Л. С. Барановский Д.Д. Козикис

Добрый день, БРИТАНИЯ!

Учебное пособие по страноведению
для 8-11 (9-12) классов учреждений,
обеспечивающих получение
общего среднего образования,
с 11-летним (12-летним) сроком обучения

Допущено Министерством образования
Республики Беларусь

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Р е ц е н з е н т ы: доктор филологических наук заведующий кафедрой иностранных языков Института государственного управления Академии управления при Президенте Республики Беларусь Л.М. Лещёва; Отличник народного образования БССР, учитель английского языка гимназии № 12 г. Минска *С.Г. Воронцова*

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Содержит 35 разделов, в которых представлена информация о географии, истории, культуре Великобритании. Каждый раздел заканчивается системой заданий, направленных на контроль понимания прочитанного и лучшее овладение страноведческим материалом. Материал пособия рассчитан на 90 часов и соответствует учебной программе, утвержденной Министерством образования Республики Беларусь.

Для учащихся 8–11 (9–12) классов учреждений, обеспечивающих получение общего среднего образования, колледжей, лицеев, гимназий.

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Contents

This royal throne of kings, this sceptred isle,
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
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This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Which serves it in the office of a will,
Or as a moat defensive to a house
Against the envy of less happier lands...
This blessed plot,
this earth,
this realm... this England.

William Shakespeare

Authors' Note

The new revised edition of this handbook (first edition – Minsk, SADI, 1997) is designed for secondary school students, who have received prior knowledge of English as a foreign language in secondary schools where it is taught as a key subject, though any reader interested in the life of the British people and the British heritage will find this book useful, for though much has been written on the subject, especially in the context of teaching English as a foreign language, there is, unfortunately, a continuing gap in our knowledge of the United Kingdom, especially due to recent changes in the life of the country.

The object of the book is to acquaint the young reader, as well as the adult student with major aspects of the British scene presented in a logical order, where due attention is paid to geography, history, economy, cultural topics, political and social life, British realia.

The updated material of this new edition is also aimed to enhance the students' awareness of the major changes which have occurred in the social life, government, legislature of the United Kingdom since 1997.

The authors were aware of the formidable task which they faced in order to present the bulk of information about such a unique country as the United Kingdom with an immensely rich and varied culture, into a coherent setting of 35 units (about 70 class hours), as required by the curriculum for specialized secondary schools. A vocabulary is attached to the book and it is aimed at helping the reader to comprehend the basic information of the texts. The exercises will enable the reader to pay due

attention to the major aspects of the text, allowing the students to develop the required skills of verbal discourse of the given topic.

The book has been conceived out of profound respect for the great experience gained by Great Britain in its century-old quest for democracy and individual freedom. The authors hope that it will stimulate and enhance the students' interest of the United Kingdom to probe further on their own, and to reach their own conclusions based on examining the factual evidence.

The teacher has a free hand to add any updated material which is available to any of the 35 units. However, the teacher will decide individually how much time is necessary to cover the selected topic in accordance with the knowledge levels achieved by each class, group, and the number of hours allotted to English language teaching at different schools. The illustrations, maps and charts, the material of the appendices are all intended to attain a more profound immersion of British life. Moreover when relating historical, social and cultural events given in one unit, it is at the teacher's discretion to avail oneself of the material given in another unit which may be treated either independently or as a logical continuation of a topic aimed to enhance the students' interest in the related problem (e.g. Units 6 and 9, Units 7 and 29, etc.). The reader may find a test enclosed at the end of the book intended to check the consolidation of knowledge of the British social scene, which is especially relevant for those graduates who intend to major in English at the university level. There is a key where to find the correct version.

Acknowledgements

Many people deserve our special gratitude for helping to compile the handbook. We are deeply grateful to our colleagues and the teachers of many schools in Minsk whose comments and searching criticism were most relevant. By all means we thank our students and pupils who have used the materials of the first edition during the classes, and whose opinions we have tried to utilize. We extend our special thanks to our distinguished reviewers – Professor L.M. Leshchova (PhD Philology), and S.G. Vorontsova, teacher of school No 54 (Minsk) for their valuable suggestions and advice in updating the presented material. The authors welcome and will appreciate all comments and suggestions concerning the new revised edition. Units 1, 3-5, 12-18, 21-25, 27, 35 were written by L. Baranovski, Units 2, 6-11, 19-20, 26, 28-34 – by D. Kozikis. All updated material, corrections, additions were made by D. Kozikis.

Minsk, 2006
D. Kozikis, Professor of Social Studies,
Minsk State Linguistic University

A Country Across the Channel

The British Isles, which include Great Britain, Ireland and a lot of smaller islands, are situated off the north western coast of Europe and once formed part of that continent. They became islands when they were separated from it. The separation took place thousands of years ago, after the last Ice Age, when the ice melted, the level of the oceans rose and drowned the low-lying coastlands.

Politically the British Isles are divided into two countries – the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Irish Republic or Eire. All in all there are over 5,000 islands in the system of the British Isles which lie on the continental shelf, the zone of shallow water surrounding at present the continent and resembling a shelf above the deep water of the oceans.

The British Isles lie between longitudes 2°E and 11°W and latitudes 50° and 61°N. Yet the country has a relatively mild climate throughout the year due to maritime influences. The warm waters of the North Atlantic Drift (Gulf Stream) move from the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea across the Atlantic, and so reach the shores of Northwest Europe. That is why in winter the coasts are free of ice and the warm air passes over the British Isles throughout the year.

From the European continent the British Isles are separated by the English Channel and the North Sea. The English Channel, in its widest part in the west is 220 km wide, and in the narrowest, what is called the Strait of Dover, only 32 km. So, the islands have had an easy and mainly profitable contact with mainland Europe. In the past there were a number of schemes how to connect the two coasts. In 1994 the dream came true: the construction of the two-rail tunnel was completed and it was opened for public use.

The most important sea routes pass through the English Channel and the North Sea linking Europe with the Americas and other continents. The advantageous geographical position of Great Britain created favourable conditions for the development of shipping, trade and the economy as a whole.

However, the true value of Britain's geographical position has not always been obvious. Indeed, it clearly emerged in the late 15th and 16th centuries, a period which saw the discovery of America and the opening of the sea route round the Cape of Good Hope to the Far East. Before this time European civilization had been centred in the Mediterranean lands. The British Isles, although developing slowly, were on the margins of this civilization. With the discovery of the Americas the British Isles became an intermediary between Europe and the New World.

From the 16th century onwards, the wealth and influence of Great Britain increased rapidly. With the acquisition of overseas colonies and the establishment of an empire she attained the status of a world power. Her position as such was emphasized by the Industrial Revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries, which was based on her resources of coal and iron and on the markets she had established throughout the world. By Victorian times (1837-1901) Great Britain had become the richest country in the world, the first great modern industrial and capitalist society.

During the 20th century Britain lost this position and her economy faced increasing problems, especially with the collapse of the empire. The problems of supporting her population (60 million) on such a small land area (244,100 sq km) are also obvious. At the same time, however, it is important to remember that Britain, with the benefits of North Sea oil production, is still one of the leading industrial and trading countries in the world.

The British Isles in general, but especially England, form one of the most densely peopled areas in the world. Archaeologists and historians have demonstrated that the present-day inhabitants of Britain and Ireland are largely the descendants of settlers and traders from western Europe, who came to these islands in a series of invasions, from about 2500 B.C. down to the Norman Conquest of 1066. The growth of population in Britain reflects, to a large extent, the economic changes. The basic population distribution of the 20th century had been established by the Industrial Revolution and the increase in population of the 19th century.

The British Isles, apart from Great Britain and Ireland, the two largest islands, include several other important islands and groups of islands. Off the northwestern coast of Great Britain there is a group of islands known as the Hebrides. They are separated from each other by the Sea of the Hebrides and the Little Minch. The main occupation of people here is farming combined with fishing.


BRITAIN
Orkney Islands
Kirkwall
Shetland Islands
Lerwick
1 Greater Manchester
2 Nottinghamshire
3 Shropshire
4 West Midlands
5 Warwickshire
6 Northamptonshire
7 Bedfordshire
8 Hertfordshire
9 Buckinghamshire
10 Greater London
11 West Glamorgan
12 Mid Glamorgan
13 South Glamorgan
International boundaries
Country boundaries
County boundaries (regional boundaries in Scotland)
Hebrides
Western Isles
Outer
SCOTLAND
Highland
Grampian
Tayside
Fife
Central
Lothian
Strathclyde
Islay
Bordes
North Sea
Dumfries and Galloway
Northumberland
Tyne and Wear
NORTHERN IRELAND
Belfast
Cumbria
Durham
Cleveland
North Yorkshire
ENGLAND
Irish Sea
Lancashire
West Yorkshire
Humberside
South Yorkshire
Merseyside
Lincolnshire
IRISH REPUBLIC
Cheshire
Clwyd
Derbyshire
Gwynedd
Staffordshire
Norfolk
Leicester
Cambridge
Suffolk
WALES
Powys
Hereford and Worcester
Dyfed
Essex
Gwent
Gloucestershire
Oxford
London
Berkshire
Avon
Wiltshire
Surrey
Kent
Hampshire
Somerset
West Sussex
East Sussex
Strait of Dover
Devon
Dorset
Cornwall
English Channel
Isles of Scilly

Off the northern coast of Scotland, separated from the mainland by the stormy Pentland Firth are the Orkney Islands, comprising about a hundred islands. Most of the people (about 20,000) are engaged in dairy and poultry farming. Bacon, cheese and eggs are exported to Central Scotland.

The Shetland Islands are situated about 70 miles north of the Orkneys. They provide thin poor soils suitable only for rough pasture. The population (18,000) is actively engaged in herring-fishing. Apart from fish, the only exports from the islands are Shetland ponies and lace knitted from the wool of local sheep.

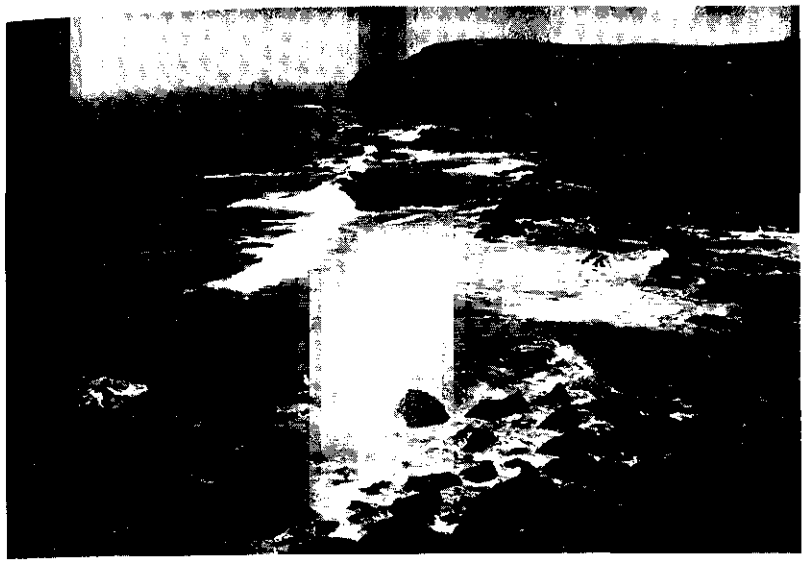
In the middle of the Irish Sea there is the Isle of Man (571 sq km). The island is administered by its own Manx Parliament and has a population of about 50,000 chiefly engaged in farming, fishing and tourist trade. The largest settlement is the holiday resort of Douglas. Another important island in the Irish Sea is Anglesey, situated off the north coast of Wales. Anglesey contains only 52,000 people, and more of the working population are now engaged in industry than in fishing and agriculture. This is due partly to an increase in the tourist trade and partly to the introduction of several new industries, for example, the operation of the nuclear power station at Wylfa.

The Isle of Wight is in the English Channel. It is diamond-shaped, 40 km from west to east, and about half as much from north to south. The Isle of Wight lies across the southern end of Southampton Water, and is separated from the mainland by the Solent. With its sunny beaches and pleasant varied countryside, the island forms one of the most important tourist resorts. It is linked to London by ferry and rail services. Also lying in the English Channel off the extreme south-western coast of Great Britain is a tiny group of the Isles of Scilly, another resort area.

The Channel Islands lie to the southwest on the French side of the English Channel. They are known to the French as the Isles Normandes. The Channel Islands form an archipelago, separated by shallow waters from northern France. As part of the Duchy of Normandy, they have been attached to the English Crown since the Norman Conquest (1066). The total area of the islands is only 194 sq km, but the population is over 130,000 what results in high density of population – 686 persons per sq km. In summer the population increases greatly by holiday-makers.

The chief islands of the group are Jersey and Guernsey. In rural areas many of the people speak a French-Norman dialect, but the official languages are English and French.

The British Isles are known for their greatly indented coastline. Therefore there are many bays and harbours, peninsulas and capes on



Cornwall's rocky coast

the coast, which were formed as a result of the raising and submerging of the land surface in the process of the geological development of the islands. Due to its extreme indentity the coastline of Great Britain, despite its relatively modest size, is 8,000 km long. Very much indented is the western coast, especially the coasts of Scotland and Wales.

The east coast is less lofty and more regular than the west coast, and the coastal lowlands are flooded frequently.

Hardly has anything been more important in British history than the fact that Great Britain is an island. Living on islands, and therefore near the sea, the inhabitants naturally grew into a nation of sailors. Their love of the sea led them to become navigators and discoverers of new lands in many parts of the globe.

The capital of the country, London, is an enormous city. Its name is probably derived from the Celtic *Llyn*, a pool or lake (the River Thames at an earlier period expanded into a considerable lake – the part immediately below London Bridge is still "the Pool"), and *din* or *dyn*, a hill, fort, or place of strength. The "hill" may have been that on which St.Paul's now stands, or Cornhill.

When the Romans conquered Llyndyn they latinised the name as Londinium. Great military roads radiated from the city to various parts of Britain, and distances were measured from the *lapis milliaris* (milestone) in the Forum of Agricola, in the heart of the town. The stone, now known as the London Stone, may still be seen in the wall of St.Swithin's Church, Cannon Street.

Under the Saxons London became the metropolis of the kingdom of Wessex. The city was constituted by Alfred the Great the capital of England, York and Winchester having previously enjoyed that dignity in succession – the former under the Romans, the latter under the Saxons. In 994, the first bridge across the Thames was built.

The White Tower, in the Tower of London, was erected by William I in 1078, on the site of the Roman fort already noticed. The same king granted a charter to the city confirming the burghers in the rights enjoyed by them under Edward the Confessor. King John granted the citizens several charters, and in Magna Carta (1215) it was expressly provided that London should have all its ancient privileges and customs.

About 7 million people live in Greater London. The oldest part of London is the "City". Centuries ago, there was a high wall all round the City of London. Places like Soho and Chelsea were small villages outside the City. Now they are part of Central London.

There are always crowds of tourists in London. They visit London's many sights. Buckingham Palace and Westminster Abbey are two of the favourite ones. London is great for shopping. There are lots of big department stores, like the famous Harrods and Selfridges. People from different countries live in London today and their way of life has given London a new "face". If you want to see the latest ideas in fashion, go and look at the shops in the King's Road.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The separation (of the British Isles) took place thousands of years ago, after the last _____.
2. The advantages of the geographical position of Great Britain created favourable conditions for the development of _____.
3. With the acquisition of overseas colonies and establishment of an empire Britain attained the status of a _____.
4. During the 20th century Britain lost this position and her economy has faced increasing problems especially with the _____ of the empire.
5. Most of the people of the Orkney Islands are engaged in _____.
6. The Isle of Wight lies across the southern end of _____ and is separated from the mainland by the _____.
7. The British Isles are known for their greatly _____ coastline.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. From the European continent the British Isles are separated by
   a) the North Sea and the Atlantic Ocean.
   b) the Irish Sea and the English Channel.
   c) the English Channel and the North Sea.
2. The most important sea routes pass through the English Channel and the North Sea linking Europe with
   a) America. b) Africa. c) Asia.
3. The true value of Britain's geographical position clearly emerged during the period which saw the discovery of America and the opening of the sea route to the Far East round
   a) Cape Horn.
   b) the Cape of Good Hope.
   c) Land's End.
4. The Channel Islands have been attached to the English Crown since
   a) the Roman Conquest.
   b) the Anglo-Saxon Conquest.
   c) the Norman Conquest.
5. The chief islands of the group of the Channel Islands are the Isles of
   a) Wight and Jersey.
   b) Jersey and Scilly.
   c) Guernsey and Jersey.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

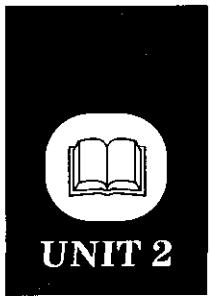
1. Politically the British Isles are divided into two countries – the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Irish Republic or Eire.
2. The English Channel in its widest part in the west is 120 km wide and in the narrowest, what is called the Strait of Dover, only 52 km.
3. The British Isles, although developing slowly before the discovery of the New World, were in the centre of the European civilization.
4. However, it is important to remember that Britain, with the benefits of coal production, is still one of the leading industrial and trading countries in the world.
5. The Isle of Wight lies across the southern end of Southampton Water, and is separated from the mainland by the Solent.
6. Living on islands, and therefore near the sea, the inhabitants naturally grew into a nation of traders.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Comment on the formation of the British Isles.
2. Describe the geographical position of the British Isles.
3. Which factors influence the advantages of Britain's geographical position?
4. Explain the statement: "With the discovery of the Americas the British Isles became an intermediary between Europe and the New World".
5. Why did the wealth and influence of Great Britain increase from the 16th century?
6. What problems did Great Britain face during the 20th century?
7. What have archaeologists and historians demonstrated in relation to the present-day inhabitants of the British Isles?
8. Examine the composition of the British Isles naming and showing in the map the major islands and groups of islands.
9. Characterize the coastline of the British Isles referring to the benefits of its indentity.
10. What are the advantages of Great Britain's insular position?
11. Give a brief historical outline of London.

V. Draw a sketch-map of the British Isles and mark in the following:

a) the Welsh, Scottish and Irish borders;
b) the capital cities of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland;
c) the Isle of Man, the Isle of Wight, the Channel, the Orkney and Shetland Islands and the Hebrides.



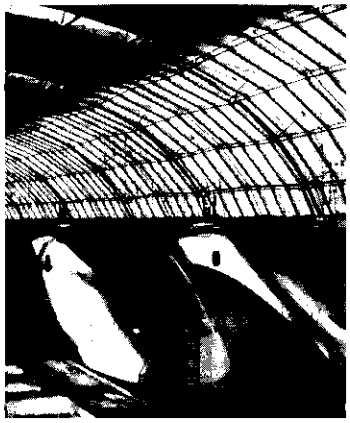
UNIT 2

Britain – an Island, or a Peninsula?

Since the moment when Britain and France became linked with a tunnel this may be a logical question. Figuratively speaking, Britain has been solidly connected with the continent by means of the Channel tunnel. Psychologically, the British, who always regarded themselves as being separated from Europe by the English Channel, now have to change their minds. No wonder, many British people who were against the tunnel project were motivated by psychological arguments. They could not get used to the idea that Britain would have a physical link with the continent. However, this idea has become a reality, and now most people see the advantage of a direct transport link with Europe which does not depend on the weather and other natural factors as it is the case concerning the ferry link.

The idea of building a tunnel which would connect Britain and France was first suggested by a French engineer whose name was Albert Mathieu. He came up with this idea in 1802. Napoleon who was preparing for an invasion of Britain also favoured the idea of building a bridge or tunnel across the English Channel. Two attempts have been made to build a tunnel to link Britain with the continent. The first attempt was made in 1882, but it failed because science and technology had not made enough progress to put such great plans into practice. The second attempt was undertaken in 1974, but it was too expensive, and so again the idea was put aside.

At last in 1986 a third attempt was made: the British and French governments agreed to pay for a tunnel. Margaret Thatcher, who was the Prime Minister of Britain, and Francois Mitterrand, the President of France, signed an agreement to build a tunnel, and digging began.



The Channel Tunnel

The engineers chose the narrowest part of the English Channel between Folkestone, on the British side and Calais, on the French. This part of the Channel is only 42 kilometres wide. However, the tunnel itself is 69 kilometres long.

The construction of the tunnel was carried out by 10 British and French construction companies, but the company responsible for the whole project, and for running the trains is known as the Eurotunnel, which is a joint British-French group. The tunnel itself consists of two main tunnels each with a diameter of 7.2 metres located 40 metres under the seabed, and the third auxiliary tunnel of 4.5 metres between them intended for workers to service the main tunnels. There were many problems what to do with the rock waste, and the people living near the entrance to the tunnel did not want the rock waste to be put in heaps nearby.

Finally a good way out was found: the rock waste was used to strengthen the coastline against the storms which destroy much of the shores. The engineers had many problems also as to what means of transport would be used in the tunnel.

At first it seemed that the tunnel would be used by cars, but then this project was not accepted, because there would be problems with ventilation to remove the exhaust from the movement of the cars. Then, you had to solve the question of lighting the whole way through the tunnel, which would cost extra money. Eventually the builders decided to use electric trains which would move between the terminals near Folkestone and Calais. The trains used in the tunnel are known as speed trains because they move at a high speed of 160 kilometres per hour. Thus the journey through the tunnel takes about 33 minutes.

The speed trains which move today through the tunnel are also known as shuttle trains because they run in both directions. Eurotunnel trains provide a drive-on drive-off service, with separate shuttle trains for passengers, freight and cars.

The carriages used in the tunnel are the largest in the world: 25 metres long, 4 metres wide and 5.4 metres high. The carriages used for heavy lorries are shorter – 18 metres long, because every carriage is intended for one lorry. The carriages are constructed in such a way that the drivers of cars and lorries can easily move into the carriages without losing time. Car and coach passengers stay with their vehicles during the journey. Lorry drivers travel separately from their vehicles

in a carriage at the front of the shuttle train. The Eurotunnel Company plans to run passenger shuttle services every 15 minutes and freight *shuttle* services every 20 minutes; at peak periods it will also be possible to increase the frequency of services as the new tunnel will become more and more popular.

Passenger trains move directly between London, Paris and Brussels. The whole journey from London to Paris takes only three hours. At present the fare is quite high, but with more people using this new line it will become cheaper. The shuttle trains can easily transport 1,000 cars per hour in each direction, which is 25 per cent more than what the ferries can carry along the shortest sea-route during the summer periods. However, the Company believes that in the nearest future 4,000 cars can be transported in each direction along the tunnel. Thus we see that the new tunnel has a great future though it cost quite a lot of money to build it. At first the builders thought that it would cost about 4 billion pounds, but in reality about 9 billion pounds were spent to build the tunnel.

The tunnel began to operate in the autumn of 1994. Since then the number of people using the tunnel is growing very quickly. The Company believes that about 15 million people will use it in the first year of its service. This is quite natural because travellers do not depend upon the weather, especially when it is stormy. Everyone who crosses the Channel on a ferry during bad weather or in a storm feels quite uncomfortable. Many feel seasick. In this respect the tunnel has its great advantages.

However, the new transport link does not mean an end to the ferry service, because the ferries do a great job taking travellers to more distant ports. Moreover, on a fine summer day you can have the advantage of enjoying a very pleasant journey on a ferry, relaxing on its deck for about one and a half hours, and breathing the fresh air of the sea.

Thus, the new Channel tunnel gives the numerous travellers who move to or from the continent greater choice as to what way they would like to take. So make up your mind when you decide to visit Britain!

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. Today Britain and France are _____ _____ _____ of the Channel Tunnel.
2. Psychologically, the British always _____ themselves as being separated from Europe by the English Channel.
3. The ferry _____ with Europe depends on the weather and other natural factors.

4. Napoleon _____ _____ _____ of building a bridge or tunnel across the English Channel.
5. In 1986 a third ____ was made to build a tunnel connecting Britain and France.
6. The Eurotunnel, which is a joint British-French group, is responsible for the trains.
7. The rock _____ was used to strengthen the coastline against the storms.
8. Cars are not allowed to move in the tunnel because there would be problems with ventilation to remove the _____ from the movement of the cars.
9. Lorry drivers travel separately from their _____ in a carriage at the front of the shuttle train.
10. The tunnel began _____ in the autumn of 1994.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Many British people who were against the tunnel project
   a) were motivated by psychological arguments.
   b) considered that it could be a danger to Britain's security.
   c) believed that it was too expensive.
2. The tunnel has become a reality and now most people see
   a) that it is quite easy to reach Africa,
   b) that the ferry link has no future,
   c) the advantages of a direct transport link with Europe.
3. The idea of building a tunnel which would connect Britàin and France
   a) was first suggested by a French engineer whose name was Albert Mathieu in 1802.
   b) was proposed by an unknown English scientist in the 17th century.
   c) was first suggested by Napoleon.
4. The engineers chose Folkestone on the British side because
   a) it was the safest part of the coastline.
   b) it was easier to dig into the rock.
   c) this part of the Channel is narrowest.
5. The tunnel itself consists of
   a) two tunnels for trains and one for motor cars.
   b) two main tunnels for electric trains and an auxiliary tunnel intended for workers to service the main tunnels.
   c) one large tunnel intended for motor cars.
6. In the course of building the tunnel
   a) there were many problems what to do with the rock waste.
   b) there were many problems connected with the sand which was dug out.

c) the workers had many problems with the supply of the drilling equipment.

7. At first the engineers wanted to build a tunnel only for cars
   a) but the project was rejected because it was too expensive.
   b) but this project was not accepted because there would be problems with ventilation to remove the exhaust from the movement of the cars.
   c) in order to make the journey from Britain to Europe quicker.
8. The trains used in the tunnel
   a) are known as speed trains.
   b) move very slowly because of security reasons.
   c) are ordinary electric trains, and do not differ from those which are used everywhere in Europe.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. The building of the Channel tunnel was started quite soon after the end of World War II.
2. The electric trains which service the tunnel run from London to Paris.
3. The shuttle trains are all the same for passengers, freight and cars.
4. The carriages are not well constructed, and it takes a lot of time for the drivers to move into them.
5. The Eurotunnel Company plans to run passenger shuttle services every 15 minutes and freight shuttle services every 20 minutes at peak periods.
6. Today the whole journey from London to Paris takes only five hours.
7. Today the shuttle trains can transport about 2,000 cars per hour in each direction, which is 50 per cent more than what the ferries can carry along the shortest sea-route during the summer periods.
8. At first the builders thought that it would cost only 2 billion pounds, but in reality it was a bit more.
9. The tunnel has great advantages because it does not depend on weather conditions.
10. The new transport link between Britain and Europe means an end to the ferry service.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. How would you call Britain today – an island or peninsula?
2. What arguments did many people in Britain have against the tunnel project?
3. Did these arguments prove to be correct?

4. When was the first attempt made to build a tunnel?
5. Why did it fail?
6. When was the construction of the tunnel started, and when was it finished?
7. What part of the English Channel was chosen for the construction of the tunnel? Why?
8. How long is the tunnel?
9. What solution was found to do away with the rock waste?
10. Is this solution very wise to solve environmental problems?

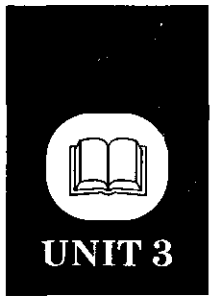
V. Do you remember?

1. The idea of building a tunnel which would connect Britain and France.
2. A description of the tunnel itself.
3. How is the tunnel serviced?

VI. Write a short essay highlighting the main consequences of the construction of the tunnel.

VII. Talking point.

Discuss in class the pros and cons of travelling to France from Britain by ferry or by using the tunnel.



The Face of Britain

From south to north Great Britain stretches for over 900 km and from east to west, in the widest part, only for about 500 km. But despite its small area Britain has a great diversity of physical characteristics. It contains rocks of nearly all geological periods. There is a contrast between the relatively high relief of western and northern Britain and the lowland areas of the south and east. In general, the oldest rocks appear in the highland regions and the youngest in the lowland regions.

ENGLAND. Though England cannot be considered as a very hilly country still it is far from being flat everywhere. The most important range of mountains is the Pennine Chain, regarded as "the backbone of England". It stretches from the Tyne valley in the north to the Trent valley in the south – a distance of about 250 km. The whole range forms a large table-land the highest point of which is Cross Fell (893 m). Being an upland region the Pennines form a watershed separating the westward-flowing from the eastward-flowing rivers of north England. They also form a barrier between the industrial areas of Lancashire and Yorkshire on their opposite sides. Rainfall in the Pennines is abundant, and today the area is used for water storage: reservoirs in the uplands supply water to the industrial towns on each side of the Pennines.

Across the north end of the Pennines there are the grassy Cheviot Hills. The highest point is the Cheviot (816 m), near the Scottish border. The Cheviot Hills serve as a natural borderland between England and Scotland. The region is noted for sheep-breeding. In north-west England, separated from the Pennines by the valley of the river Eden, lie the Cumbrian mountains. These mountains form a ring round the peak of Helvellyn (950 m). The highest peak of the Cumbrians is Scafell (978 m). The valleys which separate the various mountains from each other contain some beautiful lakes (Windermere, Grasmere, Ullswater, Hawswater, and others). This is the famous Lake District,

Dry stone walls

the favourite place of holiday-makers and tourists. It is here that the great English poets Wordsworth, Coleridge, Southey and Quincey lived and wrote. The Lake District, or Cumberland, is sparsely populated and sheep rearing is the main occupation of the farmers. A typical farmhouse here is built of stone. Around it are a number of small fields, separated from one another by stone walls. The Lake District is exposed to the westerly winds and rainfall is exceptionally high. The region is claimed to be the wettest inhabited place in the British Isles.

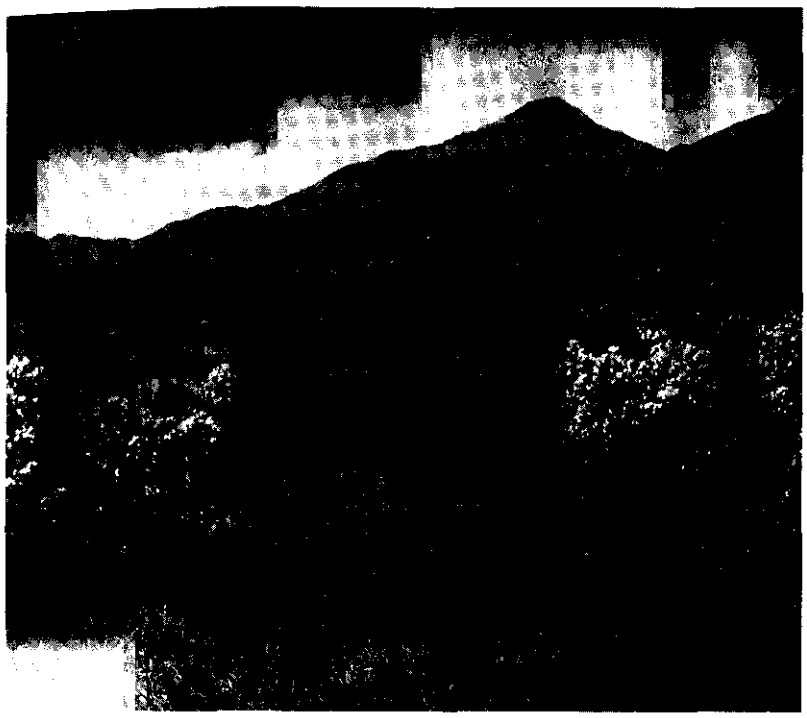
The South-West Peninsula of Great Britain includes the counties of Cornwall, Devon and Somerset. The region is made up of a number of upland masses separated by lowlands. The uplands of the South-West Peninsula are not ranges of mountains or hills, but areas of high moorland, rising to 600 m.

The South-West region is mostly an agricultural area, because there are many fertile river valleys on the lower land between the moors, both in Cornwall and Devon.

South-West England is noted for two other interesting things: the most westerly point of Great Britain – Land's End, and the most southerly point of the largest island – Lizard Point, are to be found here. The South-West Peninsula presents attractions for the holiday-makers and the artists, and tourism is one of the most important activities of the region.

WALES. Wales is the largest of the peninsulas on the western side of Britain. It is a country of hills and mountains deeply cut by river valleys. The mountains cover practically all the territory of Wales and are called the Cambrian mountains. The highest peak, Snowdon (1,085 m), is in the north-west. The lowland is confined to the relatively narrow coastal belt and the lower parts of the river valleys.

