded, with more than 2 million British casualties. One battle, the British attack of the Somme in July 1916, resulted in about 60,000 British casualties on the first day alone.

### **2.5.2 The inter-war period**

In the 1920s, many people's living conditions got better. There were improvements in public housing and new homes were built in many towns and cities. However, in

1929, the world entered the «Great Depression» and some parts of the UK suffered mass unemployment. The effects of the depression of the 1930s were felt differently in different parts of the UK. The traditional heavy industries such as shipbuilding were badly affected but new industries, including the automobile and aviation industries, developed. As prices generally fell, those in work had more money to spend. Car ownership doubled from 1 million to 2 million between 1930 and 1939. In addition, many new houses were built. It was also a time of cultural blossoming, with writers such as Graham Greene and Evelyn Waugh prominent. The economist John Maynard Keynes published influential new theories of economics. The BBC started radio broadcasts in 1922 and began the world's first regular television service in 1936.

### **2.5.3 The Second World War**

Adolf Hitler came to power in Germany in 1933. He believed that the conditions imposed on Germany by the Allies after the First World War were unfair; he also wanted to conquer more land for the German people. He set about renegotiating treaties, building up arms, and testing Germany's military strength in nearby countries. The British government tried to avoid another war. However, when Hitler invaded Poland in 1939, Britain and France declared war in order to stop his aggression.

The war was initially fought between the Axis powers (fascist Germany and Italy and the Empire of Japan) and the Allies. The main countries on the allied side were the UK, France, Poland, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and the Union of South Africa.

Having occupied Austria and invaded Czechoslovakia, Hitler followed his invasion of Poland by taking control of Belgium and the Netherlands. Then, in 1940, German forces defeated allied troops and advanced through France. At this time of national crisis, Winston Churchill became Prime Minister and Britain's war leader.

As France fell, the British decided to evacuate British and French soldiers from France in a huge naval operation. Many civilian volunteers in small pleasure and



fishing boats from Britain helped the Navy to rescue more than 300,000 men from the beaches around Dunkirk. Although many lives and a lot of equipment were lost, the evacuation was a success and meant that Britain was better able to continue the fight against the Germans. The evacuation gave rise to the phrase «the Dunkirk spirit».

From the end of June 1940 until the German invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941, Britain and the Empire stood almost alone against Nazi Germany.

Hitler wanted to invade Britain, but before sending in troops, Germany needed to control the air campaign against Britain, but the British resisted with their fighter planes and eventually won the crucial aerial battle against the Germans, called «the Battle of Britain», in the summer of 1940. The most important planes used by the Royal Air Force in the Battle of Britain were the Spitfire and the Hurricane — which were designed and built in Britain. Despite this crucial victory, the German air force was able to continue bombing London and other British cities at night-time. This was called the Blitz. Coventry was almost totally destroyed and a great deal of damage was done in other cities, especially in the East End of London. Despite the destruction, there was a strong national spirit of resistance in the UK. The phrase «the Blitz spirit» is still used today to describe Britons pulling together in the face of adversity.

At the same time as defending Britain, the British military was fighting the Axis on many other fronts. In Singapore, the Japanese defeated the British and then occupied Burma, threatening India. The United States entered the war when the Japanese bombed its naval base at Pearl Harbor in December 1941.

That same year, Hitler attempted the largest invasion in history by attacking the Soviet Union. It was a fierce conflict, with huge losses on both sides. German forces were ultimately repelled by the Soviets, and the damage they sustained proved to be a pivotal point in the war.

The allied forces gradually gained the upper hand, winning significant victories in North Africa and Italy. German losses in the Soviet Union, combined with the support of the Americans, meant that the Allies were eventually strong enough to

attack Hitler's forces in Western Europe. On 6 June 1944, allied forces landed in Normandy (this event is often referred to as «D-Day»). Following victory on the beaches of Normandy, the allied forces pressed on through France and eventually into Germany. The Allies comprehensively defeated Germany in May 1945.

The war against Japan ended in August 1945 when the United States dropped its newly developed atom bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Scientists led by Ernest Rutherford, working at Manchester and then Cambridge University, were the first to «split the atom» and took part in the Manhattan Project in the United States, which developed the atomic bomb. The war was finally over.

## **2.6 Britain since 1945**

### **2.6.1 The welfare state**

Although the UK had won the war, the country was exhausted economically and the people wanted change. During the war, there had been significant reforms to the educational system and people now looked for wider social reforms.

In 1945 the British people elected a Labour government. The new Prime Minister was Clement Attlee, who promised to introduce the welfare state outlined in the Beveridge Report. In 1948, Aneurin (Nye) Bevan, the Minister for Health, led the establishment of the National Health Service (NHS), which guaranteed a minimum standard of health care for all, free at the point of use. A national system of benefits was also introduced to provide «social security», so that the population would be protected from the «cradle to the grave». The government took into public ownership (nationalised) the railways, coal mines and gas, water and electricity supplies.

Another aspect of change was self-government for former colonies. In 1947, independence was granted to nine countries, including India, Pakistan and Ceylon (now Sri Lanka). Other colonies in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific achieved independence over the next 20 years.

The UK developed its own atomic bomb and joined the new North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), an alliance of nations set up to resist the perceived threat of invasion by the Soviet Union and its allies.

Britain had a Conservative government from 1951 to 1964. The 1950s were a period of economic recovery after the war and increasing prosperity for working people. The Prime Minister of the day, Harold Macmillan, was famous for his «wind of change» speech about decolonisation and independence for the countries of the Empire.

### **2.6.2 Social change in the 1960s**

The decade of the 1960s was a period of significant social change. It was known as the «swinging sixties». There was growth in British fashion, cinema and popular music. Two well-known pop music groups at the time were The Beatles and The Rolling Stones. People started to become better off and many bought cars and other consumer goods.

It was also a time when social laws were liberalised, for example in relation to divorce and to abortion in England, Wales and Scotland. The position of women in the workplace also improved. It was quite common at the time for employers to ask women to leave their jobs when they got married, but Parliament passed new laws giving women the right to equal pay and made it illegal for employers to discriminate against women because of their gender. The 1960s was also a time of technological progress. Britain and France developed the world's only supersonic commercial airliner, Concorde. New styles of architecture, including high-rise buildings and the use of concrete and steel, became common.

The number of people migrating from the West Indies, India, Pakistan and what is now Bangladesh fell in the late 1960s because the government passed new laws to restrict immigration to Britain. Immigrants were required to have a strong connection to Britain through birth or ancestry. Even so, during the early 1970s, Britain admitted 28,000 people of Indian origin who had been forced to leave Uganda.

### **2.6.3 Conservative government from 1979 to 1997**

Margaret Thatcher, Britain's first woman Prime Minister, led the Conservative government from 1979 to 1990. The government made structural changes to the economy through the privatisation of nationalised industries and imposed legal

controls on trade union powers. Deregulation saw a great increase in the role of the City of London as an international centre for investments, insurance and other financial services. Traditional industries, such as shipbuilding and coal mining, declined. In 1982, Argentina invaded the Falkland Islands, a British overseas territory in the South Atlantic. A naval taskforce was sent from the UK and military action led to the recovery of the islands.

John Major was Prime Minister after Mrs. Thatcher, and helped establish the Northern Ireland peace process.

#### **2.6.4 Labour government from 1997 to 2010**

In 1997 the Labour Party led by Tony Blair was elected. The Blair government introduced a Scottish Parliament and a Welsh Assembly (see page 129). The Scottish Parliament has substantial powers to legislate. The Welsh Assembly was given fewer legislative powers but considerable control over public services. In Northern Ireland, the Blair government was able to build on the Peace process, resulting in the Good Friday Agreement signed in 1998. The Northern Ireland Assembly was elected in 1999 but suspended in 2002. It was not reinstated until 2007. Most paramilitary groups in Northern Ireland have decommissioned their arms and are inactive. Gordon Brown took over as Prime Minister in 2007.

#### **2.6.5 Coalition government 2010 onwards**

In May 2010, and for the first time in the UK since February 1974, no political party won an overall majority in the General Election. The Conservative and Liberal Democrat parties formed a coalition and the leader of the Conservative Party, David Cameron, became Prime Minister.

### **3. FROM THE HISTORY OF THE UK FORMATION**

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland consists of four geographic and historical parts — England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Wales and England were united politically, administratively, and legally by the acts of union of 1536 and 1542. In 1707 Scotland joined England and Wales in forming a

single parliament for Great Britain, although the three countries had previously shared a monarch.

England is a predominant constituent unit of the United Kingdom. Despite the political, economic, and cultural legacy that has secured the perpetuation of its name, England no longer officially exists as a country. Unlike Scotland and Wales, which have their own departments of state and Cabinet ministers, and Northern Ireland, which has self-government in domestic affairs, England enjoys no separate political status within the United Kingdom. It is rare for institutions to operate for England alone. England gives the appearance of having been swallowed up in the larger mass of Great Britain since the Act of Union of 1707.

In Great Britain the county, or shire, is the principal subdivision of the country for political, administrative, judicial and other purposes. Counties are used in England and Wales but have been replaced by other administrative units in Scotland and Northern Ireland. A British county provides police and fire services, education, social welfare services, public transport, traffic regulation, consumer protection, libraries, and some highways and parks.

Before the Norman Conquest chief unit of local government in England was the shire, which had originated in the Saxon communities of the 5th century. Each shire was ruled by an ealdorman (alderman), but after the 11th century his functions were taken over by the shire-reeve, or sheriff, who was appointed by the king. By the 14th century a county court, composed of several justices of the peace, or magistrates, had developed to help the sheriff administer the county. The Local Government Act of 1888 established county councils and replaced the historic counties with new administrative counties. The act also created about 60 county boroughs; these were cities that were given county powers. The Local Government Act of 1972 reorganized the county system again and established a two-tier system of counties and districts: 47 new counties contained all urban as well as rural areas in their boundaries, and each county was subdivided into several districts, which numbered almost 300 in all. In 1986 the Greater London Council and the metropolitan county

councils of Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Tyne and Wear, West Midlands, and West Yorkshire were abolished. The functions of the Greater London Council were transferred to various authorities and boroughs of London, and those of the metropolitan county councils were transferred to the metropolitan districts. The Local Government Act enacted by Parliament in 1992 created a Local Government Commission for England. Its task was to review periodically the structure of local government to ensure that boundaries equitably reflect regional demographics. The reorganization carried out in 1996-98, created 34 two-tier constituencies (county-districts) and 46 single-tier constituencies (unitary authorities); the structure of Greater London (see the map on p. 43) and of the six metropolitan counties remained the same. Another local administrative unit is the parish, which is part of smaller boroughs and urban districts that existed prior to 1972. Of some 10,000 parishes in England, four-fifths have their own councils.

### **3.1 The UK Formation. English Expansion on the British Isles**

#### **3.1.1 Wales and Scotland.**

At the end of the 13th century — beginning of the 14th century Edward I pursued the policy of expansion by subjugating some other countries of the British Isles. Up to that time the Celts of Wales, King Arthur's descendants, had enjoyed their liberty in the mountainous regions of northern and western Wales. Edward waited for an opportunity to present itself, and taking advantage of a Celtic rebellion headed by Llewelyn entered the country with a large army, routed Llewelyn's men, killed their leader and built castles to overawe the countryside. In Caernarvon Castle just built a son was born to him, and he was proclaimed the first Prince of Wales, the arrangement of the eldest son of each English king being Prince of Wales taking its origin here. In 1284 Wales became a principality governed separately, including the north and the west of Wales; the eastern part of Wales was considered part of England.

Having had his way with Wales Edward I turned his attention to Scotland waiting for his chance, for Scotland was divided: in the Highlands Celtic tribes retained their

Gaelic language and ancient tribal customs while in the Lowlands the Saxons had gradually asserted their feudal ways. There were differences which led to quarrels and Edward had a chance to intervene posing as Lord Paramount to administer justice between the two competitors for the throne of Scotland, Bruce and Balliol. The nobles of Scotland many of whom were of Norman descent and had lands in England, did not mind as long as there was a chance to seize power under Edward's protecting wing. Edward made Balliol king, but very soon the newly-created monarch saw that he was king in name only. First, Edward made him provide money and troops for the English army and the Scottish nobles rebelled. Then Edward invaded Scotland again and captured all the main Scottish castles. His treatment of the Scots created a popular resistance movement. Finally Edward ordered Balliol to join England in hostilities against France, the way a vassal follows his lord in war. Balliol was also a vassal of the French king since he held estates in France, so he hesitated and then Edward crossed the border, besieged Berwick and brutally sacked it murdering men, women, and children. He marched in triumph through Scotland declaring it part of England.

### **3.1.2 Britain and Ireland**

British colonization of Ireland began in the Middle Ages under Henry II, but the real conquest of Ireland dates from the beginning of the 17th century, when James I of England began the systematic expropriation of land from the Irish by sending anti-Catholic Protestants from Scotland to settle in Ulster, the north-eastern region of Ireland which had always put up the greatest resistance to English rule. Fifty years later, Oliver Cromwell put down Irish rebellions with extreme ferocity. In 1690 the Irish made another attempt to resist the conquest of their country by allying themselves with the attempt of James II of England to recover his crown after the «Glorious Revolution» of 1688 had replaced him with William III. Their defeat, at the Battle of the Boyne, gave an ascendancy to the pro-British Protestants which has lasted in Ulster until the present day.

The Irish Rebellion of 1798 brought the Irish question forcibly to the attention of the British Cabinet; and William Pitt the Younger, the British prime minister, decided that the best solution was a union. The Act of Union received the royal assent on August 1, 1800, and it came into effect on January 1, 1801. Henceforth, the monarch was called the king (or queen) of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

The Irish continued to resist. By the end of the 19th century, most people in Britain favoured Home Rule for Ireland, but the Protestant Unionists in the North were sufficiently strong to prevent it. In 1916, however, the Irish rebelled once again. The uprising was put down, and the leaders were executed, but the brutal methods used by the British troops strengthened Irish resistance and led to the formation of the Irish Republican Army (IRA) which fought for five years against British occupation. This resulted, in 1921, in independence being conceded to the 26 counties of southern Ireland (which became the Republic of Eire in 1949). Elizabeth II became known as queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

## **3.2 National Symbols**

### **3.2.1 Union Jack**

The Union Flag is flown correctly when the cross of St Andrew is above that of St Patrick at the hoist (as the earlier of the two to be placed on the flag, the cross of St Andrew is entitled to the higher position) and below it at the fly; in other words, at the end next to the pole the broad white stripe goes on top.

The Union Flag, or Union Jack, is the national flag of the United Kingdom and it is so called because it embodies the emblems of the three countries united under one Sovereign — the kingdoms of England and Wales, of Scotland and of Ireland (although since 1921 only Northern Ireland has been part of the United Kingdom).

History and design. The term Union Jack possibly dates from Queen Anne's time (reigned 1702-14), but its origin is uncertain. It may come from the «jack-et» of the English or Scottish soldiers; or from the name of James I who originated the first union in 1603, in either its Latin or French form Jacobus or Jacques; or, as «jack» once meant small, the name may be derived from a royal proclamation issued by



Charles II that the Union Flag should be flown only by ships of the Royal Navy as a jack, (a small flag at the bowsprit).

The flag consists of three heraldic crosses:

1. The cross of St George: patron saint of England since the 1270's — a red cross on a white ground. It was the national flag of England until James I succeeded to the throne in 1603, after which it was combined in 1606 with;

2. The cross saltire of St Andrew: patron saint of Scotland — a diagonal white cross on a blue ground;

3. The cross saltire of St Patrick: patron saint of Ireland — a diagonal red cross on a white ground. This was combined with the previous Union Flag of St George and St Andrew, after the Act of Union of Ireland with England (and Wales) and Scotland on 1 January 1801, to create the Union Flag that has been flown ever since.

The Welsh dragon does not appear on the Union Flag. This is because when the first Union Flag was created in 1606, the Principality of Wales by that time was already united with England and was no longer a separate principality.

The Union Flag was originally a royal flag (when the present design was made official in 1801, it was ordered to be flown on all the King's forts and castles, but not elsewhere); it is today flown above Buckingham Palace and Sandringham as well as at Windsor Castle, when the Queen is not in residence. The Union Flag is also flown over government buildings on flag days.

### **3.2.2 The Royal Coat of Arms**

In the official coat of arms the shield shows the various royal emblems of different parts of the United Kingdom: the three lions of England in the first and fourth quarters, the lion of Scotland in the second and the harp of Ireland in the third. It is surrounded by a garter bearing the motto *Honte soit qui mal y pense* (Evil to him who evil thinks), which symbolizes the Order of the Garter, an ancient order of knighthood of which the Queen is Sovereign. The shield is supported by the English lion and Scottish unicorn and is surmounted by the Royal crown. Below it appears the motto of the Sovereign, *Dieu et mon droit* (God and my right). The plant badges of

the United Kingdom — rose, thistle and shamrock — are often displayed beneath the shield.

The function of the Royal Coat of Arms is to identify the person who is Head of State: in respect of the United Kingdom, the royal arms are borne only by the Sovereign. They are used in many ways in connection with the administration and government of the country, for instance on coins, in churches and on public buildings.

The Royal Coat of Arms of the United Kingdom have evolved over many years and reflect the history of the Monarchy and of the country — symbols representing England, Scotland and Ireland, the Sovereign's motto and the lion and the unicorn.

The special position of Wales as a Principality was recognized by the creation of the Prince of Wales long before the incorporation of the quarterings for Scotland and Ireland in the Royal Arms. The arms of the Prince of Wales show the arms of the ancient Principality in the centre as well as these quarterings.

### **3.2.3 British National Anthem**

God Save the King was a patriotic song first publicly performed in London in 1745, which came to be referred to as the National Anthem from the beginning of the 19th century. The words and tune are anonymous, and may date back to the 17th century.

There is no authorized version of the National Anthem as the words are a matter of tradition. The words used are those sung in 1745, substituting «Queen» for «King» where appropriate. On official occasions, only the first verse is usually sung, as follows:

God save our gracious Queen!

Long live our noble Queen!

God save the Queen!

Send her victorious,

Happy and glorious,

Long to reign over us,

God save the Queen.

### **3.2.4 Values and Principles of the UK**

British society is founded on fundamental values and principles which all those living in the UK should respect and support. These values are reflected in the responsibilities, rights and privileges of being a British citizen or permanent resident of the UK. They are based on history and traditions and are protected by law, customs and expectations. There is no place in British society for extremism or intolerance.

The fundamental principles of British life include:

- Democracy
- The rule of law
- Individual liberty
- Tolerance of those with different faiths and beliefs
- Participation in community life.

### **3.3 National Holidays and Celebrations**

There are only six public holidays a year in Great Britain, that is days on which people need not go into work.

They are: Christmas Day, Boxing Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, Spring Bank Holiday and Late Summer Bank Holiday (days on which banks are closed). In Scotland, New Year's Day is also a public holiday. It's called Hogmanay there. Most of these holidays are of religious origin, though it would be right to say that for the great part of population they have long lost their religious significance and are simply days on which people relax, eat, drink and make merry. All the public holidays, except Christmas Day and Boxing Day observed on December 25th and 26th respectively, are movable, that is they do not fall on the same day each year. Good Friday and Easter Monday depend on Easter Sunday which falls on the first Sunday after a full moon or after March 21st. The Spring Bank Holiday falls on the last Monday of May or on the first Monday of June, while the Late Summer Bank Holiday comes on the last Monday in August or on the first Monday in September,

depending on which of the Mondays is nearer to June 1st and September 1st respectively.

Besides public holidays, there are other festivals, anniversaries and simply days, for example Pancake Day and Bonfire Night on which certain traditions are observed, but unless they fall on a Sunday, they are ordinary working days.

## **4. LARGE CITIES**

### **4.1 London**

London is the capital city of England and the United Kingdom. It is the most populous city in the United Kingdom, with a metropolitan area of over 13 million inhabitants. Standing on the River Thames, London has been a major settlement for two millennia, its history going back to its founding by the Romans, who named it Londinium. London's ancient core, the City of London, largely retains its 2.9 km<sup>2</sup> mediaeval boundaries and in 2011 had a resident population of 7,375; making it the smallest city in England. Since at least the 19th century, the term London has also referred to the metropolis developed around this core. The bulk of this conurbation forms the Greater London administrative area (coterminous with the London region), governed by the Mayor of London and the London Assembly.