In the south the Cambrian mountains include an important coalfield, on which an industrial area has grown. Two-thirds of the total population live in South Wales. Two relief divisions may be distinguished in South Wales: a coastal plain which in the south-eastern part around Cardiff becomes up to 16 km wide and the upland areas of the coalfield proper, which rises between 245 and 380 metres. These divisions formed by the physical landscape are clearly reflected in the use of agricultural land. In the upland areas sheep are the basis of the rural economy, and in the low-lying parts near the coast and in the valleys dairy farming predominates. But in general South Wales is dominated by the coalmining and heavy industries.



The lake of Gwynant and Snowdon

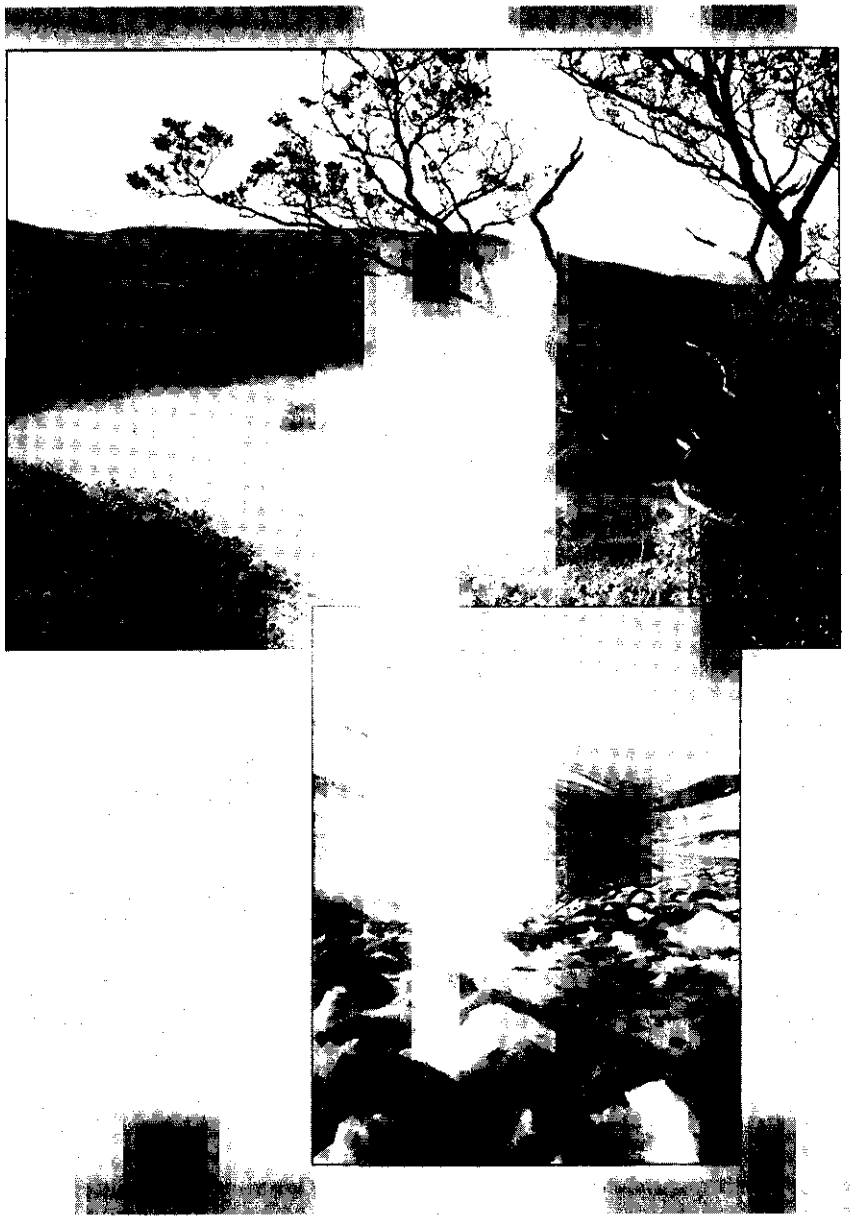
SCOTLAND. Geographically Scotland may be divided into three major physical regions: the Highlands, the Southern Uplands and the Central Lowlands.

The Highlands lie to the west of a line from Aberdeen to the mouth of the river Clyde. The mountains are separated into two parts by the long straight depression known as Glen More, running from north-east to south-west. To the south are the Grampian mountains, which are generally higher than the Northwest Highlands, including the loftiest summits such as Ben Nevis (1,347 m), the highest peak in the British Isles, and Ben Macdhui (1,309 m). An observatory has been erected at the very top of Ben Nevis.

Glen More contains several lakes, including Loch Ness, which is said to be the home of a "monster". In the early 19th century the lochs (lakes) were joined to form the Caledonian Canal which connected the two coasts.

The Highlands comprise forty-seven per cent of the land area of Scotland, and the region has the most severe weather experienced in Britain. The population is sparse.

AJOR CONSERVATION AREAS



The economy of the region has traditionally been that of crofting or life supporting farming, in which the farmer (crofter) and his family consume all the produce. The crofter grows crops on a patch of land near his cottage, the main crops being potatoes, oats and hay. His sheep graze on the nearby hill slopes, and he may have one or two cows, to keep the family supplied with milk, and some poultry.

The Southern Uplands extend from the Central Lowlands of Scotland in the north to the Cheviot Hills and the Lake District in the south. The Uplands form a broad belt of pastoral country. The hills rise to 800–900 m but for the most part they lie between 450 and 600 metres.

The present-day economy of the region is dominated by agriculture. The region is clearly divided between the sheep pastures of the uplands and the more diversified farming areas of the lowlands.

The Central Lowlands of Scotland form the only extensive plain in Scotland. The name is given especially to the plains along the Clyde, the Forth and the Tay. The region lies between the Highlands and the Southern Uplands. The Central Lowlands have the most fertile soil, the most temperate climate, the best harbours and the only supply of coal. They occupy about fifteen per cent of Scotland's area, but contain about eighty per cent of its people. This is the leading industrial area of Scotland.

Geographically Ireland is an island and a single unit, but politically it is divided. As a whole, Ireland forms a large extensive plain surrounded by a broken belt of mountains, or the uplands.

In NORTHERN IRELAND the chief mountains are: in the extreme north-east the Antrim mountains, which rise above 400 m and are composed of basalt, in the centre of Ulster – the Sperrin mountains (500 m), and in the extreme south-east the Mourne mountains, including the highest summit Slieve Donard (852 m). Off the north coast is the famous Giant's Causeway, where the basalt solidified in remarkable hexagonal columns.

There is a fairly wide network of rivers in the British Isles. Though generally short in length, they are navigable but in their lower reaches especially during high tides. Mild maritime climate keeps them free of ice throughout the winter months.

The largest river of Great Britain is the Severn (350 km), which follows a very puzzling course from central Wales and flows to the Bristol Channel. The courses of the Trent (274 km) and the upper Thames (346 km) also show many changes of direction and keep their way to the North Sea. Among other important rivers, which flow eastwards, to the North Sea, are the rivers Tyne, Tees, Humber, Ouse in England, and the rivers Tweed, Forth, Dee and Spey in Scotland.

A number of streams flow down to the west coast, to the Irish Sea, including the Mersey, the Eden (in England) and the Clyde in Scotland.

The longest river of the British Isles is the river Shannon (384 km), flowing from north to south of Ireland.

The largest lake in Great Britain and the biggest inland loch in Scotland is Loch Lomond, covering a surface area of 70 sq km, but the largest fresh water lake of the British Isles is Lough Neagh in Northern Ireland –391 sq km.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. Despite its small area Britain has a great _____ of physical characteristics.
2. The Pennine range forms a large table-land the highest point of which is _____ .
3. The Cheviot Hills serve as a natural _____ between England and Scotland.
4. The Lake District, or Cumberland, is _____ populated and sheep _____ is the main occupation of the farmers.
5. Wales is the largest of the peninsulas on the _____ side of Britain.
6. In the early 19th century the lochs (lakes) were joined to form the _____ which connected the two coasts.
7. There is a fairly wide _____ of rivers in the British Isles.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. In north-west England, separated from the Pennines by the valley of the river Eden, lie
   a) the Cambrian mountains.
   b) the Cumbrian mountains.
   c) the Grampian mountains.
2. The rainfall in the Lake District is exceptionally high, because it is exposed to
   a) the easterly winds.
   b) the westerly winds.
   c) the northerly winds.
3. The South-West Peninsula includes the counties of
   a) Kent, Somerset, Devon.
   b) Devon, Cornwall, Somerset.
   c) Wiltshire, Kent, Devon.
4. The Highlands of Scotland lie to the west of a line from Aberdeen to the mouth of the river
   a) Tyne. b) Forth. c) Clyde.

5. The longest river of the British Isles is the river
   a) Severn.
   b) Thames.
   c) Shannon.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

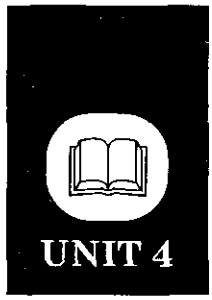
1. There is a contrast between the relatively high relief of western and northern Britain and the lowland areas of the south and east.
2. The Lake District is claimed to be the driest inhabited place on the British Isles,
3. The South-West Peninsula presents attractions for the holiday-makers and the artists, and tourism is one of the most important activities of the region.
4. In the south the Cambrian mountains include an important coalfield, on which an agricultural area has grown.
5. Glen More contains several lakes, including Lough Neagh, which is said to be the home of a "monster".
6. The present-day economy of the Southern Uplands is dominated by coal-mining.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Describe the main features of the physical geography of the British Isles.
2. Characterize the mountain areas of England.
3. Examine the relief features of Wales.
4. Give an outline of the Highlands of Scotland.
5. Describe the Southern Uplands of Scotland.
6. What is peculiar about the Central Lowlands of Scotland?
7. Describe the main relief characteristics of Northern Ireland.
8. By referring to the map, name the chief rivers of the British Isles flowing to the North Sea.
9. Using the map, name the chief rivers of the British Isles flowing to the Irish Sea.
10. What are the main lakes of Great Britain?

V. Draw a sketch map of the British Isles and include

a) the location of the chief mountains of Great Britain;
b) the courses of the rivers Thames, Severn, Trent, Tyne, Clyde;
c) Loch Lomond, Lough Neagh.



Climate and Weather

Weather is not the same as climate. The weather at a place is the state of the atmosphere there at a given time or over a short period. The weather of the British Isles is greatly variable.

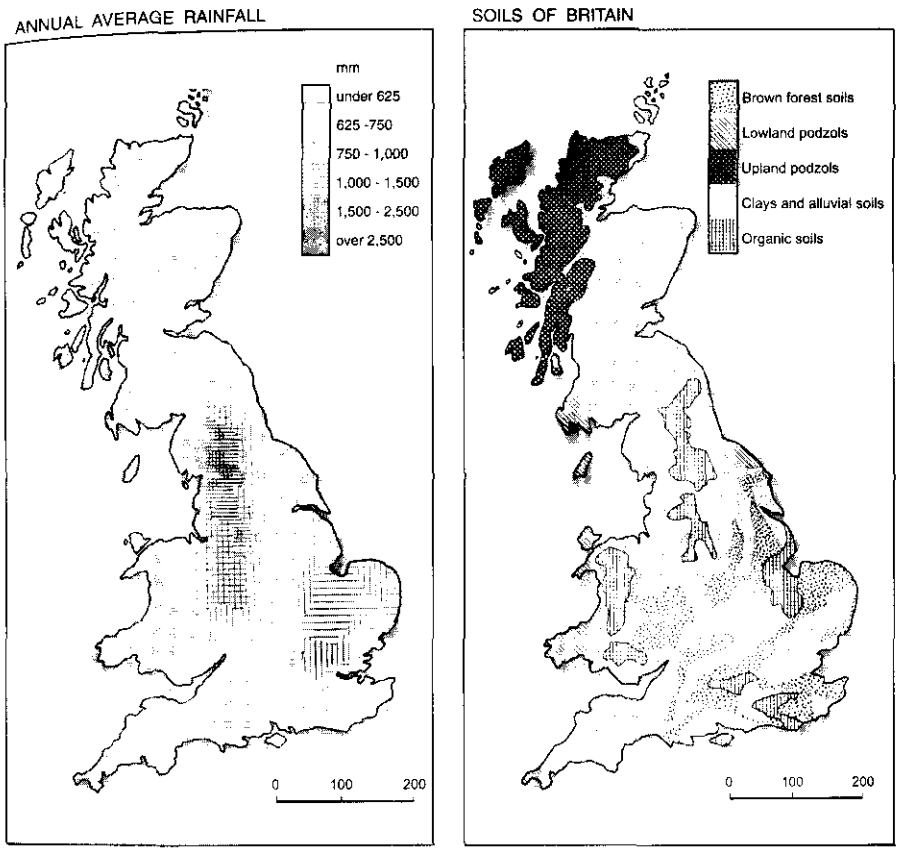
The climate of a place or region, on the other hand, represents the average weather conditions over a long period of time.

The climate of any place results from the interaction of a number of determining factors, of which the most important are latitude, distance from the sea, relief and the direction of the prevailing winds.

The geographical position of the British Isles within latitudes 50° to 61°N is a basic factor in determining the main characteristics of the climate. Temperature, the most important climatic element, depends not only on the angle at which the sun's rays strike the earth's surface, but also on the duration of daylight. The length of day at London ranges from 16 hours 35 minutes on 21 June to 7 hours 50 minutes on 21 December. British latitudes form the temperate nature of the British climate, for the sun is never directly overhead as in the tropical areas.

Britain's climate is dominated by the influence of the sea. It is much milder than that in any other country in the same latitudes. This is due partly to the presence of the North Atlantic Drift, or the Gulf Stream, and partly to the fact that north-west Europe lies in a predominantly westerly wind-belt. This means that marine influences warm the land in winter and cool it in summer. This moderating effect of the sea is in fact, the cause of the relatively small seasonal contrasts experienced in Britain.

The moderating effect of the ocean on air temperature is also stronger in winter than in summer. When the surface water is cooler than the air above it – as it frequently happens during the summer months – the air tends to lose its heat to the water. The lowest layers of air are chilled and become denser by contraction, and the chilled air



tends to remain at low levels. The surface water expands because it is warmed, and remains on the surface of the ocean. Unless the air is turbulent, little of it can be cooled, for little heat is exchanged.

Opposite conditions apply in winter. The air in winter is likely to be cooler than the surface water, so that heat passes from water to air. Air at low levels is warmed and expands and rises, carrying oceanic heat with it, while the chilled surface water contracts, and sinks, to be replaced by unchilled water from below. This conventional overturning both of water and of air leads to a vigorous exchange of heat.

The prevailing winds in the British Isles are westerlies. They are extremely moist, as a result of their long passage over the warm waters of the North Atlantic. On their arrival over Britain, the winds are forced upwards, and as a result large-scale condensation takes place, clouds form and precipitation follows, especially over the mountainous areas.

North and north-west winds often bring heavy falls of snow to north Britain during late October and November, but they are usually short-lived. Continental winds from the east sometimes reach the British Isles in summer as a warm, dry air-stream, but they are more frequently experienced in winter when they cross the North Sea and bring cold, continental-type weather to eastern and inland districts of Great Britain.

Relief is the most important factor controlling the distribution of temperature and precipitation within Britain. The actual temperatures experienced in the hilly and mountainous parts are considerably lower than those in the lowlands. The effect of relief on precipitation is even more striking. Average annual rainfall in Britain is about 1,100 mm. But the geographical distribution of rainfall is largely determined by topography. The mountainous areas of the west and north have far more rainfall than the lowlands of the south and east. The western Scottish Highlands, the Lake District (the Cumbrian mountains), Welsh uplands and parts of Devon and Cornwall in the south-west receive more than 2,000 mm of rainfall each year.

In contrast, the eastern lowlands, lying in a rain-shadow area, are much drier and usually receive little precipitation. Much of eastern and south-eastern England (including London) receive less than 700 mm each year, and snow falls on only 15 to 18 days on the average.

Rainfall is fairly well distributed throughout the year, although March to June are the driest months and October to January the wettest.

Ireland is in rather a different category, for here the rain-bearing winds have not been deprived of their moisture, and much of the Irish plain receives up to 1,200 mm of rainfall per year, usually in the form of steady and prolonged drizzle. Snow, on the other hand, is rare, owing to the warming effects of the Gulf Stream. The combined influences of the sea and prevailing winds are equally evident in the general pattern of rainfall over the country.

Because of the North Atlantic Drift and predominantly maritime air masses that reach the British Isles from the west, the range in temperature throughout the year is never very great. The annual mean temperature in England and Wales is about 10°C, in Scotland and Northern Ireland about 9°C. July and August are the warmest months of the year, and January and February the coldest.

The mean winter temperature in the north is 3°C, the mean summer temperature 12°C. The corresponding figures for the south are 5°C and 16°C. The mean January temperature for London is 4°C, and the mean July temperature 17°C.

During a normal summer the temperature may occasionally rise above 30°C in the south. Minimum temperatures of −10°C may occur on a still clear winter's night in inland areas.

The distribution of sunshine shows a general decrease from south to north – the south has much longer periods of sunshine than the north.

It is frequently said that Great Britain does not experience climate, but only weather. This statement suggests that there is such a day-to-day variation in temperature, rainfall, wind direction, wind speed and sunshine that the "average weather conditions" implied by the term climate have little real meaning. However, too much stress should not be laid on these short-term changes. Monthly climatic statistics show quite clearly that although the British Isles experience from time to time unusual or even exceptional weather conditions, there is usually no very great variation from year to year or between corresponding seasons of different years.

No place in Britain is more than 120 km from the sea. But although the British are crowded very closely in a very small country, there is one respect in which they are very fortunate. This is their climate. Perhaps, this is a surprising statement because almost everyone has heard how annoying the weather usually is in England. Because of the frequent clouds and the moisture that hangs in the air even on fairly clear days, England has less sunshine than most countries, and the sunlight is weaker than in other places where the air is dry and clear. What is worse, sunshine rarely lasts long enough for a person to have time to enjoy it. The weather changes constantly. No ordinary person can guess from one day to another which season he will find himself in when he wakes in the morning. Moreover, a day in January may be as warm as a warm day in July and a day in July may be as cold as the coldest day in January.

But although the English weather is more unreliable than any weather in the world, the English climate – average weather – is a good one. English winters are seldom very cold and the summers are seldom hot. Men ride to work on bicycles all through the year. Along the south coast English gardens even contain occasional palm trees.

The most remarkable feature of English weather, the London fog, has an exaggerated reputation. What makes fog thick in big industrial areas is not so much the moisture in the air as the soot from millions of coal fires. Such smogs (smoke+fog) are not very frequent today. Since 1956 as a result of changes in fuel usage and the introduction of clean air legislation, they have become less severe. It is quite natural that in fine, still weather there is occasionally haze in summer and mist and fog in winter.

The amount of rainfall in Britain is exaggerated, too. Britain seems to have a great deal of rain because there are so many showers. But usually very little rain falls at a time. Often the rain is hardly more than a floating mist in which you can hardly get wet. Although a period of as long as three weeks without rain is exceptional in Britain.

It is no wonder that, living in such an unreliable climate with so many rules and with still more exceptions, the Englishmen talk a lot about the weather. Because they adore their weather, whatever it may be, and their climate, too.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The weather of the British Isles is greatly _____ .
2. Temperature, the most important climatic element, depends not only on the angle at which the sun's rays strike the earth's surface, but also on the _____ of day light.
3. On their arrival over Britain, the winds are forced upwards, and as a result large-scale _____ takes place, clouds form and _____ follows, especially over the mountainous areas.
4. Because of the North Atlantic Drift and the predominantly maritime air masses that reach the British Isles from the west, the _____ in temperature throughout the year is never very great.
5. The distribution of sunshine shows a general _____ from south to north – the south has much longer periods of sunshine than the north.
6. It is frequently said that Great Britain does not experience climate, but only _____ .
7. No ordinary person can guess from one day to another which _____ he will find himself in when he wakes in the morning.
8. Often the rain is hardly more than a floating _____ in which you can hardly get wet.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. The climate of any place results from the interaction of a number of determining factors, of which one of the most important is
   a) latitude.
   b) precipitation.
   c) temperature.
2. Continental winds from the east sometimes reach the British Isles in summer as a warm, dry air-stream, but they are more frequently experienced
   a) in autumn.
   b) in winter.
   c) in spring.

3. Relief is the most important factor controlling the distribution of
   a) temperature and sunshine.
   b) sunshine and precipitation.
   c) precipitation and temperature.
4. The geographical distribution of rainfall is largely determined by
   a) relief.
   b) topography.
   c) latitude.
5. Snow, on the other hand, is rare in Ireland, owing to the warming effects of
   a) the easterlies.
   b) the westerlies.
   c) the Gulf Stream.
6. Although the British are crowded very closely in a very small country, there is one respect in which they are very fortunate: this is their
   a) weather.
   b) climate.
   c) geographical position.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. The climate of a place or region represents the average weather conditions over a short period of time.
2. North and north-west winds often bring heavy falls of snow to north Britain during late October and November, but they are usually short-lived.
3. The actual temperatures experienced in the hilly and mountainous parts are considered higher than those in the lowlands.
4. Rainfall is fairly well distributed throughout the year, although March to June are the wettest months and October to January the driest.
5. It is frequently said that Great Britain does not experience weather but only climate.
6. But although the English weather is more unreliable than any weather in the world, the English climate – average weather – is a good one.
7. It is no wonder that, living in such an unreliable climate with so many rules and with still more exceptions, the Englishmen avoid talking about the weather.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Give the definition of weather and climate.
2. Which factors determine the climate of Great Britain?

3. Examine the moderating effect of the ocean on air temperature in winter and in summer.
4. Describe the major factors which make the British climate.
5. Describe the major features of the distribution of mean seasonal rainfall and temperatures in the British Isles.
6. Which areas of Britain have the greatest mean annual temperature range, and which areas the least? Can you suggest reasons for these differences?
7. Explain why Britain has very variable weather, commenting on seasonal changes.
8. Do you believe that the amount of rainfall in Britain is really exaggerated?

V. Points for discussion.

1. Show how far the advantages deriving from the climate and weather of the British Isles outweigh the disadvantages.
2. What do you understand by the statement: "It is frequently said that Great Britain does not experience climate, but only weather"?
3. Why do the Englishmen talk so much about the weather?

Mineral Wealth

The rise of Britain as an industrial nation in the late 18th and early 19th centuries was partly due to the presence of considerable mineral resources. They provided raw materials as well as sources of power. She possessed abundant supplies of coal and iron ore, the two chief minerals on which the Industrial Revolution was based.

Britain had enough non-ferrous metals – copper, lead, and tin, for example, to meet her needs for a time. But in the course of the last hundred years or so the situation has gradually changed. Many of Britain's most valuable and accessible deposits have been worked out. Moreover, coal had lost some of its former importance, and such minerals as petroleum and uranium ores have become essential materials in the modern world.

At the same time British industry has been one increasingly orientated towards lighter industry, and the heavier coal-based industries have tended to decrease as the dependence upon coal as a source of power has declined. The absence in Great Britain of high-grade iron ore, manganese, chrome, nickel and many other rare metals makes her economy greatly dependent on imported raw materials.

COAL. Coal has been worked in Britain for 700 years. It was first obtained on a commercial scale as far back as the 13th century, mostly in North-East England, from sites where the coal seams actually came out to the surface and where the nearby rivers or coast provided a means of transport. As an industry, coal-mining has been in existence for over 300 years, twice as long as in any other European country. For over a century coal was the most important source of power and fuel in Britain.

Great Britain possessed the richest and most accessible coalfields containing the best coal of any world region. Traditionally Britain is a coal-exporting country. In the early years of the 20th century coal

production exceeded demands and huge quantities were exported. The record year was 1913 when 287 million tons of coal were mined, of which 73 million tons were exported.

The most important coal deposits are to be found in such industrial regions as Yorkshire, Lancashire, North-East England, the Midlands, South Wales and Central Scotland.

Most coal comes from Yorkshire and the Midlands, which produce about 60 per cent of British output. These fields are the easiest to mine because the coal seams are particularly thick.

However, with the introduction of new sources of power and fuel the production of coal has decreased considerably and constitutes at present about 100 million tons. Although many good seams of coal have now been worked out due to the early development of the industry, total coal reserves in Britain are estimated at 190,000 million tons, which are sufficient for at least three hundred years at the present rate of consumption.

OIL and GAS. As the importance of coal has declined, oil has become of increasing significance. Up to the early 1960s over 99 per cent of Britain's petroleum requirements were imported, primarily from the Middle Eastern countries. Since then considerable discoveries of crude oil and natural gas have been made in the North Sea. The first oil was brought ashore in 1975.

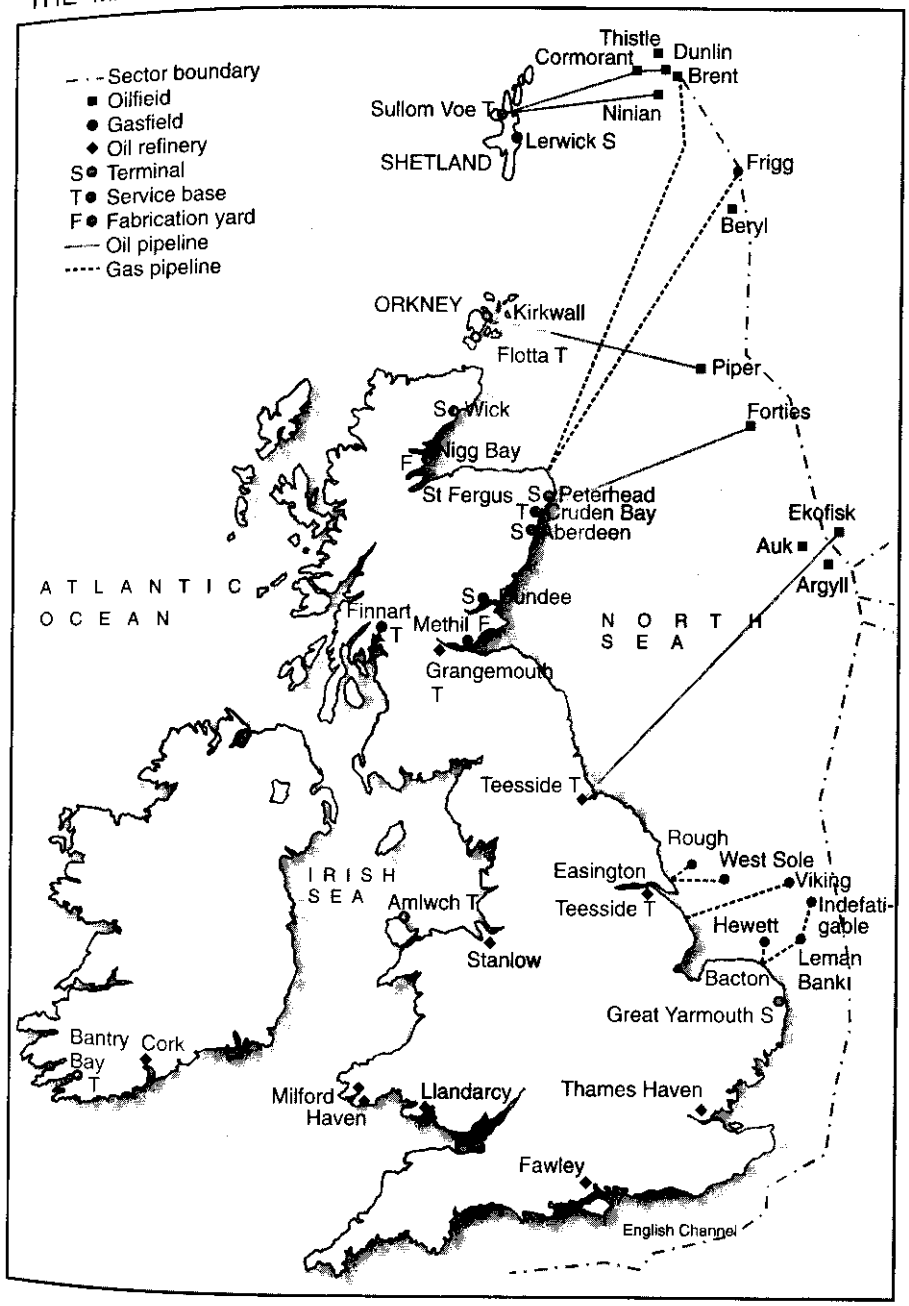
The production of oil has risen fast, amounting in 1987 to 123 million tons, and since then the United Kingdom became an oil exporting nation.

The most important offshore oilfields are to be found off the coasts of eastern and northern Scotland and north-east England. By the 1990s over 40 fields produced oil, the largest of them being Brent, Forties, Ekofisk and others. The principal oil-producing area lies between the latitudes of the Tyne and Shetland Islands, but known to extend to the latitudes of Iceland. About two thousand kilometres of submarine pipeline have been built to bring ashore oil from the North Sea oilfields.

Today Great Britain is completely self-sufficient in oil but, in spite of this, the location of the oil refining industry still reflects the period when the country depended fully on imports. The principal refineries inevitably have coastal locations: Milford Haven, the Thames estuary, Southampton, Merseyside, Grangemouth, etc.

For many years gas was produced from coal and had important applications as fuel for domestic gas stoves and systems of central heating, in steel-making and in other industrial processes. In the 1960s, however, several discoveries of natural gas were made on the continental shelf off the east coast of Britain, in the bed of the North Sea. Natural gas usually occurs with petroleum, and much of the world output comes from oilfields. A large-scale offshore gas production in Britain began in 1967. To date home-produced natural gas accounted

THE MAIN OIL AND GAS FIELDS IN THE NORTH SEA



for about 80 per cent of total natural gas consumption, the remainder coming from Norway and Algeria. The North Sea gas from the continental shelf comes mainly from such major gasfields as Leman Bank, Hewett, Viking and others. The gas is being pumped ashore by pipelines laid on the seabed.

Like oil, natural gas is a valuable material for the chemical industry and demand for it is likely to increase considerably. Of all the major manufacturing industries, the chemical industry has shown the most rapid growth in recent years.

IRON ORE. Iron ore is one of the most abundant metals in the earth's crust. The total reserves of it in Britain are estimated at 3,800 million tons. But only those rocks are considered worthy of exploitation as iron ores, which contain (by weight) 25 per cent or more iron.

Most of the iron fields in Britain are to be found in the areas of major coal basins, and this created favourable conditions for the development of metallurgical industry, especially at early stages of its history. By about 1850 most of the best iron ores had been worked out, but the demand for iron ore was greater than ever – for making railway lines, locomotives, ships, machinery, bridges, and for constructional purposes generally.

As the metallurgical industry expanded, the failing supplies of domestic iron ore could no longer keep pace with the demands for the production of iron and steel. At the beginning of the 1990s Britain could produce only 300 thousand tons a year, while her annual consumption was about 32 million tons. So, practically all the iron ore for the metallurgical industry of the country is imported, mainly from Sweden, North and West Africa, Spain, Canada and South America.

Great Britain has no large-scale sources of non-ferrous metals. Nearly all of them – manganese, tin, copper, zinc – are imported too.

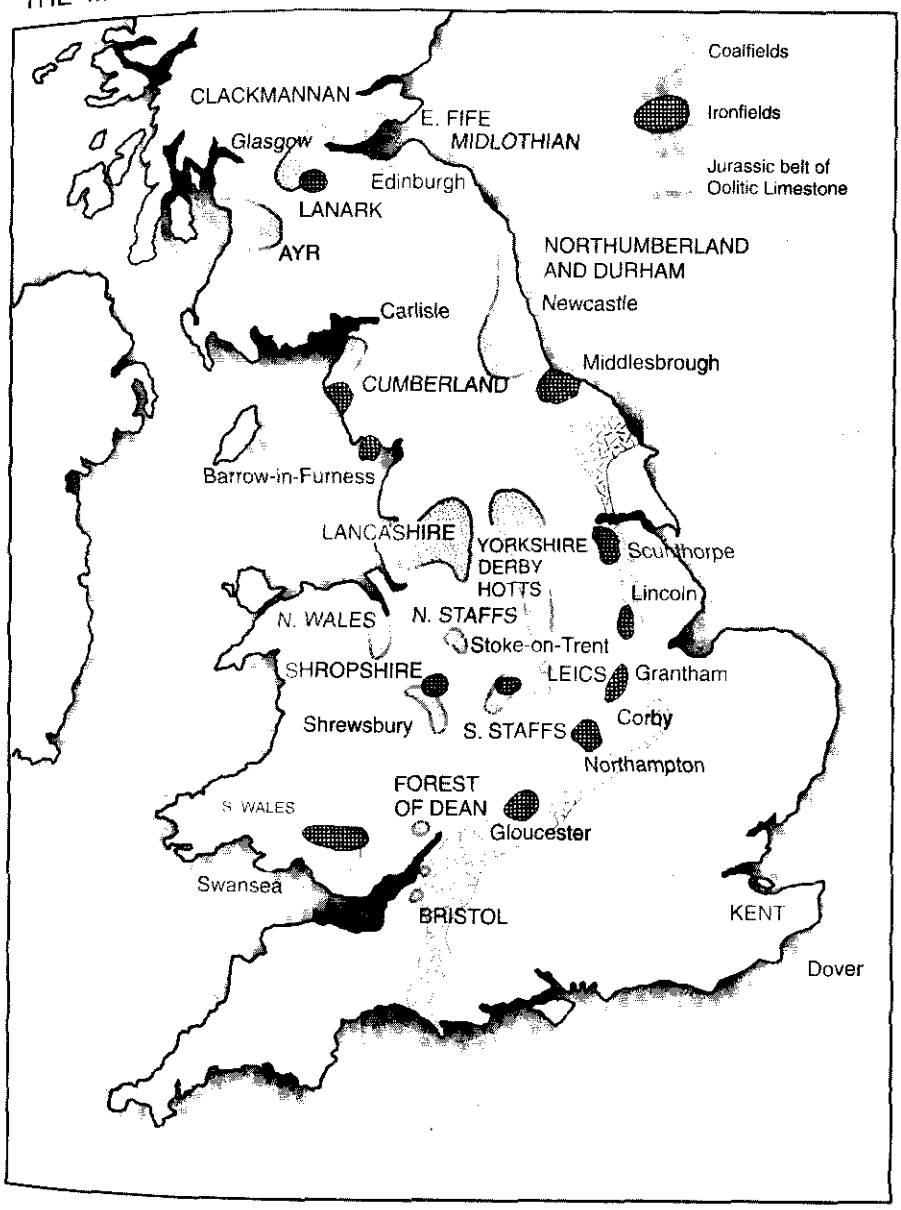
A great variety of NON-METALLIC MINERALS is produced in Britain. Various common rocks are mined for building purposes, heavy constructional work and for road-making, as in the case of granites in Devon and Cornwall. Deposits of clay are important in the manufacture of bricks. Chalk is used in the cement industry and is mined on both banks of the Thames estuary and on the banks of the Humber. Sand and gravel for the building industry generally come from pits which are widespread throughout midland and northern England and central Scotland.

Different kinds of salt form the basic raw materials for a variety of chemicals used, for example, in the textile and soap-making industries, so they have their chief market in the chemical industry.

Kaolin, a fine white china-clay, occurs in Cornwall and Devon. It is used in cotton, paper end pottery manufacture.

Certain other less common minerals are also obtained in Britain, although in smaller quantities: gypsum, potash, peat.

THE MAIN COALFIELDS AND IRONFIELDS



Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. Britain possessed abundant _____ of coal and iron ore, the two chief minerals on which the Industrial Revolution was based.
2. In the early years of this century coal production _____ demands and huge quantities were exported.
3. These coalfields are the easiest to mine because the coal _____ are particularly thick.
4. Up to the early 1960s, over 99 per cent of Britain's petroleum _____ were imported, primarily from the Middle Eastern countries.
5. About two thousand kilometres of _____ pipeline have been built to bring ashore oil from the North Sea oilfields.
6. Like oil, natural gas is a _____ material for the chemical industry and demand for it is likely to increase considerably.
7. Iron ore is one of the most abundant metals in the earth's _____ .
8. A great _____ of non-metallic minerals is produced in Britain.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Many of Britain's most valuable and accessible deposits of non-ferrous metals have been
   a) developed. b) worked out. c) exhausted.
2. At the same time British industry has become increasingly orientated towards
   a) heavier industry. b) lighter industry.
   c) agriculture.
3. The most important coal deposits are to be found in such industrial regions as Yorkshire, Lancashire, North-East England, the Midlands, Central Scotland and
   a) North-West England. b) Northern Ireland.
   c) South Wales.
4. In the 1960s, however, several discoveries of natural gas were made on the continental shelf off the east coast of Britain, in the bed of
   a) the Irish Sea. b) the North Sea.
   c) the English Channel.
5. Most of the iron fields in Britain are to be found in the areas of major coal basins, and this created favourable conditions for the development of
   a) chemical industry. b) metallurgical industry.
   c) textile industry.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

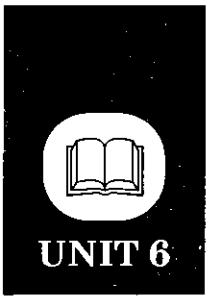
1. The rise of Britain as an industrial nation in the late 18th and early 19th centuries was partly due to the presence of considerable mineral resources.
2. As an industry coal-mining has been in existence for over 100 years, twice as long as in any other European country.
3. These coal fields are the easiest to mine because the coal seams are particularly thin.
4. However, with the introduction of new sources of power and fuel the production of coal has decreased considerably and constitutes at present about 100 million tons.
5. The production of oil has risen fast, amounting in 1987 to 123 million tons, and for the first time the United Kingdom became an oil exporting nation.
6. The principal oil producing area lies between the latitudes of the Tyne and Shetland Islands, but known to extend to the latitudes of Greenland.
7. As the metallurgical industry expanded, the failing supplies of domestic iron ore could no longer keep pace with the demands for the production of iron and steel.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Examine the role of mineral resources in the rise of Britain as an industrial nation.
2. What minerals constituted the basis of the Industrial Revolution?
3. What rare metals make Britain's economy depend on imported raw materials?
4. When and where was coal first obtained on a commercial scale?
5. Describe the development of coalmining industry in Britain.
6. What are the most productive coal fields? Explain the reasons for the decline of coal production.
7. Examine the development of oil and gas production industry in Britain.
8. What are the principal oil and gas producing areas in Britain?
9. Give an account of the iron ore production and consumption in Britain.
10. What non-metallic minerals are produced in Britain?

V. Points for discussion.

1. Minerals in the life of people.
2. Britain and the North Sea oil and gas. The role of the continental shelf.
3. Dependence of Britain on a variety of raw materials.



Who Are the British? (I) Ancient and Roman Britain

This term is used about the people who live on the British Isles, and to be more exact, who live in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. They are all united in one country officially known as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, or shortly U.K. The flag of the United Kingdom known as the Union Jack, reflects the history of the State. This term can be explained as follows: "Union" reflects the union of England and Scotland in 1606, and "jack" means the flag flown on the jack staff (a small flagstaff) of ships to show their nationality. The Union Jack is made up of three crosses on a blue ground. The blue colour refers to the seas surrounding Britain. The central red cross is the cross of St. George, the patron saint of England. The white diagonal cross (with the arms going into the corners) is the cross of St.Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland. The red diagonal cross is the cross of St.Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland, but today it refers to Northern Ireland. St.David is the patron saint of Wales, but the symbol of Wales is not reflected in the Union Jack, because when the flag first appeared Wales was already firmly united with England. The Welsh flag is a red dragon on a white and green ground.

The English, Welsh, Scottish and Northern Irish are different from each other, and to understand the reasons for this we are to take a short glimpse into the history of the country.

In prehistoric times Britain was joined to the rest of Europe. The first people, and many animals, came there over dry land. Towards the end of the Ice Age the low-lying land areas became covered with water, and thus the present English Channel was formed. The hunters of the New Stone Age crossed the sea to Britain to the west of the Channel and settled along the Western shores in their search of food.

The first inhabitants of the island for whom a traditional name exists are the Iberian or Megalithic people (from the words "monolith", "megalith" or big stones which they used), who lived mainly in the western part of the country. They are thought to have come from the region of the Mediterranean Sea (the Iberian peninsula where Spain is located) somewhere after 3000 B.C. (before Christ). Soon after 2000 B.C. another people entered the country from the east of Europe. The two peoples intermixed. The ancient people left behind impressive monuments of which Stonehenge and Avebury are most remarkable. (See Unit 9.)

The arrival of the Celts from Central Europe after 800 B.C. opened up a new and important page of British history. The name "Britain" comes from the name of a Celtic tribe known as the Britons who settled in the country. The Celts spoke the Celtic language. The influence of the Celts was greatest in Wales, Scotland and Ireland. They were driven to these parts by the invaders who followed them. Due to this, these parts of Britain are very different from England in language, custom, traditions.

Welsh is one of the Celtic languages, like Scottish and Irish Gaelic. About 16 to 20 per cent of the population of Wales speak the Welsh language, although in north and west Wales about half of the population speak the local tongue. According to the Act of 1967 all official documents in Wales should be in English and Welsh, and most road signs are in both languages. 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. This festival attracts people from all over the country. In recent years there is a growing interest in learning this language not only in Wales.

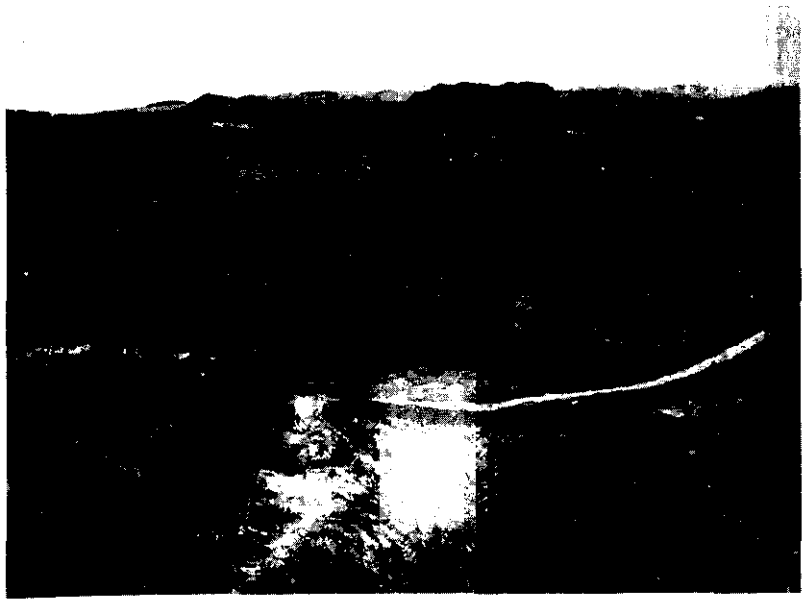
Scottish Gaelic and Irish Gaelic are still spoken in Scotland and Northern Ireland, although they have suffered more than Welsh from the spread of English. However, these languages are being taught and learned in schools. The Scots have very many interesting traditions, games, of which they are very proud. The Scottish song *For Auld Lang Syne* which means "in memory of past times" was written by Scotland's most famous poet, Robert Burns, and it is sung all over Britain. Many Scottish people still use some Scottish words when they speak English. For example, "a bonnie lass" is a pretty girl and a "bairn" is a young child, or if the Scots say "aye" it means that they agree with you. Many people in Scotland have the name MacDonald or MacKenzie. "Mac" means "son of" and people with this name feel that they belong to the same family or clan. The Gaelic word "clann" means "family", or "descendants" and the great clans of Scotland were really very big families ruled by powerful chiefs.

In England itself Celtic influence is felt to this very day, though this influence is much weaker, as compared with the other parts of the country. The Celts worshipped nature. The oak-tree and mistletoe were sacred. Water was also worshipped as the source of life. There are place-names in England connected with the Celts. For example, Avon – the name of a river, which means "water" in Celtic. The origin of the name Severn – the longest river in the country – is connected with the name of a Celtic goddess – Sabrina. The tradition of decorating the homes in Britain during Christmas with branches of such plants as the mistletoe and holly is connected with the customs of the Celts, who believed that these plants protected their homes against evil spirits. The most interesting description of the life of the Celts was given by Julius Caesar, the Roman ruler, who first invaded Britain in 55 B.C.

The Greeks called the Island "Albion", and the Romans said that this meant "white land", because the first view of Britain for most visitors was the white cliffs near Dover. Caesar knew that Britain produced corn which the Romans needed. Tin, widely used in Rome, was exported from Cornwall. And the Romans needed a fresh supply of slaves. Moreover, the Celts in Britain helped their kinsmen in Gaul (the present territory of France) in their struggle against the Romans who wanted to conquer them. So Caesar decided to punish the Britons for their support. However, Caesar's first expedition was not successful, because his force was small, and the Celts fought well. So in the following year, that is in 54 B.C., he invaded the country with a larger army of 25,000 men. This time the expedition was successful, and the Celts were defeated. But Caesar did not stay in Britain. He left the country with many slaves and other riches, and he received a promise from the Celts that they would pay a regular tribute to Rome.

Some 90 years later, that is in A.D. 43 (*anno Domini*; Latin – "in the year of Christ") the country was conquered by the Romans. This occupation of Britain continued to the beginning of the fifth century (about 410). Not all of Britain was firmly in the hands of the Romans. In the south and south-eastern parts Roman influence was greatest, while in the north and west the country remained much untouched.

Many towns were built by the Romans which were connected by good roads. Some of these roads still exist to this very day. For example, Watling Street from London to Chester, or Icknield Way connecting London with Cirencester. Most British towns with names ending with "chester" were, in Roman times, fortified camps. You can see much of Roman times in the ancient town of Colchester, which became a town for retired Roman soldiers. Here is the best preserved Roman gateway in Britain. You can see here the original Roman walls. Evidence of the Roman past can be seen in many places of Britain. Bath was well known to the Romans. They discovered the hot mineral springs that could be



Hadrian's wall

used for curing all kinds of illnesses. The wonderful baths which the Romans built are now one of the main tourist attractions in Bath. In the 18th century, Bath became famous as a spa, where people used to go to "take the waters". When you go to Bath, you can visit the Pump Room and drink from the fountain. The water has an unpleasant taste, but it is very good for you.

The largest of the towns was called Londinium. It began life as a Roman fort at a place where it was possible to cross the river Thames. Many believe that here was a Celtic settlement called "Llyn-dyn" which meant "lake-fort" and which the Romans changed into Latin. Ruins of the old Roman wall can be seen today in the Tower of London. Many walls were built to defend the country from the attacks of the barbarians living in the north and west. Most outstanding was the wall built on the orders of Emperor Hadrian in the north near Scotland. This wall roughly divided England from Scotland, and was to keep out the Picts and Scots. You can see much of this wall today if you go there. Roman culture and civilization had a positive influence on the development of the country. Life in the south-east of Britain resembled life in Rome, and there was a lively trade between Britain and the continent. However, when the Romans left the country at the beginning of the 5th century, Britain became open to the attacks of newcomers from the continent who destroyed Roman civilization and culture.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The flag of the United Kingdom, known as the ____ ____ , reflects the history of the state.
2. St.George is the ____ ____ of England,
3. The Welsh flag is a red ____ on a white and green ground.
4. The ____ of the Celts was greatest in Wales, Scotland and Ireland.
5. The name Britain comes from the name of a Celtic____ known as the Britons.
6. Eisteddfod means an annual ____ in Wales where people meet to dance, sing and read poems.
7. The Romans attacked Britain because the Celts in Britain helped their ____ in Gaul.
8. The ancient town of Colchester was a town for ____ Roman soldiers.
9. Many scholars believe that London began as a Celtic ____ called Llyn-dyn.
10. The most ____ wall which the Romans built in the north of the country was Hadrian's wall.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. The Union Jack is
   a) made up of three stripes.
   b) made up of three crosses on a blue ground.
   c) a very old flag which began to be used in the 13th century.
2. The three crosses of the Union Jack
   a) reflect the three main religions in the country.
   b) are the crosses of England, Scotland and Ireland.
   c) symbolize the union of Wales, England and Scotland.
3. The influence of the Celts was greatest
   a) in the south-east of the country near London.
   b) in Wales, Scotland and Ireland.
   c) during the invasion of the Romans.
4. Welsh is one of the Celtic languages
   a) which is spoken by about 20 per cent of the population of Wales.
   b) which developed in Britain quite recently.
   c) which has many words in common with English.
5. The Greeks and the Romans called Britain "Albion"
   a) because of the white cliffs of Dover which can be seen when the travellers come closer to the British side of the Channel.

b) because of the colour of the hair of most Britons.
c) because of the great amount of chalk found in the country.

6. The Roman occupation of Britain
   a) began when Caesar crushed the opposition of the Celts.
   b) started in 43 A.D. and ended at the beginning of the 5th century.
   c) brought much disorder in the country.
7. Bath became famous
   a) as a town for retired Roman soldiers.
   b) because it became the town where the queen established her residence.
   c) because of the mineral waters found nearby.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

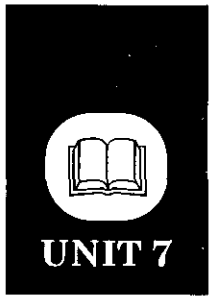
1. The Union Jack is made up of three crosses on a green ground.
2. The word Jack means a sailor on a British ship.
3. St.David is the patron saint of Scotland.
4. The Iberians came to Britain after 2000 B.C. from Africa.
5. All the people in Scotland speak the Gaelic language.
6. The influence of the Celts was much greater in England than in Ireland.
7. There are no placenames in Britain which are connected with the Celts.
8. Caesar's second expedition in Britain was successful.
9. Bath became famous as a spa long before the Romans invaded the country.
10. Roman influence in Britain continued to be felt long after they left the country.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. What is the name of the British flag?
2. Why is the flag called the Union Jack?
3. To what does the blue colour in the flag refer?
4. Who were the first inhabitants of the British Isles?
5. In what parts of Britain is the influence of the Celts greatest? Why?
6. Where is Welsh spoken? Is it different from English?
7. Is Gaelic different from English? Prove it.
8. From whom does the tradition of decorating British homes at Christmas with holly come? Why?
9. Was the influence of the Romans positive for the development of Britain?
10. What place-names in Britain are of Roman origin?

V. Points for discussion.

1. The three crosses of the Union Jack.
2. The Celtic languages in Britain. The influence of Celtic culture in the country.
3. Roman civilisation in Britain.



Who Are the British? (II) The Anglo-Saxons, Danes and Normans

After the departure of the Romans, the Celts remained independent for some time, but quite soon the country began to be attacked by Germanic tribes from the continent. They were the Jutes, the Saxons and the Angles. The Jutes and the Angles came from the Jutland peninsula (today southern Denmark) and the Saxons from the territory between the Rhine and Elbe rivers (northern Germany). At first they came as mercenaries hired by Celtic tribal chiefs who fought one against the other, then seeing that the country was weak to defend itself, they came in great numbers conquering it altogether.

The Jutes landed in Kent (the south-east) somewhere in 450. They were followed by the Angles and the Saxons so that by the end of the 5th century the greater part of the country (with the exception of Wales, Cornwall and Scotland) became occupied by the invaders. The Angles settled mainly to the north of the Thames, and quite soon the country began to be called "the land of the Angles", later "Engla-land" and as you easily see England. The Saxons settled in the south, south- west and partially east forming the ancient kingdoms of Wessex, Sussex and Essex. The Anglo-Saxons and Jutes were close to each other in speech and customs, and they gradually formed into one people referred to as the Anglo-Saxons.

Although the German invaders occupied most of the British Isles, certain areas remained unconquered. They were Wales, Cornwall, the northern part of Britain, Ireland. Many of the Celts who survived after the attacks of the Germanic tribes fled to these parts of the country. Thus Celtic culture continued to exist in the parts of Britain which were

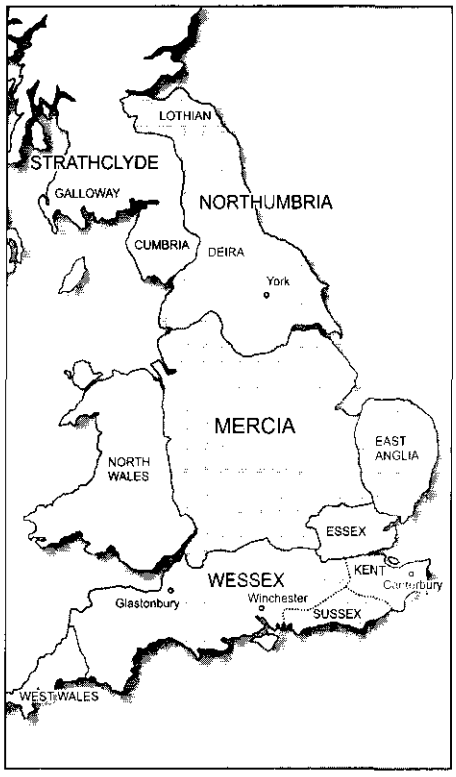
mentioned above. The northern part of Britain was the home of the Picts and Scots. After the conquest of the Picts by the Scots in the 9th century this northern territory came to be called Scotland and a united Scottish kingdom was formed in the 11th century. In the course of the struggle of the Celts against the Anglo-Saxons many legends and stories came to light of which most famous are the tales of King Arthur and his knights of the Round Table. (See Unit 29). The Anglo-Saxons were pagans and worshipped different gods. Their names are reflected in the names of the days of the week: Tiu (Tuesday) was the god of war, Woden (Wednesday) was the supreme god and the god of kings, Thor (Thursday) was the god of storm, Frigga (Friday), Woden's wife, was the goddess of nature and of love. Anglo-Saxon folklore, the greatest monument of which is *The Poem of Beowulf* created in the seventh century, reflected the life of society and its traditions.

The Anglo-Saxons settled in small tribal villages or townships. Saxon villages consisted of about 20 to 30 families, all faithful to their leader. Local rules were made by the "moot", which was a small meeting held on a grassy hill or under a tree. Sometimes it judged cases between the people of the village. The many villages were, as time went by, grouped into "hundreds", and the "hundreds" were grouped into "shires". Each "hundred" had an open-air court of justice, and the judges were called aldermen. Important cases were judged by the sheriff of shire or by a king's representative called a reeve. These cases were discussed at a shire moot or meeting, which was a kind of local parliament which met usually twice a year. The King's council was called the Witan, which was a kind of parliament of wise men. It could make laws and choose, or elect new kings.

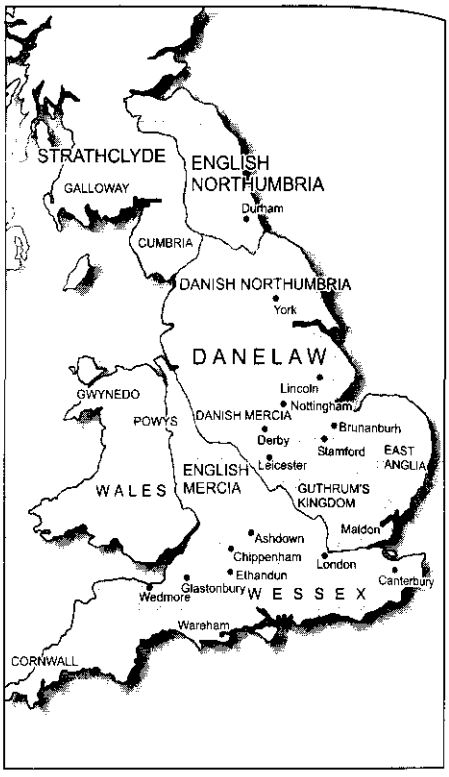
The Saxon kingdoms fought one against the other, at times one kingdom would become stronger, then another, but at the beginning of the 9th century Wessex became the leading kingdom and united the rest of England in the fight against the Danes, who came from present-day Denmark. Since 829 the greater part of the country was united under the name England.

An important event which contributed to the unification of the country and the development of culture was the adoption of Christianity in England in 664. Christianity began to spread in England much earlier. It is connected with the name of St. Augustine who founded the Church of England in 597. Legend claims that Joseph of Arimathea, the uncle of Virgin Mary, brought Jesus to Britain when he was a boy of about 12, and that Jesus visited Britain as a young man and stayed some time at Glastonbury, where he put up for himself a small house of mud. No wonder Glastonbury has always been a place of pilgrimage. Moreover, at Glastonbury you can see the Holy Thorn, a tree which according to legend was planted by Joseph of Arimathea when he came to Britain after Christ's death. He planted a staff, which

SAXON ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTH CENTURY



ENGLAND DURING THE DANISH INVASIONS



may have been used by Christ as a stick. The staff began to grow and eventually turned into a beautiful tree becoming widely known as the Holy Thorn. It blossoms twice a year in spring and at Christmas, and a bunch of flowers from the tree is sent to the Queen at Christmas every year. With the adoption of Christianity many churches and monasteries were built. Among them Glastonbury later became the largest abbey in Britain. The monasteries also served as centres of education in Wessex. But in the 9th century the country had to struggle with new invaders. They were the Danes who attacked England, and the Northmen from Scandinavia who invaded Scotland and Ireland.

At first they acted as pirates attacking the country and robbing it but later they came in great numbers conquering one territory after another. The kingdom of Wessex alone was left to resist them. It was lucky for Wessex to have a very talented king who organized the struggle against the Danes. This was Alfred who ruled from 871 to 901, and who eventually defeated the Danes making them sign a peace agreement. Though the country was divided into two parts – one under

the Saxons, and the other – the north-east – under the Danes, peace was won, and later the English took over the land occupied by the Danes. Danish influence is still felt in some place-names ending in -by, -toft, such as Appleby or Lowestoft, as well as in the presence of some words in the English language. Alfred was also a great lawgiver and a patron of learning. He is considered to be the founder of the English fleet.

The last of the invaders to come to Britain were the Normans from France. In 1066 Duke William of Normandy (a duchy which was established by the Vikings in the 9th century in the north-west of France), who claimed the English throne, defeated the English at the battle of Hastings on the 14th of October in 1066 and established his rule in the country as king of England. He is known as William the Conqueror. The Normans settled in the country, and the French language became the official language of the ruling class for the next three centuries. This explains the great number of French words in English. The monarchy which was established by William and his successors was, in general, more effective. The feudal system contributed to the growth of power of the state, and little by little England began to spread its power. Wales was the first to be conquered by England. Before they were conquered by the English in the 13th century the different Welsh tribes were continually fighting one another. In 1282 Prince Llewelyn was killed in battle and the King of England, Edward I started a successful campaign to conquer Wales. Eventually the country was subdued, but the English never felt safe there because of Welsh opposition. This explains why the English built so many castles here of which most famous is Caernarfon located in North Wales.

At the same time Edward I of England made his eldest son, his heir, bear the title Prince of Wales in 1301. The ceremony when Charles, the eldest son of Queen Elizabeth II, became Prince of Wales, took place in 1969 in Caernarfon. It was watched by millions of TV viewers all round the world. The ceremony itself, when the eldest son of the monarch becomes the official heir to the throne receiving the title Prince of Wales is known as the Investiture. (See Unit 10.) Though Wales was conquered by England, the Welsh continued to struggle for their independence. At the beginning of the 15th century there was a great rising, but the situation was seriously changed when in 1485 the English throne passed to Henry VII of the Welsh House of Tudor. In 1536 and 1542 Henry VIII brought Wales under the English parliament through special Acts of Union. Since the 16th century Wales has been governed from London. In today's Government there is a special department and minister for Welsh affairs. Since 1999 Wales formed its own Parliament, the Welsh Assembly, which consists of 60 members.

Scotland managed to be independent for quite a long time, though the English tried hard to conquer it. In the 14th century Robert Bruce led the struggle against the English, but he was defeated by the English king Edward I and had to hide on an island between Scotland and Ireland. Here, so Scottish legend says, Bruce found shelter in a cave. He was in despair. He had been defeated, his friends were scattered, and the English were strong as ever. As he lay on the cave's hard floor, thinking how difficult it would be to win his struggle, he saw a spider above him spinning its web. Again and again the spider slipped from the web, and again and again it climbed up a line of the web until the whole web was completed. The example with the spider gave Bruce new strength. He managed to organize a new army and defeated the English. However, some years later Edward II, the new English king, decided to attack Robert Bruce in Scotland. He managed to cross the border and reach the Bannock Burn or stream just south of Stirling Castle, which was not taken by the Scots and remained in English hands. Here in the battle of Bannockburn (1314) the English were very seriously defeated, and Scotland continued to be independent for the next three centuries.

In 1603 Queen Elizabeth I died and, as she had no children, was succeeded by James Stuart, James VI of Scotland, who became James I of England. He was the son of Mary Queen of Scots, cousin of Elizabeth I. With this union England, Wales and Scotland became known as Great Britain. However, Scotland continued to be quite independent in the 17th century. The final unification took place in 1707, when both sides agreed to form a single parliament in London for Great Britain, although Scotland continued to keep its own system of law, education and have an independent church. Today Scotland is part of the United Kingdom. There is a special minister in the Government, the Secretary of State for Scotland. In 1999 Scotland restored its independent Parliament of 129 members. This process which took place in Wales and Scotland is known as devolution, which means granting greater autonomy to the national parts of the United Kingdom.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. After the _____ of the Romans Britain became conquered by the Germanic tribes of Angles, Saxons and _____ .
2. The _____ were the first to conquer Britain in the middle of the fifth century.
3. The name England is connected with the _____ who occupied the country to the north of the Thames,

4. Many Celts _____ to the regions which were not occupied by the Germanic tribes: Wales, Scotland, Cornwall, Ireland,
5. The Anglo-Saxons were _____ and worshipped different gods.
6. An important event which _____ to the unification of the country and the development of culture was the adoption of Christianity.
7. It was lucky for Wessex to have a talented king whose name was Alfred and who led the struggle against the _____ .
8. The last invasion of Britain took place in 1066 when the country was _____ by the Normans.
9. Though Wales was _____ by the English at the end of the 13th century, they never felt safe there, and so many castles were built by the invaders.
10. The final _____ of England and Scotland took place in 1707 when both sides agreed to form a single parliament in London.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. As the Anglo-Saxons were pagans they worshipped different gods
   a) and their names are reflected in the names of the months of the year.
   b) and their statues are seen in different parts of the country.
   c) which are reflected in the names of the days of the week.
2. The Saxon kingdoms fought one against the other, but at the beginning of the 9th century
   a) Wessex became the leading kingdom which united all the country in the struggle against the Danes.
   b) the Danes occupied all England under their rule.
   c) peace was established as a result of the adoption of Christianity.
3. The Holy thorn tree at Glastonbury
   a) is believed to have been planted by Joseph of Arimathea.
   b) blossoms at Christmas, and a bunch of its flowers is sent to the Queen.
   c) was planted not long ago when some seeds were brought to Britain from Jerusalem.
4. There is a great number of French words in English
   a) because they were borrowed by the English when Christianity spread in England.
   b) due to the influence of the Celts.
   c) because French became the official language in Britain after the Norman invasion.
5. Caernarfon located in North Wales is famous
   a) because a great battle took place here between the English and the Welsh.

b) due to the ceremony of Investiture which takes place when the title of Prince of Wales is granted to the heir of the throne.
c) because of the numerous beautiful lakes which surround it.

6. Robert Bruce is a national hero in Scotland because
   a) he commanded the Scottish forces and defeated the English at Bannockburn in 1314.
   b) he was the first king of the Scots.
   c) he was a great poet and wrote many beautiful poems about the Scots.
7. Prince Llewelyn headed the struggle against the English
   a) and defeated them at Caernarfon.
   b) and was killed in battle in 1282 which led to the conquest of the country.
   c) and successfully defended Wales against the English.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. At first the Anglo-Saxons came as mercenaries who were hired by the Romans.
2. Of the three Germanic tribes the first to come to Britain were the Saxons.
3. The German invaders occupied all of the British Isles.
4. The Scottish kingdom was formed in the 9th century as a result of the unification of the Scots and the Anglo-Saxons.
5. *The Poem of Beowulf* is the greatest literary monument of the Celts which describes their life and customs.
6. Christianity was adopted in England in 664 and is connected with the name of St. Augustine who started his missionary work in the country in 597.
7. Though a part of Britain was conquered by the Danes, Danish influence is not felt in the country.
8. The Duke of Normandy defeated the English in 1282 at Caernarfon.
9. The final unification of England and Scotland took place in 1603 under James I of England.
10. To this very day Scotland continues to keep its own system of law, education and have an independent church.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Where did the Anglo-Saxons and Jutes come from?
2. Who were the first of the Germanic tribes to come to Britain and when did they enter the country?
3. Where did the three Germanic tribes settle?