London is a leading global city, with strengths in the arts, commerce, education, entertainment, fashion, finance, healthcare, media, professional services, research and development, tourism, and transport. It is one of the world's leading financial centres and has the fifth-or sixth-largest metropolitan area GDP in the world depending on measurement. London is a world cultural capital. It is the world's most-visited city as measured by international arrivals and has the world's largest city airport system measured by passenger traffic. London's 43 universities form the largest concentration of higher education institutes in Europe. In 2012, London became the first city to host the modern Summer Olympic Games three times.

London contains four World Heritage Sites: the Tower of London; Kew Gardens; the site comprising the Palace of Westminster, Westminster Abbey, and St

Margaret's Church; and the historic settlement of Greenwich (in which the Royal Observatory, Greenwich marks the Prime Meridian, 0° longitude, and GMT). Other famous landmarks include Buckingham Palace, the London Eye, Piccadilly Circus, St Paul's Cathedral, Tower Bridge, Trafalgar Square, and The Shard. London is home to numerous museums, galleries, libraries, sporting events and other cultural institutions, including the British Museum, National Gallery, Tate Modern, British Library and 40 West End theatres. The London Underground is the oldest underground railway network in the world. Today we feature the city of London, capital of the United Kingdom. It is situated in south-eastern England at the head of the River Thames estuary. Settled by the Romans as an important shipping point for crops and minerals, it gradually developed into the wealthy capital of a thriving industrial and agricultural nation. London straddles the River Thames, 80 km upriver from its mouth at the Nore, where the English Channel joins the North Sea. Most of London, including its central districts and the majority of its famous landmarks, lies to the north of the river. The original settlement that gave London its name was the Roman fort of Londinium, founded in the first century AD. The City of London is on the site where this stood, and the description of the Roman town as «a busy emporium for trade and traders» by the Roman historian Tacitus seems equally apt today. St Paul's Cathedral stands on the western edge of the City, and the Tower of London, the Norman fortress built by William the Conqueror to defend his new lands late in the 11th century (listed by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site), lies to the south-east. It is the current repository of the Crown Jewels.

**Westminster** is now the political centre of London. In the 11th century King Edward the Confessor decided to build a great abbey church there. There are many royal tombs in the Abbey, like the tomb of Edward the Confessor himself, and memorials to famous men and women. The most popular ones are those to writers, poets and musicians in the Poet's Corner. William the Conqueror was crowned there, and since then all the coronations have taken place in the Abbey.

During the reign of Edward the Confessor the Palace of Westminster was built, too. It was the royal residence and also the country's main court. The Parliament met here since the 16th till the 19th century. The present Houses of Parliament were built after the fire in the Palace of Westminster in 1834. There are two houses in the Parliament: the House of Lords and the House of Commons. St. Stephen's Tower of the Houses of Parliament contains the famous Big Ben.

**Buckingham Palace** is the Queen's official London residence. Londoners usually watch the Changing of the Guards in the forecourt of the palace. It lasts about 30 minutes.

**St Paul's Cathedral** is Sir Christopher Wren's masterpiece. It was built since 1675 until 1709. It is crowned with a huge dome. Inside the dome there is the famous Whispering Gallery. There are many memorials in the Cathedral, including memorials to Wellington and Nelson.

**The Tower** of London is associated with many important events in the British history. It has been a fortress, a palace, a prison, a mint. The Tower of London is famous for its prisoners, like Sir Thomas More and Guy Fawkes. The White Tower was built by William the Conqueror to protect the city. The Tower is guarded by «Beefeaters», the Yeomen Guards.

**The Tower Bridge**, near the Tower of London, may be London's most impressive landmark. The bridge is over a hundred years old and can be raised to let ships pass through. The two towers and the walkway that connects them give visitors a great view of London.

**The Houses of Parliament** are located in the city of Westminster alongside the River Thames. Both the House of Commons and the House of Lords hold their meetings in the palace. Big Ben, the clock tower's famous bell, has been chiming since the middle of the 19th century.

The city of London is well known for its large and beautiful parks. **Hyde Park** is the largest of London's royal parks. It is about 2km long and over 1 km wide. Hyde Park is a popular area for free time activities, including jogging, running and horse

riding. Speaker's Corner, near the north-eastern entrance of Hyde Park is a place where Londoners gather and listen to people who talk about all kinds of things. The Serpentine is a large artificial lake where people can go swimming or rowing. London has many other parks, including St. James's Park, with a great view of Buckingham Palace, and Green Park.

**Greenwich** is a famous district in the eastern part of London. Tourists either take a Thames boat ride there or go by the Docklands Light Railway. Greenwich is famous for British naval history. The National Maritime Museum shows exhibits from a time when Britain was the world's biggest sea power.

**London Eye** is a giant Ferris wheel which rises 135 m high on the south bank of the River Thames. It was built as a part of London's millennium celebrations. Each egg-shaped cabin can take up to 25 passengers. A complete turn of the wheel takes 30 minutes.

**Madame Tussaud's** is the most famous museum of wax figures. It was opened in 1835. Thousands of famous people, artists, writers, politicians and other celebrities have been created in wax. During the tourist season waiting lines can be very long.

**Trafalgar Square** is the largest square in London. It has been a central meeting place since the Middle Ages. In the centre is Nelson's Column, built in honour of Admiral Nelson, who defeated the French fleet at Trafalgar in 1805.

**Piccadilly Circus** is busy plaza in the heart of London. It lies at the junction of five major streets. The place is famous for its colourful billboards, a fountain and a statue of Eros.

**Covent Garden** is the former fruit and vegetable market. It is always a crowded place, especially during weekends and in the summertime. Today it is known for its open-air cafes, restaurants, pubs and street performers.

**Kensington Gardens** are the gardens east of Hyde Park which cover an area of over 100 ha. Their most famous attraction is Kensington Palace, the former home of Princess Diana. One of the park's playgrounds has a statue of Peter Pan.

**Globe Theatre** is London's most famous theatre. Originally built at the end of the 16th century, it was reconstructed in 1997. It is only about 200 metres from its original site.

**Windsor Castle** is one of the royal family's official residences. It is the largest inhabited castle in the world. It lies about 30 km west of London. In the course of history it has been changed several times.

**The Royal Observatory** has a planetarium and a museum with a display of astronomical and navigational instruments. The prime meridian of the world goes through the observatory. It divides the world into an eastern and western hemisphere.

London is noted for its museums and art galleries. Among them are the National Gallery, the National Portrait Gallery, the Tate, the Museum of London, the Museum of Moving Image, and many others.

## **4.2 Edinburgh**

Edinburgh is the capital of Scotland and it is located in central eastern Scotland, near the Firth of Forth, close to the North Sea. Thanks to its spectacular rocks, rustic buildings and a huge collection of medieval and classic architecture, including numerous stone decorations, it is often considered one of the most lively cities in Europe. Scottish people called it Auld Reekie, Edina, Athens of the North and Britain's Other Eye.

Edinburgh is not only one of the most beautiful cities in Europe, it is a city with a fantastic position. The view falls on all sides — green hills, the hint of the blue sea, the silhouettes of the buildings and the red cliffs. It is a city that calls you to explore it by foot — narrow streets, passageways, stairs and hidden church yards on every step will pull you away from the main streets.

The city is one of the most popular tourist destinations in the UK. It is the capital of Scotland and home to many tourist attractions. A visit here will be well worth it, considering the numerous things you can do and see. Most of the structures in the Old Town have remained in their original form over the years. Charming medieval relics are plenty in this section of the city. In contrast, orderly Georgian terraces line the



streets of the New Town. The general urban scenery is a blend of ancient structures and modern architecture, which gives the city a unique character. In 1995, the Old Town was listed as a UNESCO Heritage Site. With year round festivals, a throbbing nightlife and an entertaining arts scene, Edinburgh never falls short of interesting travel ventures for tourists.

Edinburgh is a city of literature. It was the first city to be called the UNESCO city of Literature. Visit the National Library of Scotland, the Museum of Writers, the Scottish Center of Story Telling, the Library of Poetry and many other libraries. The list of famous Scottish authors is very long, just choose your favorite one and enjoy researching everything linked to that person: Arthur Conan Doyle, J.K. Rowling, Robert Fergusson, Robert Burns, Walter Scott, Robert Louis Stevenson, Allan Ramsay, Alexander McCall Smith, Ian Rankin, Liz Lochhead, James Kelman, Alasdair Grey, Dorothy Dunnett, Muriel Spark, Lewis Grassie Gibbon, Neil M. Gunn, John Buchan, Hugh MacDiarmid and many others.

Edinburgh is a beautiful city filled with stunning geology. Its diverse landscape is worth seeing, as it transforms from the volcanic Pentland Hills in the south, to the seaside resort of Portobello in the East. To get a birds-eye view of the city, you can scale Arthur's Seat, an extinct volcano, which is one of the most popular attractions.

**Edinburgh Castle** has changed its owners many times; it was captured by the English and Scottish. When you arrive you must, visit St. Margaret's chapel — the oldest part in the castles complex and it is likely the oldest building that can be found in Edinburgh; it was built presumably around 1130. in the honour of queen Margaret who lived in the 11th century, and also boasts two beautiful rustic chandeliers that date respectively from 1695 and 1735. Edinburgh Castle is one of the attractions that you simply must see. It is the most visited tourist attraction in Scotland.

**The Edinburgh international festival** is more than a festival. It is an international festival, that offers you various artist performances (classical music, opera, ballet, drama). The Summer Edinburgh Festival traditionally is held during three weeks in August every year, and Edinburgh attract visitors from all around the world. You can

also plan a visit during the Fringe Festival, where you will see comedy performances, drama and artists. You can also visit the Book Festival, Jazz Festival and TV Festival, as well as others. Yes, Scottish folks love a good festival!

### **4.3 Glasgow**

Glasgow is the largest city of Scotland, almost 1 million of people live there. It is situated 50 miles from Edinburgh near the western coast of Scotland.

The city was founded in the 6th century, for a long time it was not more than a cluster of cottages built on the river Clyde. Then the city began to develop, there was built the second university in Scotland, and it made Glasgow an important educational centre. When America was discovered it led to the increasing import of tobacco, sugar, cotton, and a shipbuilding industry also began to grow. Soon Glasgow was one of the richest and most successful cities in Britain.

However, in the 20th century, things went wrong with the city. The city's heavy industry was destroyed under depression of the 1930's and many people lost their job.

Glasgow and its closest industrial towns stand on the Lancashire coal field. It dominates the whole region and every day many people go there to work. A great number of manufacturing industries is centred there. In the 18th century Glasgow was already a great port of manufacturing centre. Shipbuilding, iron, steel, machinery, chemicals, textile, clothing, marine and aero engines, road vehicles and machine tools are the leading industries in Glasgow.

Glasgow is also a cultural centre. There are many interesting museums, art galleries. The People's Palace tells about the history of Glasgow, the Museum of Comparative Religion — explores the world's different faiths through art; Glasgow Cathedral is a wonderful example of Gothic architecture.

People of Glasgow are very friendly and sociable. The immigrants of previous centuries from Ireland and Highland have added their charm and wit to the city.

### **4.4 Liverpool**

Liverpool is a popular city thanks to its rich history, plentiful job opportunities & low cost of living. It's the sixth largest city in the United Kingdom. Located in North West England, it sits within the metropolitan county of Merseyside.

Liverpool's status as a port city has contributed to its diverse population. The city is home to the oldest Black African community in the country and the oldest Chinese community in Europe.

Liverpool is not only famous for The Beatles, world-class football, culture and stunning cathedrals but also its dining scene, nightlife and more.

Known for its rich cultural heritage, this city has tons of museums and galleries from the Tate Liverpool to the Merseyside Maritime Museum to the World Museum to Museum of Liverpool to The Beatles Story and so many more. It is home to beautiful architecture, stunning waterfronts, wonderful parks and much more. Some of the most impressive landmarks in Liverpool include the Albert Dock, the Liverpool Cathedral, and the Royal Liver Building, as well as some of its charming streets like Bold Street and Mathew Street.

#### **4.5 Cardiff**

Cardiff is a unique capital that offers the full range of infrastructure expected of any modern capital while at the same time boasting an enviable quality of life. Cardiff's residents believe the city is one of Europe's best places to live (ranked as Europe's third best capital city to live) and work. For a capital city, Cardiff is compact and manageable. Getting around is quick and easy and you can access all the facilities expected of any modern capital without the stresses and strains of life in an over-populated concrete jungle. Living and working in Cardiff makes a healthy work-life balance both achievable and enjoyable.

Cardiff is a university city boasting four outstanding local institutions.

Cardiff is defined by its diversity and multiculturalism and has an ethnically diverse population due to its past trading connections, post-war immigration and the large numbers of foreign students who attend university in the city.

Cardiff is home to world-class venues and international events; the 75,000 capacity Millennium Stadium is recognised across the world and the Wales Millennium Centre has established a worldwide reputation as an iconic arts and cultural destination.

#### **4.6 Oxford**

Oxford was founded in the 9th century when Alfred the Great created a network of fortified towns called burhs across his kingdom. One of them was at Oxford. Oxford is first mentioned in 911 in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

According to legend, Oxford University was founded in 872 when Alfred the Great happened to meet some monks there and had a scholarly debate that lasted several days. In reality, it grew up in the 12th century when famous teachers began to lecture there and groups of students came to live and study in the town.

But Oxford was a fortress as well as a town. In the event of war with the Danes all the men from the area were to gather inside the burhs. However this strategy was not entirely successful. In 1009 the Danes burned Oxford. However Oxford was soon rebuilt. In 1013 the Danish king claimed the throne of England. He invaded England and went to Oxford. In 1018 a conference was held in Oxford to decide who would be the king of England.

By the time of the Norman Conquest, there were said to be about 1,000 houses in Oxford, which meant it probably had a population of around 5,000. By the standards of the time, it was a large and important town (even London only had about 18,000 inhabitants). Oxford was the 6th largest town in England. Oxford probably reached its zenith at that time. About 1072 the Normans built a castle at Oxford. In the 12th and 13th centuries Oxford was a manufacturing town. It was noted for cloth and leather. But in the 14th and 15th centuries manufacturing declined. Oxford came to depend on the students. It became a town of brewers, butchers, bakers, tailors, shoemakers, coopers, carpenters and blacksmiths. In the later Middle Ages Oxford declined in importance.

In the 16th century Oxford declined further in terms of national importance, though it remained a fairly large town by the standards of the time. Oxford was economically

dependent on the university. The students provided a large market for beer, food, clothes and other goods.

Today the main industries are still car manufacturing and making vehicle parts and publishing. Today the population of Oxford is 121,000.

Oxford is one of the most culturally diverse cities in the UK, with a vibrant and cosmopolitan community. Home to two major universities, it has some 40,000 students, almost a quarter of the city's population, who come from all over the world.

In Oxford, you are never far away from green spaces. There are parks, gardens and meadows throughout the city, which is also surrounded by rolling countryside. The rivers running through the city give rise to Oxford's famous traditions of rowing and punting, with miles of scenic waterways to enjoy.

#### **4.7 Stratford-upon-Avon**

Stratford-upon-Avon is a quiet English market town famous as the birthplace of William Shakespeare. It is one of the oldest towns in England. It lies in the green valley of the River Avon. High-peaked Old English-style houses line its narrow streets. It is the largest town in the district of Stratford-upon-Avon, which has a population of 105,800.

The Stratford-upon-Avon district, Warwickshire, Central England, is about 90 miles northwest of London. The town's industries include textile production. A weekly market has been held there since 1196. The birthplace of William Shakespeare, Stratford-upon-Avon derives most of its income from tourism. Visitors see Shakespeare's birthplace, the site of his retirement home, his tomb, and the houses once occupied by his daughter and wife, Anne Hathaway. Other notable landmarks are a 15th-century bridge, the Royal Shakespeare Theatre (rebuilt in 1932), the Swan Theatre (opened 1986) and several museums. Annual Shakespearean festivals have taken place there since 1879. The town has wide pleasant streets and numerous half-timbered Tudor houses, including the one, on Henley Street, in which Shakespeare was born. Nearby, at Shottery, is the cottage of his wife. On the river is the Shakespeare Center, which includes a library and art gallery and the Royal

Shakespeare Theatre where his plays are performed during an annual festival that originated in 1769. The playwright's grave is in the 12th-century Church of the Holy Trinity.

The house where Shakespeare probably was born has been kept as a memorial. It is always open to visitors.

## **5. BRITISH INDUSTRY**

### **5.1 Historical Survey**

Just over 200 years ago the first Industrial Revolution began in Britain with such epoch-making inventions as the steam engine and the first machinery for weaving textiles. Later, British inventors and engineers gave the world the first railways, steamships, pneumatic tyres, miners' safety lamps, mechanical reapers, matches and many other things that are now familiar everywhere.

Shropshire (a county in the Midlands) is considered to be a birthplace of the Industrial Revolution. Iron was first made there. This growth was fed by coal and steam power.

South Wales with its wealth of coal and iron was one of the springboards of the Industrial Revolution in the second half of the 18th century. English speaking businessmen and workers settled there in large numbers. New machines left many workers out of work. Those who had work toiled for 16 hours a day. Children began to work at six or eight years of age and worked for 12 hours a day. The workers joined Trade Unions to fight for their rights. They formed their demands into a Bill and called it People's Charter. In 1833 the Charter was read to the House of Commons in the Parliament, but the members of the Parliament rejected it. The Charter was sent to industrial cities of the country. The workers held meetings there, and later in 1839, thousands of workers signed the Charter. There were battles in the streets, strikes all over the country. Many workers were arrested and sent to prisons.

Thus the first organized workers' movement began, known as Chartism. Chartism was the first national political movement of the working class of Great Britain.

During the Industrial Revolution many people moved from the country to the towns, there they lived in dirty and overcrowded conditions. They worked long hours for very little money. Even small children had to work in factories and mines. Many writers, in particular Charles Dickens, wrote about their misery.

Nowadays Britain lives by industry and trade. Over 57 million people provide one of the world's biggest markets for food and raw materials. In return, British manufactured goods of every kind are sent all over the world. They make up about an eighth of 'the world's total exports of manufactures. Invisible exports — shipping, insurance, aviation, tourism, etc. — earn nearly as much as commodity exports.

Today, in a new age of modern technology, Britain has made important advances in such new industries as electronics and telecommunications equipment, in aircraft and aircraft engines, in plastics and synthetic materials, radio-isotopes and new drugs — all major exports. At the same time Britain has harnessed traditional craftsmanship to modern methods to continue to produce those items for which she is justly famous, such as pottery, glassware, woolen and leather goods.

Engineering industries produce many leading exports: electrical machinery, cars, tractors and commercial vehicles, bicycles and precision instruments of many kinds which make up nearly half the goods exported.

Mechanical engineering is an important source of export earning. Major products include machine tools, agricultural tractors and machinery, construction mining equipment and process plant for large-scale industries such as iron and steel manufacture, oil refining and nuclear power generation.

Britain is an important manufacturer and exporter of motor and railway vehicles and related components and equipment, chemical and office equipment.

The British aerospace industry is one of the largest in the Western world, its products including civil and military aircrafts, helicopters, aero-engines, guided weapon and satellites. Rolls-Royce is one of the world's three leading aero engine manufacturers, and British Aerospace has been the main contractor for all the telecommunications satellite projects of the European Space Agency.

Electronic data-processing equipment has been a growth industry. Britain has originated many advances in microelectronics. British companies are strongly involved in the development of electronic control equipment. Britain is famous in the world for its general shipbuilding.

Over the last decade growth has been most notable in chemical and electrical, electronic and instrument engineering. Productivity in long-established industries such as steel manufacture and vehicle building has been increased as a result of modernization. The use of advanced technology, especially microelectronics, is steadily increasing in many industries.

The chemical industry is the third largest in Europe and the fifth largest in the Western world. About 12 per cent of the world's research pharmaceuticals take place in Britain.

Britain is the world's tenth largest steel producer (by volume). Britain also has one of Europe's largest non-ferrous metal industries, and it is a major producer of specialized alloys used by the aerospace, electronic, petro-chemical and other industries. Other mineral products include glass, bricks, cement and ceramics. Britain is the world's main manufacturer of fine bone china, much of it is exported, and the world's largest exporter of china clay.

### **5.1 Southern England. East Anglia. North of England**

Historically England is divided into the following economic regions: the South Industrial and Agricultural region (the South of England), Central England or the Midlands, Lancashire, Yorkshire and Northern England.

Southern England (also called the South) is dominated by London and its suburbs, which stretch for miles around the capital into what is called «home county» Essex is one of these counties. The county of Essex is so close to London that it merges with the city on an extending band north of the Thames. This part of Essex is highly — industrialized (fans of industrial history will remember that electronics started in Essex). The South-East is the most densely populated region of England. It is only 11 per cent of the land area of the country, but a third of total population lives here.



Because of this, a large part of the region is attached to urban development: housing, factories, offices, and complex network of roads and motorways. Industry is centred in Portsmouth and Southampton.

The principal activity in the South-West is farming. Although there are some very big farms, most are small family farms with mixture of cows, sheep and cereal crops. The main emphasis is put on dairy products — milk and butter, In some places of the region conditions are ideal for rearing sheep and beef-cattle.

East Anglia is extremely flat, and it is dominated by agriculture. In medieval times, it became rich because of the wool trade. It was not affected by the Industrial Revolution, and even today there is very little heavy Industry. It was, however, the home of the agricultural revolution and is now best known as a farming region.

Central England is more often referred to by the catch-all phrase «The Midlands» (the heart of England). Birmingham is the most important city in the Midlands, one of the England's most productive regions with large industrial areas such as Black Country in the West Midlands. However, there is a lot of farming country.

North of England contains some of the wildest and loneliest parts in the country, but also some of the busiest industrial centres. The Ice Age formed many deep valleys in the counties of Cumbria and North Yorkshire, made rivers into waterfalls and left hills behind mountains. Beneath the earth is coal — the foundation of the region's industry.

There has been a fishing industry in Northumbria probably since the middle of the 13th century. Wooden ships were built for fishing and for trading and this industry grew and grew, particularly during the 18th century. By 1850 the building of iron steamships had become a major industry on the rivers of the region. One hundred years ago a quarter the world's ships were built in Northumbria. Today, this industry is disappearing.

During the 19th century the North-East of England led the world in many types of heavy industry, engineering, bridge building, industrial machinery, and for the making of all this iron and steel production.

Hereford: This is the home of the world's largest cider factory. Apples are brought from the surrounding orchards, processed by the factory and distributed all over the country.

Staffordshire: Pottery is made in this region, and the beautifully decorated Wedgwood, Minton and Spode china is collected by people all over the world. When the canals were built in the 18th century, the raw materials, such as clay, were brought to the region from the west of the country and china was exported all over the world.

Yorkshire: Sheep have been bred on the Yorkshire moors for their wool for centuries, and the streams have provided water for the mills, and for washing and preparing the wool.

Sheffield: Steel and cutlery were first manufactured in Sheffield because it was near to the raw materials and resources which are needed for the industry: forests, streams/and iron ore.

Cars are manufactured to suit all tastes and income levels. One of the most expensive and prestigious automobiles in the world is the Rolls-Royce, made in England. Motor vehicle manufacturing plants are some 50 miles north-west of London, near Oxford. Oxford and Cambridge are famous university centres, Oxford being also a car-manufacturing centre, while Cambridge includes industries which have depended to a considerable extent on university connections and orders, as diverse as instrument making, printing, and electronics.

## **5.2 Scotland. Wales. Northern Ireland**

Scotland is responding to changes in the UK and world economies to create wealth for the future.

Scotland has a reputation for invention and innovation, and for the quality of its products; in agriculture, engineering, and textiles, and in banking and commerce.

Today the Scots are learning new skills as the old heavy industries of coalmining, steel making and shipbuilding make way for modern high technology businesses;

training and retraining programmes, sponsored by government and private industry, mean the country now has a highly flexible and adaptable workforce.

Scotland benefits from the quality of its natural environment; tourism is a major industry and the food and drink sector has the country's second largest export market share, with Scotch whisky alone representing 20 per cent of export earnings.

Developing the commercial and industrial infrastructure, together with financial incentives, has helped to attract investment from overseas, principally from the United States, the European Community and Japan; as a result, the electronics industry has grown in Scotland.

The UK remains Scotland's principal market.

Scotland's economy is expanding in the high technology and services sectors, but the country remains one of the least crowded in Western Europe, with wilderness areas of international importance providing sanctuary for endangered species.

It is thought that the most important single influence on the taste of Scotch is probably the Scottish water. This is why distilleries are often situated in narrow valleys near a stream. It is one of the few industries in Britain which will be encouraged to grow in the future.

Mining had been one of the great Welsh industries for many years along with the iron and steel trades. Until a few years ago, coal was still mined here, but during the 1970s and 80s the industry was being increasingly affected by the use of alternative sources of power, such as nuclear electricity, and mining was stopped completely in the 1990s.

During the Industrial Revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries, the valleys of South Wales became the iron and steel capital of the world. The small villages, that grew up around the pits and steel works developed their own special characters. When people speak of life in the valleys they are usually thinking of a particular Welsh way of life where people and families stay very close together.

One of the biggest power-stations in the world is in the heart of a Welsh mountain. It uses neither oil nor coal to produce electricity, but the water of a large mountain lake.

The underground pumped power station is the largest in Europe and is used to produce electricity by pumping water again and again between two lakes.

Agriculture is the main occupation in the remaining ten counties in Mid-Wales and North Wales.

Of the three industrial counties in the south, Glamorgan is the biggest, with nearly one-half of the population of Wales. Its main industries are coal-mining, iron and steel, and engineering. About two-thirds of the population lives in the South Wales coastal area, where the three biggest towns are located: Swansea, Cardiff and Newport.

Belfast (Northern Ireland) is one of the youngest capital cities in the world and it has grown fast. Today the city has a population of 400,000, nearly a third of the entire population of Northern Ireland, but in the 17<sup>th</sup> century it was only a village. Then, during the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the development of industries like linen, rope-making, engineering, tobacco and sea trade doubled its size every ten years. The city is well-known for shipbuilding. It was here that the Titanic was built and sent out on the fatal voyage.

The rivers and lakes in the west of the region are heavy with fish, and the largest lake in the area, Lough Erne, holds many world fishing records.

County Down (to the south-east of the region) is one of the best farming counties in Ireland.

### **5.3 Finance. Currency**

Britain is a major financial centre, housing some of the world's leading banking, insurance, securities, shipping, commodities, futures, and other financial services and markets. Financial services are an important source of employment and overseas earnings. Business services include advertising, market research, management

consultancy, exhibition and conference facilities, computing services and auction houses.

Britain is one of the world's leading tourist destinations. The industry is Britain's second largest. Retailing is also a major employer and Britain has an advanced distribution network. An important trend in retailing is the growth of out — of-town shopping centres.

The computing services industry continues to be one of the fastest-growing sectors of the economy, and information technology is widely used in retailing and financial services.

Many companies in major industries finance their own research and run their own laboratories. Smaller companies commission research from industrial contract organizations. Industries with the highest levels of R & D spending are electronics, chemicals and aerospace.

Electronics firms are involved in developing new semiconductor materials vital for very fast computers for defense and civil applications, such as personal communications and collision warning devices. Chemicals research has led to a number of breakthroughs, including heat-resistant engineering plastics and substitutes for environmentally harmful chemicals. Pharmaceuticals is the most research-intensive part of the chemicals industry, producing several of the world's best-selling drugs, such as the ulcer treatment Zantac and beta-blockers to treat heart conditions. Pioneering achievements in aerospace include advanced radar and aircraft control systems, flight simulators and ejection seats.

Britain is involved in extensive programmes run by the European Community to strengthen the technological basis of European industry and improve its competitiveness worldwide. Over 300 British companies and other organisations are involved in EUREKA, an industry-led scheme to encourage the development of high-technology products throughout Europe.

The currency of Britain is the pound sterling, whose symbol is £, always written before the amount. Informally, a pound is sometimes called a «quid», so £20 might be expressed as «twenty quid». There are 100 pence in a pound.

The British are not very adventurous shoppers. They like reliability and buy brand-named goods wherever possible, preferably with the price clearly marked (they are not very keen on haggling over prices). It is therefore not surprising that a very high proportion of the country's shops are branches of chain stores.

Visitors from northern European countries are sometimes surprised by the shabbiness of shop-window displays, even in prosperous areas. This is not necessarily a sign of economic depression. It is just that the British do not demand art in their shop windows. In general, they have been rather slow to take on the idea that shopping might actually be fun. On the positive side, visitors are also sometimes struck by the variety of types of shop. Most shops are chain stores, but among those that are not, there is much individuality. Independent shop-owners feel no need to follow conventional ideas about what a particular shop does and doesn't sell.

In the last quarter of the 20th century supermarkets have been moving out of town, where there is lots of free parking space. As they do so, they are becoming bigger and turning into «hypermarkets» stocking a wider variety of items.

## **6. BRITISH SCIENCE**

Britain has a long tradition of research and innovation on science, technology and engineering in universities, research institutes and industry. Its record of achievement is in many ways unsurpassed; from the contribution of Isaac Newton to physics and astronomy in the 16th and 17th centuries (theory of gravitation and three laws of motion) and the inventions of Michael Faraday in the 19th century (first electric motor, generator and transformer) to more recent breakthroughs in the 20th century.

Major British scientific achievements also include such fundamental contributions as those of Boyle and Kelvin in physical sciences, Harvey on the circulation of blood, and Darwin on the theory of evolution.

British achievements in science and technology in the 20th century include fundamental contributions to modern molecular genetics through the discovery of the three-dimensional molecular structure of DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid) by Francis Crick, Maurice Wilkins and James Watson in 1953.

Further notable contributions over the past 20 years have been made by Brian Josephson in superconductivity (abnormally high electrical conductivity at low temperatures); Anthony Hewish in radio-astronomy and many other scientists.

Much pioneering work was done during the 1980s. For example, in 1985 British Antarctic Survey scientists discovered the hole in the ozone layer over the Antarctic. More recently there have been several breakthroughs in genetics research, including the identification of the gene in the Y chromosome responsible for determining sex, and the identification of other genes linked to diseases, including cystic fibrosis and a type of inherited heart disease. Gene therapy has begun on the treatment of cystic fibrosis. The world's first pig with a genetically modified heart has been bred by scientists at Cambridge University, an important milestone in breeding animals as organ donors for people. Nobel Prizes for science have been won by 70 British citizens, more than any other country except the USA.

Learned societies and independent scientific institutions play a large role in promoting the sciences in Britain, although they do very little actual research. Most pure research is conducted in the Universities, which also play an essential role in maintaining the supply of trained specialists. The learned societies play an important role in the discussion and publication of the results of research.

The past years have seen great expansion of research in human sciences, including anthropology, sociology and physiology. They include the Royal Botanical Gardens, Kew Gardens (a region of London), founded in 1759, which has the largest collection of living plants in the world. It has three research departments.

Geological Research is among the activities of the world famous Zoological Gardens in Regent's Park, London. The British Museum is the principal centre in

Britain for the study of natural sciences. It has an extensive collection of extinct and fossil animals and plants and minerals, rocks and meteorites.

In the last two decades major contributions have been made by British scientists working in universities, research institutes and industry. These have included theories on black holes and the origins of the universe; the development of monoclonal antibodies and scanning techniques for medical diagnosis; the invention of DNA profiling to identify an individual from blood and tissue specimens; and the world's first combined heart, lung and liver transplant. Research is continuing in the fields of medicine and genetics.

The traditional method of scientific publication, in which results are written up into papers and published in journals, is still the main means of communication among scientists. The leading learned societies have for long been important agencies for communicating scientific information. The most eminent of the learned societies are: the Royal Society, the Royal Society of Arts and the British Association for the Advancement of Science.

Science and technology issues are the responsibility of a Cabinet Minister, supported by the Office of Science and Technology (OST) in the Cabinet Office. The OST is headed by the Government's Chief Science Advisor and is responsible for five government-financed research councils.

The Government considers that public funding should support work in the basic sciences to advance knowledge and technological capability and provide training for scientists. Industry, however, is expected to fund the commercial application of scientific advances.

## **6.1 The Learned Societies**

### **6.1.1 The Royal Society**

The Royal Society was founded in 1660. Its present activities include the holding of scientific meetings, publication of research works, the delivery of lectures, the presentation of medals. Although an independent corporation, the Society has always had a special relationship with the government.



In 1645 during the civil war, there was some interruption of studies in both of the existing universities, Oxford and Cambridge. A small body of men decided to meet weekly in London, to study the new experimental philosophy. The great scientific advances made before 1645 were by no means widely recognized. The works of Galileo, the founder of mechanics, of Gilbert, the founder of experimental physics, and of Kepler, who first enunciated the laws governing planetary motions found no place in the teachings of the Universities.

These great and fundamental achievements and the new point of view that they represented, namely, that systematic observation and experiment were the proper means of investigating natural phenomena, had, however, their admirers. Such were the men whose meetings in London led to the foundation of the Royal Society.

The purpose of the Society was to enlarge knowledge by observations and experiment. The shortage of funds was long one of the troubles of the Society. The great interest in astronomy led to the foundation of the Observatory at Greenwich.

Isaac Newton is the greatest man in the history of the Society. Newton became the president of the Royal Society, and under him it rose rapidly in numbers, and in reputation.

Another president of note was Joseph Bank (1743-1820) who took interest in botany. He took part in the first voyage of Captain Cook (1728-1779), which was undertaken at the instance of the Royal Society to observe the transit of Venus and to carry on geographical research. He also participated in many other expeditions. Under Bank the Society achieved a scientific and social prominence throughout Europe. He was also responsible for the foundation of Kew Gardens.

In the period from 1860 until the outbreak of the war in 1914, the Royal Society increased in activity and usefulness. The Fellowship names in both the physical and biological sciences. Men like Maxwell, Kelvin, Rayleigh, Darwin, Rutherford took an interested part in the life of the Society and actively supported its undertakings.

From the beginning the Royal Society has kept in close touch with scientific work carried out in other countries. Many scientists of the world fame were elected to the

Royal Society. The non-British who belonged to the Society were called Foreign Members, the term «Fellows» being restricted, as it is today, to British nationals. The number of Foreign Members constitutes less than a ninth of that of the Fellows. It is clear that they are men of the greatest distinction. Nearly one-half of them are Nobel Prize winners. The Royal Society stands for international cooperation in science. For 300 years the Society has always tried to further the friendly cooperation of learned men throughout the world.

### **6.1.2 The Royal Society of Arts**

It was founded in 1754. Its principal object has been to promote the progress of all departments of science. It has a character at once scientific, artistic, technical, industrial and commercial. The Society regularly holds meetings for the delivery of lectures and publishes a monthly journal.

### **6.1.3. The British Association**

It was founded in 1831 to promote general interest in science and its application. One of its chief activities is the annual meeting, attended by many young students as well as by eminent scientists. Its sections cover the whole range of pure and applied sciences and there is a division for studying the social and international relations of science. In addition to the annual meeting and in order to extend its influence, the Association plans continuous activities throughout the year, in particular special lectures, exhibitions and discussions, and the organization of conferences.

## **6.2 Famous Scientists**

### **6.2.1 Isaac Newton**

Sir Isaac Newton contributed significantly to the field of science over his lifetime. He invented calculus and provided a clear understanding of optics. But his most significant work had to do with forces, and specifically with the development of a universal law of gravitation and his laws of motion».

Isaac Newton was born on Christmas Day to a poor farming family in Woolsthorpe, England, in 1642. Isaac Newton arrived in the world only a few months after his father, Isaac Newton Sr, had died. «The boy expected to live managing the

farm in the place of the father he had never known», wrote James Gleick in «Isaac Newton». However, when it became clear a farming life was not for him, Newton attended Trinity College in Cambridge, England. «He did not know what he wanted to be or do, but it was not tend sheep or follow the plough and the dung cart», wrote Gleick. While there, he took an interest in mathematics, optics, physics, and astronomy. After his graduation, he began to teach at the college and was appointed as the second Lucasian Chair there. Today, the chair is considered the most renowned academic chair in the world, held by the likes of Charles Babbage and Stephen Hawking. In 1689, Newton was elected as a member of parliament for the university. In 1703, he was elected as president of the Royal Society, a fellowship of scientists that still exists today. He was knighted by Queen Anne in 1705. He never married.

Newton's most famous work came with the publication of his «Philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica» («Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy»), generally called Principia. In it, he determined the three laws of motion for the universe.

Newton calculated the universal law of gravitation. The law helped scientists understand more about the motions of planets in the solar system, and of the moon around Earth.

### **6.2.2 Ernest Rutherford**

Ernest Rutherford is called the Newton of atomic physics.

He was recognized by his fellow scientists as a man of colossal energy and tireless enthusiasm. As he himself remarked he lived in the «heroic age of physics». Ernest Rutherford was born in New Zealand. He graduated from New Zealand University and entered Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1919 he was appointed a Professor of experimental physics in the University of Cambridge. E. Rutherford's early researches concerned electromagnetic waves. His experiments led him to develop a magnetic detector, which at that time was the best detector of electromagnetic waves. His detector was later used by Marconi, one of the inventors of the radio, in his well — known investigations. E. Rutherford's big triumph began when he turned his

attention to radioactivity. His brilliant researches established the existence and nature of radioactive transformations. He also investigated the electrical structure of matter and the nuclear nature of atom. He was one of the founders of the atomic theory of physics and creators of the first atomic model. He stated that the atom consisted of a nucleus around which electrons revolved in orbits. His works didn't lose their importance till nowadays.

### **6.2.3 Michael Faraday**

Michael Faraday is one of the great scientists in the history of man's work in electricity. He was born in a small village near London on September 11, 1791, in a poor family. His family lived from hand to mouth. At the age of thirteen Michael went to work in a bookbinder's shop, because he didn't have much schooling. Some of the scientific works and articles which passed through his hands aroused his interest in science and he started to read.

Sometime later Michael became a pupil of great scientist of that time, Sir Humphry Davy. The boy accompanied Davy in his trips to Europe. The educational value of such trips was great. Among great men of science Faraday met Ampere, who had already made a name for himself in the history of electricity.

Today almost all the electricity we use is generated by great machines with magnets in them, but in those days no one knew how to do it. That's why the English scientist danced with delight on his table when he got what he wanted by moving the magnet near wire. This was a great moment in the history of man's electrical experiments. But Faraday didn't stop at this.

Faraday's scientific interests were varied. He made new kind of glass and a new kind of steel. Faraday made about two thousand difficult experiments and made countless discoveries in chemistry and physics. He made a wonderful machine which was the father of all the great machines that make electricity today. They light and heat our houses and they make our radio-sets work. Michael Faraday was the creator of the electric motor, who ushered us in the electrical age which had changed the face of the earth.

### **6.2.4 George Stephenson**

Stephenson was a pioneering railway engineer and inventor of the 'Rocket', the most famous early railway locomotive.

George Stephenson was born on 9 June 1781 near Newcastle-upon-Tyne. His father was an engineman at a coalmine. Stephenson himself worked at the mine and learned to read and write in his spare time. He gained a reputation for managing the primitive steam engines employed in mines, and worked in a number of different coalmines in the northeast of England and in Scotland.

In 1814, Stephenson constructed his first locomotive, «Blucher», for hauling coal at Killingworth Colliery near Newcastle. In 1815, he invented a safety lamp for use in coalmines, nicknamed the «Geordie».