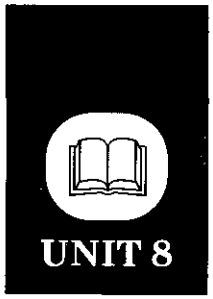
4. Are Anglo-Saxon pagan customs reflected in the English language?
5. Did the kingdom of Wessex play an important role in English history?
6. When did England become a Christian country?
7. What was king Alfred's role in the struggle against the Danes?
8. When did the last invasion of England take place?
9. How did the Norman conquest affect the life of the country?
10. Why did the English build so many castles in Wales?
11. What is understood under the term "devolution"?

V. Points for discussion.

1. The invasion of England by the Germanic tribes.
2. The legends of Glastonbury.
3. The ceremony at Caernarfon Castle.
4. The story of Robert Bruce and the spider.

VI. Talking point.

Discuss in class whether the people in Wales and Scotland approve the restoration of their Parliaments in 1999. Does this process of devolution pose a threat to the unity of Great Britain?



Who Are the British? (III) The Irish

The province of Northern Ireland (sometimes called "Ulster") consists of six counties and is part of the United Kingdom. It is surrounded by sea to the north and east, and it borders on the Irish Republic (Eire) in the west and south. The capital of the province is Belfast.

Ireland was England's first colony, and this must never be forgotten when speaking of Anglo-Irish relations. Ever since the first English appeared on Irish land eight centuries ago, there has been much unhappiness and blood.

The problem of Northern Ireland is closely connected with religion, because the Irish people can be divided into two religious groups: Catholics and Protestants. At the same time it is quite clear that the fighting between these two groups is connected with the colonial past.

In 1169 Henry II of England started an invasion of Ireland. Although a large part of Ireland came under the control of the invaders, there was not much direct control from England during the Middle Ages. However, in the 16th century Henry VIII of England quarrelled with Rome and declared himself head of the Anglican Church, which was a Protestant Church. Ireland remained Catholic, and did not accept the change. So Henry VIII tried to force Irish Catholics to become Anglican. He also punished them by taking a lot of their land. This policy was continued by his daughter Elizabeth I. The northern province of Ulster became the centre of resistance, which was crushed by the English in 1607. After these events Ulster became an area of settlement by Protestant immigrants from Scotland and England. The "Plantation of Ulster" began. "Plantation" meant that 23 new towns were built in Ulster to protect the Protestant settlers known as

"planters". The Irish Catholics were driven from their lands. As a result of these actions the population in Ulster became Protestant in majority. But the Irish Catholics never gave up their struggle for independence and their rights. At the end of the 18th century there was a mass rising against the English colonizers which was crushed by the English army, and in 1801 a forced union was established with Britain.

All through the 19th century the "Irish question" remained in the centre of British politics. One of the greatest tragedies of the 19th century was the Great Hunger of 1845-49 when because of the bad potato harvest one million people died and more than one million emigrated to the United States of America. The Irish people have never forgotten that the British government had not done enough to help the poor people during the hunger.

After a long and bitter struggle the southern part of Ireland finally became a Free State in 1921. Ulster where the Protestants were in majority remained part of the United Kingdom. The Irish Free State declared itself a republic in 1949, and is now known as the Irish Republic or Eire (an old Irish word for Ireland). It is completely independent, and its capital is the city of Dublin. Northern Ireland had its own Parliament at Stormont in Belfast and government which was responsible for its province's life. But from the beginning the Parliament was in the hands of Protestants, while the Catholics did not have equal rights with the Protestants. In 1969 conflict started between these groups, and so the British government closed the local parliament and sent in the British army to keep the peace. But there was no peace, and there have been many deaths since 1969. On the Catholic side is the IRA (Irish Republican Army) which wants to achieve a united Ireland by terrorism and bombings. On the Protestant side there are also secret terrorist organizations.

But after all these years of confrontation the people of Northern Ireland understand that only through peace talks and respect for the rights of all the people (both Catholics and Protestants) can peace be achieved in the province. Recent events show that after the talks between London and Dublin, and the end of terrorist activities between the two communities there is much hope that the age-old conflict will be solved, and that peace and progress will be established in Northern Ireland to the benefit of its population with the restoration of the local Parliament.

The Northern Ireland Assembly of 108 members was restored in 1998. Elections to the Northern Ireland Assembly were held in November 2003. However, many difficulties still exist to make this local parliament a workable body because of the confrontation between the parties representing the Protestant and Catholic communities.

Many years ago all Irish people spoke Gaelic (a Celtic language) and today this language is still spoken in some parts of Ireland, especially in

the west, although English is spoken by all Irish people with an accent and dialect quite different from the English in Britain. Gaelic place-names have also survived, for example "lough" – lake, "inis" – island, "drum" – the top of mountain, "glen" – valley, "bally"– town. The names of people are also Gaelic. For example: Liam, the same as the English William, Sean [ʃɔ:n], same as John, Brid, same as Bridget.

An Irishman is quite often called Paddy (short for Patrick). Patrick is so often used, because St. Patrick is the patron saint of Ireland, but it is not a Gaelic name. The same may be said of another widely used name Micky (short for Michael). Irish culture has had a great influence on the development of British culture. Many famous Irishmen contributed to the development of British culture, for example, Jonathan Swift, Bernard Shaw, James Joyce and many others.

Recently, there have been many waves of immigration into Britain and movement within the U.K. For example, many people from Wales, Scotland and Ireland have settled in England.

Many foreigners settled in Britain since the beginning of the 20th century. Commonwealth citizens could enter Britain quite freely until 1962, while people from other countries had to receive special permits. Before the Second World War most of the immigrants came from the old dominions: Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa. In the late 1930s many Jews came from Germany because of fascist persecution, as well as Poles and people of other nationalities from Eastern Europe. After 1952 many immigrants came to Britain from the West Indies, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Hong Kong, from some countries of Africa. At this time the British economy was developing rapidly and it needed cheap labour. The immigrants were poor and out of work and had been told there were jobs for them in Britain.

Black and Asian people can be seen in every city of Britain, but there is a greater concentration of them in larger cities, where it is easier to find work, such as London, Birmingham, Bradford, Coventry, Manchester and others. Today, more than 5 million people of non-white origin live in Britain and over 50 per cent of them were born in Britain, thus they are British, but with a different colour of their skin. Nearly half the doctors and many of the nurses are black, or of Indian origin, as are large numbers of bus drivers and conductors. Many work in the service industry, or own little shops, restaurants, cafes. The immigrants usually take the lowest paid jobs, and when there is unemployment they are the first to lose work. In spite of the laws to protect them, there was still discrimination against the non-whites. This led to serious disturbances in many cities of Britain in the early 1980s.

The main languages of the Asian immigrants are Urdu, Hindi, Bengali, Punjabi, Gujarati, and Cantonese (Chinese). The authorities support the non-white communities to continue speaking their own

languages as well as English. These communities have their special newspapers, magazines, radio and television programmes.

With the movement of people among the countries of the European Union of which Britain is a member, more and more people enter Britain from continental Europe. Today there are many Italians, Greeks, Spaniards, Portuguese living in Britain.

The arrival of many foreigners has changed life in present-day Britain. British culture has been enriched through its contact with other cultures. For example, the eating and cooking habits of the British have changed. There are lots of Chinese, Japanese, Indian, Pakistani, Greek and Italian restaurants and cafes all over the country. Traditionally Asian foods have been very popular with the British. But nowadays the British have also developed a great taste for Italian pizzas. Greek foods which .are served at Greek restaurants attract many people not only because the foods are very specific and tasty, but also due to the opportunity to enjoy Greek folk songs and dances.

The service sector has also improved considerably due to the arrival of immigrants. There are many shops run by South Koreans and Vietnamese which are open 24 hours, and any customer can drop in any time to buy things which he needs.

There are also many "take-away shops", that is shops where you can take food home which has been prepared for you. Another important thing is that the food is tasty and cheap, and you save much time which you can use for other purposes.

Cultural life has also become interesting due to its diversity. You can visit different exhibitions, enjoy new theatrical performances, music. For example, the Bonie M pop group which started in the West Indies became very popular not only in Britain, but far beyond the British Isles. Today Britain is a multiracial society which benefits from the influences of different peoples and cultures.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The king of England ____ with Rome at the beginning of the 16th century and declared himself head of the Anglican Church.
2. Ulster was the centre of national ____ in the 17th century and was severely punished by the British.
3. The Irish Catholics were ____ ____ their lands which were occupied by Protestant settlers.
4. The Irish Catholics never ____ their struggle for independence and their rights.

5. For years there has been a conflict between the Catholic and Protestant ____ in Northern Ireland.
6. Most of the people of Northern Ireland understand that the problems dividing the two ____ in Northern Ireland must ____ ____ by peaceful means.
7. Today very few people in Ulster can speak the ____ language.
8. Until 1962 ____ citizens could enter Britain quite freely.
9. The non-white immigrants in Britain ____ little shops.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. The province of Northern Ireland consists of
   a) six counties, and is part of the United Kingdom.
   b) several counties which are part of the Republic of Ireland (Eire).
   c) small districts and states which form an independent country.
2. The problem of Northern Ireland is closely connected
   a) with the geographical position of this province.
   b) with religion, because the Irish people can be divided into two religious groups: Catholics and Protestants.
   c) with the fact that agriculture is the main branch of the economy.
3. As a result of the "Plantation of Ulster"
   a) industry began to develop rapidly in Ireland.
   b) many Catholics received important posts and privileges.
   c) the Catholics were driven from their lands and the population in Ulster became Protestant in majority.
4. One of the greatest tragedies of Ireland in the 19th century was the Great Hunger of 1845-49
   a) when due to the poor grain harvest many people died.
   b) when many peasants changed their activities from land tillage to sheep production.
   c) when because of the bad potato harvest one million people died and more than one million emigrated to the United States of America.
5. The Irish Free State and Northern Ireland were formed
   a) at the end of the 19th century in the course of the struggle of the Irish people for their independence.
   b) in 1921 when the partition of Ireland took place.
   c) as a result of compromise between the southern and northern parts of Ireland.

6. In 1969 conflict started between the Catholics and Protestants in Northern Ireland
   a) because the Catholics did not have equal rights with the Protestants.
   b) when the Catholics started a campaign to unite with the Irish Republic.
   c) because the two communities could not agree on the land question.
7. The Gaelic language in Northern Ireland
   a) is spoken widely by the population both in towns and in the countryside.
   b) is still spoken in some families, especially in the west.
   c) is not much different from the English language.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. India was England's first colony.
2. When Henry VIII quarrelled with Rome over religion Ireland became a Protestant country.
3. The Protestant settlers from Scotland and England were known as "planters".
4. The Irish Free State declared itself a republic in 1921.
5. The IRA wanted to achieve a united Ireland by peaceful means.
6. Irish culture has had no influence on the development of British culture.
7. In the late 1930s most immigrants came to Britain from the West Indies.
8. The non-white people in Britain live mainly in the countryside.
9. Most Italians came to Britain during the Second World War.
10. After Britain joined the Common Market few people from Europe came to the country to live and work.

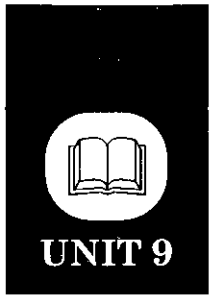
IV. Answer the questions.

1. What two countries are located in Ireland?
2. Where did the Protestants in Ireland come from?
3. What does the term "Plantation of Ulster" mean?
4. What do you know about the IRA?
5. Is there any hope that the conflict in Northern Ireland can be solved? How?
6. Why is an Irishman often called Paddy?
7. Where do many of the non-white population in Britain live and work?
8. Do many people come to Britain from continental Europe?

9. Has British culture been enriched through its contact with other cultures?
10. What can you say about the service sector in Britain? Has immigration affected its work?

V. Points for discussion.

1. The reasons of the conflict in Northern Ireland and the solution of the problem.
2. The non-white population in Britain and its contribution to British life.
3. The movement of people to Britain today as a result of Britain's membership of the European Union and the consequences.



UNIT 9

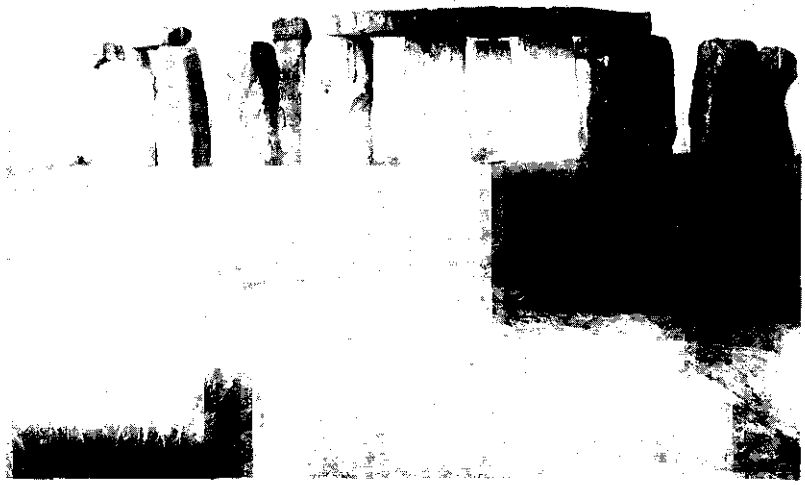
Stonehenge and Avebury

Stonehenge is the most famous prehistoric monument in Britain. The number of visitors who come to see it increases year after year and is now about half a million annually.

Stonehenge is located in the middle of Salisbury Plain, to the northwest of Southampton, and it won't take you long to get there by car or coach from London. It is a source of constant wonder. Even now, nearly 4,000 years after it was built, large numbers of tourists come to see it, especially on June 21 when the sun rises immediately over the Heel Stone of the circle and casts its shadow on the Altar Stone in the middle. But what does it all mean, and who were the people who built it?

It was started about 2700 B.C. by the late Neolithic people (or people of the Stone Age). Then somewhere around 2000 B.C. the Beaker people continued to build it. The people were named Beakers by the archaeologists when they found many pottery vessels in their graves. Stonehenge was built at various stages, and was finished at about 1500 B.C. Its oldest part is the outer ditch and circular bank. Inside the bank there were 56 pits which are known as the Aubrey Holes after their discoverer, John Aubrey. Later a double semicircle of Bluestones was put up, and these stones were brought from the mountains in Wales by land, sea and river. At about 2000 B.C. the Bluestones were removed, and the two double circles were built. The inner one had the shape of a horseshoe. The circles consisted of huge upright stones each weighing about 25 tons. Some of the stones were supposed to be brought from a place about 32 kilometres north from Stonehenge, and others from Wales.

Today people wonder how these vast stones were transported so far and erected. Some people believe that they were transported by sledge, and were erected by using a lever and piled up timber. The lintel stones (horizontal ones) were raised and put into position over the two vertical



Stonehenge

stones. So we see that the ancient people were very clever, and could construct huge monuments though they did not have machines, and their tools were very primitive. But what was Stonehenge used for and what was it built to fulfil? Over the years many theories have appeared and people continue to present their versions.

One speculation is that its builders were sun-worshippers and that the monument was a temple to the Sun. On the other hand, many scientists believe that it was used as a calendar to establish a fixed point in the year from which the annual calendar could be counted. However, the most interesting theory is that of Professor Gerald Hawkins. He filmed the sunrise and showed that the sun rose exactly over the Altar Stone. He also proved that the stone circle could contain other exact astronomical measurements. Using a computer, he drew imaginary lines between points of the stone circle and extended them to the horizon. Hawkins discovered that in 1500 B.C., when Stonehenge was completed, the lines between the main stones pointed exactly to the extreme midwinter and midsummer positions of the sun and moon. But his most interesting discoveries were connected with the eclipses. Hawkins found that by using the 56 Aubrey Holes outside the stone circle, Stonehenge could be used as a very exact computer to forecast the time of the next eclipse.

As the ancient people worshipped the sun and moon the eclipses were very important events. Even today there are many people in the world who believe that eclipses are very special events, when the day turns into night just in a few minutes, and the animals and birds become very

excited, and the wind comes from nowhere every person becomes very excited. Just imagine how ancient people would behave who had such primitive knowledge of the world.

At one time, people thought that Stonehenge was a temple used by the Druids. The Druids were a religious group among the Celtic tribes which inhabited Britain in ancient times. Some people believe that they were a group of priests, while others consider that they acted as doctors or medicine-men. Perhaps, they were both priests (shamans) and doctors who helped people morally and physically. When the Romans came they forbade them to carry out their practices, because some of them were connected with human sacrifice and cannibalism.

Today the traditions of the Druids are kept alive by members of a sect called the "Most Ancient Order of Druids" who carry out mystic ceremonies at dawn on Midsummer's Day, or the summer solstice. Every year, they meet at Stonehenge to greet the first midsummer sunlight as it falls on the stones and they put symbolic elements of fire, water, bread, salt and a rose. There is also a big festival of pop music attended by many young people. The celebration of the summer solstice is quite popular in different countries of the world. In Belarus, for example, the tradition of celebrating the Night of Ivan Kupala is also connected with the summer solstice.

The other famous ancient site also located in Wiltshire is the village of Avebury. It dates back to about 2000 B.C., and includes a hill which is the largest man-made mound in Europe. On the hill you can see standing stones also set in the form of a circle. However, many of the stones have either been destroyed or removed, but still those which remain make a great impression on visitors. Of course, Avebury has never been as popular as Stonehenge.

Besides the many theories of the scientists about Stonehenge there is one legend which is quite funny. According to it the devil built it in one single night.

He flew backwards and forwards between Ireland and Salisbury Plain carrying the stones one by one, and putting them in place. While he worked he laughed to himself because he knew that doing so people would have to think how the stones were brought to the site. But a friar or monk who was hiding in a ditch nearby saw this. He surprised the devil and made him very angry. The devil took a stone and threw it hitting the friar on the heel. According to this legend the stone which the devil threw is known as the "heel stone". It still can be seen standing by the side of the road and it really has the form of the heel of a shoe. As for the stones geologists have shown that the stones were brought by the ancient people as far away as from south Wales and north Wiltshire, and not from Ireland.

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Comprehension Check

I. *Fill in the blanks with the correct words.*

1. Soon after 2000 B.C. ____ continued to build Stonehenge.
2. The archaeologists found many ____ ____ in the graves of the Beaker people.
3. The ancient people erected the big stones with the help of the ____ .
4. The ____ stones were put up after the vertical ones were standing.
5. The ancient people ____ the sun, the moon and other objects.
6. *There are many people who believe that Stonehenge was a* ____ to the sun.
7. In ancient times the ____ were important events.
8. The Druids were a religious group among the Celtic ____ .
9. The summer ____ is quite a popular event in many parts of the world.
10. The story of the heel stone is connected with the devil and the ____ who saw the devil at work.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Stonehenge
   a) is a collection of large ancient stones which are of no significant interest.
   b) is an important geographical marker located in southern Britain.
   c) is the most famous prehistoric monument in Britain.
2. Large numbers of tourists visit Stonehenge
   a) especially on June 21 when the sun rises immediately over the Heel Stone of the circle.
   b) in winter, especially when the snow covers the ancient stones.
   c) to watch the eclipse of the sun.
3. Professor Gerald Hawkins proved that
   a) Avebury was used as an ancient calendar.
   b) the Aubrey Holes were of no importance.
   c) Stonehenge could be used as a very exact computer to forecast the time of the next eclipse.
4. At one time, people thought that
   a) Stonehenge was the capital of ancient Britain.
   b) the Druids used Stonehenge as a temple to the sun.
   c) Avebury was more important than Stonehenge.

5. The Druids were a special group among the Celts
   a) who were both priests and doctors.
   b) responsible for making different weapons for the warriors.
   c) who acted as judges during different conflicts among the tribes.
6. The stones of Stonehenge were
   a) brought by the ancient people as far away as from south Wales and north Wiltshire.
   b) collected from a nearby hill.
   c) erected in the form of a square.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. Stonehenge is located in the middle of Salisbury Plain in the north of Scotland.
2. The Beaker people were called so because of the weapons found in their graves.
3. It didn't take much time to build Stonehenge.
4. The Stones were erected by using a lever and piled up timber.
5. Hawkins discovered that the lines between the main stones did not point exactly to the extreme midwinter and midsummer positions of the sun and moon.
6. Stonehenge could not forecast the exact time of the next eclipse.
7. The practices of the Druids were not connected with human sacrifice and cannibalism.
8. Festivals of pop music are never held at Stonehenge.
9. Avebury was begun much earlier than Stonehenge.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Is it easy to reach Stonehenge from London?
2. Where are Stonehenge and Avebury located?
3. Did it take the ancient people a long time to build Stonehenge? Why?
4. How were the stones erected?
5. Were the ancient people clever to put up such huge stones? How did they do this?
6. What did professor Hawkins prove?
7. Did the eclipses play an important role in the life of ancient man?
8. When do most visitors come to Stonehenge? Why?
9. Are the traditions of celebrating the summer solstice observed in other countries besides Britain?
10. Why is the legend about the devil who built Stonehenge and the monk untrue?

V. Explain the following.

1. The way Stonehenge was built.
2. How did Gerald Hawkins prove that Stonehenge was used as an ancient calendar?
3. The way the ancient traditions of Stonehenge are celebrated in Britain today.

VI. Talking point.

Discuss in class whether similar monuments exist in Belarus or Russia. Write a short essay describing such a monument.

UNIT 10

Wales

Wales is very different from the rest of the U.K. Although visitors don't need passports to cross the border from England into Wales, they soon feel that they are entering a country with its own distinct geography, culture, traditions and, of course, language. Mountains, lakes, waterfalls, castles and its people speaking a very musical language give Wales a unique atmosphere which is enjoyed by visitors from all over the world.

As you know the Welsh are of Celtic origin. In the 5th and 6th centuries A.D. many European saints travelled to Wales as Christian missionaries. Their names are remembered in some present-day Welsh place-names. But St. David is the patron saint of Wales. On the 1st of March, St. David's Day, patriotic Welsh people wear a leek or a daffodil, both of which are symbols of Wales.

There are many place-names in Wales beginning with Llan, such as Llandudno, Llangollen or Llanberis in the north. "Llan" is the Welsh word for an area where a church stands. The Welsh language is very musical. No wonder there is a great love of poetry and music. The annual bardic festival known as the National Eisteddfod of Wales has a 1200-year-old history (Eisteddfod is the Welsh for a "sitting"). Choral singing, and especially the singing of hymns is a national art.

The National Eisteddfod takes place every year in the first week in August, one year in the north of Wales, the next year in the south, and participants come from all parts of Wales.

Thousands of Welsh people prepare for the festival during the whole year. During the week of the festival about a hundred thousand people come to the Eisteddfod to hear the competitors and listen to the discussion of the judges. The prize for the winning bard (poet) was a chair or throne. And that is still the prize today. In the Middle Ages every chief kept a bard, and there were other bards who moved about

the country singing songs and making poems. A special tent is put up for the festival so that thousands of people can come in. One of the most interesting competitions is "pennillion" singing. In this the participants sing to the harp and have to make up their song. But the greatest event is the choosing of the "crowned bard" which is the greatest honour of the festival. The winner sits on a beautiful chair of oak that is to be his prize. The ceremony itself is very interesting especially when the Chief Druid (the priests from very ancient times) puts a crown on the winner's head.

An interesting feature of the Welsh language is that its words can be very long. On the island of Anglesey, in the north-west of Wales, there is the longest place-name in Britain, which consists of 58 letters. You can't pronounce it. Therefore, only the beginning of this village is given: it is Llanfair PG., which in English means – St. Mary's Church, in a Dell of White Hazel Trees, near the Rapid Whirlpool, by the Red Cave of the Church of St. Tysilio! The Welsh are very proud of their language and culture. These are best preserved in the north and west of the country, for in the south and east industrialization changed much of the country. The coal mines are located in the south. Welsh coal is of very good quality and used to be exported all over the world.

The west coast, mid-Wales and North Wales are wild and beautiful and Welsh is the everyday language of much of the north and west. Aberystwyth is the centre of Welsh education and learning.

Wales is a country of many large and impressive castles, such as Caernarfon in the north-west, which was the ancient capital of Wales; Harlech, on the western coast; Caerphilly, which is located 10 km. north of Cardiff, the modern capital of Wales. The latter was one of the strongest in Europe, and even Oliver Cromwell, the leader of the English revolution of the 17th century, was unable to destroy it. These castles were built by the invaders, the Normans, who came from England, to protect themselves against the Welsh who fought for their independence.

Of the many castles of Wales Caernarfon has become world famous because it is here that the ceremony known as the Investiture of the Prince of Wales takes place. The Castle was built after 1283 to the orders of King Edward I and it took over 40 years to build its main parts. The Castle has 13 towers all connected with walls about 3 metres thick. The most famous tower is the Eagle Tower named after the eagles on the coat of arms of the grandson of William the Conqueror.

You may remember (see Unit 7) that Wales was conquered at the end of the 13th century by Edward I when the two great Welsh leaders, Llewelyn and his brother David, had been killed. But the Welsh people, though they were beaten, were ready to continue to fight. They had no great leader, but there was a number of tribal chiefs who wanted to rule

Caernarfon Castle

all Wales. Three or four of these chiefs came to see Edward I at Caernarfon, who was staying there together with his wife Eleanor. They told the king their complaints.

According to the story the Welsh chiefs did not want to be ruled by an English king, but by a Prince of Wales, who was born in Wales, of royal blood, and not speaking English or French. They also wanted a prince whose life was good, and who had not done anything bad against any man. The Welsh chiefs who did not trust each other could not agree who this prince should be. The legend goes on to say that Edward I agreed to their conditions and asked them to come to the castle in a week's time.

So a week later the great square outside the castle was full of people all excited wishing to see whom the king had chosen. The chiefs also came. They even quarrelled in the square because each tried to prove that he would be chosen by the king. At last Edward appeared on the balcony of the castle tower. Behind him stood a knight who was carrying the king's shield. On the shield lay a bundle covered with a cloth. Edward began to speak:

– Good people of Wales, you have asked for a prince and I have promised you one to rule over you, and of royal blood.

– Yes, yes, – they cried.

– And who was born in Wales?

– Yes!

– And who cannot speak a word of English?

– Yes, yes!

– And you want a prince who did no wrong against any man in all his life. If I give you such a prince, do you promise to be ruled by him?

– We promise, – said the crowd.

– Here is your prince, – the king said, and turned to the knight behind him. He lifted the cloth and showed a small baby-boy, – my son, a prince of royal blood born a week ago, in Caernarfon Castle, he cannot speak a word of English and he hasn't done any wrong to any man. Edward, Prince of Wales!

The crowd of people were pleased, though the chiefs were upset and disappointed. And since that day to this, the eldest son of the ruling monarch of England has always been the Prince of Wales.

This tradition has been kept until the present day and in 1969 the present Queen made her eldest son Charles, Prince of Wales at Caernarfon Castle.

The Welsh people, as has been noted, love the reading of poetry and the singing of hymns. Their choirs are very popular. It is no wonder that Wales is a country of orators who love music and the music of words. In this respect we must remember the famous politician David Lloyd George. Although born in Manchester of Welsh parents, he was brought up in Wales. He became a member of the House of Commons at the age of twenty-seven. Eventually, he became the first Welsh Prime Minister of the United Kingdom in 1916, and held this post till 1922. He was a very great orator, and his speeches are remembered to this very day. He paid much interest to help the old people and the poor. In fact he started the first national insurance system and the system of old-age pensions. These were the beginnings of the present-day National Health Service and other forms of social welfare. In the square at Caernarfon Castle you can see the statue of David Lloyd George, who acted as M.P. (Member of Parliament) for Caernarfon, and at the entrance to the House of Commons you can also see the statue of this famous British politician.

Of the many tales and legends which are so widespread in Wales there is one famous story about Gelert the Dog known to every person in the country. Not far from Caernarfon, in the mountains of North Wales lies the splendid village of Beddgelert. It is in this beautiful place that you can hear the story of Gelert the Dog, which is also written on the grave of this remarkable dog. According to the story in the 13th century, Llewelyn, Prince of North Wales, had a palace at Beddgelert. One day he went hunting without his favourite dog Gelert. The faithful dog for some unknown reason did not accompany his master. When

Llewelyn returned from the hunt, he saw that his dog was all covered with blood. The dog joyfully greeted the prince, but Llewelyn became very much alarmed. He ran to the room where his little child was sleeping, but did not find him in the cot. The bedclothes and floor were all covered with blood. In great anger the prince killed the dog with his sword thinking it had killed his son. The dog's dying yell was answered by a child's cry. Llewelyn began to look for his boy and found him unharmed lying near the body of a large wolf which Gelert had killed protecting the child from the wolf's attack. The prince was in great sorrow all his life. He is said to have never smiled again. Llewelyn buried his favourite dog at the spot called Beddgelert. Many tourists come to this place. They hear the story of the faithful dog, see the grave and enjoy the beautiful scenery of the mountains.

These mountains are located in Snowdonia which is one of the three national parks in Wales. The parks which cover about 20 per cent of the whole country are protected by law because of their natural beauty, but ordinary people still live and work there. The highest mountain range in Wales is here and Mount Snowdon is the highest peak (1,085 m). Many people travel to the parks each year for holidays, walking, climbing, riding, canoeing and fishing. In the evenings they enjoy their time listening to the numerous legends, stories, poems and beautiful songs.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. People from all over the world enjoy visiting Wales because of the unique _____ created by its beautiful nature and language.
2. The Welsh are a people of Celtic _____ .
3. The annual festival in Wales is called the _____ .
4. _____ singing is a national art in Wales.
5. Caernarfon Castle is world famous because it is here that the ceremony known as the _____ of the Prince of Wales takes place.
6. The Welsh leaders who wanted to rule the country came to king Edward I and told him their _____ .
7. The people in the square saw that behind the king stood a knight who was carrying the king's shield on which lay a _____ covered with a cloth.
8. The Welsh people love poetry and the singing of hymns, therefore their _____ are very popular.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. On the 1st of March, St. David's Day, patriotic Welsh people
   a) organize mass demonstrations in the country.
   b) wear a leek or a daffodil, both of which are symbols of Wales.
   c) organize great musical festivals in towns and in the countryside.
2. The National Eisteddfod takes place
   a) every year in December during the Christmas holidays.
   b) every year in one and the same place, in the city of Cardiff, the capital of Wales.
   c) every year in the first week in August, one year in the north of Wales, the next year in the south.
3. In 1916 David Lloyd George became
   a) the first Welsh Prime Minister of the United Kingdom.
   b) the first Prime Minister who established the National Health Service.
   c) the first British Prime Minister who visited Russia.
4. Of the many tales and legends in Wales there is one famous story about Gelert
   a) the Dog which saved the life of Prince Llewelyn's son.
   b) the Giant who defended the country against the invaders.
   c) the wolf which guarded the sheep of its owner against the other wolves.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. The Welsh language is not musical.
2. The Eisteddfod is popular in Wales, but few visitors come to the festival from England.
3. The winner of the Eisteddfod receives a silver cup and much money.
4. An interesting feature of the Welsh language is that its words are usually very short.
5. Wales is a country which is very rich in oil and gas.
6. Aberystwyth is the capital of Wales.
7. The most famous tower of Caernarfon Castle is the Eagle Tower which is pictured in the coat of arms of Great Britain.
8. Edward I made his son Prince of Wales because he was born in Wales and spoke Welsh very well.
9. If you visit Beddgelert you will hear the story about the famous faithful dog called Gelert.
10. There are no national parks in Wales unlike England and Scotland.

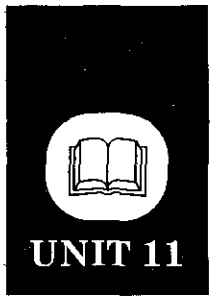
IV. Answer the questions.

1. Why is Wales a unique country?
2. What plants are symbols of Wales?
3. What is the greatest event of the Eisteddfod?
4. Why so many place-names in Wales begin with Llan?
5. Where is the longest place-name in Britain? Can you pronounce it to the very end?
6. Why were many castles built in Wales?
7. Is Wales a country of orators? Why?
8. Was David Lloyd George a famous British Prime Minister?
9. Did he do much for his country?
10. Why did Llewelyn kill his faithful dog?