In 1821, Stephenson was appointed engineer for the construction of the Stockton and Darlington railway. It opened in 1825 and was the first public railway. The following year Stephenson was made engineer for the Liverpool to Manchester Railway. In October 1829, the railway's owners staged a competition at Rainhill to find the best kind of locomotive to pull heavy loads over long distances. Thousands came to watch. Stephenson's locomotive «Rocket» was the winner, achieving a record speed of 36 miles per hour.

The opening of the Stockton to Darlington railway and the success of 'Rocket' stimulated the laying of railway lines and the construction of locomotives all over the country. Stephenson became engineer on a number of these projects and was also consulted on the development of railways in Belgium and Spain.

Stephenson died on 12 August 1848 in Chesterfield in Derbyshire. His only son Robert was also a railway engineer and worked with his father on many of his projects.

### **6.2.5 Charles Darwin**

Charles Robert Darwin was born on February 12, 1809 in Shrewsbury, England. He was the fifth child and second son of Robert Waring Darwin and Susannah Wedgwood. Darwin was the British naturalist who became famous for his theories of

evolution and natural selection. Like several scientists before him, Darwin believed all the life on earth evolved (developed gradually) over millions of years from a few common ancestors.

From 1831 to 1836 Darwin served as naturalist aboard the H.M.S. Beagle on a British science expedition around the world. In South America Darwin found fossils of extinct animals that were similar to modern species. On the Galapagos Islands in the Pacific Ocean he noticed many variations among plants and animals of the same general type as those in South America. The expedition visited places around the world, and Darwin studied plants and animals everywhere he went, collecting specimens for further study. Upon his return to London Darwin conducted thorough research of his notes and specimens. Out of this study grew several related theories.

Darwin's theory of evolutionary selection holds that variation within species occurs randomly and that the survival or extinction of each organism is determined by that organism's ability to adapt to its environment.

He set these theories forth in his book called, «On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection, or the Preservation of Favoured Races in the Struggle for Life» (1859) or «The Origin of Species» for short.

After publication of Origin of Species, Darwin continued to write on botany, geology, and zoology until his death in 1882. He is buried in Westminster Abbey.

Darwin's work had a tremendous impact on religious thought. Many people strongly opposed the idea of evolution because it conflicted with their religious convictions. Darwin avoided talking about the theological and sociological aspects of his work, but other writers used his theories to support their own theories about society. Darwin was a reserved, thorough, hardworking scholar who concerned himself with the feelings and emotions not only of his family, but friends and peers as well. It has been supposed that Darwin renounced evolution on his deathbed. Shortly after his death, temperance campaigner and evangelist Lady Elizabeth Hope claimed she visited Darwin at his deathbed, and witnessed the renunciation. Her story was

printed in a Boston newspaper and subsequently spread. Lady Hope's story was refuted by Darwin's daughter Henrietta.

## **7. BRITISH CULTURE AND LANGUAGE FORMATION**

### **7.1. The Language of the British Isles**

Many hundred years ago (about the 4th century before our era) the country we now call England was known as Britain, and the people who lived there were the Britons. They belonged to the Celtic race; the language they spoke was Celtic. Their culture (that is to say, their way of thinking and their understanding of nature) was very primitive. They believed that different gods lived in the thickest and darkest parts of the woods. Some plants such as the mistletoe and the oak-tree were thought to be sacred. The Britons were governed by a class of priests called Druids, who had great power over them.

Somewhere about the 1st century B.C. the whole of Britain was occupied by the Celts who mixed with the Picts and Scots as well as with the alpine part of the population; the latter predominated in the West while the rest of the British Isles became distinctly Celtic in language and structure of society. The Gaelic form of the Celtic dialects was spoken in Caledonia (modern Scotland) and Ireland, the Brythonic form in England and Wales.

We may speak of English as having its beginning with the conquest and settlement of a large part of the island of Britain by Germanic tribes from the European continent in the mid-fifth century, although the earliest written documents belong to the 7th century. Of course these people did not, upon their arrival in England, suddenly begin to speak a new language, intended for the occasion. The history of English goes back much further. As you know English is one of a family of languages called Indo-European. The languages of this family, which includes most of the modern European languages, as well as such important languages of antiquity as Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, all resemble each other in a number of ways, particularly in vocabulary. One needs no training in the fine points of philology to see

that the similarities between forms like the English «father», German «fater», Latin «pater», Greek «pater» and Sanskrit «pitr», all of which have the same meaning, are not likely to be the result of accident.

It may surprise you to know that until a few centuries ago there were many natives of what we call the British Isles, who did not speak English. The Western land of Wales spoke Welsh, in the farthest north and the islands of Scotland the language was Gaelic, and a similar language Irish Gaelic, was spoken in Ireland; Manx was the language of the Isles of Man, and Cornish that of the southwestern tip of Britain.

We're not talking about dialects, localized version of a language, which often contain alternative words or phrases for certain things, but which are forms of English. Welsh, Gaelic, Manx and Cornish are complete languages with their own grammar, poetry and stories — all that we call culture.

What makes Scottish, Welsh, English and Northern Irish differ from each other? As you already know, about 2,000 years ago the British Isles were inhabited by the Celts who originally came from continental Europe. During the next 1,000 years there were many invasions. The Romans came from Italy in A.D.43 and, in calling the country «Britannia», gave Britain its name. The Angles and Saxons came from Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands in the 5th century, and England gets its name from this invasion (Angle-land). The Vikings arrived from Denmark and Norway throughout the 9th century, and in 1066 (the one date in history which every British schoolchild knows) the Normans invaded from France. These invasions drove the Celts into what is now Wales and Scotland, and they remained, of course? in Ireland. The English, on the other hand, are the descendants of all the invaders, but are more Anglo-Saxon than anything else. These various origins explain many of the differences to be found between England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland — differences in education, religion and the legal systems, but most obviously, in language.

## **7.2. The Main Periods in the Evolution of English**

1. Old English, from the middle of the 5th century, the time of the invasion of the Anglo-Saxons, till 1066, the time of the invasion of the Normans.



By Old English we mean the introduced Anglo-Saxon language as modified by the native Celts and by the Romanized part of the population in the south.

It was further modified by the invasion of the Danes in the 8th century, who introduced many Scandinavian words.

But as the economic life and feudal organization of the Anglo-Saxons changed very slowly, the basic structure of their language remained comparatively unchanged. The English people today are using in their everyday speech many of the short simple Anglo-Saxon words.

2. The Middle English period (from the invasion of the Normans, 1066, till about 1500).

By Middle English we mean the Anglo-Saxon language influenced by the Norman-French.

In 1066 the Normans from France conquered Britain. They became the ruling class of the land. Their language became the language of the court and of literature, but not of the people, who continued to use their own Anglo-Saxon.

In the 13th century the middle classes became economically stronger, and the Anglo-Saxon language, modified by the Norman-French, became the language of the court and of the parliament.

3. The Modern English period (from about 1500 till the present time).

During the Renaissance, the beginning of this period, the development of foreign commerce introduced many French, Spanish and Italian words, thus further Latinizing the language.

After the middle of the 17th century the use of the literary language was widely extended, due in large part to the development of the art of printing. Its further development was hindered by the conservatism of spelling, and changed very slowly.

During the last century spoken English has tended to approach the literary language, but the Old English dialects are still used by many of the industrial and country people.

### **7.3 How People of the UK Speak**

The Celts spoke Celtic which survives today in the form of Welsh, Scottish, Gaelic and Irish Gaelic. Less than a quarter of all Welsh people (600,000 out of 2,800,000) speak Welsh. Scottish Gaelic and Irish Gaelic are still spoken, although they have suffered more than Welsh from the spread of English. However, all three languages are now officially encouraged and taught in schools.

English developed from Anglo-Saxon and is a Germanic language. However, all the invading peoples, particularly the Norman French, influenced the English language and you can find many words in English which are French in origin. Nowadays all Welsh, Scottish and Irish people speak English (even if they speak their own language as well), but all the countries have their own special accents and dialects, and their people are easily recognizable as soon as they speak. Occasionally people from the four countries in the UK have difficulty in understanding one another because of these different accents. A southern English accent is generally accepted to be the most easily understood, and is the accent usually taught to foreigners.

Many Scottish people still use some Scottish words when they speak English. «Wee», meaning «small», is often heard in such expressions as «wee laddie» — a «small boy». A «bonni lass» is a «pretty girl» and a «bairn» is a «young child». If someone answers your questions with «aye» they agree with you: «aye» means «yes».

Welsh is one of the Celtic languages, like Scottish and Irish Gaelic. It is estimated that Welsh is spoken by 16 to 20 per cent of the population, although in North and West Wales 50 per cent speak the language. The Welsh Language Act of 1967 said that all official documents should be in both languages, and most road signs are printed in English and Welsh.

Since 1960s there has been increased interest in Welsh. At secondary schools almost 50 per cent of all pupils learn Welsh as a first or second language. Since 1982 there has also been an independent fourth TV channel broadcasting mainly in Welsh.

Although not many Welsh words are well known in England, the word «eisteddfod» is understood by almost everybody. This is the Welsh name for an

annual competition where people meet to dance, sing and read poems. Usually, only Welsh is spoken and in recent years they have attracted people who wish to protest against the influence of English on the Welsh language and culture.

Years ago, all Irish people spoke Gaelic, and this language is still spoken in some parts of Ireland, although today all Irish people speak English also. Evidence of Gaelic is still found in place names, for example «bally» — «town», «loughs» — «lake».

The influence of Irish Gaelic is also found in the names of people. Here are some typical Gaelic first names: Sean, same as John, Seamus, same as James, Liam, same as William.

Many Irish surnames begin with: O' meaning «from the family of».

#### **7.4 The English Language**

The English language contains about 490,000 words, plus another 300,000 technical terms, the most in any language, but it is doubtful if any individual uses more than 60,000.

The most overworked word in English is the word «set» which has 58 noun uses, 126 verbal uses and 10 as a participial adjective.

Shakespeare's impact on today English speech is great. If you declare «It's Greek to me», you are quoting Shakespeare; if you recall your salad days, you are quoting Shakespeare; if you act more in sorrow than in anger, if your wish is father to the thought, you are quoting Shakespeare; if you have played fast and loose, if you have been tongue-tied, a tower of strength, insisted on fair play, slept not one wink, had too much of a good thing, if you have seen better days or lived in a fool's paradise, you are quoting Shakespeare.

#### **7.5 Typically English Words**

##### **Hooligan**

Do you know the word «hooligan»? Yes, you know the word and you don't like hooligans, of course.

But do you know that Hooligan was an English surname?

In 1890 there lived in London a man whose surname was Hooligan. He was a very bad man and he behaved so badly, that soon everybody in London knew him and talked about him. When somebody began to behave badly, people said, «Oh, he behaves like Hooligan», and a new word was born. You can find this word not only in English but in some other languages too.

### **Mackintosh**

Do you know what a mackintosh is? Of course, you do. But do you know that the word «Mackintosh» is a surname?

In 1823, in Scotland lived a man whose name was Charles Mackintosh. It often rained in Great Britain, and Charles Mackintosh got wet quite often.

One day he rubberized his coat and it became waterproof. Many of his friends liked his coat and asked him to rubberize their coats too. Soon many people began to rubberize their coats and they called those coats «mackintoshes».

## **8. THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN**

### **8.1 Secondary Education**

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 of Education and Science maintains overall control although local education authorities and head teachers\* have considerable powers in planning and administration. Plans were introduced into Parliament in 1988 for more centralized control, including a national curriculum for all schools.

Until the 1960s most children took an examination at the end of primary school (the Eleven Plus): those who passed went to grammar schools while those who did not went to secondary modern schools. A few areas still select at the age of eleven, but about 90 per cent 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 fee-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 project method is now a basic part of English infant and junior education and also of many secondary schools. Projects may be anything from doing surveys to producing a magazine. They are given to single pupils or to groups, and their purpose is to encourage the students to work things out for themselves. (Many older boys and girls today prefer to be called students.)

The school year is divided into three terms.

Autumn term: early September to mid-December.

Spring term: early January to the end of March/beginning of April.

Summer term: end of April to early/mid-July.

School hours are usually from 9.00 a.m. until 3.30 or 4.00 p.m.

### **8.1.1. Comprehensive, Selective and Private Systems of Education**

There are many different types of schools in Britain. There are, however, only three main systems: comprehensive, selective and private.

More than 90 per cent of children who go to the state schools go to school in the comprehensive system — a system introduced in 1960s. Children go to a primary (or first) school at the age of five. Depending on the policy of the Local Education Authority, they may go directly to the upper school — usually called the comprehensive school — at the age of 11. Alternatively, they may go to the middle school for three or four years before going to the upper school. The comprehensive system is non-selective. This means that all children go from one school to another without taking any exams, and without being selected according to their abilities.

In some areas of Britain, you can still find a different, older system of education (introduced in 1944). This is a selective system — children are selected for certain schools according to their abilities. All children go to a primary school until the age of 11. They then take an examination called the 11-plus. Those who are successful go to grammar schools, where they receive a more academic education. Those who fail the exam go to secondary modern schools, where they receive an education which is less academic, and more intended to train them for a job when they leave at the age of 16.

About 7 per cent of children go to private schools. There are three levels of private schools — primary schools (age 4 to 8) and preparatory schools (8 to 13). At the age of 13, children take an examination. If they pass, they go to the public school, where they usually remain until they are 18. Many prep and most public schools are boarding schools — the children live at school during the school terms. Although these schools are called public, they are, in fact, private and it can be very expensive to send your child to such a school.

Within the three systems, there are several varieties of schools. For instance, you can find:

- schools for boys only;
- schools for girls only;
- mixed schools — for boys and girls;
- voluntary schools — often with a religious background, such as Roman Catholic schools.

You can see that the British education system is rather confusing.

### **8.1.2 Examinations**

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 a 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-time vocational courses, on day-release from work. School-leavers without jobs get no money from the government unless they join a youth training scheme, which provides a living allowance during two years of work experience.

## **8.2 Higher Education**

There are forty-seven universities in Britain and thirty polytechnics, plus 350 colleges and institutes of higher education (some of which train teachers).

Courses in arts and science are offered by most universities in Great Britain. At nearly all universities courses are available in one or more applied sciences. Imperial College, London, University of Manchester, Institute of Science and Technology, the University of Strathclyde and some of the newer universities concentrate on technology, although they may also offer a number of courses in social studies, modern languages and other non-technological subjects.

Undergraduate courses normally take three years of fulltime study, although a number of subjects take longer, including medicine, architecture and foreign languages (where courses 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 and Doctor of Philosophy, the last two being awarded for research in Arts or Sciences.

Degrees are awarded either by the institution itself, or by the Council for National Academic Awards, particularly in vocational areas. Students of law, architecture and some other professions can take qualifications awarded by their own professional bodies instead of degrees.

At present, students who have been accepted by universities or other institutions of higher education receive a grant from their local authority, which covers the cost of

the course, and may cover living expenses, books and travel, although parents with higher incomes are expected to make a contribution. Until 1990 the grant did not have to be paid back, but now a system of loans has been introduced in the country.

Some universities accept students mainly on the basis of their «A» level results, although they may interview them as well, if they want.

The Open University was started in 1971 to cater for adults who did not have these formal qualifications. Nearly a quarter of all adult part-time students follow its degree courses on radio or television.

University teaching combines lectures, practical classes (in scientific subjects) and small group-teaching in either seminars or tutorials, the last being a traditional feature of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

Not long ago Charles, the Prince of Wales, said that the British children are taught English badly. The author of the article Mr. John Marenbon, director of studies in English at Trinity College, Cambridge, says most schools teach English badly and used to teach it better. «When children leave English schools today, few are able to speak and write English correctly, even fewer have a familiarity with the literary heritage of the language», he says. «Even among the candidates for admission to the best universities specialized in English only minority can spell with consistent correctness, use punctuation properly and construct complex sentences grammatically. Few teachers think it their job to introduce pupils to the heritage of English literature. They emphasize the study of modern literature».

That is why the reform provides changes in the system of preparatory courses for teachers. The Government thinks that the old system of preparatory courses does not prepare the teachers to a practical activity.

The typical academic programme for university students in Great Britain is composed of a variety of courses or subjects within a field of specialization.

The academic obligations for each subject fall into three broad types. Lectures, at which attendance is not always compulsory, often outline the general scope of the subject matter and stress the particular specialization of the lecturer. Tutorials,



through individual or group discussion, reading extensively, and writing essays under the tutor's direction, ensure focused and in-depth understanding of the subject.

Examinations on each subject require the student to consolidate his knowledge of the subject, which he has gained through lectures, discussions and a great deal of independent study. These three categories of academic activity — lectures, tutorials and examinations — provide the means by which students prepare themselves in specialized fields of know-ledge in British universities.

### **8.2.1 Oxford and Cambridge**

The college system at Oxford and Cambridge is unlike that of any other university, whether in Britain or America. In order to enter the university, a student 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. The university arranges the courses, the lectures, and the examinations, and awards the degrees. Most dons give one or two lectures a week which students from any college may attend. No lectures are compulsory and tutors usually advise their students which lectures they should go to.

Each college has its own completely separate living quarters, its own dining hall and its own chapel. Cambridge and Oxford both have two women's colleges. Today most of the colleges are co-educational.

The University of London could also 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.

### **8.2.2 Exams and qualifications**

GCSE = General Certificate of Secondary Education. The exams taken by most fifteen — to sixteen-year-olds in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Marks are

given for each subject separately. The syllabuses and methods of examination of the various examining boards differ. However, there is a uniform system of marks, all being graded from A to G. Grades A, B and C are regarded as «good» grades.

SCE = Scottish Certificate of Education. The Scottish equivalent of GCSE. These exams are set by the Scottish Examinations Board. Grades are awarded in numbers (1 is the best).

«A» Levels are Advanced Levels. Higher-level academic exams set by the same examining boards that set GCSE exams. They are taken mostly by people around the age of eighteen who wish to go on to higher education.

SCE «Highers» is the Scottish equivalent of «A» levels.

GNVQ is General National Vocational Qualification. Courses and exams in job-related subjects. They are divided into five levels, the lowest level being equivalent to GCSEs/SCEs and the third level to «A» levels / «Highers». Most commonly, GNVQ courses are studied at Colleges of Further Education, but more and more schools are also offering them.

### **8.2.3 Degree**

Qualifications obtained after secondary education are usually called «certificate» or «diploma». Students studying for a first degree are called undergraduates. When they have been awarded a degree, they are known as graduates. Most people get honours degrees, awarded in different classes. These are:

Class I (known as «a first»)

Class II, I («a 2, 1» or «an upper second»)

Class II, II («a 2,2» or «a lower second»)

Class III («a third»)

A student who is below one of these gets a pass degree (i.e. not an honours degree).

Bachelor's Degree: The general name for a first degree, most commonly a BA (Bachelor of Arts) or BSc (Bachelor of Science).

Master's Degree: The general name for a second (postgraduate) degree, most commonly an MA or MSc. At Scottish universities, however, these titles are used for first degrees.

Doctorate: The highest academic qualification. This usually (but not everywhere) carries the title PhD (Doctor of Philosophy). The time taken to complete a doctorate varies, but it is generally expected to involve three years of more-or — less full-time study.

## **9. POLITICAL SYSTEM**

### **9.1 The Government**

The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy. That means it is a country governed by a king or queen who accepts the advice of a parliament. It is also a parliamentary democracy. That is, it is a country whose government is controlled by a parliament which has been elected by the people. The country's head of the state is the reigning king or queen. The head of the government is the prime minister, who is the leader of the political party that can command a majority of votes in the House of Commons.

The British Constitution is an unwritten constitution, not being contained in a single legal document. This is mainly because the UK, unlike America or France, has never had a revolution which led permanently to a totally new system of government. It is based on statutes and important documents (such as the Magna Carta), case law (decisions taken by courts of law on constitutional matters), customs and conventions, and can be modified by a simple Act of Parliament like any other law. It contains two main principles — the rule of law (i.e. that everyone, whatever his or her station, is subject to the law) and the supremacy of Parliament, which implies that there is nobody that can declare the activities of Parliament unconstitutional and that Parliament can in theory do whatever it wishes. The constitution is a set of principles by which a country is governed. It includes all of the institutions that are responsible for running the country and how their power is kept in check. The most important

institutions have developed over hundreds of years. Some people believe that there should be a single document, but others believe an unwritten constitution allows for more flexibility and better government.

In the UK, there are several different parts of government. The main ones are:

- the monarchy
- Parliament (the House of Commons and the House of Lords)
- the Prime Minister
- the cabinet
- the judiciary (courts)
- the police
- the civil service
- local government.

In addition, there are devolved governments in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland that have the power to legislate on certain issues.

The constitutional safeguard of the separation of powers between the Legislature (the two Houses of Parliament), which makes laws, the Executive (the Government), which puts laws into effect and plans policy, and the Judiciary, which decides on cases arising out of the laws, is only theoretical.

After each general election the Queen invites the leader of the majority party in the House of Commons to become Prime Minister and form the Government. The Prime Minister has an official London house while he (or she) is in office, it is at No. 10, Downing Street. He also has the use of a country house, named Chequers. The Prime Minister selects the other Ministers, men and women, whom he wishes to take charge of the chief government departments and to do other government work. About sixty Members of Parliament are required for these special offices. Most of the Ministers are chosen from the House of Commons, but a few must be in the House of Lords so that government plans can be explained there.

Most Ministers are in charge of departments, but a few are free to advise and help wherever the government work requires (they are called Ministers without portfolio).

The Prime Minister himself often takes charge of one of the departments. He is, by tradition, First Lord of Treasury, the department which deals with the money collected and spent by the Government. Some Prime Ministers have also been Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

From all Ministers the Prime Minister selects about twenty of his leading party members in the House of Commons to take the chief offices in the Government and sit with him in the Cabinet.

The Cabinet is a kind of «inner government» within the Government. Over the years the membership of the Cabinet has varied in size between 17 and 23. The Cabinet includes the Lord President of the Council, the Lord Chancellor (Speaker of the House of Lords), the Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs etc.

The Cabinet directs the administration, controls the process of lawmaking and dominates the House of Commons. It decides what subjects shall be debated in the House, drafts and proposes all important legislation. Other MP's are limited to criticism of these proposals. And in many cases the Cabinet takes major policy decisions without giving Parliament the opportunity to express its views until afterward. In such cases supporters of the Government in the House of Commons are instructed to vote in favour of the Cabinet decision. If they ignore the instruction, they risk withdrawal of their party's support at the next election.

So, the main feature of the British political system is «Cabinet Government», that is the leading role is played not by the Monarch, who remains the head of state, or Parliament, which is officially the supreme lawmaking body, but by the Cabinet and its head — the Prime Minister.

The main opposition party forms a Shadow Cabinet, which is more or less as the Government would be if the party were in power, and the relevant members act as opposition spokesmen on major issues.

## **9.2 Parliament**

Parliament is the supreme legislative authority. Its three elements, the Queen, the House of Commons and the House of Lords are formed on different principles and meet together only on occasions of symbolic significance such as the State opening of Parliament each October or November. Though its three elements are outwardly separate, as a lawmaking body, however, Parliament requires the agreement of all its parts.

Parliament can legislate for Britain as a whole, or for any part of the country. It can also legislate for the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man.

Parliament has a maximum duration of five years, but is often dissolved and a general election is held before the end of this term. The life of Parliament is divided into sessions. There are about 175 «sitting days» in session in the House of Commons and about 155 in the House of Lords.

At the start of each session the Queen's speech to Parliament outlines the Government's broad policies and proposed legislative programme.

The activities of Parliament in Britain are more or less the same as those of the Parliament in any western democracy. It makes new laws, gives authority for the government to raise and spend money, keeps a close eye on government activities and discusses those activities, examines European proposals, debates current affairs.

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

Proceedings in Parliament are broadcast on television and published in official reports called Hansard. Written reports can be found in large libraries and at

www.parliament.uk. Most people get information about political issues and events from newspapers (often called «the press»), television, radio and the internet.

The UK has a free press. This means that what is written in newspapers is free from government control. Some newspaper owners and editors hold strong political opinions and run campaigns to try to influence government policy and public opinion. By law, radio and television coverage of the political parties must be balanced and so equal time has to be given to rival viewpoints.

### **9.2.1 The House of Commons**

The House of Commons is a popular assembly elected by almost universal adult suffrage. There are 650 Members of Parliament (MPs) — each member representing one of the 650 geographical areas (constituencies) into which the country is divided for electoral purposes (523 for England, 38 for Wales, 72 for Scotland and 17 for Northern Ireland). If a MP dies, resigns or is made a peer, a by-election is held in that constituency to elect a new MP. Leaders of the Government and Opposition sit on the front benches of the Commons, with their supporters (back-benchers) behind them. The House is presided over by the Speaker.

The main function of the House of Commons is to legislate, but the strong party system in Britain has meant that the initiative in government lies not with Parliament, but with the Government.

Only the House of Commons can give permission for the government to collect taxes. It is the House of Commons which decides what taxes shall be collected and also how the money shall be spent. The House of Commons spends nearly half of its time making laws, but being so short of time, it often passes a very general law and leaves a Minister to fill in the details. So, Ministers, in effect, become lawmakers themselves. One more important function of the House of Commons is examining the work of the Government, usually referred to as scrutiny. The Government is made to explain its policies and there are opportunities for criticizing the Government.

The Commons Chamber was deliberately built rather small — it holds only 427 MPs instead of 650 — but this creates a better atmosphere for discussion. It is, after all, only on rare occasions that all 650 MPs are in the Chamber at once.

The focus of ritual is the Speaker (the Chairman) wearing a full-bottomed wig and sitting on his raised throne, which was sent as a gift from Australia. Although the Speaker begins his career in Parliament as a member of one of the parties, he abandons any links with that party after being elected Speaker. The Speaker is the neutral Chairman of debates. He is chosen as a man trusted, respected and liked by the colleagues, whose authority they will obey. The Government supporters sit on the Speaker's right and seats for the Opposition are on his left. There are, facing the Speaker, cross benches for independent members, those who do not belong to either of two great political parties.

Debates in the House of Commons are held in the following way. All speeches are addressed to the Speaker. Usually a Government Minister initiates the debates, followed by an Opposition spokesman (a Shadow Minister). When these front-benchers have had their say, it is then the turn of the back-benchers. When a member ends his speech, other hopeful MPs who want to speak next rise to their feet to try to «catch the Speaker's eye». In fact, this is rather unnecessary as the Speaker has already been informed, who wants to take part in a particular debate and has worked out roughly how the time should be balanced between Government and Opposition, front-benchers and back-benchers, and between the different viewpoints within each party. Speaker calls on a Member who wishes to interrupt a speech, he will rise to his feet. The Member who is speaking may then sit down and allow an interruption to be made in his speech, but if he refuses to give way, then the Member wishing to interrupt should himself sit down. Sometimes tempers rise and several MPs may try to shout at once. The Speaker then has to exert his authority. He brings the House under control again saying «Order, order». Speeches must not be read although notes can be referred to. After all, the whole point of having a debate is that one Member should follow on from what another has said, not that each should read his own



speech which was prepared in advance. During the final stages of the debate «winding up» speeches are usually made by an Opposition and a Government front-bencher.

At the end of a debate, the Speaker decides whether a vote is really necessary by inviting the two sides to express their opinions by saying: «As many as are of that opinion say «Aye», the contrary «No». He listens while the two sides shout out and decides which one sounded more numerous and says: «I think the Ayes (or the Noes) have it».

If the other side protests, then there has to be a proper vote, called a Division. Voting is a simple matter when every member has a reserved seat. In the House of Commons members have to leave their benches and walk throughout two corridors, known as the Aye Lobby and the No Lobby.

As soon as the Speaker announces that a Division is to take place, the Division Bell is rung. On hearing it, Members start to hurry towards the Division Lobbies. They have only eight minutes to cast their votes. As the MPs pass out they are counted by four Tellers — two for each side, so that they can check each other's counting.

Most of the parties have important officials, chosen from among their MPs, known as Whips. The task of maintaining discipline falls to the Whips (usually a Chief Whip together with 10-12 Whips). It is part of Whip's job to see that Members are kept informed about forthcoming business and that they know which issues matter most to the parties. Whips are also an important channel of communication between front-benchers and back-benchers. Whips also make recommendations to the Party Leaders as to which backbenchers are likely to make good Minister. The opinion of the Whips can be extremely important for the reputation of a Member within his party.

### **9.2.2 The House of Lords**

The House of Lords is probably the only upper House in the democratic world whose members are not elected. It is made up of the Lords Spiritual and, the Lords Temporal; the former consist the representatives of the Church of England (the,

Archbishops of York and Canterbury and 25 bishops); the latter comprise all hereditary and life peer's (life peers, named by the Sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister, do not pass on their title when they die). The House of Lords can revise bills sent to it by the House of Commons but it can only delay a bill from becoming a law for a maximum of 12 months.

Debates in the House of Lords are, in many ways, similar to those in the Commons. There are, however, certain differences. The House of Lords is presided over by the Lord Chancellor, who has his special seat, known as the Woolsack. Unlike the Speaker of the House of Commons, he is not politically neutral, being a member of the Cabinet. He is not, in fact, a chairman at all. He does not, for example, control the proceedings during a debate. You will never hear him shouting «Order, order». It is assumed that the Lords themselves will keep order during debates, which are, on the whole, much calmer than in the Commons. Another difference is that he does not decide who will speak next in a debate. The practice of «Catching the Speaker's Eye» in the House of Commons has no equivalent in the House of Lords. Usually, the order of speaking in a debate is arranged in advance by agreement between the party Whips. If a number of Lords rise to speak at the same time, most of them will normally sit down, allowing the remaining Lord to speak. Unlike the House of Commons, where all speeches are directed towards the Speaker, all speeches in the Lords are addressed to the House in general.

The procedure of voting in the Lords is very similar to that in the House of Commons, except that the Lords have only six minutes in which to vote, instead of eight. The Lord Chancellor is allowed to vote in all Divisions, but needn't walk through a Division Lobby. He gives his name to a Clerk at the Table. When all the Lords have voted, the numbers are communicated to the Lord Chancellor, who announces the result.

There has been a lot of talk of reform in Great Britain as some people object to the fact that seats in the Lords can be inherited, some do not want a second chamber at

all, while others think there should be an elected second chamber. It is hard to see what the eventual solution will be.

### **9.3 Political Parties**

The party system is an essential element in the working of the constitution. For over 150 years Britain's system of parliamentary democracy has been based on organized political parties competing to form governments. Political parties are neither registered nor formally recognized in law, but the system depends on the existence of at least two parties in the House of Commons, each of which is capable of forming a government.

The United Kingdom is divided into 650 parliamentary constituencies, each with an electorate of 60,000 voters.

Each British citizen over eighteen has the vote (except prisoners, lords and the mentally ill). Each constituency is represented by one Member of Parliament in the House of Commons. The winner is the candidate who gets more votes than any other single candidate, even if the difference is only one vote. This «first past the post» system is clear, familiar and simple, but it means that the candidate who comes second gets nothing.

The leader of the party which wins most seats at a general election, or which has the support of a majority in the new House of Commons, is by convention invited by the Monarch to form a government. He or she becomes Prime Minister and chooses the ministers who will together form the Government, which can remain in power for up to five years unless the Prime Minister decides to hold an earlier election. The second biggest party becomes the official Opposition. Its leader forms a «Shadow Cabinet». Since 1945 Conservative Party, whose origins go back to the 18th century, or the Labour Party, which (emerged in the last decade of the 19th century, has been either the Government or the Opposition.

Parties in Northern Ireland represent either the Protestant or the Catholic communities. There is one large comparatively moderate party on each side (the Protestant Ulster Unionists and the Catholic Social Democratic and Labour Party)

and one or more other parties of more extreme views on each side (for example, the Protestant Democratic Unionists and the Catholic Sinn Fein). There is one party which asks for support from both communities — the Alliance party. It had not, by 1997, won any seats.

There are numerous very small parties, such as the Green Party, which is supported by environmentalists. There is a small party which was formerly the Communist party, and a number of other left-wing parties, and also an extreme right-wing party which is fairly openly racist (by most definitions of that word). It was previously called the National Front but since the 1980s has been called the British National Party (BNP). At the time of writing, none of these parties had won a single seat in Parliament in the second half of the 20th century. In 1993, however, the BNP briefly won a seat on a local council.

#### **9.4 British Royalty**

The United Kingdom is one of six constitutional monarchies within the European Community and this institution dates back in Britain to the Saxon king Egbert. Since the age of absolute monarchy there has been a gradual decline in the Sovereign's power and, while formally still the head of the executive and the judiciary, commander-in-chief of all the armed forces, and temporal governor of the Church of England, nowadays monarchs reign but they do not rule.

By statute and convention no monarch may be of Roman Catholic faith, nor marry someone of that faith; and the title to the throne passes to the male line of the family in order of descent and, if there are no sons, to the daughters in order of descent.

In winter 1953 Queen Elizabeth II set out to accomplish, as a monarch, the Commonwealth tour she had begun before the death of her father. With the Duke of Edinburgh she visited Bermuda, Jamaica, Fiji, Tonga, New Zealand, Australia, Ceylon, Uganda, Malta and Gibraltar. This was the first of innumerable tours of the Commonwealth they have undertaken at the invitation of the host governments. During the past forty years the Queen and Prince Philip have also made frequent

visits to other countries outside the Commonwealth at the invitation of foreign Heads of State.

Since her coronation, the Queen also visited nearly every county in Britain, seeing new developments and achievements in industry, agriculture, education, the arts, medicine and sport and many other aspects of national life.

On becoming Queen she succeeded her father as Colonel-in-Chief of all the Guards Regiments and the Corps of Royal Engineers and as Captain-General of the Royal Regiment of Artillery and the Honourable Artillery Company. At her Coronation she assumed similar positions with a number of other units in Britain and elsewhere in the Commonwealth.

Every year, Her Majesty entertained some 48,000 people from all sections of the community (including visitors from overseas) at Royal Garden Parties and other occasions. At least three garden parties took place at Buckingham Palace and a fourth at the Palace of Holyrood house, in Edinburgh. Additional «special» parties were occasionally arranged, for example to mark a significant anniversary for a charity. In 1997, there was a special Royal Garden Party attended by those sharing the Queen and the Duke of Edinburgh's golden wedding anniversary.

After Queen Elizabeth II's death the monarch of the UK became her son king Charles III.

As Head of State, the King maintains close contact with the Prime Minister, with whom he has a weekly audience when he is in London, and with other Ministers of the Crown, he sees all Cabinet papers and the records of Cabinet and Cabinet Committee meetings. He receives important Foreign Office telegrams and a daily summary of events in Parliament.

His Majesty acts as host to the Heads of State of Commonwealth and other countries when they visit Britain, and receives other notable visitors from overseas.

He holds Investitures in Britain and during his visits to other Commonwealth countries, at which he presents honours to people who have distinguished themselves in public life.

As Sovereign, His Majesty is head of the Navy, Army and Air Force of Britain.

His Majesty also gives regular receptions and lunches for people who have made a contribution in different areas of national and international life. She also appears on many public occasions such as the services of the Orders of the Garter and the Thistle; Trooping the Colour; the Remembrance Day ceremony; and national services at St Paul's Cathedral and Westminster Abbey.

The monarch is Patron or President of over 700 organizations. He undertakes a large number of engagements.

The monarch has important ceremonial roles, such as the opening of the new parliamentary session each year. On this occasion the Queen makes a speech which summarises the government's policies for the year ahead. All Acts of Parliament are made in her name.

The monarch represents the UK to the rest of the world. She receives foreign ambassadors and high commissioners, entertains visiting heads of state, and makes state visits overseas in support of diplomatic and economic relationships with other countries.

The monarch has an important role in providing stability and continuity. While governments and Prime Ministers change regularly, the monarch continues as head of state.

## **10. MASS MEDIA**

### **10.1 Mass Media as the Most Powerful Propaganda Weapon**

Mass Media consists of the press, radio and television. The press is considered to be the fourth power of a state alongside with legislative, executive and judicial power. And it is quite natural because the press has the tremendous influence upon people's minds and souls.

This century is called the age of information. People in different far-off continents get to know the latest news immediately. All this has become possible due to the planetary press system which leads to the widening of democracy, to the further

development of science, economy. A great number of newspapers are published every day in the world. They are published in different countries and in different languages, they provide various sorts of information, present it in quite different ways, but each issue of a newspaper influences its readers, makes contribution to the formation of their reader's outlook.

We can't imagine our life without radio and television, those wonderful inventions of our age. They are the most powerful propaganda weapon of today because millions of people get information listening to the radio and watching TV. And if the programmes are of low artistic and moral standards and they have the narrow range of subjects covered this may affect the minds and souls of people quite negatively. One of the independent British newspapers wrote: «No radical changes will be brought about, no raising of standards or widening of the range of subjects to be discussed, as long as these mass media remain under the tight control of representatives of the ruling class, who are determined to use them to perpetuate their standards, their way of life. Improvement depends on bringing television and sound broadcasting closer to the people, to open them to frank discussion on the great problems and issues facing the British people, and giving people the opportunity to see and hear the alternative policies for solving them.

This means the democratic control and running of television and broadcasting. Various organizations of the people should play an important role in the running of these services and strengthen Parliamentary control over them. That would help to curb the profits of commercial television companies, which have burst into a placid territory with the suddenness of an invasion. No party or public organization should have a virtual monopoly of broadcasting time. Any party that has an alternative policy for the solution of Britain's problems, must be allowed to share the time allocated for the political broadcasts. Otherwise this is a scandalous denial of democracy. It means that the air and the people are denied the right of real democratic choice. Equal political access to the air should be provided for the representatives of different groups and parts of community».

## 10.2 British Press

The British people are great readers of newspapers. There are few homes to which one newspaper is not delivered every morning. Many households have two or even three newspapers every day. One newspaper may be delivered to the house, a member of the family may buy one at the station bookstall to read in the train as he goes to town, and someone else in the family may buy an evening newspaper later in the day. Daily papers are those that are published daily from Monday to Saturday. There are the morning and evening papers.

As in other countries, newspapers in Great Britain vary greatly in their ways of presenting the news. There are serious papers for those who want to know about important happenings everywhere, both domestic and foreign news. There are popular newspapers for those who prefer entertainment to information. There are newspapers which pages are largely filled with news of sport and with stories of film stars, or accounts of crime and of law-court trials. Most newspapers today provide interesting and useful articles for their women readers. They tell them about the latest fashions in clothes, how to furnish their homes, and how to cook new and exciting dishes.

The popular newspapers naturally have much larger circulations than the serious newspapers. In addition to the London dailies there are papers, published in provinces. Many of them are independent and have national circulation {The Manchester Guardian, The Scotsman — Edinburgh). The Manchester Guardian's motto «Facts are sacred, comment is free», is famous. This I paper, because of its very honest comment is very influential.

The London newspaper that is best known outside Great Britain is probably The Times. It began in 1785, and has a high reputation for reliable news and serious comment on the news. It is an independent paper, not giving its support to a particular political party. The correspondence columns of the newspaper are always interesting and often amusing. The Times of course does not publish the strip cartoons that are common in the cheaper and popular papers. It does, however, publish a crossword



puzzle every day, with clues that are both clever and amusing. Many Times readers try to solve the puzzle every morning as they travel to town by train from their homes in the suburbs.

Two popular papers, with large circulations, are The Daily Mirror and The Daily Sketch. These have many pages of photographs and numerous strip cartoons. Their make up is more exciting than that of the serious papers. The news that appears in their pages is not always the most important news.

The London evening papers The Star, The Evening News, The Evening Standard are sold not only at the ordinary newsagent's shops and station bookstalls, but also at busy street corners. Sometimes the newspapers are left on a small stand at the corner of the street. Passersby help themselves to the paper and leave the price of the paper in a box or tray. The evening papers sell well because they print the last sports results. The sport pages also give advice to those who bet on results.