V. Do you remember?

1. The patron saint of Wales.
2. Why is Caernarfon the most famous castle in Wales?
3. What legend is very famous in north Wales?

VI. Write a short essay describing a famous castle in Belarus (e.g. The Mir Castle, or another one of your choice), and compare it to Caernarfon.



Northern Ireland – the Land of the Giant's Causeway

Historically all Ireland consists of 4 provinces, of which Ulster is the northern province. Since 1921 (see Unit 8) 6 counties of Ulster remained part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Today Northern Ireland includes the following counties: Antrim, Down, Armagh, Tyrone, Fermanagh and Londonderry. Belfast is the capital city.

As we remember from the previous unit about the British, the political division of Ireland was to a great degree the result of religious differences, for while the Irish Republic is almost entirely Catholic, over sixty per cent of the population of Northern Ireland is Protestant, as a result of the arrival of Protestant settlers from England and Scotland in the 17th century. However, to many visitors the only visible difference is that in the Irish Republic the post-boxes, telephone kiosks and buses are green in contrast to the familiar British red. In the North English is the only language used while in the South, Irish is used, and Irish signs are seen. The police are known as "gardai" and telephone is spelt "telefon". Actually there are many more serious divisions between the North and the South. Scattered around the countryside are the ruins of castles and monasteries, symbols of those two opposing forces in the country's past, war and religion. In the towns, especially in Belfast, you can see the tragic results of the conflict of the past 30 years.

Northern Ireland is making great efforts to attract more industry and tourism. It has a lot to offer. The countryside is beautiful and, by English standards, underpopulated. Belfast is a first-class port, and

frequent air services put it only an hour's flight away from London. Away from the busy centre of Belfast the roads are quiet and driving is enjoyable. South of the border there is more beautiful country to enjoy and all within a day's car ride. Belfast, the capital of Northern Ireland with a population of nearly half a million, has considerable industries, but in the 17th century it was only a village. Then, during the 19th century, the development of industries like linen, rope-making, engineering, tobacco and the sea-trade made it a big city. The city is well-known for shipbuilding – it was here that the famous ship "Titanic" was built.

Belfast has a great artificial harbour for its sea-trade and about 10 kilometres of quays. The pride of Belfast is its City Hall, built at the beginning of the 20th century. The great dome rises high over the city centre and Donegall Square. Belfast has been a university city since 1905, when the former Queen's College received the status of a university. The impressive buildings of the University are connected with the Botanical Gardens in which are situated the Museum and the Art Gallery. At Stormont about 8 kilometres to the south-east of the city stands Parliament House, a fine modern building which was opened in 1932. Some of the Belfast streets have often been the scenes of the violence – street-names such as the Falls Road and Shankill Road are well known not only throughout Britain because they have been heard so often on the news – but people still live in Belfast and there are new hopes that the conflict will eventually be solved.

Belfast is now, of course, the principal port of Northern Ireland, but many years ago the chief port was the harbour of Carrickfergus, some 16 kilometres away on Belfast Lough. "Carrick" means the rock – the rock on which stands the great Norman Castle. The Castle dates from the end of the 12th century and has been well restored. Its main tower reminds you of the White Tower of the Tower of London, and, like the latter, has an interesting collection of armour.

Antrim is famous for its coast road, a route of about 130 kilometres of coastal beauty. The hills are mainly composed of basalt and through them narrow glens or valleys reach down to the sea. There are nine of them, each having a character of its own. Together, they form a lovely and romantic area of rivers, waterfalls, wild flowers and birds. The people of this area are great storytellers. They will tell you tales about fairies who become very angry if anybody cuts down a fairy thorn tree. Today many farmers in Ireland will never cut down a thorn tree, even if it is in the middle of their field!

The Glens of Antrim were very hard for travellers to reach until the building of the Antrim Coast Road in 1834. For many kilometres this follows the Causeway Coast, named after its most famous place of interest, the Giant's Causeway. Storytelling has always been a part of the Irish way of life. These stories of gods and people who lived in a land

The Giant's Causeway

of adventure, war and romance are quite often told in the evenings by the fireside. Monks living in monasteries preserved many of these stories in beautifully-decorated manuscripts of which the *Book of Leinster* is very well known. However, the oral tradition or telling the stories by mouth from generation to generation was very popular. Due to these story-tellers the stories came down to us today. Unfortunately, the traditions are dying away, and it is hard to find such a storyteller.

The most famous spot on the Antrim Coast is the Giant's Causeway which is a mass of stone columns standing very near together. The tops of the columns form stepping stones leading from the cliff foot and disappearing under the sea. There are more than 40,000 columns of basalt, most of them, six-sided. The tallest columns are about 13 metres high. This strange formation is a result of volcanic action. There are such formations on the other side of the sea in Scotland, in Fingal's Cave, in Staffa, and this fact gave rise to many legends that a giant built the causeway of stepping-stones between the two countries.

According to one story the causeway was the work of the giant Finn McCool. Finn was extremely strong. Once, during a fight with a Scottish giant, he picked up a huge piece of earth and threw it at him. The earth fell into the Irish Sea and became the Isle of Man. The hole it left filled with water and became the great lake known as Lough Neagh.

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

Armagh is known as the orchard of Ulster, but other crops are grown, especially flax. This small county is beautiful in spring when the apple trees are blossoming. The eastern part of county Tyrone runs through Lough Neagh, the largest lake in the British Isles, which is also noted for excellent fishing. Agriculture is the main occupation of this hilly county. Like Tyrone, Fermanagh is thinly populated. In the county is the valley of the Erne river with its many charming lakes, where fishermen can go all day without meeting anybody.

Londonderry, always called "Derry" by Irishmen, is the second largest town in Northern Ireland and the only other port besides Belfast. Its history goes back to the 6th century, at the time when St. Columba founded a monastery here. But the town was largely built by settlers from England in the 17th century. The mighty wall and the four gates were built then. The wall is about 1.5 km around and 6,5 m thick, and it is still unbroken – the only complete city wall in Britain or Ireland. The wall withstood several sieges of which most famous was the siege of 1688-89. The city was surrounded by James II's army in December and the siege lasted 105 days till July. Though 7,000 people out of a population of 30,000 died of hunger the town was not taken. The historical event is remembered every year when the ceremony of closing the gates of the city takes place.

Near the city of Derry a family called Knox still lives in a house called Prehen House where a tragedy took place in 1760.

A man called John Macnaghten tried to kidnap Mary Knox, but she resisted, and during the fight he shot her by mistake. He was sentenced to death by hanging, but during the execution the rope broke. The crowd of people shouted that Macnaghten should be saved, because you couldn't hang a man twice. However the prisoner did not agree. He said that he did not want to be called "half-hanged Macnaghten". So he put a new rope around his neck and hanged himself.

Some say that a popular game in Britain, called Hangman, is connected with this tragedy. The game can be played in pairs. One person thinks of a word and writes down the same number of lines as there are letters in the word. For example, if the word thought of is "Material" (8 letters) you are to write 8 lines: _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ . The other player then tries to guess the correct word. Every time a correct letter is given, it is written in the right place. Every time a wrong letter is said a line is drawn to make up a picture of a man who is to be hanged. The drawing is made up of 13 lines, so the player is allowed 12 wrong guesses before the 13th one hangs him.

If this story is true it shows that games can be connected with tragedies.

In any case the game helps you learn the correct spelling of words.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The local Parliament in Northern Ireland was _____ for the province's home affairs.
2. There are many stories about the _____ Causeway in Northern Ireland.

3. In Ireland the _____, telephone kiosks and buses are not red as in Britain.
4. Today Northern Ireland is _____ great _____ to attract new industries and capital from abroad.
5. The capital of Northern Ireland, Belfast, has a great _____ harbour for its sea-trade.
6. If you visit Belfast you will see the results of the _____ between the two communities, the Protestants and Catholics.
7. Belfast has a castle with an interesting collection of _____ .
8. The famous wall around Londonderry _____ several _____ of which most famous was the one of 1688-89.
9. There is a game in Britain when you are to _____ the correct word, and some say it is connected with a tragedy which took place in Northern Ireland.
10. There is a story according to which the Isle of Man appeared because a huge piece of earth was thrown into the Irish Sea by a _____ .

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. The political division of Ireland was to a great degree
   a) the result of economic differences between the north and the south of the island.
   b) the result of religious differences when in the north of Ireland the Protestants were in majority.
   c) caused by geographical factors.
2. Northern Ireland is making great efforts to attract a lot of tourists
   a) because the countryside is beautiful and it is not over-populated.
   b) therefore taxes here are quite low as compared to Britain.
   c) because the climate is good and the seas are very warm in summer.
3. Belfast is the main seaport of Northern Ireland because
   a) it is a first-class port which has a great artificial harbour and about 10 kilometres of quays.
   b) there are no other seaports in the country.
   c) it is close to Britain.
4. Today many farmers in Ireland will never cut down a thorn tree, even if it is in the middle of their field because
   a) it brings a lot of fruit in the autumn.
   b) according to Irish tradition it will make the fairies angry and bring you bad luck.
   c) it attracts many birds who eat the bad insects and save the corn harvest.

5. The Giant's Causeway is the most famous place of interest in Northern Ireland
   a) because of the mass of stone columns leading from the cliff foot and disappearing under the sea.
   b) due to the great number of birds that fly to this place in winter.
   c) because of the big park with large old trees in it.
6. According to one story the causeway
   a) was built by the Giant Finn McCool.
   b) was built by an ancient people who wanted to connect Ireland and Britain.
   c) was formed by the sea which brought a lot of sand to the shore.
7. In Londonderry the ceremony of closing the gates takes place every year which
   a) is connected with the siege of the town in 1688-89.
   b) symbolizes the independence of the town from British rule.
   c) is connected with the tradition of closing the gates of the town for the night from the Middle Ages.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. If you visit the Irish Republic you will not see any visible difference from what you see in Northern Ireland.
2. Today Belfast is a small town which has no important industrial activity.
3. When Northern Ireland was formed in 1921 it received its own Parliament which is located in the very centre of Belfast.
4. Falls Road and Shankill Road in Belfast are well known far beyond the country because the worst violence took place here during the confrontations between the Catholics and Protestants.
5. The people of Antrim are a bit strange because they do not like to talk to strangers, especially tourists.
6. When the rope broke the crowd shouted that Macnaghten could not be hanged twice, and so he was set free.
7. Many people believe that the popular game in Britain called "Hangman" is connected with the hanging of Macnaghten.

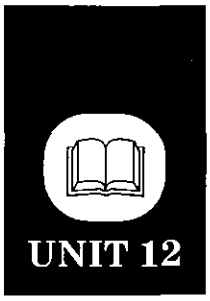
IV. Answer the questions.

1. Of how many provinces does all Ireland consist? What is the name of the northern province?
2. For what was Stormont recently responsible?
3. Why is the population in Northern Ireland Protestant in its majority?

4. Does Northern Ireland have a lot to offer to tourists?
5. Is Belfast a university city? Prove it.
6. What was Carrickfergus some years ago?
7. Why is it easy to get to the Giant's Causeway?
8. How did the monks of Ireland contribute to the development of culture in their country?
9. How tall are the columns of the Giant's Causeway?
10. How was Lough Neagh formed according to legend?

V. Explain:

1. Why did Belfast turn into the leading city of Northern Ireland?
2. The formation of the Giant's Causeway.
3. The game known in Britain as "Hangman".



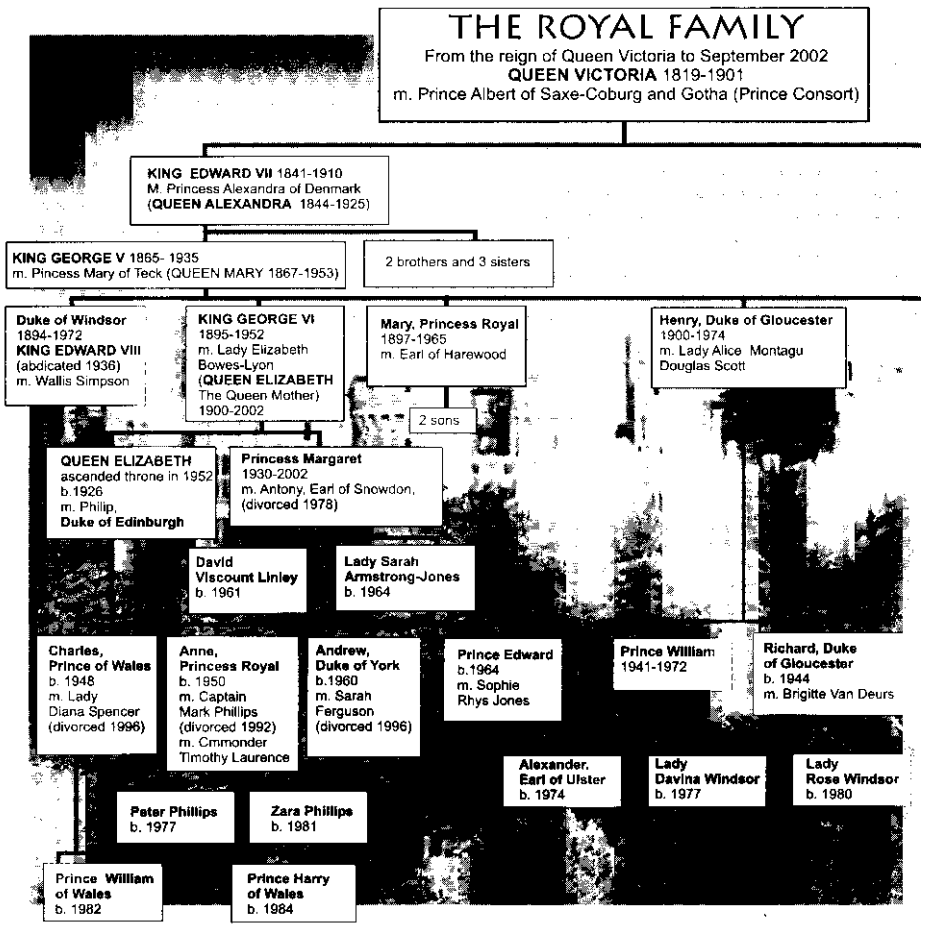
Great Britain – a Constitutional Monarchy

Two characteristics of the British constitution confuse most foreigners: there is no written constitution, it is not contained in any single document. And those rules of the Constitution which do exist in writing often differ greatly from actual constitutional practice. The explanation of this paradox lies in the diversity of the sources from which the Constitution is drawn.

There are two kinds of rules by which Great Britain is governed: RULES OF LAW and RULES OF CUSTOM. The rules of law are those set out in such historic declarations as Magna Carta (1215) and the famous Acts of Parliament which mark the course of British history, for example, the Bill of Rights of 1689, the Act of Settlement of 1701, the Reform Act of 1832, the Parliament Act of 1911, the abolition of hereditary Lords in 1999.

A great majority of these acts were passed by Parliament, but a document like Magna Carta is considered to be a part of the Constitution simply because it represents a great landmark in national history: it stated the principle that the king was subject to the law and not above the law. Of major importance was Habeas Corpus Act of 1679 (Habeas Corpus is a Latin expression meaning "You may have the body") which stated that if a person was arrested he/she was to face a trial within 24 hours of arrest. The Act was aimed against illegal arrests and intended to safeguard the rights of the individual.

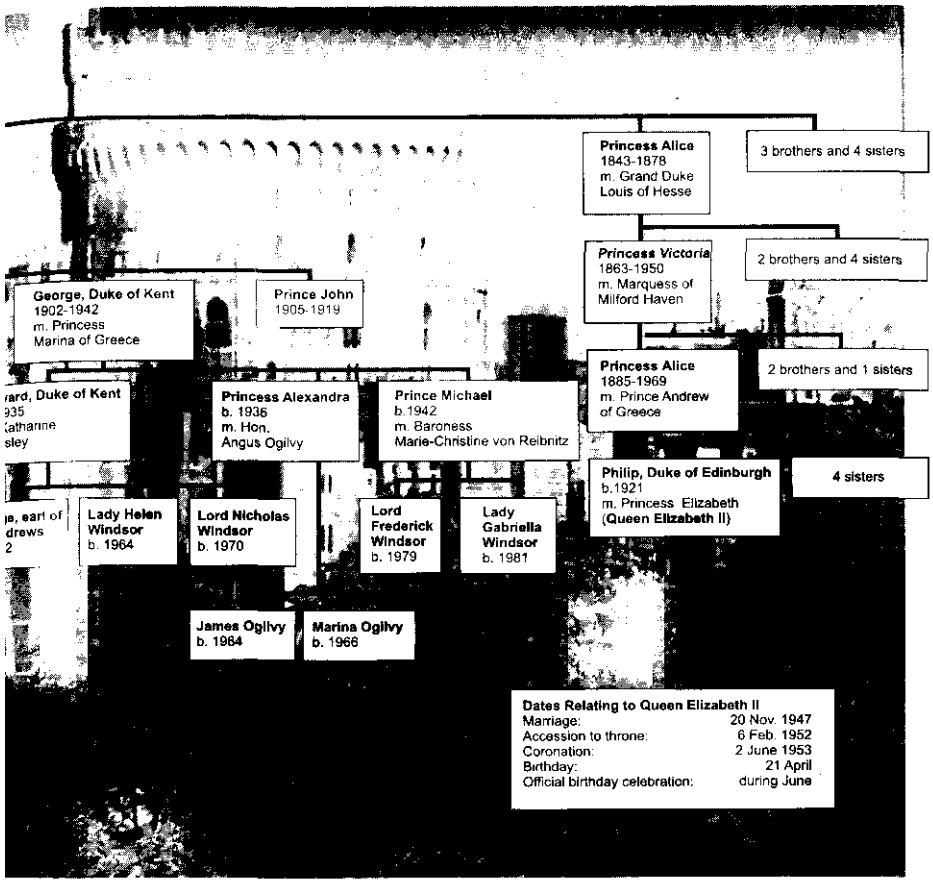
The Bill of Rights and the Act of Settlement established that the king did not rule by a "divine right" from God, but by approval of Parliament. The 1832 Reform Act admitted the upper middle classes to the franchise (the right to vote) and started a process which inevitably led to democracy. The Parliament Act of 1911 deprived the Lords of



much of their power, so that the House of Lords ceased to be a determining factor in legislation, and the House of Commons governed. In 1999 the hereditary principle in the House of Lords was abolished and thus hereditary lords lost their right to sit in the House of Lords.

Many principles of the British Constitution by which Britain is governed are principles of the common law, or rules of custom.

These are principles which are not established by any law passed by Parliament but established in the courts following the use of decisions in individual cases as precedents for decisions in later cases. In practice many of these rules of custom are just as important as the rules of law and equally binding (obligatory). These are only two examples to illustrate this statement. The British sovereign cannot marry a Roman Catholic. If he were to do this, it would be breaking the law (it is one of the things forbidden by the Act of Settlement – the RULES OF THE LAW). On the other hand, after a general election the monarch would



ask anyone but the leader of the majority party to form a new government, for it is a custom to do this (RULES OF CUSTOM). And a departure from custom in such an important matter would be as serious in its effect as breaking the law would be. These rules of custom, or conventions of the Constitution as they are sometimes called, are immensely important.

The constitutional history of Great Britain shows growth of individual rights and liberties based not so much on law but on the ideas of traditional freedoms and traditional practices (conventions), which have developed organically.

Great Britain is a constitutional monarchy, and the Crown is a permanent and continuous institution. The traditional announcement, "The King is dead, long live the King!" typifies the immortality of royal authority. According to the Constitution, the powers of the Crown are very great. Every action of the government is carried out in its name.

But the Queen cannot act independently. She may exercise these powers only on the advice of her ministers, who are responsible politically to Parliament.

In Britain they look to the Queen not only as their head of State, but also as the "symbol of their nation's unity". The royal title in the United Kingdom is: "Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith". The seat of the monarchy is in the United Kingdom. The Queen personifies the State. The Queen reigns but does not rule. She never vetoes bills passed by Parliament.

Although the Queen is deprived of actual power, she has retained many important, though formal, functions. She summons and dissolves Parliament, gives approval to Bills passed by both Houses of Parliament; she appoints government ministers, judges, officers in the armed forces, governors, diplomats and bishops of the Church of England. The Queen appoints the Prime Minister (usually the leader of the political party which has a majority in the House of Commons) to form a government. As head of State the Queen has, in international affairs, the power to declare war and make peace, to recognize foreign states and governments, to conclude treaties, etc. She gives audiences to her ministers and other officials at home and overseas, receives accounts of Cabinet decisions. She is informed and consulted on every aspect of national life. In June 2002 great celebrations took place in Britain to mark the Queen's Golden Jubilee of 50 years on the throne. They greatly enhanced the monarch's image.

The Queen is Head of the Commonwealth of Nations where she is represented by the Governor-General appointed by her on the advice of the government of the country concerned and completely independent on the British government. The Commonwealth at present is an association of 54 states. Alongside with Britain and such developed countries as Canada, Australia, New Zealand, it includes large developing countries as India, Nigeria and very small states as Nauru (population – 8,000), as well as dependent territories, like Anguilla, Bermuda, Gibraltar and others. The Commonwealth does not formulate central policies on economic and foreign affairs. However, there is considerable consultation and cooperation between the member states of the Commonwealth.

The Commonwealth is not a federation, because there is no central government, no common defence force, judiciary and no rigid obligations between the members. Nevertheless all the members of the Commonwealth have a broad community of interests. They are bound together by a common sense of ideals and a common interest in the maintenance of peace, freedom and security.

Great Britain has been able to maintain close, continuing relations with the Commonwealth, former British colonies which have become independent both in theory and practice. Moreover, apart from the importance of its historical development, the Commonwealth offers an example of close cooperation between countries of equal status but widely different strength. It is this fact which has often made observers speak of the Commonwealth as a model for international cooperation.

The Commonwealth has relatively little political machinery. Its most important institution for formal exchange of views, the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Meeting (or the Commonwealth Conference), has no executive authority. Conference resolutions have no legal effect, unless adopted by the individual countries. The Meeting of Prime Ministers is, therefore, a means of consultation, not a formal organ for reaching decisions. They are usually convened once in two years.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. And those rules of the Constitution which do exist in writing often differ greatly from _____ constitutional practice.
2. There are two kinds of rules by which Great Britain is governed: rules of _____ and rules of _____ .
3. The Bill of Rights and the Act of Settlement established that the king did not rule by a _____ right from God, but by approval of Parliament.
4. After a general election the monarch would ask anyone but the leader of the majority party to form a new government, for it is a _____ to do this.
5. And a departure from custom in such an important matter would be as serious in its effect as _____ the law would be.
6. Although the Queen is deprived of _____ power, she has retained many important, though formal _____ .
7. She (the Queen) _____ and _____ Parliament, gives approval to Bills passed by both Houses of Parliament.
8. She (the Queen) gives _____ to her ministers and other officials at home and overseas, receives _____ of Cabinet decisions.
9. Great Britain has been able to maintain close, continuing relations with the Commonwealth, former British _____ , which have become independent both in ____ and practice.
10. Conference _____ have no legal effect, unless adopted by the individual countries.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. The Parliament Act of 1911 deprived the Lords of much of their power, so that the House of Lords ceased to be a determining factor in
   a) government b) legislation. c) law making.
2. Many principles of the British Constitution by which Britain is governed are principles of the
   a) rules of custom. b) rules of law. c) precedent.
3. The constitutional history of Great Britain shows growth of individual rights and liberties based not so much on law but on the ideas of
   a) traditional freedoms and traditional practices.
   b) traditional institutions.
   c) traditional habits.
4. She (the Queen) may exercise her powers only on the advice of her ministers, who are responsible politically to the
   a) Prime Minister. b) Crown. c) Parliament.
5. The Commonwealth does not formulate central policies on
   a) political affairs.
   b) economic affairs.
   c) economic and foreign affairs.
6. The Commonwealth is not a federation, because there is no
   a) common Constitution.
   b) common legislation.
   c) central government.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. Two characteristics of the British Constitution confuse most foreigners: there is no written constitution, it is not contained in any single document.
2. A great majority of these acts were passed by Parliament, but a document like Magna Carta is considered to be a part of the Constitution simply because it represents a great landmark in national history: it stated the principle that the king was subject not to the law but above the law.
3. The British sovereign can marry a Roman Catholic.
4. Great Britain is a constitutional monarchy, and the Crown is a permanent and continuous institution.
5. As head of State the Queen, in international affairs, has no power to declare war and make peace, to recognize foreign states and governments, to conclude treaties.

6. The Queen is Head of the Commonwealth of Nations where she is represented by the Governor-General appointed by her on the advice of the government of the country concerned.
7. The Commonwealth formulates central policies on economic and foreign affairs.
8. The meeting of Prime Ministers is a means of consultation, not a formal organ for reaching decisions.

IV. *Answer the questions.*

1. Examine the two kinds of rules by which Great Britain is governed.
2. Analyze the famous Acts of Parliament which mark the course of British history.
3. Explain the main principles of the British Constitution by which Britain is governed – the principles of the common law, or rules of custom.
4. Explain the statement: "Great Britain is a constitutional monarchy".
5. What are the formal functions retained by the Queen? What functions does she have in home and international affairs?
6. Is the Commonwealth an association of free states or a federation?
7. Who represents the Queen in member nations of the Commonwealth?
8. Is the Commonwealth a model for international cooperation?
9. What is the most important institution of the Commonwealth for formal exchange of views?
10. Why do Commonwealth Conference resolutions have no legal effect?

V. Points for discussion.

1. The constitutional monarchy in modern society.
2. The Constitution and the rules of custom.
3. The significance of the reform of the House of Lords in 1999.
4. The Commonwealth and its ideals.

VI. Take a closer look at the genealogical table of the royal family and discuss the following issues:

1. Who was in the timelight of the British public in 2000? Why?
2. What major celebrations took place in Britain in June 2002?
3. Who is in immediate royal succession to the Queen?

UNIT 13

Mother of Parliaments

Great Britain is known as Mother of Parliaments. This is because in the Western world since the downfall of Rome, she was the first to introduce a workable body, an assembly of elected representatives of the people with the authority to resolve social and economic problems by free debate leading to the making of law. The Parliament, consisting of the House of Commons and the House of Lords, is the centre of British politics.

One of the fundamental principles of the unwritten constitution is the sovereignty of Parliament. It means that Parliament has unlimited power in the legislative and the executive spheres and that there is no institution that can declare its acts unconstitutional (unlike in the United States where the Supreme Court can declare acts of Congress unconstitutional). It means that Parliament can act as it pleases: to make, unmake, or change any law; to destroy established conventions or turn a convention into binding law. It can prolong its own life beyond the normal period without consulting the electorate. But in practice, however, Parliament does not make use of its supremacy in this way. Its members bear in mind its responsibility to the electorate.

The supreme legislative authority in Great Britain, Parliament, resides in Westminster Palace, and all its power is concentrated in the House of Commons, which is elected by the adult population of the country.

The parliamentary electoral system of Great Britain encourages the domination of two major political parties. For electoral purposes the United Kingdom is divided into 646 (2005) electoral districts, or constituencies (according to the number of members in the House of Commons). Each constituency has on an average about 60,000 people and each elects one member to the House of Commons. Members of Parliament are elected at a general election which is usually held every five years.

The candidates may be nominated by different parties, but the real contest is between the two big parties – the Conservative Party and the

Labour Party, though in recent years the Social-Liberal Democratic Party has become an important force in the country. In every constituency each of these two parties has a local organization, whose first task is to choose the candidate and then to help him conduct his election campaign.

All Britain's main political parties publish manifestos during general election compaigns. Such publications are the result of a considerable amount of work by senior party members in the period before elections are announced. They are intended to tell the electorate what the party would do if it formed the next government; they, therefore, cover party policy on a range of matters. If elected, parties can claim a popular mandate from the voters for policies contained in their manifestos.

Manifestos are usually launched by each of the parties at press conferences in the first week or so of the campaign. They have titles which are in the form of slogans, designed to sum up the parties' messages.

Manifestos normally open with forewords by the respective party leaders. They cover party policies in varying degrees of detail, but may also set out the parties' past achievements and attack the policies of their opponents.

Although in practice few people read copies of the parties' manifestos, those of the major parties receive extensive publicity in the newspapers and on television and radio. Their themes are also taken up in individual candidates' election addresses. Manifestos thus provide the basis for much of the general election campaign debate.

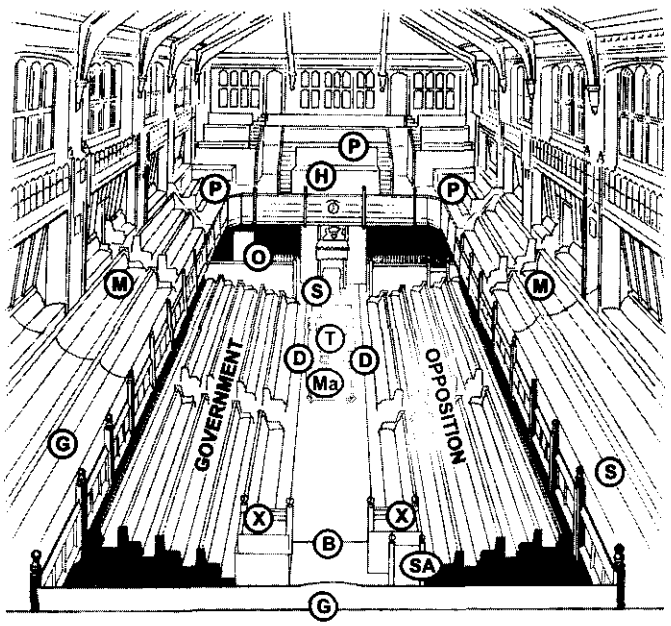
Elections are by secret ballot. British citizens may vote provided they are aged 18 or over, registered in the annual register of electors for the constituency and not subject to any disqualification. Voting is on the same day (usually a Thursday) in all constituencies, and the voting stations are kept open from seven in the morning until nine at night.

In a British election the candidate who wins the most votes is elected, even if he or she does not get as many as all the votes of the other candidates taken together. The practice is known as the simple majority electoral system.

As soon as the results of a general election are known, it is clear which party will form the government. The leader of the majority party becomes Prime Minister and the new House of Commons meets.

The chief officer of the House of Commons is the Speaker. He is elected by the House at the beginning of each Parliament. His chief function is to preside over the House in its debate. When elected the Speaker must not belong to any party.

The House of Lords underwent a major reform in 1999. Today it is composed of Lords Spiritual (2 Anglican Archbishops and 24 Bishops), 21 law lords and life peers (appointed for life). The hereditary lords or peers lost their right to sit in the House of Lords. Thus the hereditary principle is a matter of the past.



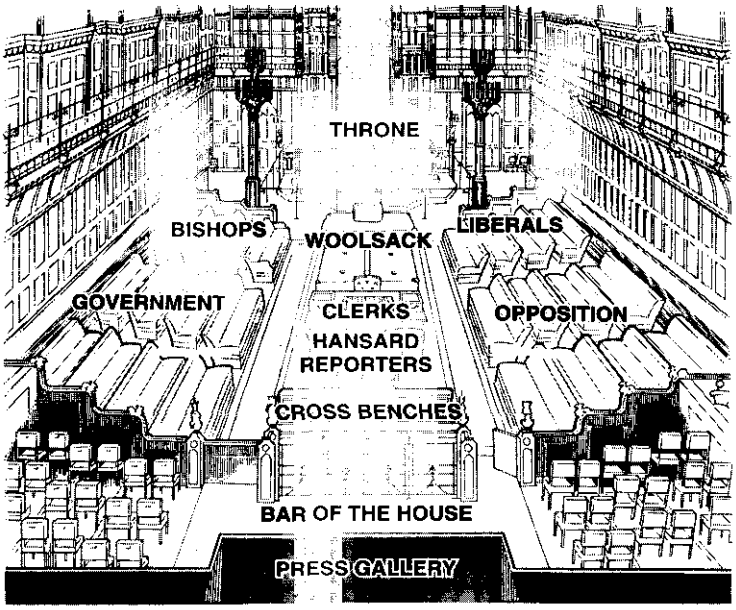
S – Mr Speaker
P – Press Galleries
H – Hansard reporters
O – Government Officials' Box (advisors to Ministers)
T – Table of the House
D – Despatch Boxes
Ma – Mace
B – Bar of the House
X – Cross Benches
SA – Serjeant at Arms
M – Members' Galleries
G – Visitors' Galleries

The Chamber of the House of Commons

The procedure of the House of Lords is rather informal and is comparable to that of the House of Commons. The Lord Chancellor presides over the House as its Speaker and is sitting on a large couch known as the Woolsack, a symbol surviving from the 14th century when wool was England's staple trade. There is no Minister of Justice in Britain, but the Lord Chancellor performs some of the functions which would normally belong to a Minister of Justice if there was one.