The Sunday papers are not Sunday editions of the daily papers. Two of them, The Observer and The Sunday Times, have a high standing among the readers. The Observer, started in 1791, is the oldest Sunday paper published in Britain. The Sunday papers provide, in addition to the news, interesting articles on music, drama, the cinema, newly published books, gardening, articles for their women readers.

Modern newspapers could not be sold at a profit without advertisements. A single copy costs more to produce than the price paid by the reader. About a quarter of this sum is received from the business firms who advertise in its pages.

### **10.3 British Radio**

Speaking about the role of sound broadcasting in the life of the British we can't help mentioning the British Broadcasting Corporation — the BBC. The BBC operates four domestic sound broadcasting services and two main groups of external broadcasting services. There are more than 160 studios for the domestic sound programmes, of which more than 60 are in London.

The domestic services, which produce over 20,000 programme hours a year, are designed to cater for the varying tastes of a diverse listening public. They consist of the Home Service, the Light Programme, the Third Programme, the Network-Three.

The Light Programme, which occupies some 18 hours a day, is intended for those who wish to enjoy relaxation and distraction. Entertainment programmes are the main feature, they include light music and dance music as well as variety programme, short plays, programmes for women and children (e.g. Women's Hour, Listen with Mother), regular summaries and commentaries on sport.

The Third Programme, which normally occupies three hours in the evening is planned for minority audiences. The range, style and presentation of the programme, which includes music, drama, arts are interested to satisfy listeners» intellectual maturity and cultural interests.

The Network-Three, which occupies one or two hours on weekday evening provides programmes of specialized interests. It is intended as a means of further education.

The BBC ensures the widest possible choice of programmes for listeners.

British broadcasting has traditionally been based on the principle that it is a public service accountable to the people through Parliament. Following 1990 legislation, it is also embracing the principles of competition and choice. Three public bodies are responsible for television and radio services throughout Britain:

the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) broadcasts television and radio services;

the Independent Television Commission (ITC) licenses and regulates non-BBC television services, including cable and satellite services;

the Radio Authority licenses and regulates all non BBC — radio services.

The Radio Authority regulates all commercially financed local radio stations. The first national commercial radio station, Classic FM, broadcasting mainly popular classical music, started in September 1992; the second, which plays rock music, is on

air from 1993. Some 140 local independent radio services are also available to local communities throughout Britain.

#### **10.4 British Television**

In 1936 the BBC launched the world's first public television service. In the course of a year the service broadcasts a great amount of items on a national network, outside broadcasts, films and relays from the continent of Europe.

BBC studio productions come from main London studios, Cully equipped regional studios at Manchester, Birmingham, Cardiff, Glasgow and other cities.

The first regional independent television service ITA (Independent Television Authority) appeared in 1955. Generally speaking, both BBC and the ITA provide programmes of music, drama, light entertainment, variety and films. Broadcasts for schools are produced five days a week. Religious broadcasting is also a feature of both services, as are programmes on the arts, children's and family programmes, interviews with outstanding personalities, news reports covering international, national and local events.

Advertising is excluded from the television programmes of the BBC, as from their sound programmes. The ITA broadcasts advertisements, but the amount of time given to advertising should not be so great as to detract from the value of the programmes. The advertisers pay the programme companies for advertising time.

Television is a huge weapon of education and information. TV has a fairytale quality, and knack of draining subjects of their meaning, leaving the faces remembered, but not what they said. And its insidious power of projecting images, ways-of-life and associations of ideas is such that no institution can afford to ignore it.

Television viewing is Britain's most popular leisure pastime.

The Government is not responsible for programme content, nor for broadcasters» day-today conduct of business. The independence of the broadcasters requires them to maintain certain standards: programmes must display a proper balance and wide

range of subject matter, and impartiality in matters of controversy. They must not offend against good taste.

## **11. LEISURE AND PASTIME**

### **11.1 Clubs**

Among the most famous clubs of London The Other Club occupies a special place. It was founded in 1911 by Winston Churchill and has developed into a powerful pillar of what is often called the Establishment. Members of the club gather for dinner once a month when Parliament is in session and their traditional meeting place is the The Other Club is rich in many traditions attributed to Winston Churchill. At his behest a large wooden black cat was seated near him at dinner with a napkin tied around its neck. The name of the black cat was Kaspar. It was placed near to Winston Churchill whenever there were only thirteen at table.

Limited to fifty, the list of membership includes members of the Commons and the Lords and other prominent people. It was given the name The Other Club because it aims always to hear the other man's point of view.

Like most things in Britain the clubs are not what they seem: in the first place, many of them are very unsociable. Clubs can be firmly divided into those where you are expected to talk to your neighbour and those where you are not.' The latter ones have huge libraries with deep and solitary arm-chairs where the clubmen can enjoy cold pie and The Times undisturbed.

A more sociable and arrogant group is the eighteen-century clubs, with their elegant facades down St James's Street.

In every part of Scotland and anywhere in the world where there is a handful of Scots there are Robert Burns Clubs. The Mother Club in Greenock, Renfrew, was founded in 1802 shortly after the poet's death and gradually the cult of the Scottish bard spread all over Scotland and beyond.

### **11.2 Pubs**

Every country has its drinking habits, some of which are general and obvious, others are most peculiar. In England the national drink is beer, and the pub, where Englishmen go to drink it, is a peculiarly English institution. The word «pub» is an abbreviation of «public house», which originally was a stopping place for weary travellers where they could get food, warmth, shelter, and of course a drink. Even in those far-off days the inn or tavern was often the centre of community life in an area and it was there that gossips and news were exchanged, and the latest political developments discussed.

Many English pubs have names which show their former IHO: The Traveller's Rest or The Coach and Horses or The Pilgrim's Arms.

Every pub has several rooms: a smoking-room, a lounge and a public bar and sometimes a singing room.

There are generally no waiters, for the customers fetch their own drinks. There is a general atmosphere of warmth and coziness. Most pubs favour the «traditional» image — a roaring log fire, old oak beams supporting a low ceiling and brass ornaments decorating the walls. Comfort is essential, for here people do not drop in for a quick drink and then go, they end generally to «make an evening of it». In the bar of every English pub there is a dartboard, and on most evenings you will find the game of darts being played.

Though the men in the UK are used to spending their free time at clubs and bars, a family way of holiday making is also very popular. It is the sea, that dominates the holiday-programme in Britain. With no place in Britain more than 70 miles from the coast anyone can easily get to a seaside resort of some kind in a day's travel. It is the best and easiest way to keeping the children happy. Tent life has enormous appeal to many ones. Very few people in Britain have summer houses to visit on holidays and weekends.

Another sort of family holiday very popular in overcrowded England, is the holiday camp. About sixty years ago the first groups of holiday-makers began to camp out along the seaside coast despite the fury of ousted landladies and hotels. It

brought to appearing of the first holiday camps; especially popular with the English working class. The amusements are largely of an energetic kind. The accent is heavily on competitive sport, with all facilities for tennis, bathing, golfing, boxing, cricket, football, skating, billiards mid of late motor-cycling and trampoline.

For poor Londoners the traditional holiday has for a century been hop-picking in Kent. Each September thousands of families still leave the slums and today sometimes the new council houses and flats, and swarm to the Kentish hop — fields. They bring their own crockery, tables, chairs, curtains, heaters, even wallpaper and set up a home in iron huts provided by the proprietors of the hop-fields. They do their own cooking and washing and housework, as well as picking hops from seven in the morning till five in the evening. Although the price paid for picking has not gone up in proportion to the cost of living, yet people still do come.

### **11.3 Gardening. Pets**

The love of gardens is deep-rooted in the British people, and this is probably one reason why so many people prefer to live in houses rather than flats. Particularly in suburban areas it is possible to pass row after row of ordinary small houses, each one with its neatly-kept patch of grass surrounded by a great variety of flowers and shrubs. Many people who have no gardens of their own have patches of land or «allotments» in specially reserved areas.

The British like making things grow whether it is in a window box outside the kitchen, or in the dream garden of many acres. Some take infinite pains with each seedling, dust mid spray to encourage it and to ward of all numerous dangers. No wonder that each rose or cabbage looks like a miracle of nature's work. For many people gardening is the foundation of social and competitive relationships. Flower — shows and vegetable-shows with prizes for the best exhibits, are immensely popular. To many gardeners the process of growing the plants seems more important than the merely aesthetic pleasure of looking at the flowers or the prospective eating the vegetables. In many places a competitive gardener's ambition is to grow the biggest

cabbages or leeks or carrots. Besides, ambition encourages a gardener to create a garden envied by all the neighbours.

Another tradition that is rooted not only in the British soil, but in the minds of the rest of the world is the devoting of the English to animals. Britain is a nation of animal lovers. They have estimated five million dogs, almost as many as cats, over three million budgies (Australian parrots), other cage-birds, aquarium fish and one million «exotic» pets such as reptiles and amphibians.

But it is America which has the largest pet population in the world — 90 million dogs and cats. The dog population is growing twice as fast as people, and there is an organization whose aim is «to raise cats position in the scheme of contemporary civilization». So, though the English speak affectionately to and of their dogs and horses, which is more than they do concerning their friends and family, they are not the only nation whose attitude to animals is menacing to the sense of proportion.

In Britain pets can send Christmas cards to their friends, birthday cards to «husbands, wives, boy or girl friends», there are even cards available for birds, fish and reptiles. Owners can buy for their pets jeweled nylon, velvet collars, lamb's-wool coats, lace-trimmed panties, nightgowns, pajamas, after swim suits, bikini-shaped panties for cocktail parties. A British manufacturer produces tiny mattresses for pet mice.

The Sunday Mirror has estimated that Britain spends six times as much on pet foods as on baby foods, and roughly 16, times as much as on cancer research.

#### **11.4 Traditions**

If you arrive in Great Britain you'll hear the word «tradition» everywhere. Englishmen have sentimental love for things and traditions because they are old. They never throw away old things. For example, in many houses of Great Britain they have a fireplace and though their bedrooms are awfully cold the English people don't want to have central heating because they don't want to have changes.

Numerous ceremonies in London can serve a good example Of the English tradition at its best. One of the most impressive of them is Changing the Guard,

which takes place at Buckingham Palace every day at 11.30 a.m. The men of duty guard march from either Wellington or Chelsea Barracks to Buckingham Palace with a band, which during the actual ceremony plays in the forecourt of the Palace. The guard is to be relieved at the southern end of the forecourt under the command of the Captain of the Queen's Guard. The new guard enters by the north gate. On ceremonial duty the guards wear scarlet tunics, blue trousers and bearskin caps.

The colourful spectacle of Mounting the Guard, at the Horse Guards, in Whitehall, also attracts London sightseers. Two units of the Household Cavalry are involved in this ceremony: the Royal Horse Guards, known as The Blues, and the Life Guards, referred to as The Tins. The Life Guards wear scarlet uniforms and white metal helmets with white horsehair plumes and have white sheepskin saddles. The Royal Horse Guards wear deep-blue tunics and white metal helmets with red horsehair plume and have black sheepskin saddles. Both wear steel body armour, that was worn during the famous battle of Waterloo. First the old guard is dismissed. With the arrival of the new guard, the trumpeter sounds a call. The two officers salute, then stand their horses side by side while the guard is changed. The ceremony takes place at 11 a.m. and lasts for 15 minutes.

One of the best-known ceremonies in London is the ceremony of the Keys. Every night at 9.53 p.m. the Chief Warder of the Yeomen Warders (Beefeaters) of the Tower of London lights a candle lantern and then makes his way towards the Bloody Tower. In the Archway his Escort awaits his arrival. The Chief Warder, carrying the keys, then moves off with his Escort to the West Gate, which he locks. Then the Middle and Byword Towers are locked.

The party then returns to the Bloody Tower Archway, and there they are halted by the challenge of the sentry. «Halt!» he commands. «Who goes there?» The Chief Warder answers, «The keys». The sentry demands: «Whose keys?» — «King Charles's keys», replies the Chief Warder. «Advance, King Charles's keys, all's well», commands the sentry. When the party approaches the Main Guard of the Tower, the order to «Present Arms» is given by the officer-in — charge. The Chief



Warder doffs his Tudor-style bonnet and cries, «God preserve King Charles». «Amen», answer the Guard and Escort.

The ceremony of the Keys dates back to 700 years and has taken place every night during that period, even during the blitz of London in the last war.

During the month of June, a day is set as the Queen's official birthday. This is usually the second Saturday in June. On this day there takes place Horse Guard Parade in Whitehall, the magnificent spectacle of Trooping the Colour, which begins at about 11,15 a.m. This is the ceremony of rare splendour, with the Queen riding side-saddle on a highly trained horse. The colours (flags) of one of the five regiments of Foot Guards are trooped before the Sovereign. For twenty minutes the whole parade stands rigidly to attention while being inspected by the Queen. The ceremony ends with the Queen returning to Buckingham Palace at the head of her Guards.

These are some of the traditions of which Great Britain has so many.

### **11.5 British National Food and Drink**

English cooking is heavy, substantial and plain, The Ideal English breakfast consists of cereals, either porridge (borrowed from the Scots), or cornflakes with milk and sugar, followed by bacon and eggs, or sausages and tomatoes, toasts and marmalade, and finally of course a cup of tea or coffee. For a change they can have a boiled egg, cold ham or fish.

Tea is part of the prose of British life, as necessary as potatoes or bread. It must be made «just like mother makes It», one teaspoonful of tea for each person and one «for the pot». Boiling water is added and the tea is allowed to stand, brew or draw. It is drunk with or without sugar but almost always with milk.

The sweet, sometimes called dessert, may consist of fruit I and custard or the famous steamed or boiled pudding. Another favourite sweet is rice pudding or sago. There are many varieties of pie. Fruit baked in a covering of pastry with a «lid» is called a pie, without a lid it is called a tart. These pies or tarts are eaten hot or cold, often with custard.

Sunday dinner is a special occasion, a week-end joint of beef or lamb being bought and eaten hot with vegetables. After this there will probably follow a large, heavy pudding with custard, a cup of tea or coffee completes the meal. The English occasionally like to drink water or beer with their meal, but only in the expensive restaurants or among upper class people are spirits taken with the meal. Spirits are generally too expensive for normal household, except at Christmas time.

Five o'clock tea is a peculiar meal. In upper class circles it is a snack of thin bread and butter and cups of tea with small cakes. Dinner for them, follows at seven o'clock and supper sometime after nine. For the working class household, however, tea is a fairly substantial meal, often consisting of boiled ham and salad or a boiled egg, bread and butter and jam, and tea. On weekdays some families eat a hot meal in the evening that is at tea-time. Supper is usually a snack of bread and cheese and cocoa.

The English have a popular specialty known as fish and I chips. This meal, fit for a king, is only appreciated by those with a specially trained palate. Fish and chips can be made at home but the best fish and chips are sold in fish and chips shops. Fish coated in batter is fried golden brown and served with chips-strips of raw potato also fixed in fat on a piece of paper. Salt and vinegar are added and the meal is then wrapped in a sheet of paper. One hurries home with the precious bundle, its delicious odour wafting through the paper, or else the fish and chips are simply eaten out of the paper, in the street with one's fingers.

## **12. CULTURAL LIFE**

### **12.1 Historical Background**

Cultural life in Great Britain is closely connected with the Romans, who built theatres in Britain during their invasion but they were not used once the Romans had left. In the Middle Ages people were entertained by clowns who made them laugh and singers whose songs told stories. The singers were perhaps the first step towards theatre in Britain.

The Church, however, was really responsible for bringing drama back into England. Stories from the Bible were acted out in the churches at times such as Christmas and Easter. By the 13th century the whole church was used to act out one of these plays so that members of the audience were sitting among the actors while the play was happening.

At this time the speeches were in Latin, but between the 13th and 14th centuries drama left the churches and the words were then spoken in English, although the plays still told stories from the Bible. The development of the Renaissance brought European culture to its height. In the first period it was the time of the «morality plays» and the mystery plays», though with a new, political significance. The plays were acted on carts which were brought to different places in the town for the play to be performed.

There were also texts of the 15th century, «miracle» plays on religious subject that were born of church service with a choir and were in fact illustrations to sermons. They were later prohibited in connection with their increasingly secular nature and then craftsmen's guilds undertook the staging and the «pageant», or the movable platform that served for a stage on which the successive scenes were enacted in various parts of the town, attracted holiday crowds laying the foundation for the development of the national drama.

The second phase of the Renaissance in England in the second half of the 16th century is, among other things, an age of the theatre art.

There were plays by classical and Roman tragedians staged by university students, plays into which «the morality» characters had been shifted to produce a quaint combination of the classical and popular trends; there were also «masques», plays written on biblical subjects. The professional actors played them in taverns and roadside inns. The actors had to have protectors in order to exist for the law persecuted them for vagabondism. In 1576 the first theatre was built in London by the group of actors and soon theatres appeared everywhere — rough and primitive structures, roofless for the most part and curtainless too, seating (or rather «standing»,

for there were no seats for ordinary public) some thousand people. Immediate contact with the audience of craftsmen, sailors, peddlers and the like was established. Woman did not act, female parts were played by young boys, nor were women supposed to attend unless wearing a mask for some of the passages in the plays were obscene. By and by, thanks to the combined efforts of the «University Wits» as the pre-Shakespearean dramatists were called and the genius of Shakespeare, England developed the finest drama the world had ever known.

The third period of the Renaissance epoch in England was characterized by increasing decay of the Renaissance drama.

The English 17th century theatre suffered frantic attacks from puritans. Playwriting gradually lost its old fire, the old poetry, the high Shakespearian humour. Instead, violence increased in tragedies, and comedies bristled with coarseness, ‘[«the masque and the pastoral drama closely related to it were the favourable forms of court entertainment.

In the beginning of the 17th century Inigo Jones, an eminent figure in English theatre history, experimented with Italian style stages and stage-setting in England. He introduced the proscenium frame and picturized stage as a substitute for the Elizabethan acting platform. He carefully studied the effects which took the fancy of Italian audiences, such as allegorical florid costuming and a curtained stage, and put all that to touch on the English stage.

After the suppression of stage plays by Parliament in 1642 professional actors scattered and a long silence on the part of playwrights ensued.

In the restoration period under the influence of French classic drama a new kind of literary drama emerged — a heroic drama. They were stories of love and war, and the characters were princes and conquerors and great ladies. The masque tradition led on to a play with music and subsequently to opera. The restoration dramatists are known as true masters of comedy writing.

By this time boys were banished from the stage and women-players made their appearance for the first time in the history of the English stage. In 1698 Jeremy

Collier issued short *View of the Immorality and Profaneness of the English Stage*. The effect was immediate and far-reaching, indecency was cut off. Accordingly there comes a rise in the social standing of an actor. Actors are no longer referred to as rogues and vagabonds but are treated as respectable members of society.

In 1682 the two companies, Gentlemen of the Chamber and The Duke of York's Company were merged. The one company that had emerged assumed the title of King's Company and the Drury Lane Theatre became its home. Sir Christopher Wren's drawing was used as a design for the Drury Lane Theatre and it showed that London fell into life with continental practice in theatre design. Ballet which was a dramatic dance came to be a favourite pastime at the court for nearly a century. Opera was strongly influenced by the French and Italian operas. Moliere had a profound influence over the restoration comedy of England.

The most outstanding figure of the time was David Garrick, an actor and playwright. He is often referred to as the one great star of the age of Great Actors (18th century). His contribution to the art of staging was known as character acting. It was regarded as actual revolution. Unlike the tradition of his predecessors his acting was very natural and expressive. Theatrical England was fortunate in witnessing the birth of two playwrights three years before Garrick's retirement, Oliver Goldsmith and Richard Sheridan.

The French revolution declared freedom of creative initiative, invoked the spirit of novelty, of searching and experimenting. English romanticism was strongly influenced by the greatest romanticist of the age Hugo, whose revolutionary dramas ousted classicism from the stage. The Victorian age known as the age of drabness is notorious for unimaginative art. The English creative theatre under Victorianism merely cramps.

This new form of play known as tragi-comedy had a fitful progress both in France and Germany. One of the greatest romantic actors of this time was Edmund Kean who had established a reputation on the English stage as the greatest tragic actor of his day. Being a genuine Romantic he shattered all traditions by his brilliant acting.

His Shylock and Othello and Richard III are the parts which made him famous. The finest romantic poets Byron and Shelley gave the British stage new poetic dramas.

The only English comedy writer of international importance between Sheridan and Shaw was Oscar Wilde.

In 1843 A Theatre Regulation Act was passed by the government which provided for an unlimited number of playhouses, under certain restrictions of censorship. The company at The Prince of Wales theatre did pioneer work in group acting and strove to emancipate the stage from French domination thus giving encouragement for the English playwrights.

## **12.2 Theatre**

Britain is one of the world's major centres for theatre and has a long and rich dramatic tradition. There are many companies based in London and other cities and towns, as well as numerous touring companies which visit theatres, festivals and other venues, including arts and sports centres and social clubs.

Britain has about 300 theatres intended for professional use which can seat between 200 and 2,300 people. Some are privately owned, but most are owned either municipally or by non-profit-distributing organizations. In summer there are also open air theatres, including one in London's Regent's Park and the Minack Theatre, which is on an open cliffside near Land's End in Cornwall.

15 of many London's theatres are permanently occupied by subsidized companies. These include: the Royal National Theatre, which stages a variety of modern and classical plays; the Royal Shakespeare Company, which presents plays mainly by Shakespeare and his contemporaries as well as more modern works; the English Stage Company at the Royal Court Theatre in Sloane Square, London, which stages the work of many talented new playwrights.

Most theatres are commercially run and self-financing, relying on popular shows and musicals with long runs to be profitable. By contrast, companies funded by the Arts Council tend to offer a mixed fare of traditional and experimental or innovative productions. Musical, ranging from one person shows to large cast extravaganzas,

have grown in popularity in the last two decades; today there are more than 200 musical productions in Britain each year.

A major step forward has been the setting up of the National Theatre in 1962. Sir Laurence Olivier was the Director and Kenneth Tynan, the theatre critic, literary adviser. This is the first state theatre Britain has ever had. It has a permanent staff of actors and actresses, scenic designers and advisers. Guest actors and actresses are asked to perform from time to time. The National Theatre works along English repertory theatre lines, and a play intends to run for about four weeks, or a short season.

### **12.3 Cinema**

If you want to go to the cinema in Britain today you will have to face two problems. The first is to find a cinema in your locality which is still showing films and which has not been turned into a bowling alley, a bingo hall or a ballroom. The second is to find a film worth seeing.

The large industrial cities used to have five or six cinemas in the centre and about thirty in the suburbs. Even small towns had several cinemas. But since the advent of television, cinemas have been closing down at an alarming rate. The downward curve, although less sharp, is still continuing.

Most cinemas in Britain run continuous performances from about midday to eleven at night. Tickets cannot be booked in advance except at some West End cinemas and a few in provinces. Practically all new films have a premiere run at one of the big West End cinemas owned by giant cinema companies. The length of the premiere run depends on its financial success, and the tendency, especially with the huge epic spectacles, longer premiere runs sometimes for several years.

General release cinemas are in the grip of a double monopoly — Rank and ABC. Although this is a numerical minority, it represents all the key cinemas in the country, for while the rest of the cinemas are grouped in small privately-owned chains of three, four or perhaps a dozen. The Rank and ABC cinemas form two major networks all over the country, and no British film can hope to cover its costs unless it is booked

by one or other of these circuits. Moreover, banks will not advance money to film producers unless they have a guarantee of distribution through companies linked with one or other of these two circuits.

The problem of finance is a very real one to all filmmakers because an initial outlay of several thousands of pounds is not essential even to start a film. Production is so costly that even the major film companies have to borrow part of their capital.

The two big companies, Rank and ABC, not only control exhibition, but are also powerful production companies themselves. The big American-British companies, e.g. MGM, Paramount, United Artists, have permanent distribution arrangements with one or the other of them, and are therefore able to produce whatever they want. Any smaller company is unable to enter production unless it has the backing of one or the other of the big production and distribution companies for the particular film it is proposing to make.

#### **12.4 Edinburgh International Festival**

The post-war years have seen a great growth in the number of arts festivals in Britain and other European countries. Among them the Edinburgh International Festival has now firmly established its reputation as one of the foremost events of its kind in the world. On most evenings during the festival there are as many as six events to choose from on the official programme: symphony concerts, ballets, plays, recitals — all given by the finest artists in the world.

The Festival was inaugurated in 1947. Glyndebourne Opera, the Vienna Philharmonic Orchestra, the Old Vic Theatre and Sadler's Wells Ballet were only a few of the participants of this first venture. The Festival was a success, and has been held annually ever since.

The Festival is quite international in its character giving as a rule a varied representation of artistic production from a number of countries, and over the past few years it has had a definite theme, that is the work of one or two composers studied in depth.



The Festival The Days of Great Britain in Kyiv which was held in June 1990, was one of the greatest events in the cultural life of our country. During this festival the capital of Ukraine was visited by the representative of the British Royal Family — Her Royal Excellency princess Ann and by the British Prime Minister M.Thatcher.

The programme of the festival consisted of different music, theatre and cinema shows, exhibitions and trade markets. The Royal Shakespeare Theatre showed its famous The Comedy of Errors. The British National Opera was giving its performances with a great success. The Kyivites were greatly impressed by this cultural event. Today well-known Ukrainian showmen present their works in London. The critics from the USA, France and Great Britain highly valued this production. A lot of groups of pop-musicians present their works in Great Britain. They appeal to audiences and have often set new trends in the development of popular music. They played in numerous clubs and public houses and have enthusiastic supporters.

### **13. MUSIC**

Music in all its forms has a substantial following. There are four symphony orchestras in London with international reputation, and other well-known ones are based in Birmingham, Bournemouth, Manchester and Liverpool. The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) has its orchestras. In addition, there are a number of specialized string and chamber orchestras, including the London Simfonieta which performs contemporary music. British pop music groups appeal to audiences worldwide and have often set new trends in the development of popular music. Jazz, played in numerous clubs and public houses, has an enthusiastic following.

Some 240 professional arts festivals take place each year, including the Edinburgh International Festival; the Three Choirs Festival held annually for over 250 years in Gloucester, Worcester or Hereford; the Cheltenham Festival, devoted largely to contemporary British music, and the Llangollen International Music Festival.

The main London Opera companies are the Royal Opera at Covent Garden, the English National Opera. Wales and Northern Ireland have their own companies.

The Royal Opera House at Covent Garden gives performances of opera and ballet throughout the year. The English National Opera Company performs operas, sung in English, at the London Coliseum. It also tours the provinces. The standard of performance is high. There is an opera season at Glyndebourne, Sussex (May to August).

There has been an extraordinary flowering of talent among British operatic singers. There are excellent touring opera companies which give performances in most big cities.

There are several dance companies in Britain. Among them we can find London Festival Ballet, Ballet Rambert, Scottish Ballet (Glasgow), London Contemporary Dance Theatre, and Northern Ballet Theatre (Manchester).

Present-day concern with music is shown by the existence of something like a hundred summer schools of music, which cater for all grades of musicians, from the mere beginner to the skilled performer. These schools where a friendly atmosphere reigns, provide courses lasting from a week-end to 3-4 weeks.

Public support for the arts takes the form of government grants to independent agencies, of which the Arts Council of Great Britain is the most important. It gives financial help to opera, dance and drama companies, orchestras, the visual arts, small touring theatres, experimental groups and many other organizations. A growing source of funds is sponsorship and patronage by industry and commerce. The British Council promotes knowledge of British culture and the English language overseas by initiating or supporting tours Of British companies and artists.

### **13.1 Folk Music**

Folk music is a body of traditional music, originally transmitted orally. Many folk songs originated as a rhythmic accompaniment to manual work or to mark a specific ritual. Folk song is usually melodic, not harmonic, and the modes used are distinctive of the country of origin.

A burgeoning interest in ballad poetry in the later 18th century led to the discovery of a rich body of folk song in Europe.

Folklore, the stories saying, local customs songs, dances, etc., handed down from generation to generation among the unsophisticated members of a race or nation.

Traditional folk song, in the style it was sung over one hundred years ago, is still popular with a lot of people. There are traditional folk clubs in most towns. Even more popular is traditional Irish music. Groups like The Chieftains and Planxty play beautiful Irish tunes on traditional instruments.

Folk songs are the songs composed and sung by country people. The songs may be hundreds of years old, so nobody knows who originally composed them. Folk music is often music for dancing. In Britain it was traditionally played on instruments like a fiddle (another name for a violin), flute, bagpipes, accordion, concertina, etc.

The McCalmans is one of Scotland's most popular folk groups. They have been playing together for a long time and have many fans both in Scotland and throughout the world. Their three-part harmony singing and good humour win them friends wherever they perform.

In England the late 19th century saw a development in the transcribing and preserving of folk tunes by such people as the Rev Sabine Baring-Gould and Cecil Sharp. The Folk Song Society was founded in 1898 and became the English Folk Dance and Song Society in 1911; they censored much of their material. The folk revival of the 1980s was furthered by rock guitarist Richard Thompson and groups such as The Pogues (formed 1983), and there was growing interest in roots, or world, music, encompassing traditional as well as modern music from many cultures.

### **13.2 From Classical to Modern Music**

In the 16th and 17th centuries English musicians had a great reputation in Europe, both for their talent and for their originality. Today there is a revival of interest in these neglected composers. It was their experiments in keyboard music which helped to form the base from which grew most of the great harpsichord and piano music of

the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries. William Byrd was the most distinguished English composer of this time, and his name is still widely known.

In the centuries which followed, England produced such composers of world rank like Purcell in the 17th and 18th centuries, and Elgar in the 20th century. Today, however, many people believe that there has been a reflowering of English music, and that the compositions of some contemporary composers will live on after their deaths. The music of Michael Tippett, Benjamin Britten and William Walton is performed all over the world.

Amongst music lovers in Britain and, indeed, in very many other countries — the period between July and September 21 is a time of excitement, of anticipation, of great enthusiasm. Imagine we are in the middle of the Henry Wood Promenade Concerts — the Proms. Every night at 7 o'clock (Sunday excepted) a vast audience assembled at the Royal Albert Hall rises for the playing and singing of the National Anthem. A few minutes later, when seats have been resumed, the first work of the evening begins. The BBC broadcasts certain principal works every night throughout the season. The audience reached by this means is estimated to total several million in Britain alone, and that total is probably equaled to the number of listeners abroad.

The reason why such a great audience is attracted is that the Proms present every year a large repertoire of classical works under the best conductors and with the best artists. A season provides an anthology of masterpieces.

The Proms started in 1895 when Sir Henry Wood formed the Queen's Hall Orchestra with Mr. Robert Newman as its manager. The purpose of the venture was to provide classical music to many people who cared to come at a price all could afford to pay. Those of lesser means were being charged comparatively little, one shilling to enter the Promenade, where standing was the rule.

Prom's innovation was the employment of women members of the orchestra. It happened during the First World War when Henry Wood began accepting the best players regardless of sex.

After almost three hundred years of musical sterility in Britain, a number of composers have established themselves. In the 20th century Elgar, Britten, Bush, Holst, Ireland, William Walton and Vaughan Williams are a few of the better known names. Many of them were heard for the first time at the Proms.

George Frederick Handel composed *The Messiah*, *Judas Maccabaeus* and *The Music for the Royal Fireworks*. The last one was written to celebrate the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1749.

Henry Purcell (1659-1695) was the founder of the British opera. He composed some operas: *Dido and Aeneas*, *The Indian Queen*, and *The Fairy Queen*. His opera *King Arthur* was very popular among the common people, it was rather a patriotic one. The main idea of his opera was the struggle for the independence of Britain. *King Arthur* was a national English hero, a fighter against invaders.

The great influence of Henry Purcell has been seen today in the works of Benjamin Britten who imitated Henry Purcell's music.

Benjamin Britten was not modern in the musical sense of the word, but he was modern in his attitude towards his public. He has been called a «people's composer» because he composed music, particularly operas and choral works, that can be sung by ordinary people and by children. Some of his operas, such as *Noyes Fludde* (Noah's Flood) are performed in churches every year and people from the surrounding area sing and act in them. The festival which he started in his little home town, Aldeburgh, on the North Sea coast of Suffolk, has become one of the most important musical festivals in Britain.

Alan Bush (born in 1900) was a talented composer and pianist. He was also a very clear musical critic and an excellent conductor. He was a professor of composition at the Royal Academy of Music (1925–1964). Alan Bush won his popularity with his songs and piano music. He is the author of some operas, too.

The emergence of the beat group as a symbol of the new, young, swinging Britain is one of the most exciting developments in the history of popular arts in the 20th century. The teenagers not only in England but in other countries show no sign of

losing their affection for the Beatles, Stones, Animals, Hermits, Troggs, Hollies, Spencer Davis Group, Beach Boys, Supremes and all the other groups.

One thing which distinguishes today's beat from earlier pop music is the present emphasis on group playing. The British beat music was first heard in the gloomy streets of Liverpool inhabited by dockers. The Cover (a club where the Beatles performed) became popular with the vast teenage population.

The Beatles were only one of the groups playing in Liverpool at the time they began to make reputation. Now, without counting the top stars, the number of beat groups in England must run into tens of thousands. Of these, a few are full-time professionals with excellent sound equipment who may be well known in their own region and able to make a fairly good living: some may do tours abroad, where they can often get much greater fees than they would get at home, others are purely amateur.

### **13.3 The Beatles**

On Wednesday 24th October 1962, Love me do, entered the British Top Thirty. It was the first single record by an unknown group from Liverpool called the Beatles. It was the first of a number of big hits that would make John Lennon, Paul McCartney, George Harrison and Ringo Starr the most successful pop group the world has ever known.

The road to success was not always easy. John and Paul had spent many afternoons listening to American stars like Chuck Berry and Elvis Presley before they were able to write the famous Lennon and McCartney songs.

Although the long evenings spent playing in hot nightclubs in Liverpool and Hamburg in Germany had not earned them much money, they found the experience very useful when playing to huge audience later on.

Not only was their style of singing new and exciting but their unusual haircuts — Beatle «mops» — and crazy sense of humour immediately became the latest fashion.

One of the most important people at the start of their careers was Brian Epstein, a Liverpool record-dealer, who managed to change four ordinary working-class lads into

International superstars. George Martin, their record producer, encouraged them to introduce all kinds of unusual Instruments on their records and combined popular and classical styles in a new and original way.

During the 1960s the Beatles were always in the news headlines, films, world tours and sometimes scandals. John miche suggested that the Beatles were better known than Jesus Christ. This caused hundreds of young Americans to burn their Beatle records. In addition some people thought there were hidden messages about drugs in some of the songs.

After a decade of successful music and films, the Beatles finally decided to break up in the early seventies, lifter public disagreements about money and personalities. AI though many fans hoped there would be a reunion through — mi t the 1970s, this became impossible with the tragic murder id' John Lennon in New York in 1980. The survived Beatles are still deeply involved in musical and film projects, but many fans still long for the music of the 60s.

#### **13.4 Royal Academy of Music**

Established in 1822, the Royal Academy of Music aims to educate and train performing musicians for all branches of the music profession at the highest international level.

The Royal Academy of Music has about 500 students, of whom some 30 per cent come from outside the United Kingdom. Students receive training in all aspects of performance and composition, both solo and ensemble, in chamber music, orchestral and choral music, opera, and music theatre. They also have individual lessons in their chosen field, and performance classes, with opportunities for concert appearances and recitals. The Academy has several orchestras that perform on its own premises, and occasionally tour abroad. It j is particularly renowned for its training of string quartets, 1 many of which are of international status (for example, the Lindsay and the Allergy).

Many famous musicians have studied at the Academy in many different specialist areas from composing and conducting to singing and playing. In the 19th century, Sir

Arthur Sullivan and Sir Henry Wood studied at the Academy, while more recent luminaries include Sir Harrison Birtwistle, Sir Simon Rattle, Elton John, Moura Lympany, and Felicity Lott. Teaching chairs are held by distinguished musicians who have included Andras Schiff, Robert Tear, and Sir Colin Davis. He received a knighthood in the 1998 New Year's honours list.

## **14. BRITISH ART**

### **14.1 The «Golden Age» of English Painting**

The period from W. Hogarth to Constable and W. Turner is the period between the 1730s and 1830s. It is rightly considered to be the «Golden Age» of English painting. Never in any other century did England contribute so much to the history of world art. It was at that time that England took path of capitalist development. It was marked by the general advance in its economic might and national culture and art. Some of the greatest foreign masters were attracted to England loaded with honours and even in some sort received into the nation by the titles of nobility conferred upon them. Holbein, Antonio More, Rubens, Van Dyck were almost English painters during a longer or shorter period of their lives. They influenced greatly the formation of the British national painting school.

One of them is the Flemish painter Sir Anthony **Van Dyck** (1599-1641), a pupil of great Rubens, is considered the father of the English portrait school and set before it an aristocratic ideal of a person. He trained a few English pupils, nevertheless his principal imitators and successors were like himself foreigners settled in London.

Not until **William Hogarth** (1697-1764) do we find a painter truly English. He was the first great English painter who raised English pictorial art to a high level of importance. He was a man of remarkably individual character and thought. W. Hogarth had friends among famous English writers J. Swift, Filding. He was the first English painter who brought painting closer to literature and theatre. In his masterpieces *The Rake's Progress* and *The Marriage-a-la Mode* Hogarth showed himself as an innovator. He was the first to invent a story and illustrate it. Being a



social painter, he produced his own pictorial drama, showing different scenes of society's social life. His art was a reflection and a commentary on the social condition of his time. Hogarth was a great master of composition, which is perfectly displayed in his series of engravings. The Marriage-a-la Mode, the moral series consisting of six engravings, displayed one of the sharpest problems of his time — marriage based on money and vanity. Although his narrative pictures were comic and full of satire, his portraiture was honest and original (the most brilliant of them are the portrait of The Shrimp Girl and his Self-Portrait). The portraits of W. Hogarth are penetrating studies of character. The portrait of his own face gives an idea of that keen and brave look with which W. Hogarth regarded the world. While looking at the famous The Shrimp Girl, which stands among the masterpieces of the world, we can't help admiring its harmony of form and content, its freshness and vitality. Breaking all the unwritten laws of art of that time, W. Hogarth, a remarkable painter and engraver, showed the terrible evils of the society of those times with unprecedented courage.

### **14.2 English Portrait Painting**

In the second half of the 18th century narrative and satirical themes lost their leading role in English art. The filling classes during the years of industrial revolution tried to show in art a glorification of their social position. The most popular form of painting became ceremonial portraits of representatives of the ruling class.

**Sir Joshua Reynolds** (1723–1792) was the most outstanding portraitist of that period. He was the first President of the Royal Academy of Arts in Britain. He created a whole gallery of portraits of the most famous contemporaries of his time. It may be said that Reynolds was, in his fashion, the legitimate heir of Hogarth, not of Hogarth the moralist and satirist, but Hogarth the portrait painter. He gave the decisive impetus to the national temperament. Reynolds painted portraits, group pictures and historical themes. Among his sitters there were the socially prominent people of the time, Reynolds made careful studies of Old Master paintings: Rembrandt, Titian, Raphael. In his writings he evolved a doctrine of imitation, a fact with which he had sometimes been reproached, but wrongly so, since he succeeded in

making his borrowings his own and giving to a composite creation a homogeneous, personal and national character. For Reynolds each sitter was not just a physical fact to be recorded, but rather a story to be told. Reynolds succeeded in revealing his sitters» inner world. One of the most perfect paintings in which a great artist had enshrined his dream of woman was The Portrait of Nelly O'Brien. Lighting and colour show the artist's technique at its best. Reynolds often painted the characters in heroic style and they are not free of idealization.