The powers of the House of Lords are now strictly limited. The main Bills are introduced first in the Commons, and the Lords can only hold them up for one year, and they cannot do even this to money Bills. The reform of the House of Lords was initiated by the Labour government in 1999 and it was intended to bring it closer to the principles of democratic society when people win the seats to Parliament through merit.

At present the House of Lords consists of 675 members, but eventually the number of Lords will be reduced to 550 who will be either



The Chamber of the House of Lords

elected or selected by an independent committee for a term of 15 years but not for life.

The main functions of Parliament are as follows: to pass laws, to provide the means of carrying on the work of Government, to control the Government policy and administration, to debate the most important political issues of the day.

Nevertheless, the principal duty of Parliament, as we have noted, is legislation, making laws.

In the past, legislation was initiated from both sides of the House: from the Government and from the Opposition. But in present-day practice almost all Bills are brought forward by the Government in power.

Bills may be introduced in either House: the House of Commons or the House of Lords, unless they deal with finance or representation, when they are always introduced in the Commons.

The process of passing a Bill is the same in the House of Lords as in the House of Commons. On introduction the Bill receives a formal First Reading. The Bill is not yet printed. The Clerk of the House reads out only the short title of the Bill and the Minister responsible for it names a day for a Second Reading. It is then printed and published.

After a period of time, which varies between one and several weeks, depending on the nature of the Bill, it may be given a Second Reading as a result of a debate on its general merits or principles. It is then

referred to one of the Standing Committees, or, if necessary, to the whole House sitting in Committee (if the House so decides), where each clause in the Bill is considered and voted on. When this stage is finished the Bill is formally reported to the House by the Chairman of the Committee, and a further debate takes place.

Finally the Bill is submitted for a Third Reading. At this purely formal stage the Bill is reviewed in its final form which includes the amendments made at earlier stages and, if passed, it is sent on from the Commons to the Lords or from the Lords to the Commons, depending on its place of origin, where it enters on the same course again.

All Bills which have passed through their various parliamentary stages are sent to the Sovereign for Royal Assent (approval), which is automatically given by Royal Commission. After this the Bill becomes law and is known as an Act of Parliament. The Royal Assent has not been refused since the time of Queen Anne (1702-14).

The arrangement of seating in both Houses of Parliament reflects the nature of the party system. Both debating chambers are rectangular in shape and have at one end the seat of the Speaker, in front of which stands the Table of the House. The benches for members run the length of the chamber on both sides. Five rows of benches on each side face each other across a broad area known as the "Floor of the House". This arrangement expresses a fact which is fundamental to the British parliamentary system. The benches to the right of the Speaker are used by the Government and its supporters, those to the left are occupied by the Opposition and members of any other parties. As a rule, the front benches are occupied by the leaders of the Government and the Opposition.

A typically British institution in the House of Commons is Question Time. It is a period when for an hour (from 2.30 until 3.30 p.m.) each afternoon on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday members of Parliament may question any minister on the work of the entrusted department and the Prime Minister on general national policy.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. One of the fundamental principles of the unwritten constitution is the _____ of Parliament.
2. The supreme legislative authority in Great Britain, Parliament, resides in _____ , and all its power is concentrated in the _____ , which is elected by the adult population of the country.
3. For electoral purposes the United Kingdom is divided into 646 electoral districts, or _____ .

4. Elections are by secret _____ .
5. The chief officer of the House of Commons is the _____ .
6. The powers of the House of Lords are now strictly _____ .
7. Nevertheless, the principal duty of Parliament, as we have noted, is _____ , making laws.
8. On introduction the Bill receives a formal _____ .
9. After a period of time, which varies between one and several weeks, depending on the nature of the Bill, it may be given a Second Reading as the result of a debate on its general _____ or principles.
10. Five rows of benches on each side face each other across a broad area known as the _____ .

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Members of Parliament bear in mind its responsibility to
   a) the Crown. b) the Government. c) the electorate.
2. The parliamentary electoral system of Great Britain encourages the domination of
   a) one major political party.
   b) two major political parties.
   c) three major political parties.
3. Members of Parliament are elected at a general election which is usually held
   a) every four years. b) every five years. c) every six years.
4. The main Bills are introduced first in the Commons, and the Lords can only hold them up for one year, and they cannot do even this to
   a) economic Bills. b) financial Bills. c) political Bills.
5. All Bills which have passed through their various parliamentary stages are sent to
   a) the Prime Minister. b) the Sovereign. c) the Cabinet.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. The Parliament, consisting of the House of Commons and the House of Lords, is the centre of British politics.
2. It (Parliament) cannot prolong its own life beyond the normal period without consulting the electorate.
3. The parliamentary electoral system of Great Britain encourages the domination of one major political party.
4. The candidates can be nominated by different parties, but the real contest is between the two big parties – the Conservative Party and the Labour Party.

5. British citizens may vote provided they are aged 21 or over, registered in the annual register of electors for the constituency and not subject to any disqualification.
6. In a British election the candidate who wins the most votes is elected, even if he or she does not get as many as all the votes of the other candidates taken together.
7. The procedure of the House of Lords is rather formal and is comparable to that of the House of Commons.
8. In the past, legislation was initiated from both sides of the House: from the Government and from the Opposition. But in present-day practice almost all Bills are brought forward by the Government in power.
9. The process of passing a Bill is not the same in the House of Lords as in the House of Commons.
10. The arrangement of seating in both Houses of Parliament reflects the nature of the party system.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Why is Great Britain known as Mother of Parliaments?
2. What does the term "the sovereignty of Parliament" mean?
3. Examine the main functions of Parliament.
4. Describe the parliamentary electoral system, electoral districts or constituencies and nomination of candidates.
5. What practice in a British election is known as a "simple majority electoral system"?
6. Describe the structure of the House of Commons and the House of Lords.
7. Compare the powers of the House of Commons and the House of Lords in legislation (making laws).
8. How are Bills introduced in Parliament?
9. Examine the process of passing a Bill in Parliament.
10. Describe the arrangement of seating in both Houses of Parliament.

V. Points for discussion.

1. Parliament – the centre of British politics.
2. The role of Parliament in your country.
3. "Question time" – a typically British institution.
4. The motivation to reform the House of Lords in 1999.

The Party System and the Government

Great Britain has a parliamentary government based on the party system. When the political parties began to form in the 18th century certain distinguished persons emerged as leaders. Sir Robert Walpole who headed the Government from 1721 to 1742 is generally regarded as the first Prime Minister. However, there was no clearly defined office as such nor was the Cabinet constituted as it is today. English political institutions have grown from experience and need. The former executive powers of the Sovereign in the early Privy Council were transferred to a Prime Minister and a Cabinet.

The growth of political parties in England was as gradual and unintentional as other changes in the government. Before the 17th century, there were rival groups of nobles who might struggle for power, as in the Wars of the Roses (1455-85) and there were adherents of different religious principles, but there were no political parties in the modern sense. During the Civil War (1640-60) the division between the aristocratic supporters of the Anglican Church who fought for the King, and the middle-class Puritans who took the side of Parliament, reflected a difference in religious and political principles, as well as economic interests which prepared the way for future party distinctions. With the restoration of monarchy (1660) these two groups were nicknamed, respectively, as the Tory squires who continued to uphold the authority of the King and the Whig nobles with Protestant and mercantile classes. In the 19th century the two-party system reached its solid modern form. By the 20th century the two parties were the CONSERVATIVES and the LIBERALS, direct descendants of the older Tory and Whig parties.

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The principal source and philosophy of the LABOUR PARTY was the Fabian Society, formed in 1884, though the party itself was founded much later. This group was led by such intellectuals as George Bernard Shaw and Sidney Webb. It took its name from the Roman general Fabius Cunctator, who defeated Hannibal by dilatory tactics. The Fabians opposed the doctrine of class warfare and substituted evolution for revolution. The Labour Party adopted this doctrine.

The Labour Party proper was founded in 1906. After the First World War it proclaimed its socialist ideas. Its socialist programme called for nationalization and equalities of wealth. Today the Labour Party advocates a mixed programme based on the platform of social-democratic reformism. It has abandoned nationalization and may be regarded as a party centre to the left. In 1997, 2001 and 2005 it won three consecutive general elections thus becoming the party of government with Tony Blair, its leader, becoming the Prime Minister.

Membership of the Labour Party is also mixed, though the majority are members of trade unions. Nearly all trade unions contribute funds to the political activities of the party, and many of the leaders of the unions are also leaders of the party. Despite the domination of the industrial workers the influence of the middle- and upper-class members of the party should not be underestimated.

The CONSERVATIVE PARTY is the other chief party. It was officially formed in 1867 on the basis of political groups of the English landed aristocracy. In the course of its long existence it has inherited or adopted both political beliefs and political interests. One of the most important things it has accepted are the teachings of John Locke about government and about property. Locke taught that men naturally possess certain weighty rights, the chief being life, liberty and property. One of the characteristic concepts of the Conservatives is that the State must protect property, and that private property widely distributed is the best solution for society.

The modern Tory concept of democracy includes social and economic reform, government responsibility for health, education and social security, and a certain measure of economic planning.

The Conservative Party has no official permanent programme. Before a general election the party issues a pre-election manifesto which states the main aspects of the home and foreign policies of the future Conservative government if the party wins the election.

The members of the Conservative Party come from various groups, although they are not easy to distinguish. Among them there are the country aristocracy consisting of big landowners, smaller farmers and businessmen in small towns and cities. There are also many working-class people who vote for Conservative candidates because they believe in social reform.

As a result of the split in the Labour Party in 1981 a new party was formed, the Social-Democratic Party. It formed an alliance with the old Liberal Party. The two parties acted together in one bloc in the elections of 1983 and 1987. In 1988 these two parties finally merged together under the name the SOCIAL-LIBERAL DEMOCRATIC PARTY or simply the Liberal Democrats, which is the third most important political party in the country, though not as influential as each of the two noted above.

The new party takes a centrist stand in the political life of the country. Its political platform remains vague, it reflects a diversity of views of the members of the two former parties. In the political system of Great Britain the Liberal Democrats occupy an intermediate position between the Labour and Conservative parties and advocate social reforms. The social basis of the party is formed of the middle class intellectuals.

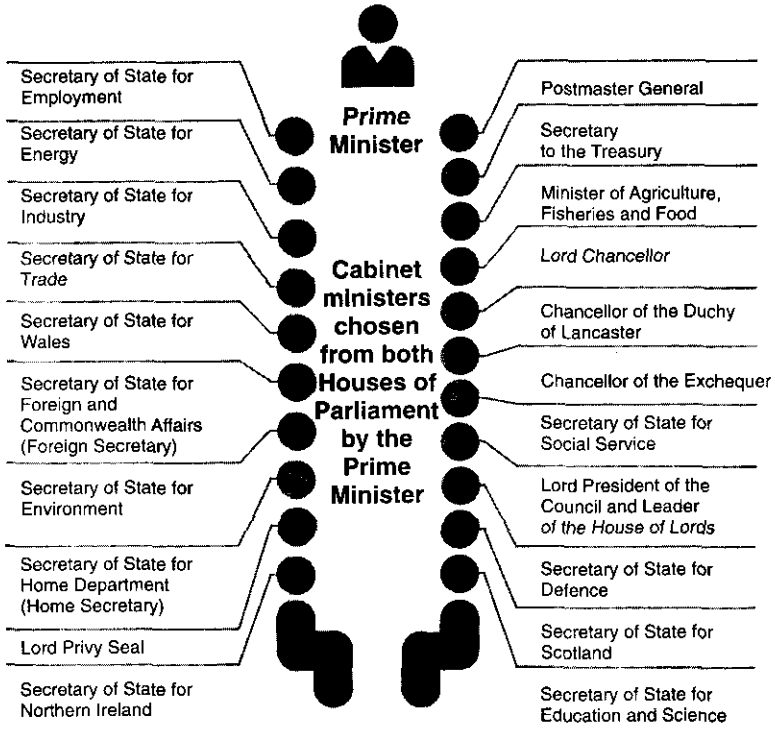
There are a number of minor parties in Great Britain: the Scottish National party (1928), the Welsh National Party (Plaid Cymru,1925). There are several political parties in Northern Ireland: the Ulster Unionists (Protestant and Loyalist – loyal to London), the Social Democratic and Labour Party (Catholic), the Ulster Democratic Unionists (Protestant loyalists) and the Sinn Fein (Irish for "we ourselves", Catholic).

All the major political parties of Great Britain structurally have their local associations in each of 646 (2005) electoral districts, or constituencies. The constituency association appoints its own executive committee and chairman, and has various subcommittees. The full-time work of the constituency is carried on by an appointed agent. He is assisted by an organizer and office staff.

The main functions of the constituency association are to recruit members, to carry on election campaigns, to select prospective candidates and to raise election funds (by subscription, donations, bazaars, etc.), and, as a result, to win votes to the cause of the parties.

The party which wins most seats (but not necessarily most votes) at a general election usually forms the GOVERNMENT. The leader of the majority party is appointed PRIME MINISTER by the Sovereign, and all other ministers are appointed by the Sovereign on the recommendation of the Prime Minister.

The majority of ministers are the members of the Commons, although there are always some ministers in the Lords. The Government is charged with the administration of national affairs. The office of Prime Minister as head of the Government has been in existence since the middle of the 18th century. As a matter of fact it is not necessary that a Prime Minister should hold a first-class honours degree or have high academic qualifications. Britain knew Prime Ministers who had no university education. However, any Prime



The Cabinet

Minister today must possess initiative, be able to organize others and get his policies accepted and pushed through Parliament.

The Prime Minister has a considerable list of functions and powers. It is his duty to inform the Crown of the general business of the Government, to exercise a general supervision over Departments (Ministries), to be prepared to speak in Parliament on the most important Government Bills, to answer to Parliament for all actions of the Government. Only the Prime Minister can recommend to the Sovereign a dissolution of Parliament before the normal time for a general election has come. He makes changes in the Government, presides over the Cabinet.

The Prime Minister selects Cabinet ministers. The Cabinet is a conventional organ of Government composed of about 20 most important ministers (Secretary of State for the Home Department, Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs, Secretary of State for Defence, Secretary of State for Education and Science, Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries, and Food, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Lord Chancellor, etc.).

The main functions of the Cabinet are: a) the final determination of the policy to be submitted to Parliament, b) the supreme control of the national executive power in accordance with the policy agreed by Parliament, and c) the continuous coordination of the authority of the Departments of State.

In the performance of its functions the Cabinet makes considerable use of a system of committees. The Cabinet is the centre of the political power of the United Kingdom at the present time. Normally it meets for about two hours once or twice a week during parliamentary sittings at No. 10 Downing Street, London, the official residence of the Prime Minister.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. When the political parties began to form in the 18th century certain distinguished persons _____ as leaders.
2. The growth of political parties in England was as gradual and _____ as other changes in the government.
3. Today the Labour Party advocates a mixed programme based on the platform of _____ reformism.
4. One of the most important things the Conservative Party has accepted are the teachings of John Locke about _____ and about _____ .
5. Before a general election the Conservative Party issues a pre-election _____ stating the main aspects of the home and foreign policies of the future Conservative government if the party wins the election.
6. In the political system of Great Britain the Social-Liberal Democratic Party occupies an _____ position between the Labour and Conservative parties.
7. The Government is _____ with the administration of national affairs.
8. The Cabinet is a _____ organ of Government composed of about 20 most important ministers.
9. The Cabinet is the _____ of the political power of the United Kingdom at the present time.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. The former executive powers of the Sovereign in the early Privy Council were transferred to
   a) a Cabinet.
   b) Prime Minister and a Cabinet.
   c) Parliament.

2. Membership of the Labour Party is also mixed, though the majority are members of
   a) middle-class people.
   b) trade unions.
   c) working people.
3. There are also many working-class people who vote for Conservative candidates because they believe in
   a) radical changes.
   b) social reform.
   c) socialism.
4. Before a general election the Conservative Party issues
   a) a pre-election programme.
   b) a pre-election manifesto.
   c) a pre-election statement.
5. The leader of the majority party is appointed Prime Minister by the Sovereign and all the ministers are appointed by
   a) the Prime Minister.
   b) the Sovereign.
   c) Parliament.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

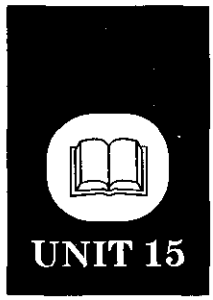
1. Sir Robert Walpole who headed the Government from 1721 to 1742 is generally regarded as the first Prime Minister.
2. Before the 17th century, there were rival groups of nobles who might struggle for power, as in the Wars of the Flowers (1455-85) and there were adherents of different religious principles, but there were no political parties in the modern sense.
3. By the 20th century the two parties were the Conservatives and the Liberals, direct descendants of the older Tory and Whig parties.
4. Nearly all trade unions contribute funds to the political activities of the Labour Party, though many of the leaders of the unions are not leaders of the party.
5. The Conservative Party was officially formed in 1867 on the basis of political groups of the English landed bourgeoisie.
6. In the political system of Great Britain the Liberal-Democrats occupy an intermediate position between the Labour and Conservative parties and advocate reforms.
7. However, any Prime Minister today must possess initiative, be able to organize others and get his policies accepted and pushed through Parliament.
8. The Prime Minister cannot recommend to the Sovereign a dissolution of Parliament before the normal time for a general election has come.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. What political leader is generally regarded as the first Prime Minister of Great Britain?
2. Name the main rival political and religious groups which participated in the Wars of the Roses and in the Civil War.
3. What sides did the Tory and Whig parties take with the restoration of monarchy in 1660?
4. Examine the principal source and philosophy of the Labour Party at the time of its formation.
5. What does the Labour Party advocate today?
6. Give an outline of the membership of the Labour Party.
7. Analyze the modern concept of the Conservative Party.
8. Describe how the Social-Liberal Democratic Party was formed. What is its political platform?
9. Name the minor political parties in Britain.
10. When and how is the Government formed in Great Britain?
11. Examine the main functions of the Prime Minister and the Cabinet.

V. Points for discussion.

1. The role of the parties in society.
2. What is the parliamentary government?
3. Is a party system in the political life of a country necessary?



The Press

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

"The Daily Telegraph" (1855) is the quality paper with the largest circulation (over million followed by "The Times" and "The Guardian"). In theory it is independent, but in practice it is an orthodox Conservative paper and as such caters for the educated and semi-educated business and professional classes. Being well produced and edited it is full of various information and belongs to the same class of journalism as "The Times" and "The Guardian".

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

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

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

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

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

There are a number of news agencies in Britain, the oldest being "Reuters" which was founded in 1851. The agency employs some 540 journalists and correspondents in seventy countries and has links

with about 120 national or private news agencies. The information of general news, sports, and economic reports is received in London every day and is transmitted over a network of teleprinter lines, satellite links and cable and radio circuits.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. In every modern country, regardless of form of government, the press, radio and television are political _____ of tremendous power, and few things are so indicative of the nature of a government as the way in which that power is exercised.
2. Although the press in this or that country is _____ free, the danger lies in the fact that the majority of people are not aware of the _____ .
3. Naturally, there is no _____ in Great Britain, but in 1953 the Press Council was set up.
4. The popular newspapers are very similar to one another in appearance and general arrangement, with big _____ and the main news on the _____ page.
5. Apart from these there are many other daily, evening and weekly papers published in cities and smaller towns. They present _____ news and are supported by local _____ .
6. "The Times" has a reputation for extreme caution, though it has always been a _____ of solidity in Britain.
7. In theory "The Daily Telegraph" is independent, but in practice it is an orthodox _____ paper and as such caters for the educated and semi-educated business and professional classes.
8. Traditionally the leading humorous periodical in Britain is _____ , best known for its _____ and articles which deserve to be regarded as typical examples of English _____ .
9. There are a number of news agencies in Britain, the oldest being _____ , which was founded in 1851.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

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

2. In democratic countries it has long been assumed that governments ought, in general, to do what their people
   a) ask them to do.
   b) force them to do.
   c) want them to do.
3. The popular newspapers tend to make news
   a) attractive.
   b) sensational.
   c) serious.
4. Politically "The Times" is independent but is generally inclined to be sympathetic to
   a) the Conservative Party.
   b) the Labour Party.
   c) the Social-Liberal Democratic Party.
5. "Punch" has in recent years devoted increasing attention to public affairs, often by means of its famous
   a) articles.
   b) cartoons.
   c) columns.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. The press in fact is controlled by a comparatively large number of persons.
2. In a democratis country like Great Britain the press, ideally, has three political functions: information, discussion and representation.
3. Quality papers are those newspapers which are intended for a wide audience.
4. Trivial events are treated as the most interesting and important happenings.
5. Its reporting (of "The Times") is noted for reliability and completeness and especially in home affairs.
6. "The Guardian" was favourable to the Liberal Party and tends to be rather closer in sympathy to the Labour Party than to the Conservatives.
7. Being well produced "The Daily Telegraph" is full of various information and belongs to the same class of journalism as "The Times" and "The Guardian".
8. "The Daily Mirror" is the popular newspaper which supports the Social-Liberal Democratic Party.
9. The "Spectator", the "New Statesman" and the "Economist" contain articles on national and international affairs, current events, the arts, letters to the Editor, extensive theatre reviews.

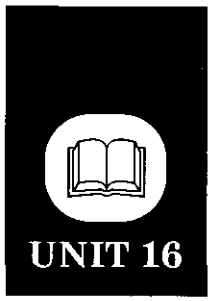
10. The information of general news, sports and economic reports is received in London every day and is transmitted over a network of teleprinter lines, satellite links and cable and radio circuits.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. "In every modern country, regardless of form of government, the press, radio and television are political weapons of tremendous power".– Why?
2. Explain the following statement: "Few things are so indicative of the nature of a government as the way in which the power of the press, radio and television is exercised."
3. What do the readers think when they see different newspapers providing the same news and expressing similar opinions?
4. Examine the three major political functions of the press in a democratic country like Great Britain.
5. Does the Press Council, which was set up in 1953, have anything in common with censorship in Britain?
6. Give an account of the two groups of papers in Britain – quality and popular. What do these papers publish?
7. Why is "The Times" called the paper of the Establishment?
8. What are the chief Sunday and evening newspapers?
9. Describe the main weeklies, or periodicals of special importance and enjoying a large and influential readership.
10. What periodical publishes typical examples of English humour?
11. What can you say about the oldest news agency in Britain, "Reuters"?

V. *Points for discussion.*

1. The role of the press (the press, radio and television) in the life of a state (people).
2. The right of the people to know.
3. The press and censorship.



Radio and Television

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

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

Besides these domestic programmes, the BBC broadcasts in English and in over 40 other languages to every part of the world. It is the World Service of the BBC. Its broadcasts are intended to provide a link of culture, information and entertainment between the peoples of the United Kingdom and those in other parts of the world. The main part of

the World Service programme is formed by news bulletins, current affairs, political commentaries, as well as sports, music, drama, etc. In general, the BBC World Service reflects British opinion and the British way of life. The BBC news bulletins and other programmes are re-broadcast by the radio services of many countries.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Arrangements for the broadcasts are made between the political parties and the broadcasting authorities, but editorial control of the broadcasts rests with the parties.

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

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

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The growth of radio and particularly of television is as important in providing news as the _____ .
2. The BBC has four national radio _____ for listeners in the United Kingdom.
3. The broadcasts of the World Service of the BBC are intended to provide a _____ of culture, information and entertainment between the peoples of the United Kingdom and those in other parts of the world.
4. The BBC news _____ and other programmes are re-broadcast by the radio services of many countries.
5. Practically all the population of the country lives within the _____ of the TV transmission.
6. These ITV programme companies get most of their money from firms who use them for _____
7. Commercials are the heavy tribute that the viewer must pay to the _____ in exchange for often _____ pleasure.
8. The BBC is not the _____ of the government.
9. Television and the other channels of _____ _____ are playing an increasingly important part in bringing contemporary affairs to the general public.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. But while private enterprise predominates in the publishing field in Great Britain, radio broadcasting is
   a) a Parliament monopoly.
   b) a Government monopoly.
   c) a group monopoly.
2. Radio (channel) 1 provides mainly a programme of
   a) rock and pop music.
   b) pop music.
   c) classical music.
3. In general, the BBC World Service reflects
   a) the British way of life.
   b) the British political life.
   c) the British economic life.
4. Advertisements are broadcast only on independent television, but advertisers can have no influence on
   a) public opinion.
   b) programme content or editorial work.
   c) education programmes.

5. Radio and television **programmes for the week are published** in the BBC periodical
   a) "TV Times"
   b) "Radio Times".
   c) "The Listener"

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), a public organization, still provides all radio programmes.
2. The BBC has over 30 local radio stations and about 50 commercial independent stations distributed throughout Europe.
3. To provide high-quality and wide-ranging programmes that inform, educate and entertain, and to provide also greater choice and competition the government encourages the growth of additional national radio services run on commercial lines.
4. Besides these domestic programmes, the BBC broadcasts in English and in over 100 other languages to every part of the world.
5. The aim of the Government is that at least 25 per cent of programmes on all channels should be made by independent producers.
6. Despite the genuine entertainment that so many of the good commercials afford, television still succeeds in amusing its viewers with ads that are too annoying, too often, and just too much.
7. The first regular commercial ITV programmes began in Manchester in 1955.
8. Broadcasts to schools cover most subjects of the curriculum, while education programmes for adults cover many fields of learning, vocational training and recreation.
9. The Government has privileged access to radio or television, but government publicity to support non-political campaigns may be broadcast on independent radio and television.
10. Each of the principal political parties is granted time on the air roughly in proportion to the number of its candidates for Parliament.

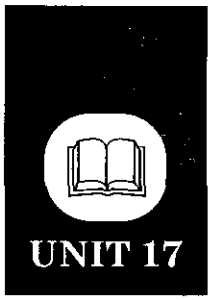
IV. Answer the questions.

1. Why do radio and television provide powerful means of capturing public attention?
2. Is the British Broadcasting Corporation a public organization? What does it mean?
3. Describe the four national radio channels of the BBC for listeners in the United Kingdom.

4. What is the World Service of the BBC? What does it reflect in general?
5. Examine the television service of the BBC, commenting on its four channels.
6. For whom are the BBC television programmes designed?
7. Characterize briefly the ITV.
8. Explain, as you understand, the statement: "Commercials are the heavy tribute that the viewer must pay to the sponsor in exchange for often doubtful pleasure".
9. What are the rules for advertisers on the BBC and the IBA?
10. Characterize the role of television at election time.
11. Name the BBC's periodicals in which radio and television programmes and a selection of radio and TV talks are printed.

V. Points for discussion.

1. The place of radio and television in your life.
2. The BBC and British Government: their interrelations.
3. The role of the radio and TV



The School Education

The aim of education in general is to develop to the full the talents of both children and adults for their own benefit and that of society as a whole. It is a large-scale investment in the future.

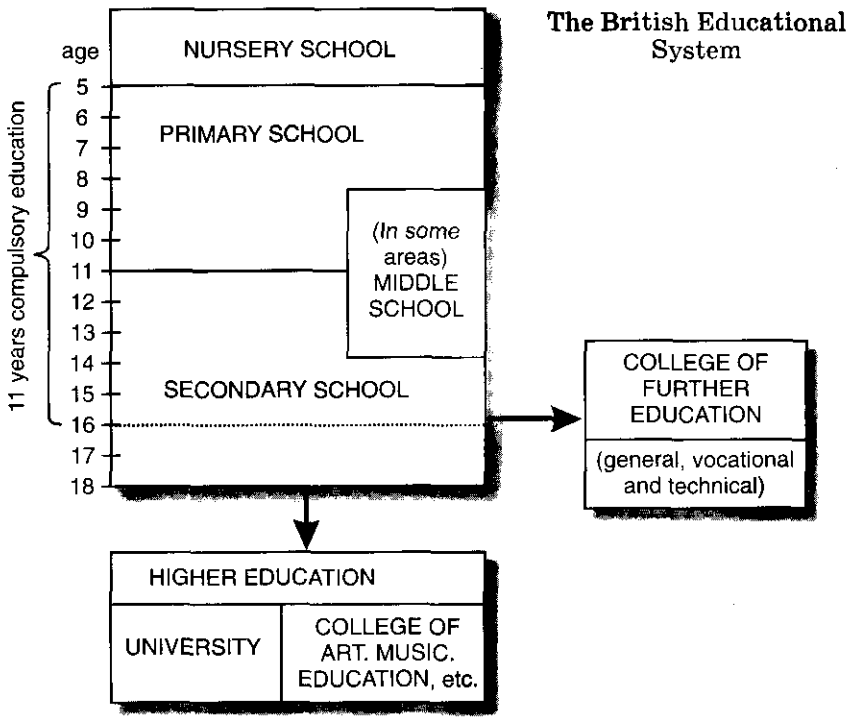
The educational system of Great Britain has developed for over a hundred years. It is a complicated system with wide variations between one part of the country and another. Three partners are responsible for the education service: central government – the Department of Education and Science (DES), local education authorities (LEAs), and schools themselves. The legal basis for this partnership is supplied by the 1944 Education Act.

The Department of Education and Science is concerned with the formation of national policies for education. It is responsible for the maintenance of minimum national standard of education. In exercising its functions the DES is assisted by Her Majesty's Inspectorate. The primary functions of the Inspectors are to give professional advice to the Department, local education authorities, schools and colleges, and discuss day-to-day problems with them.

Local education authorities are charged with the provision and day-to-day running of the schools and colleges in their areas and the recruitment and payment of the teachers who work in them. They are responsible for the provision of buildings, materials and equipment. However, the choice of textbooks and timetable are usually left to the headmaster. The content and method of teaching is decided by the individual teacher.

The administrative functions of education in each area are in the hands of a Chief Education Officer who is assisted by a deputy and other education officials.

Until recently planning and organization were not controlled by central government. Each LEA was free to decide how to organize



The British Educational System

education in its own area. In 1988, however, the National Curriculum was introduced, which means that there is now greater government control over what is taught in schools. The aim was to provide a more balanced education. The new curriculum places greater emphasis on the more practical aspects of education. Skills are being taught which pupils will need for life and work.

The chief elements of the National Curriculum include a broad and balanced framework of study which emphasizes the practical applications of knowledge. It is based around the core subjects of English, mathematics and science (biology, chemistry, etc.) as well as a number of other foundation subjects, including geography, history, technology and modern languages.

The education reform of 1988 also gave all secondary as well as larger primary schools responsibility for managing the major part of their budgets, including costs of staff. Schools received the right to withdraw from local education authority control if they wished.

Together with the National Curriculum, a programme of Records of Achievements was introduced. This programme contains a system of new tests for pupils at the ages of 7,11,13 and 16.The aim of these tests is to discover any schools or areas which are not teaching to a high

enough standard. But many believe that these tests are unfair because they reflect differences in home background rather than in ability.

The great majority of children (about 9 million) attend Britain's 30,500 state schools. No tuition fees are payable in any of them. A further 600,000 go to 2,500 private schools, often referred to as "independent sector" where the parents have to pay for their children.

In most primary and secondary state schools boys and girls are taught together. Most independent schools for younger children are also mixed, while the majority of private secondary schools are single-sex.

State schools are almost all day schools, holding classes between Mondays and Fridays. The school year normally begins in early September and continues into the following July. The year is divided into three terms of about 13 weeks each.

Two-thirds of state schools are wholly owned and maintained by LEAs. The remainder are voluntary schools, mostly belonging to the Church of England or the Roman Catholic Church. They are also financed by LEAs.

Every state school has its own governing body (a board of governors), consisting of teachers, parents, local politicians, businessmen and members of the local community. Boards of governors are responsible for their school's main policies, including the recruitment of the staff.

A great role is played by the Parent Teacher Association (PTA). Practically all parents are automatically members of the PTA and are invited to take part in its many activities. Parental involvement through the PTA and other links between parents and schools is growing. The PTA forms both a social focus for parents and much valued additional resources for the school. Schools place great value on the PTA as a further means of listening to parents and developing the partnership between home and school. A Parent's Charter published by the Government in 1991 is designed to enable parents to take more informed decisions about their children's education.