**Thomas Gainsborough** (1727–1788) succeeded brilliantly IIM a portrait painter. A good amateur violinist and a lover of the drama, he was an artistic person. His manner of painting differs from Reynolds». His portraits are painted in clear tones, where blue and grey colours predominate (The Blue Hoy, Mrs. Sheridan). If Reynolds was the solid prose of that age of prose, the incipient poetry was with Gainsborough, whose name is so often coupled and contrasted with his one. Even in the portraits Gainsborough is an out-of-door painter. The backgrounds of his portraits are often the well-observed country scene. T. Gainsborough is the creator of the great English school of landscape painting. His great love for the English country and his delicate understanding of nature are imperially felt in the pictures The Watering Place, The Harvest Waggon. Not for nothing was the master a musician. his painting has a quality belonging to this most abstract Mid fleeting of arts.

**Thomas Lawrence** (1769–1839) was a painter of kings, princes, great diplomats, generals. All these are presented in large full-dress portraits painted with verve and elegance. He lavished on his portraits his facility of execution, his fluid touch, his rich colour.

### **14.3 Landscape Painting**

If portrait painting is one of the glories of English art, landscape is the other one; in both directions it rose to supreme height.

**John Constable** (1776–1837) is one of the most outstanding painters, who developed his own style of painting. He was the first English landscape painter to ask no lessons from the Dutch. His originality does not lie in the choice of subjects,

which frequently repeat themes beloved by Gainsborough. Nevertheless, («unstable seems really to belong to another century; he ushers In a new era and this difference results at once from technique mid feeling. He considered the sketch made directly from nature the first task of the painter to do. He introduced green into painting, the green of trees, the green of summer, all the greens which until then, painters refused to see. He used broken touches of colour. He made quick sketches based on his first impressions of natural beauties. His work is important as the beginning of the Impressionist school. His masterpieces are The Haywain, The Watford Mill. In his works J. Constable gave the impetus for the development of the realistic trend in British painting, that was first developed alongside with the romantic trend.

Constable was an acute observer of nature and had a romantic passion for light. For him light was a means of great importance. Constable's treatment of skies is especially notable. No Him has painted cloud effects so truthfully and depicted them with so much skill. The sparkless of light and colour in Constable's works and the deliberate roughness of texture broke with the tradition of smooth painting. Besides the intrinsic merit of Constable's work, it is also historically important for the effect it had on both the Romantic and the Impressionist group.

**William Turner** (1774–1851) had a life-long passion for the Him and he dedicated most of his paintings to it. He was a on sailor and the sea absorbed him. He gave to his seas mass and weight as well as movement. His waves seem to be alive. To a sailor a ship is a living creature, courageous and loyal. In drawing ships Turner shows a knowledge that springs from love. If Turner sympathized with ships, he sympathized equally with the men within them and loved to depict fishermen pulling at oars sailors grappling with ropes. He only cared in fact to portray the mood of the sea as it affected the experiences of a man. Calais Pier is one of his grandest creations. The more it is studied the more actual the vision of a storm becomes. Those who look a the picture can smell the water and hear the shout of the wine The composition gains unity from the concentration in the center of the picture of two

masses of light upon the sky above and upon the waves below. The colouring of the painting is masterful.

## **15. SPORTS**

### **15.1 Sports Facilities. Tourism**

Local authorities are major providers of facilities for community recreation: their estimated expenditures on sport and recreation amount to great sums of money annually. Provision of facilities is being substantially increased to meet the increasing demand and to encourage expansion of participations. The facilities provided include parks, lakes, playing fields, sport hulls, tennis courts, golf courses, swimming pools and sport centres for a wide range of activities.

Publicly maintained schools must provide for the physical education of their pupils. All are expected to have a playing field or the use of one, and most secondary schools have a gymnasium. Some have other amenities such as swimming pools, sports halls and halls designed for dance and movement. Sports and recreation facilities are also provided at Institutions of higher and further education, and there are «centres of sporting excellence», which enable selected young athletes to develop their talents.

Besides the facilities mentioned above the government and local authorities are responsible for conserving and enhancing the natural beauty and amenity of the countryside, and encouraging the provision and improvement of facilities for open-air recreation: country parks, picnic sites and informal recreation facilities. Much is done to increase people's enjoyment of the countryside. Every Englishman is a countryman at heart. However many years he may have lived in the city, does not believe he really belongs there. As he looks out of the window of his flat over the vast desert of brick and concrete he has in his mind a vivid picture of the day when he will live in a thatched cottage with roses round the porch and hollyhock in the garden, and breathe in the fresh air of the unspoiled countryside. It is a long-distance

love affair. The further away the countryside is, both in miles and time since he was last there, the more desirable it becomes.

This is of great importance because the British are fond of walking, travelling. Many people in Britain spend week-ends and holidays travelling along beautiful rivers and canals. For young people who work in the big industrial towns the beauty of the canals has special interest at week-ends. Sailing round the coast is very popular. The British have shown themselves always ready for tourism. They have always been pioneers in travelling far away. Each year more Englishmen with their children travel to some part of continental Europe. Many take their cars, often with tents and caravans. Others take part in group travel. They say that tourism is the best way of rest and recreation.

### **15.2 Football. British Sport Fans**

The British are fond of different kinds of sport and recreation. The increased provision of sports centres has improved opportunities for participation in indoor sports such as basketball, volleyball, fencing, judo, karate and other martial arts, gymnastics, table tennis and shooting. Almost all outdoor sports have continued to gain in popularity. The number of people enjoying the recreational amenities of the countryside, rivers and coastline is similarly growing.

Sportsmen and sportswomen may be professionals (paid players) or amateurs. Some sports such as rugby union, hockey and rowing — are amateur, but in others the distinction between amateur and professional status is less strictly defined, or does not exist.

**Association Football.** The largest spectator sport and one of the most popular participation sports was first developed and codified in England during the 19th century. The Football Association, founded in 1863, was the first in the world. In the next 20 years many of England's greatest clubs were born. Since then the growth of the game has been phenomenal. The annual competitions for the FA Cup Final are organized on a knockout basis, and are played at the best stadiums of Britain such as Wembley Stadium in London. British clubs were European club champions for

numerous times. There is hardly an Englishman who is not at least a great sport fan. The English are the most passionate spectators. The competitions for the FA Cup are played before a roaring, singing crowd of 120,000 at Wembley Stadium. In spite of cold weather (the football season lasts from August until May) the stadium is always absolutely full and spectators keep shouting their heads off. They wear coloured scarves and paper hats, have wooden rattles in their hands. This carnival atmosphere is treated very seriously by the majority of the people, for football in Britain is a national winter game.

### **15.3 Other Kinds of Sport**

**Boat Race.** With the exception of the FA Cup, there is no sporting event in Britain enjoying greater popular attraction than the boat race. Oarsmanship is taught in many schools, colleges and rowing clubs. The University Boat Race (between eight-oared crews from Oxford and Cambridge) originated in 1829. Each year about 250 regattas and boat races are held in Britain. To be a member of the University Boat Race is the most cherished honour that can be gained by an undergraduate of either of the Universities. On boat race on Saturday the banks along the Thames and the bridges are crowded with people who come out to watch the race sporting a dark-blue or a pale-blue rosette thus demonstrating their preference.

**Golf.** The game originated in Scotland, where for centuries it had the title of the Royal and Ancient Game. Golf is played throughout Britain and there are golf courses in the vicinity of most towns. The word «golf» derives from the Dutch word «kolf» — meaning a club.

Originally the balls were made of leather, stuffed with feathers. Today's ball has a semi-fluid core surrounded by strips of rubber.

**Cricket.** It is among the most popular summer sports and is sometimes called the English national game, having been played as early as the 1550s. Among the many clubs founded in the 18th century was the Marylebone Cricket Club, which continues to frame the laws of the game. Cricket is played in schools, colleges and universities,

and in most towns and villages amateur teams play weekly games from late April to the end of September.

The bat is the principal emblem of the game. A match is played between two sides of eleven players each. The wickets are pitched opposite one another at a distance of about 22 yards. A cricket match may be a one-day match, or it may last two or three days. Cricket is played in England and in all the English-speaking countries except Canada. In the US cricket is played only in Philadelphia and Portland, Oregon.

**Basketball** is played in Britain mainly indoors by both men and women.

**Chess** has increased in popularity and England now ranks second among chess-playing nations.

**Cycling.** Since the 1970s there has been a substantial resurgence of interest in cycling, both as a means of transport and as a sport and recreation.

**Ice Skating** became popular in Britain in the late 19th and early 20th centuries and takes 3 main forms: ice dancing, figure, skating, and speed skating.

**Horse-Riding** takes a number of forms ranging from recreational riding to show jumping.

Athletics, boxing, hockey, motor sports, rock-climbing, rugby-football, volleyball, sailing, skiing, swimming, tennis are also very popular in Britain.

## **16. BRITISH YOUTH**

### **16.1 British Youth Today**

The United Nations Organization defines youth as young people in the age of 15 to 25. Young people under 30 constitute almost one half of the world's population.

There is also above 1.5 billion children on our planet. And all of them have the right for happiness. This was written in the Declaration of Child's Rights adopted at the UN General Assembly.

The British young people are the vanguard of every important contemporary social movement. They organize conferences and set up communities, unions and societies to consider their own particular problems.

To know each other better, young people use different forms of cooperation, such as friendship weeks and camps, delegation exchanges, special tours, bilateral and multilateral seminars on problems of international youth movement, peace marches, etc.

Most 18 and 19 year-olds in Britain are fairly independent people, and when the time comes to pick a college they usually choose one as far away from home as possible. So, many students in northern and Scottish universities come from the south of England and vice versa. It is very unusual for university students to live at home. Although parents may be a little sad to see this happen, they see it as a necessary part of becoming an adult. Anyway, the three university terms are only ten weeks each, and during vacation times families are reunited.

Painfully conditioned by mass advertising, pop records, Home young people try to use their charms instead of their brains. The current dream amongst the undergraduate intelligentsia is an ivory tower on a small croft in the remotest Hebridean island.

The solid group of English students try not to think about anything else but the banker's draft or a good science degree to be cashed in terms of a nice little wife and a nice little family, a comfortable house, a smart car, and a snug respected position in the world. Of the others, there are a few idealists working themselves into shadows and there are also a few layabouts.

It must be said that their speech, their songs, and most of what they eat and drink come to them second-hand from America together with the crime magazines and crime comics and crime films which are their only point of contact with the arts.

The English young people have fixed ideas about clothes. In clothes they prefer not the new but the good quality and durable. They dislike the brand new, in fact everything that looks bought yesterday. However, it should be remembered that the English are distributed according to their class, their income, their education, and their manners.



Talking about the girls, they don't seem to be as interested in new clothes meaning the very fashionable clothes, as for example, the French girls.

By the standards of today's English youth, to marry twenty-two is already dangerously late. Marrying so young, having their babies right away, England's youth are themselves parents with parental problems, often before they reach the age of twenty.

## **16.2 Youth Organizations**

Most of the youth organizations in Britain work under the British Youth Council (BYC), which represents the youth of the country both nationally and internationally. The BYC is a consultative body for about sixty youth organizations: the National Union of Students, the Scout and Girl Guides Associations and many other non-political youth groups, as well as political youth organizations.

The development of youth organizations, their increasing number and diversity is a characteristic feature for Great Britain. In general, youth organizations are extremely varied.

The National Union of Students was founded in 1922, when various university and college student organizations were united to defend the interests of the student youth and to coordinate international contacts and cooperation.

The chief aims of the Union are to defend the interests of students in university governing bodies, to provide better access to education, to preserve financial allocations on education.

**The Scout Association** was formed in 1903 (and it was called then the Boy Scouts Association) after the appearance of a book *Scouting for Boys* written by Lieutenant-General Baden-Powell. Though the movement had been started in Great Britain for British boys, it very quickly spread to other countries.

Baden-Powell's idea of training boys was that they should organize themselves into small natural groups of six or seven (the Patrol) under a boy leader (the Patrol Leader). Their training would be complementary to their ordinary education: such

things as mapping, signaling, knotting, first aid and all the skills that would arise from camping and similar outdoor activities.

But most important of all, to become a scout a boy must make a promise that he would do his best to do his duty to God and the King/Queen, to help other people, and to obey the Scout Law. Progressive training is rewarded by certain badges, for example the King's/Queen's scout badge.

From the beginning the left handshake, together with a special badge and the motto Be Prepared, was adopted as the sign of being a scout.

The scout movement was intended for boys from 11 to 14 or 15, but it was soon realized that programmes for younger and older boys were needed.

Now scout training starts from the age of 8. Scout groups include Wolf Cubs (8-11), Boy Scouts (11-15), Senior Scouts (15-18), and Rover Scouts (18-23).

British scouts take part in international scout meetings («world jamborees»), which are held approximately every four years. These are gatherings of thousands of scouts representing their countries and camping together.

The Girl Guides Association was formed in 1910 by Baden — Powell soon after he started the Boy Scouts movement. The programme of training is planned to develop intelligence and practical skills, to promote health and a sense of service by methods designed to appeal to each age group from Brownies (7-11), through Guides (11-16), to the Senior Branch of Land, Sea and Air Rangers (16-21).

The National Federation of Young Farmers» Clubs was formed in 1923 by uniting several Young Farmers» Clubs (the first one — a Calf Club — was established in 1921). Membership is open to all young people between the ages of 10 and 25, interested in farming and the countryside, and is not restricted only to people actively engaged in agriculture.

The Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) is an organization for young men and boys. The aim of the YMCA is «to develop high standards of Christian character through group activity and citizenship training». Its programmes include sports and physical education, camping, spiritual education, public affairs and

citizenship activities. Among other activities the YMCA operates hotels and residence halls, cafeterias and so on.

The Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA) originated in 1855. It continues to be a women's movement with a Christian purpose and the aim «to advance the physical, social, intellectual, moral and spiritual aspects of young women». The recreational, educational and spiritual aspects of its programme are symbolized in its insignia, a blue triangle. The YWCA operates hotels and residences (one of its first objectives was to provide safe, inexpensive, and decent places for girls to live), summer camps, programmes of education and recreation.

The Youth Service is a partnership between central government, local education authorities and the voluntary youth organizations. As part of their education services, local education authorities maintain their own youth clubs and centres, and cooperate with, and assist local voluntary youth agencies in their areas. Clubs and other facilities for informal education, recreation and social training are also provided by national voluntary youth organizations (such as the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the National Association of Youth Clubs and Boy's Clubs, the Boy's Brigade, the Scout Association and the Girl Guides Association).

There are thousands of active charities and voluntary organizations in the UK. They work to improve the lives of people, animals and the environment in many different ways. They range from the British Red Cross, to small local charities working in particular areas. They include charities working with older people (such as Age UK), with children (for example, the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC), and with the homeless (for example, Crisis and Shelter). There are also medical research charities (for example, Cancer Research UK), environmental charities (including the National Trust and Friends of the Earth) and charities working with animals (such as the People's Dispensary for Sick Animals (PDSA).

Volunteers are needed to help with their activities and to raise money. The charities often advertise in local newspapers, and most have websites that include information about their opportunities. There are many opportunities for younger people to volunteer and receive accreditation which will help them to develop their skills. These include the National Citizen Service programme, which gives 16 — and 17-year-olds the opportunity to enjoy outdoor activities, develop their skills and take part in a community project.

## **17. ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION**

### **17.1 Protection of the Environment**

Although Britain is densely populated, it still has large areas of open countryside, including national parks, areas of outstanding natural beauty and royal parks. Many special sites are protected because they are of architectural or historical value. In addition to the Government's Department of the Environment there are a number of voluntary organizations which are involved in protecting buildings and the countryside.

Over the last twenty years there have been changes in patterns of agriculture and urban development. Traditional heavy industries such as iron and steel have declined and inner-city areas have declined with them. At the same time, new towns have been built and the pressure on the countryside from roads and houses has increased. People have moved away from the big cities and there has been a battle to keep parts of the «Green Belt» from development.

Changes in agriculture have meant bigger farms with bigger fields, with less room for plants and wildlife in hedges, and an increased danger of soil erosion in some areas. Mineral workings, intensive forestry and the use of nitrates in fertilisers, as well as the general increase in the amount of pesticides, have created concern for the future.

In some ways, Britain is a less polluted country than it was thirty years ago. Coal burning is strictly controlled in areas like London, which no longer suffers the

poisonous smogs. Attempts have been made to landscape areas of wasteland, to repair and restore the old canals and to clean up Britain's rivers. But despite these efforts various serious threats to the environment remain: acid rain caused partly by sulphur emissions from power stations, the rise in the number of cars and lorries on the roads, the pollution of the sea, the destruction of old buildings and the spread of housing. There is continuing debate on the safety of nuclear power and the possibility of alternative sources of energy.

## **17.2 Pollution**

For more than a century Britain has been developing policies to conserve the natural and built heritage and protect the environment against pollution from industry and other sources.

Britain participated fully in the «Earth Summit» in Rio de Janeiro and signed the conventions negotiated there to protect biological diversity and to guard against global climate change through the «greenhouse effect». The conference also adopted Agenda 21, a statement of principles designed to promote environmentally sustainable development, and a declaration on forestry.

Buildings of special architectural or historical interest are «listed». It is against the law to demolish, extend or alter the character of any listed building without special consent, normally from the local planning authority.

A government body, English Heritage, is charged with protecting and conserving England's architectural and archaeological heritage. It manages some 400 ancient monuments, most of which are open to the public.

English Nature, the Countryside Council for Wales (CCW) and Scottish Natural Heritage (SNH) are responsible for nature conservation in their areas. This includes managing nature reserves, identifying Sites of Special Scientific Interest and supporting and conducting research. Recreational access to the countryside is promoted in England by the Countryside Commission and in Wales and Scotland by the CCW and SNH respectively. Britain supports the work of agreements such as the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species, and the Ramsar

Convention, under which 57 wetland sites in Britain have been identified for special protection.

The Government supports the work of voluntary bodies in the protection of Britain's heritage by making grants available. The National Trust, a charity with over 2 million members, owns and protects properties open to the public. Scotland has its own National Trust.

Britain supports international co-operation on environmental protection. Increasingly, much of Britain's legislation on pollution control is being developed in collaboration with other European Community member states and organizations such as the United Nations.

Legislation sets out a wide range of powers and duties for central and local government, including controls over waste, air pollution, litter, noise, and water pollution. The National Rivers Authority is responsible for the control of water pollution in England and Wales. The Government plans to merge these two bodies into a single Environment Agency. Similar controls apply in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

Britain supports measures that help improve the global environment. It stopped incinerating waste at sea after 1990. Along with its European partners, it has agreed major cuts in emissions from large combustion plants (such as coal — fired power stations) of the main gases that lead to acid rain.

The Government is committed to meeting EC requirements concerned with the protection and improvement of the water supply, and with the quality of water needed to support freshwater fisheries and bathing.

It is important to recycle as much of your waste as you can. Using recycled materials to make new products uses less energy and means that we do not need to extract more raw materials from the earth. It also means that less rubbish is created, so the amount being put into landfill is reduced.

A good way to support the local community is to shop for products locally where people can. This will help businesses and farmers in in Britain. It will also reduce

carbon footprint, because all the products people buy will not have had to travel as far.

Walking and using all kind of public transport to get around is also a very good way to protect the environment. It means that people create less pollution than when they use a car.

## **CONCLUSION**

Teaching of country studies is based on the principles of high information content, the development of critical thinking, observance of intersubject communications with history and geography, literature, and a foreign language.

Lectures proposed on country studies of Great Britain make it possible to most effectively solve the problem of developing a holistic perception of the countries of the language being studied, their culture, characteristics and familiarize students with the customs and traditions of peoples speaking these languages, with the realities of their lives.

By integrating information of an economic, cultural and sociological nature in a single complex, regional geography promotes the assimilation of a system of knowledge about the social reality and culture of the country of the language being studied, as well as the formation of a modern sociocultural portrait of the countries of the language being studied, which is an indispensable condition for adequate knowledge of a foreign language as a means of communication.

In this guidebook country study is considered as a discipline, subject which is in a certain way selected and organized a combination of economic, socio-political, historical, geographical and other knowledge related to the content and form of speech communication of native speakers of this language, included in the educational process with the aim of ensuring the educational and educational goals of learning and related providing the communicative needs of students implemented on learning the language.

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