Compulsory education begins at the age of 5 in England, Wales and Scotland, and 4 in Northern Ireland. All pupils must stay at school until the age of 16. About 9 per cent of pupils in state schools remain at school voluntarily until the age of 18.

Education within the state school system comprises either two tiers (stages) – primary and secondary, or three tiers – first schools, middle schools and upper schools.

Nearly all state secondary schools are comprehensive, they embrace pupils from 11 to 18. The word "comprehensive" expresses the idea that the schools in question take all the children in a given area, without selection,

NURSERY EDUCATION. Education for the under-fives, mainly from 3 to 5, is not compulsory and can be provided in nursery schools

and nursery classes attached to primary schools. Although they are called schools, they give little formal education. The children spend most of their time in some sort of play activity, as far as possible of an educational kind. In any case, there are not enough of them to take all children of that age group. A large proportion of children at this beginning stage is in the private sector where fees are payable. Many children attend pre-school playgroups, mostly organized by parents, where children can go for a morning or afternoon a couple of times a week.

PRIMARY EDUCATION. The primary school usually takes children from 5 to 11. Over half of the primary schools take the complete age group from 5 to 11. The remaining schools take the pupils aged 5 to 7 – infant schools, and 8 to 11 – junior schools. However, some LEAs have introduced first school, taking children aged 5 to 8, 9 or 10. The first school is followed by the middle school which embraces children from 8 to 14. Next comes the upper school (the third tier) which keeps middle school leavers until the age of 18. This three-stage system (first, middle and upper) is becoming more and more popular in a growing number of areas. The usual age for transfer from primary to secondary school is 11.

SECONDARY EDUCATION. Secondary education is compulsory up to the age of 16, and pupils may stay on at school voluntarily until they are 18. Secondary schools are much larger than primary schools and most children (over 80 per cent) go to comprehensive schools.

There are three categories of comprehensive schools: 1) schools which take pupils from 11 to 18,2) schools which embrace middle school leavers from 12, 13 or 14 to 18, and 3) schools which take the age group from 11 to 16. The pupils in the latter group, wishing to continue their education beyond the age of 16 (to be able to enter university) may transfer to the sixth form of an 11-18 school, to a sixth-form college or to a tertiary college which provide complete courses of secondary education. The tertiary college offers also part-time vocational courses.

Comprehensive schools admit children of all abilities and provide a wide range of secondary education for all or most of the children in a district.

In some areas children moving from state primary to secondary education are still selected for certain types of school according to their current level of academic attainment. These are grammar and secondary modern schools, to which children are allowed at the age of 11 on the basis of their abilities. Grammar schools provide a mainly academic education for the 11 to 18 age group. Secondary modern schools offer a more general education with a practical bias up to the minimum school-leaving age of 16.

Some local education authorities run technical schools (11-18). They provide a general academic education, but place particular emphasis on

City Technology College in Solihull, Birmingham

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

There are special schools adapted for the physically and mentally handicapped children. The compulsory period of schooling here is from 5 to 16. A number of handicapped pupils begin younger and stay on longer. Special schools and their classes are more generously staffed than ordinary schools and provide, where possible, physiotherapy, speech therapy and other forms of treatment. Special schools are normally maintained by state, but a large proportion of special boarding schools are private and fee-charging.

About 5 per cent of Britain's children attend independent or private schools outside the free state sector. Some parents choose to pay for private education in spite of the existence of free state education. These schools charge between £300 a term for day nursery pupils and £3,500 a term for senior boarding-school pupils.

All independent schools have to register with the Department of Education and Science and are subject to inspection by Her Majesty's Inspectorate, which is absolutely independent. About 2,300 private schools provide primary and secondary education.

Around 550 most privileged and expensive independent schools are commonly known as public schools (see the next Unit).

The principal examinations taken by secondary school pupils at the age of 16 are those leading to the General Certificate of Secondary

Education (GCSE). It aims to assess pupils' ability to apply their knowledge to solving practical problems. It is the minimum school leaving age, the level which does not allow school-leavers to enter university but to start work or do some vocational training.

The chief examinations at the age of 18 are leading to the General Certificate of Education Advanced level (GCE A-level). It enables sixth-formers to widen their subject areas and move to higher education. The systems of examinations and assessment are co-ordinated and supervised by the Secondary Examination Council.

Admission to universities is carried out by examination or selection (interviews). Applications for places in nearly all the universities are sent initially to the Universities and Colleges Admission Services (UCAS). In the application an applicant can list up to five universities or colleges in order of preference. Applications must be sent to the UCAS in the autumn term of the academic year preceding that in which the applicant hopes to be admitted. The UCAS sends a copy to each of the universities or colleges named. Each university selects its own students.

The overall pupil-teacher ratio in state primary and secondary schools is about 18 to 1, one of the most favourable in the world. The British educational system continues to be improved and in 2005 new initiatives were launched to make the schools more independent and efficient.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. It (DES) is responsible for the maintenance of minimum national _____ of education.
2. In 1988, however, the _____ was introduced, which means that there is now greater government control over what is taught in schools.
3. But many believe that these tests are unfair because they reflect differences in _____ _____ rather than in ability.
4. Boards of governors are responsible for their school's main policies, including the _____ of the staff.
5. The word "comprehensive" expresses the idea that the schools in question take all the children in a given area, without _____ .
6. There are special schools adapted for the physically and mentally _____ children.
7. All independent schools have to register with the Department of Education and Science and are _____ to inspection by Her Majesty's Inspectorate, which is absolutely independent.
8. Around 550 most privileged and expensive independent schools are commonly known as _____ schools.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. In exercising its functions the DES is assisted by
   a) the LEAs.
   b) the chief Education Officers.
   c) Her Majesty's Inspectorate.
2. The new curriculum places greater emphasis on the more
   a) theoretical aspects of education.
   b) practical aspects of education.
   c) advanced skills teaching.
3. The practical application of knowledge is based around the core subjects of
   a) mathematics and chemistry.
   b) English, mathematics and science.
   c) science.
4. Education for the under-fives, mainly from 3 to 5, is not compulsory and can be provided in
   a) nursery classes.
   b) nursery schools and nursery classes.
   c) playgroups.
5. In some areas children moving from state primary to secondary education are still selected for certain types of schools:
   a) grammar schools and secondary modern schools.
   b) comprehensive schools.
   c) secondary modern schools.
6. Admission to universities is carried out by
   a) examination or selection.
   b) interviews.
   c) application.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. The aim of education in general is to develop to the full the talents of both children and adults.
2. However, the choice of textbooks and timetable are usually left to local education authorities.
3. State schools are almost all day schools, holding classes between Mondays and Fridays.
4. The school year is divided into two terms of about 19 weeks each.
5. A Parent's Charter published by the Government in 1991 is designed to enable parents to take more informed decisions about their children's education.
6. Nearly all independent schools are comprehensive, they embrace pupils from 11 to 18.

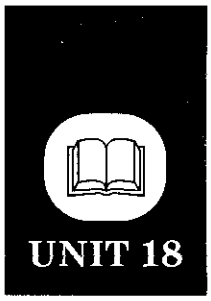
7. Secondary modern schools offer a more general education with a practical bias up to the age of 18.
8. However, as a result of comprehensive reorganization the number of grammar and secondary modern schools fell radically by the beginning of the 1990s.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. What is the aim of education in general?
2. Examine the functions of the partners responsible for the education service in Great Britain.
3. What are the chief elements of the National Curriculum, introduced in 1988?
4. What is the aim of the Records of Achievements Programme, introduced together with the National Curriculum?
5. Describe the organization of school education referring to state schools and the "independent sector".
6. Examine the role of governing bodies (boards of governors) and the Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) in school life.
7. Examine:
   a) the Nursery Education,
   b) the Primary Education,
   c) the Secondary Education.
8. What are the principal examinations taken by secondary school pupils at the age of 16 and 18?
9. How is admission to universities carried out?

V. Points for discussion.

1. The significance of the education reform of 1988,
2. What is your opinion of the abundance of various types of schools in primary and secondary education?
3. Is it reasonable to begin compulsory education at the age of 5?



The Public Schools

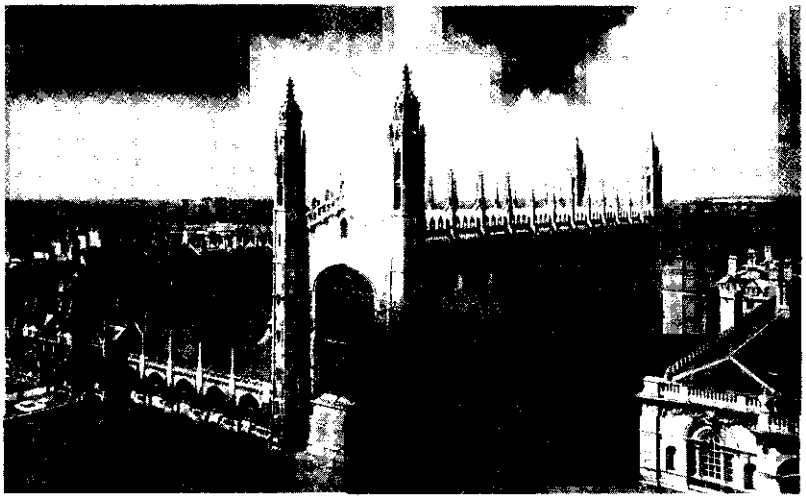
Although income and occupation are important elements, British class distinctions also depend heavily upon other considerations: education, tradition, behaviour, manner of living and even accent.

In the past, people have generally been divided into those who are "gentlemen" and those who are not. The gentlemen are not identical with the nobility although they include it.

The public school system is valued because it produces leaders, it is a separate system of education for the rich. The English gentleman in the conventional sense is mainly the product of his public school. Those who have been educated at one of the good public schools are set apart from those who have not. In such schools the traditional aim is to develop "gentlemen" who are disciplined, loyal and decent, who "play the game", bear pain and discomfort with a "stiff upper lip" and know how to use authority and how to get respect from those they rule. In public schools which follow the inherited pattern, older boys, known as prefects, rule over their younger fellows. Participation in sports is considered of great importance, though the emphasis on sports is not as great now as it used to be. Religion holds an important place in school life. But the teaching of the classics, though still important, is no longer the chief education concern.

The public school system has often been criticized for its lack of democracy and for its tendency to consider intellect less important than good sportsmanship and the acceptance of the traditional code of behaviour. But many Englishmen and many people in the English-speaking world admire the type of citizen which these schools produce.

Though limited in number (about 500) the public schools are the largest and most important of the independent (private) schools. They accept pupils at about 12 or 13 years of age usually on the basis of a strict selection. They are fee-paying and very expensive, their



King's College, founded by Henry VI in 1441, one year after Eton

standards for entries are very high. Most of them are boys' boarding schools, although some are day schools and some are for girls. A few have even become coeducational. Most public schools were founded in Victorian times, but many of them are several hundred years old. The nine most ancient and aristocratic remain among the most important public schools: Eton (1440), Harrow (1571), Winchester (1382), Westminster (1560), St. Paul's (1509), Merchant Taylor's (1561), Rugby (1567), Charter House (1611) and Shrewsbury (1552).

The oldest of the public schools were founded to give free education to clever boys whose parents could not afford to educate them privately. They were under "public" management and control. Originally they depended mainly on grants by noble founders and wealthy donors. They were intended to put education within the reach of anyone intelligent enough to take advantage of it, whether their parents were rich or poor. Today these schools and similar ones founded within the past 150 years, are the most expensive of the independent schools in Britain and depend almost entirely on the fees paid by their pupils' parents. So, it is clear from this definition that public schools are now not public in the usual sense of the word.

The public schools are mostly boarding schools, where the pupils live and study, though many of them also take some day-pupils. Most of them have a few places for pupils whose fees are paid by a local authority, but normally entrance is by examination, and state schools (which are free) do not prepare children for this. So parents who wish to send their children to a public school often send them first to a *preparatory (prep) school.*

A preparatory school is an independent school for children aged 8 to 13, whom it prepares for the public schools. At 13 pupils take the Common Examination for Entrance to Public Schools, or simply Common Entrance exam (Common is used because the examination is set jointly by the main public schools and is common to all). Nearly all preparatory schools are for boys and many of them are boarding schools.

Nowadays the public schools are less obsessed by team-spirit and character-building, they are more concerned with examinations and universities, especially Oxford and Cambridge. But they still give their pupils a very special sense of their mission and confidence.

On the whole, the public school boys are sons of people who have a substantial social position, very good homes and the benefits of prosperity. So the public schools tend to hand over social and economic power and privilege from one generation to the next. For instance, two-thirds of Eton's pupils are sons of former Etonians. This makes it more than any other school a hereditary club for the rich and influential. However, it may be pointed out that many boys of public schools are the sons of men who were not themselves educated at public schools, or men who are by no means rich.

Less than one per cent of British children go to public schools, yet these schools have produced over the centuries many of Britain's most distinguished people. So parents who can afford it still pay thousands of pounds to have their children educated at a public school.

The major public schools in the narrow sense are peculiar to Britain, and especially to the southern half of England, where most of them are situated. More than any other part of the educational system, they distinguished Britain from other countries. Although few parents send their children to them for religious reasons, these schools have their own chapels, where their chaplains or headmasters conduct services according to the prescriptions of the foundation. Some of them are Catholic, but most are Church of England.

Many public schools have had a profound influence on English social attitudes. By their nature and existence they have emphasised a sense of class division. Although less than 2 per cent of all men have been educated in such schools, these include most high court judges, directors of banks and insurance companies and Conservative members of Parliament. Contacts made at school may open the way to good jobs.

One of these schools, Eton, is perhaps, better known by name outside its own country than any other school in the world. It was founded by King Henry VI in 1440 and is located near Windsor Castle. About twenty Prime Ministers of Great Britain have passed through Eton. More than half of all peers who have inherited their titles are old Etonians. Eton, with its 700 pupils, is like the other public schools in many ways, but has its special customs. Boys still dress every day for class in morning suits.

Most public schools are in small towns or villages and have about 700 pupils. They have been much concerned to develop in their pupils a strong sense of duty, obedience combined with ability to exercise authority and a habit of suppressing private feelings. Loyalty to group had been encouraged by the system under which a school would be divided into about ten "houses" (each having around 70 boys), with selected older boys as prefects (monitors). Until quite recently the prefects imposed a strict discipline, often with brutal punishments. Good sportsmen (rugby and football players) have great prestige and reputation. The system of the houses gives pupils more scope to follow their own interests and more privacy.

The schools have shown skills in adapting themselves to new values, with more attention to music and the arts as well as academic work as distinct from team games. Many of their teachers, who are mostly male and called "masters", stay at the same school all through their working lives, and do not count their hours of work. Public schools have small classes and high standards.

Some time ago it was claimed by Labour party supporters that the public schools would die a natural death. But in the 1980s most independent schools of all types, including public, had more applicants for admission than before. This was caused by the poor reputation of the state comprehensive schools, and by the huge growth in the incomes of the highly-paid people. Public schools were more firmly established than ever.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The gentlemen are not identical with the _____, although they include it.
2. In public schools which follow the inherited pattern, older boys known as _____, rule over their younger fellows.
3. Religion holds an important place in school life. But the teaching of the _____, though still important, is no longer the chief education concern.
4. Most public schools were founded in _____ times, but many of them are several hundred years old.
5. The public schools are mostly _____ _____, where the pupils live and study, though many of them also take some day-pupils.
6. So, the public schools tend to hand over social and economic power and privilege from one _____ to the next.
7. Less than one per cent of British children go to public schools, yet these schools have produced over the centuries many of Britain's most _____ people.
8. Eton, with its 700 pupils, is like the other public schools in many ways, but has its _____ _____ .

9. About twenty Prime Ministers of Great Britain **have passed** *through* _____ .
10. Public schools have small _____ and high _____ .

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. The public school system is valued because it produces leaders, it is a separate system of education for
   a) the nobility. b) the rich. c) all who can pay.
2. *The English gentleman in the conventional sense is* mainly the product of his
   a) society. b) public school. c) university.
3. Originally they (public schools) depended mainly on grants by
   a) local authorities.
   b) noble founders and wealthy donors.
   c) universities.
4. So parents who wish to send their children to a public school often send them first to
   a) a primary school.
   b) a middle school.
   c) a preparatory school.
5. On the whole, the public school boys are sons of people who have a substantial social position, very good homes and the benefits of
   a) property. b) prosperity. c) occupation.
6. Many public schools have had a profound influence on English social
   a) development. b) relations. c) attitudes.
7. Many of their teachers, who are mostly male and called "masters", stay at the same school all through their working lives, and do not count their
   a) money. b) days. c) hours of work.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. Although income and occupation are important elements, British class distinctions also depend heavily upon other considerations: education, tradition, behaviour, manner of living and even accent.
2. But many Englishmen and many people in the English-speaking world do not admire that type of citizen which these schools produce.
3. The oldest of the public schools were founded to give free education to clever boys whose parents could not afford to educate them privately.

4. Nearly all preparatory schools are for boys and girls, and many of them are boarding-schools.
5. Nowadays the public schools are less obsessed by team-spirit and character-building, they are more concerned with examinations and universities, especially Oxford and Cambridge.
6. For instance, half of Eton's pupils are sons of former Etonians.
7. However, it may be pointed out that many boys at public schools are the sons of men who were not themselves educated at public schools, or men who are by no means rich.
8. Until quite recently the prefects imposed a strict discipline, often with light punishments.
9. Some time ago it was claimed by Labour party supporters that the public schools would die a natural death.
10. But in the 1980s most independent schools of all types, including public, had less applicants for admission than before.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. What is the public school system valued for?
2. What kind of "gentlemen" are developed and produced at public schools?
3. Why has the public school been often criticized?
4. When were public schools founded and why were they called "public"?
5. Who can afford to study at public schools?
6. Why are public schools now no longer public in the usual sense of the word?
7. What is the aim of the preparatory school?
8. Why do many parents wish to have their children educated at a public school?
9. "The major public schools in the narrow sense are peculiar to Britain." Explain this statement.
10. Why is Eton better known by name outside its own country than any other school in the world?
11. Describe the major functions of the prefects at public schools.
12. Give reasons for the growth of popularity of public schools in recent time.

V. Points for discussion.

1. The place of the public school in the British educational system.
2. Is the public school a necessity or luxury?
3. Do you appreciate the growth of independent schools in your country?

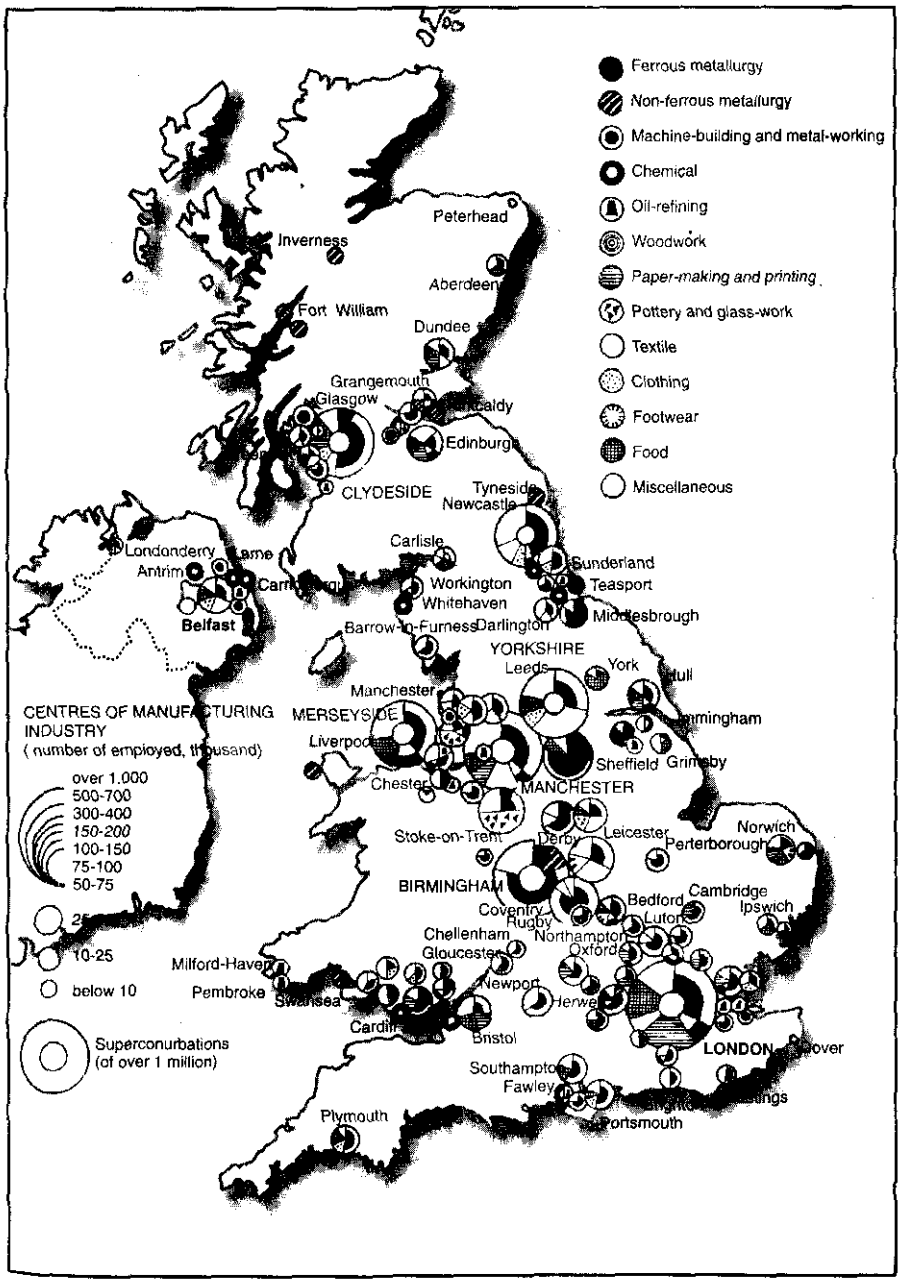
The Economy. The South

Today Britain is no longer the leading industrial nation of the world, which it was during the last century. A pioneer in the Industrial Revolution, the former "world workshop" Britain today is fifth in size of its gross domestic product (GDP). Britain's share in world trade is about 6 per cent, which means that she is also the fifth largest trading nation in the world. The most important change in Britain's trade took place after 1973 when the country joined the European Economic Community, which is known today as the European Union. Trade with the countries of the European Union is now more than one-half of all Britain's trade with other countries. Britain's exports to the Commonwealth countries (former possessions of Great Britain) have fallen substantially.

The manufacturing and service industries, together with construction, account for more than 95 per cent of Britain's GDP, the rest is shared by energy production and agriculture. As in other developed countries, rising living standards have led to a growth of the role of services. The service industries include business services, trade, travel and tourism. The service sectors also include education, public health, administration.

In recent years new industries have made serious progress such as aerospace, chemicals, oil, gas, electronics, biotechnology. At the same time the traditional old industries such as steel, coal production, shipbuilding, production of textiles have met serious difficulties and declined. As the development of the new industries does not compensate the decline of the traditional old industries unemployment remains a serious problem. In recent years unemployment has been reduced but it still remains high compared with the levels of the 1960s and 1970s. So far it has not fallen under one million.

BRANCHES OF MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY



The British economy is mainly based on private enterprise. However, some industries were nationalized after World War II. Today the policy of the government is aimed at encouraging and expanding the private sector. As a result of this policy 75 per cent of the economy is controlled by the private sector which employs three-quarters of the labour force.

With the exploitation of oil and natural gas from the Continental shelf under the North Sea, the country is not only self-sufficient in energy, but even exports some of its oil abroad. Coal, which is traditionally a most important source of energy, still meets about a third of Britain's energy needs. Nuclear power also plays an important role in helping to meet the country's needs.

Less than 2 per cent of Britain's working population is engaged in agriculture, which is a lower proportion than in any other major industrialized country. More than two-thirds of the arable land and pastures belong to the landlords, but the middle and small-scale holders of land give the greatest part of the agricultural produce. These holders rent the land and employ agricultural workers. Due to large-scale mechanisation, productivity in agriculture is very high: it supplies nearly two-thirds of the country's food. At the same time Britain continues to be one of the world's largest importers of agricultural products, raw materials and semi-manufactures. Speaking of agricultural products and raw materials, we understand that the country imports such materials and products which cannot be grown in Britain: different fruits, vegetables, cotton, coffee, cocoa, etc.

As Britain has an open economy, in which international trade plays a vital role in the life of the country, it is necessary for the country to produce and export more on the international market than what it buys and imports into the country. However, traditionally the country imports more than it exports, which in turn leads to a deficit in the balance of payments. This deficit in the balance of payments is usually covered by transactions on the international market, which reflect Britain's position as a major financial centre of the world.

The transactions connected with the activities of banks, insurance companies, brokers and other financial institutions of the City of London provide world-wide financial services, and the City is a most important financial centre of the world.

The general location of industry has changed little in recent years. As before, 80 per cent of industrial and agricultural production is concentrated in England. At the same time, in the national outlying regions of Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland the rate and level of the development of industry, as well as the average earnings of the population, are lower than in England. This gap between England and the outlying regions has increased because of the decline of the traditional industries, which are heavily concentrated in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

Special regional development programmes have been worked out, but so far the problem remains unsolved. Despite the policies of the government there has been a growth of concentration of industry in the traditional industrial regions, especially in the south-east of England, because the South has the advantages for the location of modern industry. Today, among the economic and social problems of the country we may speak about the traditional gap between the "depressed" North and the "flourishing" South. Of course, attempts have been made to overcome this situation, but so far the problem exists, though the North has exprienced major technological changes in the economy.

In terms of its economic development Britain may be divided into the following 8 economic regions: the South Industrial and Agricultural Region; the Midlands; Lancashire; Yorkshire; the North; Scotland; Wales; Northern Ireland.

THE SOUTH INDUSTRIAL AND AGRICULTURAL REGION. This is the most important region in the country in terms of industry, agriculture and population. The region includes all the South of England, both the South-East and the South-West. Its northern border runs from the Bristol Channel to the Wash. The South is a region of various industries and of intensive agriculture. At the centre of everything is the city of London and its influence has become so widespread that the South-East has often been called the London City Region.

London is the largest city in Britain and its history stretches back to pre-Roman times. The first settlement grew upon a dry gravel terrace overlooking the marshlands alongside the river Thames. The settlement was easily defended. London's early importance owed much to the fact that it was situated at the lowest crossing point of the Thames. As a result the Romans built a fortified town beside the Thames and called it Londinium. Previously the site was called by the Celts Llyn-dyn (lake fort).

In Roman times London became Britain's leading port and links were established with the rest of the Roman empire. Because of its importance, London became the capital of England after the Norman conquest. By the nineteenth century its population reached about a million. In 1965 the area known as Greater London was created. The population of this area rose to well over 8 million, and something had to be done to stop this growth and overcrowding. One plan was to establish new towns. Satellite towns were built at some distance from London in order to stop the overcrowding. About half a million inhabitants of London were housed in a number of new towns, located in the open country some 30 to 50 km from the capital.

Today about 7 million people live in Greater London, covering an area of 1606 sq km. The importance of London as an industrial centre depends upon its situation at the centre of a national and international network of communications. The oldest industrial areas are near

Modern structures in "old" London

the city centre. Here industries such as clothing, furniture-making and jewellery are concentrated in small areas. The building of the docks near to the city centre played an important role in the development of industries which processed raw materials. Later the construction of new docks near the sea led to the development of such port industries as oil refining, steel-making, cement manufacture, paper-making, etc.

As with most capital cities, London's industries are extremely varied, among them electrical engineering, instrument production, radio engineering, aircraft production, manufacture of electronics equipment, the motor-car industry. These high technology industries are also located in the satellite towns within Greater London. For example, just within Greater London, at Dagenham is the great Ford motor works.

London is also a great centre of the service industries. Service industries provide employment for twice as many people as manufacturing industries. This is due to the great concentration of population in the city and the need for services, such as shops, public transport, etc.

But the service industry is also connected with London's role as a centre of banking, insurance, scientific research. Thousands of commuters travel to central London each day to work in offices, banks, insurance companies and shops. Another service sector is connected with tourism. More than 12 million people visit London every year. Inside London is the famous City of London which occupies an area of about a square mile with a permanent population of less than twenty thousand. But this small area is known all over the world as a major international and national business centre. London is a typical city with all the social problems created by urbanization.

The other towns and cities, situated to the north of the Thames, and closely connected with the capital in industrial specialization, are Oxford, Cambridge and Luton. Oxford was first mentioned in the 10th century. Oxford became a leading educational centre and by the end of the thirteenth century the earliest colleges of its world famous university had been founded.

In the 20th century industry came to this city too when a large motor works was built in the suburb of Cowley.

Cambridge is also best known for its ancient university. Its industries connected with electronics and printing have links with the university. Luton situated nearby became a major centre of car production and other engineering industries.

The Thames valley in general, between London and Bristol, is an area of concentration of high technology industries such as electronic engineering, microelectronics, etc., and has been called the "Sunrise Strip". Bristol dominates south-west England. Bristol is a historic inland port situated deep in the Bristol Channel, and its history influenced its industries such as the manufacture of tobacco products and chocolate. Bristol is also a major centre of the aircraft and automobile industry, as well as the defence industries. The famous supersonic passenger airliner "Concorde" was made here. Of the towns situated on the southern coast of England the largest ones are Plymouth, Southampton, Portsmouth, Brighton and Bournemouth. Today Plymouth is a major naval base of the British navy. Southampton is mainly a transatlantic seaport.

Brighton and Bournemouth are the leading and most popular seaside resorts of the southern coast of Britain. Brighton is also a dormitory town of London because many commuters live here.

The South is a major agricultural region of Great Britain. However, agricultural specialization is different in the South West and South East and East. Due to the mild, moist climate of the South West, grass grows for a long period in the year, and farming chiefly consists of raising livestock. Dairying is the main farming activity. Cereals occupy an important part of the arable farmland in the South East and East with wheat and barley as the main crops. The East consists of East Anglia and the Fens and is described today as reclaimed marshland, where cereal crops dominate. Market gardening and fruit farming are widespread in the south due to the demands of Greater London.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. Britain today is fifth in size of its _____ _____ _____ .
2. Trade with the countries of the European Union is now more than _____ of all Britain's trade with other countries.

3. The _____ and service industries, together with construction, _____ _____ about 93 per cent of Britain's GDP.
4. The traditional old industries as coal, shipbuilding have _____ .
5. The British economy is mainly based on _____ _____ .
6. Today Britain is _____ in energy, and exports some of its oil abroad.
7. More than two-thirds of the _____ land and pastures belong to the landlords.
8. The deficit in the balance of payments is usually covered by _____ on the international market, which reflect Britain's position as a major financial centre of the world.
9. Eighty per cent of industrial and agricultural production is _____ in England.
10. The _____ between England and the outlying regions has increased because of the _____ of the traditional industries in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Special regional development programmes have been worked out for Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland
   a) and now these regions are flourishing economically.
   b) and new industries have been attracted to the regions which now make the face of these regions.
   c) but so far the problem remains unsolved.
2. The South Industrial and Agricultural region is the most important region in the country
   a) in terms of industry, agriculture and population.
   b) as regards the development of the fishing industry.
   c) because it attracts the greatest number of tourists from abroad.
3. The importance of London as an industrial centre depends upon
   a) its role as a major centre of international tourism.
   b) its situation at the centre of a national and international network of communications.
   c) its location on the Thames not far from the sea.
4. Inside London is the famous City of London
   a) where the Queen lives at her official residence in Buckingham Palace.
   b) which occupies an area of about a square mile and which is known all over the world as a major international and national centre of business.
   c) with its many restaurants, theatres and other places of entertainment.

5. Oxford became a leading educational centre
   a) only in the 20th century.
   b) with its earliest colleges already by the **end of the 13th** century.
   c) of technical sciences in the Middle Ages.
6. The Thames valley between London and Bristol
   a) is an area of concentration of high technology industries.
   b) is famous for its small towns with many gardens.
   c) is an area of concentration of heavy industry.
7. Brighton and Bournemouth are
   a) the main centres of the electronics industry of Great Britain.
   b) the leading and most popular seaside resorts of the southern coast of Britain.
   c) the main transatlantic seaports of the U.K.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. In the 19th century Britain was fifth in size of its gross domestic product (G.D.P.)
2. The most important change in Britain's trade took place before 1973.
3. Trade with the Commonwealth countries is now more than one-half of all Britain's trade with other countries.
4. Unemployment in Britain is not high because the new industries compensate the decline of the old industries.
5. Today the government's policy is aimed at encouraging and expanding nationalization.
6. Coal no longer plays any role as a source of energy in Britain.
7. About 40 per cent of Britain's working population is engaged in agriculture.
8. The big landlords own only a small part of the arable land and pastures.
9. Traditionally Britain's trade balance is positive, that is she exports more than she imports.
10. Today, among the economic and social problems of the country we may speak about the gap between the "depressed" North and the "flourishing" South.

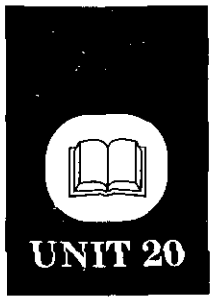
IV. Answer the questions.

1. What is the role of services in the life of the country?
2. What do the service industries include?
3. Why do we observe comparatively high unemployment in the U.K.?

4. Does the private sector play an important role in the life of the British economy?
5. Is the U.K. self-sufficient in energy supply? Why?
6. Does nuclear power play an important role in meeting the country's energy needs?
7. Is British agriculture efficient? Prove it.
8. Why does the country continue to import agricultural products?
9. What gap exists between the North and the South?
10. Is the South Industrial and Agricultural Region an important region in the country? Why?

V. Points for discussion.

1. Britain's membership of the European Union and its consequences for the country.
2. The problem of covering the balance of payments deficit.
3. London – the major industrial centre of the U.K.
4. Write a short essay highlighting the major contribution of the South to the development of the country and discuss it in class.



The Regions of Britain

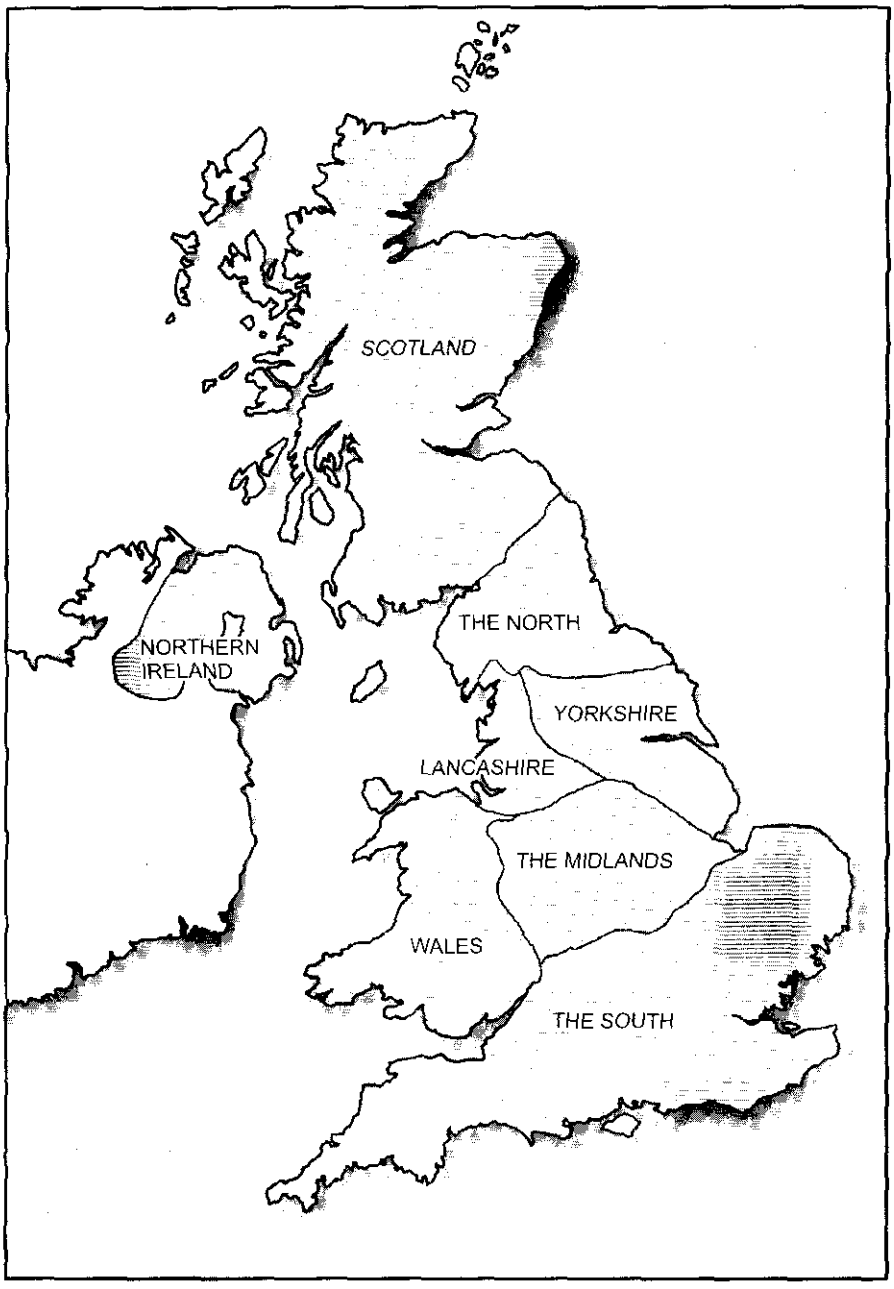
THE MIDLANDS. The Midlands is situated in the centre of Great Britain between the South Industrial and Agricultural region in the south and Lancashire and Yorkshire in the north. For the past two hundred years the Midlands has been one of Britain's leading industrial regions.

It was the presence of coalfields which influenced the industrial development of the region. Birmingham, Coventry and several other larger towns make the face of the region. Much of the early development of this part of the country was connected with the iron industry. Quite often this region was called the Black Country due to its mass industrialization. Today the iron and steel industry has almost disappeared, though the industries which depend upon it, engineering and the finishing of metals, remain important to the area. With these changes the Black Country is also changing for the better.

Birmingham is the second largest city in Britain with a population of about one million. It has been said that Birmingham makes everything from a pin to a steam roller. The city has preserved its long tradition of making guns, especially sporting guns. Also famous are articles in gold and silver. The city is also a major producer of consumer goods. Among the manufacture of food products cocoa and chocolate occupy an important place.

The other major city is Coventry which is the centre of the British motor industry. Wolverhampton is a centre where heavy engineering, tyre production are developed. There are three other major industrial centres to the east and north-east of Coventry. They are Leicester, Nottingham and Derby. The first two are leading centres of the knitwear industry and in the manufacture of knitting machines. Nottingham is twinned to Minsk and different contacts are maintained between the two cities. Derby is an important railway engineering

THE MAIN ECONOMIC REGIONS



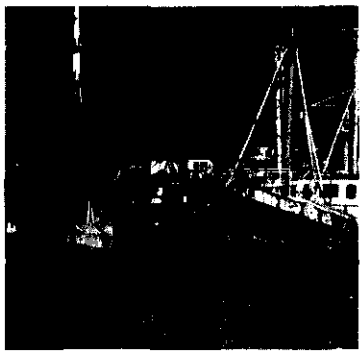
centre because of its central position. However, today most important are the Rolls Royce factories which now produce aircraft engines. In the south-west lies a district of the Midlands known as the Potteries with its centre Stoke-upon-Trent famous for its pottery and ceramics industry.

In climate the Midlands has a midway place between the wet area to the west (Wales) and the drier area to the east (East Anglia). Much of the region is under grass. Dairy cattle are more numerous in the wetter west, and beef cattle in the drier east. Sheep are also quite numerous. The principal crops are wheat and barley together with potatoes and sugar beet. Gardening is also developed and lots of vegetables are produced for the people living in the cities.

LANCASHIRE, YORKSHIRE and THE NORTH. These regions are situated to the north of the Midlands. LANCASHIRE is a historic centre of British industry, it is the birthplace of capitalism and it was here that the Industrial Revolution started. We may distinguish two major centres: Merseyside centred on Liverpool and Greater Manchester. Liverpool grew from a small fishing village to become Britain's leading port in the 19th century. Today the city and its industry are in a difficult position. The chemical industry developed here is based on the salt deposits nearby, and later the motor car industry. At Birkenhead located nearby shipbuilding and shiprepairing developed.

Greater Manchester, like Merseyside includes a number of towns. In the past Manchester was a major centre of the textile industry. The Industrial Revolution started here. The building of canals contributed to the development of the city, and especially the Manchester Ship Canal built in 1894 which made the city a seaport though it is 50 km from the sea. Today general engineering is the leading industry in Manchester and the surrounding towns. Of the towns situated on the shore of the Irish Sea most important is Blackpool, which is a popular resort in northern England. Due to extensive industrial development agriculture is less developed.

In YORKSHIRE situated to the east of the Pennine mountains we may distinguish three main industrial centres: Sheffield, located in the south; Leeds, Bradford and Scunthorpe in the west, and the Humber ports of Hull, Immingham and Grimsby. Sheffield produces a wide range of steel goods besides cutlery. The main industry of Leeds is the manufacture of clothing, though engineering is also important. Bradford has long been the leading centre of worsted and woollen manufacture. In the north of Yorkshire the largest town is York. It is a very old town famous for its minster (cathedral) and ancient city walls, which attract lots of tourists. On the North Sea coast the most popular holiday resort is Scarborough. On the basis of local ore the iron and steel industry was developed in Scunthorpe. The city has large integrated steelworks where all the stages in steel manufacture take place. Scunthorpe today has become one of the leading steel-making centres in the country.



A fishing port

The estuary of the Humber is one of the most spacious in Britain, and it is well located for trade with Europe. Thus a number of seaports have grown up there, and two of them, Immingham and Grimsby have become very important. Grimsby developed mainly as a fishing port as well as Hull, though today this industry has difficulties because less fish are being caught. The economy of Yorkshire was always closely connected with wool. This is reflected in the development of agriculture, there is much sheep grazing on the rough pastures of the area.

In THE NORTH we may distinguish two main centres of industrial activity: one situated in the north-east around the estuaries of the rivers Tyne, Wear and Tees (Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Sunderland and Teesside; and the other in the north-west in Cumberland (Workington, Whitehaven, Barrow-in-Furness). Most important is the North-East. In the past it was an area of coalmining, steel-making and shipbuilding, but today these industries are in decline. New industries have been attracted to this area. They included electrical engineering and engineering connected with construction work for the production of North Sea oil.

At Teesside the chemical industry has made serious progress. Industrial development in the North-West is less extensive than in the North-East. Besides the iron and steel industry based on the local deposits of coal and iron ore shipbuilding also developed at Barrow-in-Furness. Abundance of water, due to the heavy rainfall, is one of the chief natural resources of the region. This was an important factor in building a nuclear power station, which needs plenty of water for cooling. At Calder Hall the first nuclear power station was built in Britain in 1956. Agriculture is affected by the wet climate and relief. The village of Seathwaite is said to be the wettest place in England. Sheep grazing is the main occupation of the farmers. In the North-East the farmers raise more beef cattle than dairy cattle.

WALES. Wales is mainly mountainous. South Wales is the main area of industrial activity, because it was coal that first gave life to industry. However, today the coal industry has declined creating serious problems of unemployment. Like coalmining, the iron and steel industry is long established in the south, but with the exhaustion of the iron ores this industry also faces serious problems. Efforts have been made to attract new engineering industries. Cardiff is the largest city in industrial South Wales, and is also the national capital and main business centre. It rose to importance with the coalmining and iron

industries. Swansea and Newport shared coal exports too. However, later they suffered the same decline like Cardiff. The main port of Wales today is Milford Haven (situated in the very south-west) because of its oil tanker traffic. It is one of the leading oil terminals of Britain and an important oil refining centre. North Wales is mountainous and industrialization has had little effect here. In the north-west is the district known as Snowdonia, where the Snowdonia National Park is situated. Sheep raising is the main occupation of the population.

SCOTLAND. Scotland due to its physical features which influence the development of the economy is divided into three parts: the Scottish Highlands which occupy the mountain area in the northern part of the country, the Southern Uplands which cover the smaller and lower hill area in the south and the Central Lowlands occupying the wide valley which separates the other two areas. The first two are thinly populated, while the Central Lowlands occupying about 15 per cent of Scotland's territory contain about 80 per cent of its people. The Central Lowlands are the industrial heart of Scotland, while the Glasgow region is the most important area of industrial activity, which was one of the major industrial centres of Britain with coal, steel, shipbuilding and engineering industries. The 20th century has seen increasing problems in these industries and there has been a movement of population from the old established areas to new centres.

Glasgow is Scotland's most populous city and third largest in the British Isles. As a seaport it enjoyed a favourable position for trade with North America. The industrial picture in Glasgow has changed. Engineering did not decline as much as coalmining and shipbuilding. But nowadays as many workers are in the service industries as in manufacturing. Textile and clothing production continue to be important, and carpets are among the woollen goods. Food products, furniture and office equipment are also manufactured. An activity which is extremely important in Scotland's export trade is the blending of Scotch whisky, produced in the distilleries located in the Highlands. In the New Towns which appeared in the 1960s to the east of Glasgow new engineering industries developed, especially electronics. Grangemouth in the east is a fast expanding seaport, chiefly due to its oil refineries and petrochemical industry connected with North Sea oil.

Edinburgh is the capital of Scotland though it is smaller in size than Glasgow. Edinburgh is often called "The Athens of the North" because of its beauty and lots of tourists visit the city, especially during the annual Edinburgh International Festival in the late summer. Manufacturing occupies a smaller proportion of its workers than in Glasgow, but it has a number of important industries, including textile manufacture. It is one of the chief centres of brewing in Britain. Paper manufacture, printing and publishing are important because Edinburgh is a university city.

In the Highlands Aberdeen is the most important city. Its expansion and industry are closely connected with North Sea oil. The seas around Scotland are rich in fish and Aberdeen remains an important centre of the fishing industry. The natural conditions of Scotland have affected agriculture. The Central Lowlands are best suited for farming. The western lowlands have a great deal of land under grass, and form Scotland's main dairy farming area. In the eastern lowlands there is a much smaller proportion of land under grass than in the West, and on these pastures beef cattle are raised. Arable farming is much widespread in the east with barley, oats and wheat as the main cereal crops. In the Southern Uplands there is much sheep raising.

NORTHERN IRELAND. Northern Ireland is a unique region within the United Kingdom, for in addition to economic problems there are political divisions, which reflect the unsettled Irish problem. In the past Northern Ireland depended almost completely upon three activities – farming, shipbuilding and the manufacture of textiles. Today great changes took place in these sectors. In agriculture which is mainly characterized by mixed farming and dairying there has been a large reduction of farmers because many owners of small farms became ruined and left the land. The textile industry depended mainly on linen which was made from flax, but today flax-growing has died out. Man-made fibres have taken the place of the linen industry. Northern Ireland has one of the largest concentrations of man-made fibre production in Western Europe. Textile manufacture is concentrated not only in Belfast, but in several smaller towns nearby. The manufacture of clothing and footwear is also developed in Northern Ireland. Londonderry, the second major town in Northern Ireland, specializes in the manufacture of shirts. Belfast is the main administrative, economic and cultural centre of Northern Ireland. It is the province's main port. Belfast is a major centre of textile manufacture, shipbuilding, aircraft production, electrical engineering and food processing. Though shipbuilding has declined, it still remains an important industry, and the shipbuilding firm Harland and Wolf is known all over the world. The aerospace firm of Short Brothers employs many workers and is known throughout the country. The beautiful scenery of Northern Ireland, the unspoilt environment mean that this province has many opportunities to attract more and more tourists.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. Birmingham, Coventry and several other larger towns make the _____ of the Midlands.

2. Birmingham makes everything from a pin to a _____ .
3. Nottingham _____ _____ _____ Minsk and different contacts are maintained between the two cities.
4. Lancashire is a historic centre of British industry, it is the _____ _____ _____ and it was here that the Industrial Revolution started.
5. Sheffield produces a wide range of steel goods besides _____ .
6. Bradford has long been the leading centre of _____ and woolen manufacture.
7. The _____ of the Humber is one of the most spacious in Britain, and it is well located for trade with Europe.
8. _____ of water was an important factor in building the Calder Hall nuclear power station.
9. Due to the _____ of the iron ores the steel industry in Wales faces serious problems.
10. Sheep raising is the main _____ of the population in North Wales.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Scotland due to its physical features which influence the development of the economy
   a) may be divided into two parts.
   b) is divided into the Scottish Highlands, the Central Lowlands and the Southern Uplands.
   c) is regarded as one mountainous region.
2. An activity which is extremely important in Scotland's export trade
   a) is connected with the textile industry.
   b) is the blending of Scotch whisky, produced in the distilleries located in the Highlands.
   c) is connected with the export of coal and oil.
3. Edinburgh is often called "The Athens of the North"
   a) because of its beauty and lots of tourists visit the city.
   b) because of its architecture which resembles the capital of Greece.
   c) because of its historical monuments.
4. Aberdeen's industry is expanding
   a) because of the abundance of oil in the valleys nearby.
   b) due to its electronics industry.
   c) because of the rich resources of oil in the North Sea.
5. Northern Ireland is a unique region within the United Kingdom
   a) due to its geographical position.
   b) for in addition to economic problems there are political divisisons, which reflect the unsettled Irish problem.
   c) because of the number of lakes located in this part of the U.K.

6. Quite often the Midlands was called the Black Country
   a) because of the dark colour of the mountains of this region of England.
   b) due to its mass industrialization in the 19th and early 20th century.
   c) because of the bad weather when heavy rain clouds cover the sky most of the time of the year.
7. In the south-west of the Midlands lies a district known as the Potteries
   a) because of the great number of ancient pots found by archaeologists during excavations.
   b) with its centre Stoke-upon-Trent famous for its pottery and ceramics industry.
   c) because annual pot fairs are held here when pots are brought and sold from different regions of Britain.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. In the 20th century the Midlands has been one of the least developed regions of Great Britain.
2. Birmingham is a medium sized city in the U.K.
3. Agriculture has made little progress in the Midlands.
4. The famous Rolls Royce factories are located in Coventry, and they produce only cars which are known all over the world.
5. Today the industry of Liverpool is developing rapidly and its port is one of the busiest ports of the country.
6. Manchester is a major centre of the textile industry.
7. In Yorkshire we cannot distinguish any major industrial centres, because the economy of this region is based on sheep grazing.
8. Wales is mainly mountainous, therefore it is a typical agricultural region.
9. Grangemouth in Scotland is a fast expanding seaport, chiefly due to the development of the fish industry.
10. Northern Ireland depends almost completely upon three activities – farming, shipbuilding and the manufacture of textiles.

IV. Answer the questions.

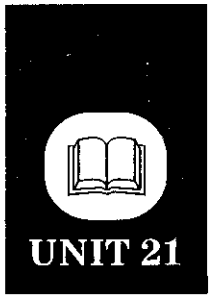
1. Where is the Midlands located?
2. What influenced the industrial development of the Midlands?
3. Is Birmingham a large city?
4. How does the climate affect the development of agriculture in the Midlands?

5. What famous old town is located in Yorkshire?
6. Does steel production play an important role in the development of Scunthorpe?
7. What seaports are located in the Humber?
8. Why does tourism play an important role in North Wales?
9. How have the physical features of Scotland influenced the development of its economy?
10. What city is the main industrial centre of Northern Ireland? Why?

V. Do you remember?

1. What city of the Midlands is twinned to Minsk?
2. The main factor which contributed to the building of Calder Hall.
3. The reason why Edinburgh is called "The Athens of the North".

VI. Make a list of the most important centres of the given regions and their specialization, and discuss your summary in class.



Transport

The easy movement of goods and people is an essential feature of a modern industrialized country, such as the United Kingdom. Agricultural and industrial products must be moved to markets and ports, just as raw materials and labour must be transported to the factories. Within Britain, these functions are carried out by a complex transport system that has developed slowly over several centuries.

Before the 17th century there was little need for rapid communication, because most local areas were relatively self-sufficient in raw materials for industry. But regional specialization and increased industrial output that resulted from the Industrial Revolution demanded more suitable means of transport than had existed previously. Economic interchange between different parts of the country became essential to the development of the country, and new models of transport evolved to meet these needs: the railway and the canal.

Today, as in the recent past emphasis is placed not only upon ease of communications, but also on speed of communications. This has been achieved not only by the use of freight aircraft, but the development of high speed motorways.

In the Middle Ages, river transport played a major role in the British internal transport system, because all the large towns of the time were situated on navigable rivers. Moreover, the quality of roads was so bad that attention was turned to river navigation. This emphasis on water transport was increased during the great period of canal construction during the latter part of the 18th century. By 1830 there were about 10,000 kilometers of canals and "improved" rivers in Britain. However, river navigation suffered from a number of problems including silting, summer drought and the fact that a number of industrial areas, including Birmingham, were not on navigable rivers. The construction of the railways after 1830 meant the gradual decline of waterways, many canals were no longer used for commercial traffic, but for pleasure boating.

MOTORWAYS AND MAJOR TRUNK ROADS

Coastal shipping has also changed within the last century. Once it was the most important form of transport to move coal from North-East England to London, but now most coastal shipping is passenger-carrying. Links are maintained with many of the offshore islands, particularly in Scotland, by regular passenger ferries which may also carry freight.

The impetus for the development of railway communications came from the expanding coal trade of the early 19th century. Railways were speedier, in many respects more flexible and also were a more convenient means of transporting goods to and from the ports in foreign trade, or exporting ports. Most of the early railways were all built to link coalfields with expanding industrial areas. The first public railway, between Stockton and Darlington, was opened in 1825, in northern England.

As industrialization continued the canals were found inadequate to cope with the volume of traffic and railways were built to cope with the problem. Gradually railways took the place of the canals, and towns grew up and developed at railway junctions and along the main lines. Railways were becoming efficient carriers of passengers, either those travelling on business or on holiday. By the middle of the 19th century through rail links had been established between the major cities and towns of Britain – London, Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, York, Leeds, Newcastle, Brighton, Southampton, Exeter, Bristol.

During the 19th century and the early years of the 20th century the railways were the principal carriers of both freight and passengers. But the invention of the internal combustion engine introduced a rival means of transport – an automobile.

As roads were improved, and motor vehicles became faster, more reliable and more numerous, with the advantage of door-to-door delivery, many railway lines lost traffic and became uneconomic to run. On the longer internal routes, the railways lost passengers to civil airlines. All through the present century they have faced increasing competition from road transport. This has resulted in a decline in the importance of the railways and the closure of many lines and stations.. Some pf these closures were the inevitable consequence of the way in which the railways were built. For example, during the boom years rival companies built many competing parallel lines between the major cities and, as traffic declined, some of these lines became seriously underused. Such lines were closed.

The pattern of roads in Britain still bears traces of the Roman road network, although the modern network is really a product of the last two centuries. This road system was quite unplanned. Built, in the first place, to link settlements, such roads formed long distance links, which were not the most direct or the most efficient. The real importance of the road system did not emerge until the early 20th century, when the invention of the motor-car created a revolution in industrial transport.

Modern methods of evaluating road requirements for the future have been developed by government planners and a system of motorways linking many parts of Britain was begun in the late 1950s. The development of the fast roads together with the increasing use of large container lorries has meant a rapid rise in road freight transport. More motor vehicles for passengers and lorries direct from the continent began to appear on British roads.

However, many of Britain's roads are not suited to cope with the current volume of traffic. Most of them were designed to handle horse-drawn traffic and are inadequate for modern motor vehicles, especially modern lorries. The increased motor traffic has tended to produce congestion, particularly in towns and cities where several roads may converge, and where congestion has become a daily nightmare for drivers, pedestrians and inhabitants alike.

Overseas communications are inseparable from Britain's trade which is handled at a number of ports. Most of these ports have been involved in trade for several hundred years.

Great Britain has a long tradition as a maritime and trading nation. The country has never been entirely self-sufficient in foodstuffs and raw materials, and must rely on other countries to provide these commodites. In order to pay for these goods Britain must export her manufactured goods to other countries throughout the world. By the end of the 19th century dependence on trade had become so great that Britain was conducting more than one-third of world trade in manufactured goods. Although Britain's share of world trade has declined greatly since that time, on account of competition from other countries, she remains one of the leading commercial nations of the world.

The majority of Britain's ports are situated in the mouths, wide estuaries of rivers. Of great importance for the port activity are tides, when the rising water reaches its maximum mark (high tide). For example, in the port of London during the high tide the water rises to the level of 6 m, in Liverpool – 8.5m, in Bristol – 10m. Due to the high tides many towns which are situated dozens of kilometres from the coast have become sea ports (London – 64km from the coast, Glasgow – 35, Hull – 32, etc.). The introduction of container traffic has led to an enormous reduction in the amount of time spent loading and unloading ships.

Although the largest British ports serve a variety of purposes, many ports concentrate on one particular activity.

1) The largest ports handling ocean freight trade are London, Liverpool, Hull, Southampton, Glasgow, Bristol.

2) The principal ocean-passenger ports are Southampton, London (Tilbury) and Liverpool.

3) The principal ferry-passenger ports for communications with Europe are Harwich, Dover, Folkestone, Newhaven and Southampton.

4) The most important fishing ports are Hull, Grimsby, Lowestoft, Fleetwood and Aberdeen.

5) Specialized naval ports include Portsmouth and Plymouth.

6) The development of the North Sea oil has given rise to new ports, or oil ports, through which the main traffic of this product passes: Tees, Forth ports, Flotta in Orkney and Sullom Voe in Shetland.

The most striking development in the field of transport in recent years has been the growth of air traffic. It handles both freight and passengers to whom speed is more important than cost. The number of people who travel by air has increased at a very fast rate. Practically all major cities and towns of Britain are served by regular daily flights.

London is served by two chief airports – Heathrow and Gatwick. Heathrow airport handles about seventy-five per cent of all passenger traffic and sixty-five per cent of all freight passing through British airports. It is one of the largest and busiest airports in the world for international travel. It covers an area of more than twenty square kilometres.

Of all airlines operating in the United Kingdom, British Airways is one of the world's leading airlines, and in terms of the passengers carried it is the largest in the world.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. Agricultural and industrial products must be moved to _____ and ports, just as raw materials and labour must be transported to the _____ .
2. In the Middle Ages river transport played a major role in the British transport system, because all the large towns of the time were situated on _____ rivers.
3. Once coastal shipping was the most important form of transport to move _____ from North-East England to London, but now most coastal shipping is passenger-carrying.
4. As industrialization continued the canals were found inadequate to cope with the volume of _____, and railways were built to cope with the problem.
5. Gradually railways took the place of the canals, and towns grew up and developed at railway _____ and along the main lines.
6. As roads were improved, and motor vehicles became faster, more reliable and more numerous, with the advantage of door-to-door delivery, many railway lines lost _____ and became _____ to run.

7. The real importance of the road system did not emerge until the early 20th century, when the _____ of the motor-car created a revolution in _____ transport.
8. In order to pay for these goods Britain must export her _____ goods to other countries throughout the world.
9. Of great importance for the port activity are _____, when the rising water reaches its maximum mark.
10. Due to the _____ many towns which are situated dozens of kilometres from the coast have become sea ports.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. During the 20th century needs have changed again, so that emphasis is placed not only upon ease of communications but also
   a) quality of communications.
   b) speed of communications.
   c) diversity of communications.
2. The construction of the railways after 1830 meant the gradual decline of waterways, many canals were no longer used for commercial traffic, but for
   a) passenger traffic.
   b) freight traffic.
   c) pleasure boating.
3. Railways were speedier, in many respects more flexible, and also were a more convenient means of transporting goods to and from
   a) importing ports.
   b) exporting ports.
   c) foreign ports.
4. The first public railway, between Stockton and Darlington, was opened in 1825, in
   a) northern England.
   b) southern England.
   c) south-eastern England.
5. Although the modern network is really a product of the last two centuries, the pattern of roads in Britain still bears traces of
   a) the Norman road network.
   b) the Roman road network.
   c) the Anglo-Saxon road network.
6. Built, in the first place, to link settlements, such roads formed long distance links which were not the most
   a) speedy.
   b) direct or efficient.
   c) profitable.

7. By the end of the 19th century dependence on trade had become so great that Britain was conducting more than one-third of world trade in
   a) raw materials.
   b) manufactured goods.
   c) consumer goods.
8. The most striking development in the field of transport in recent years has been the growth of
   a) motor vehicle traffic,
   b) air traffic.
   c) shipping.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. Before the 17th century there was little need for rapid communication, because most local areas were relatively self-sufficient in raw materials for industry.
2. The impetus for the development of railway communications came from the expanding oil trade of the early 19th century.
3. During the 19th century and the early years of the 20th century the railways were the principal carriers of both freight and passengers.
4. For example, during the boom years rival companies built many competing parallel lines between the major cities and, as traffic declined, some of these lines became seriously overloaded.
5. Modern methods of evaluating road requirements for the future have been developed by government planners and a system of motorways linking many parts of Britain was begun in the late 1950s.
6. Most of Britain's roads were designed to handle horse-drawn traffic and are adequate for modern motor vehicles, especially modern lorries.
7. Overseas communications are inseparable from Britain's trade which is handled at a number of ports.
8. Specialized naval ports include Brighton and Hastings.
9. The number of people who travel by air has increased at a very fast rate.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Comment on the movement of agricultural and industrial products on the one hand, and raw materials and labour on the other.
2. Why was there little need for rapid communication before the 17th century?

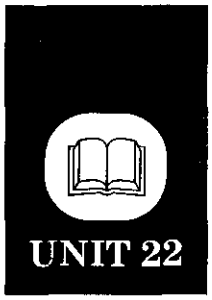
3. What caused building more suitable means of transport than had existed previously?
4. Examine the role and importance of water transport in the Middle Ages.
5. Where did the impetus for the development of railway communications come from?
6. What caused a decline in the importance of the railways and the closure of many lines and stations?
7. Describe the pattern of roads in Britain and the role of the motor vehicle transport.
8. What problems are created by the increased motor traffic?
9. Why are overseas communications inseparable from Britain's trade?
10. Give an outline of the growth of air traffic and Britain's chief airport Heathrow.

V. Points for discussion.

1. The role of transport in different periods of history.
2. The development of road and railway network in Britain.
3. Transport in the life of the people today.

VI. Talking point.

Imagine you are a Briton and you intend to spend your summer holiday in Spain or Italy. How would you travel? Give your reasons.



Agriculture

Before the Industrial Revolution, Britain had a comparatively small population. She did not experience any difficulty in providing all the grain and meat required for home consumption. But during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, as the Industrial Revolution gathered speed, not only did the number of people increase rapidly, but also many of those who had previously been employed on the land went to work in the factories and mines. Britain became an industrial and trading nation which ceased to be self-supporting in foodstuffs. It was necessary that the most efficient use should be made of the country's limited agricultural resources. And important changes took place which have given British farming its present character.

A wide range of measures was introduced to increase agricultural efficiency. The careful crossing of existing breeds of cattle and sheep produced types of animals which gave increased yields of meat and milk. Artificial fertilizers came to be manufactured. A so-called rotation system was invented, in which the fertility of the land is maintained by growing different crops. And, of course, the introduction of up-to-date machinery was a decisive factor.

Although the vast majority of the population lives and works in towns, urban areas occupy a small proportion of the total land area of Britain. Over three-quarters of the land area is used for agriculture, the remainder being mountain, forest or put to urban and other uses. Britain's agriculture is famous for its high level of efficiency and productivity. In spite of the fact that the agricultural area of the country is fairly large, only about two per cent of the working population is engaged in agriculture. It produces nearly two-thirds of Britain's food requirements compared with just a half in 1960.

Land which is normally used for the cultivation of crops accounts for about 20 per cent of the land surface, rather less than the amount

occupied by permanent grassland. Although cultivable land is found in almost every lowland, particular concentrations of such land occur in eastern England and eastern Scotland, where precipitation is less than 760 mm per year.

The present pattern of farming in Britain owes much to decisions taken by the Government. During the nineteenth century, Britain became increasingly dependent on imported food. The danger of this situation became particularly evident during the two world wars when the country realized what situation was like as a result of the German blockade. As a consequence it was decided to support agriculture by paying subsidies to farmers which would help them to compete with foreign producers. This meant that food could be sold in shops at prices which did not cover production costs and that the British farmer depended for his profit upon subsidies from the Government. So, British agriculture is protected by an artificial price structure and by taxes imposed on imported food.

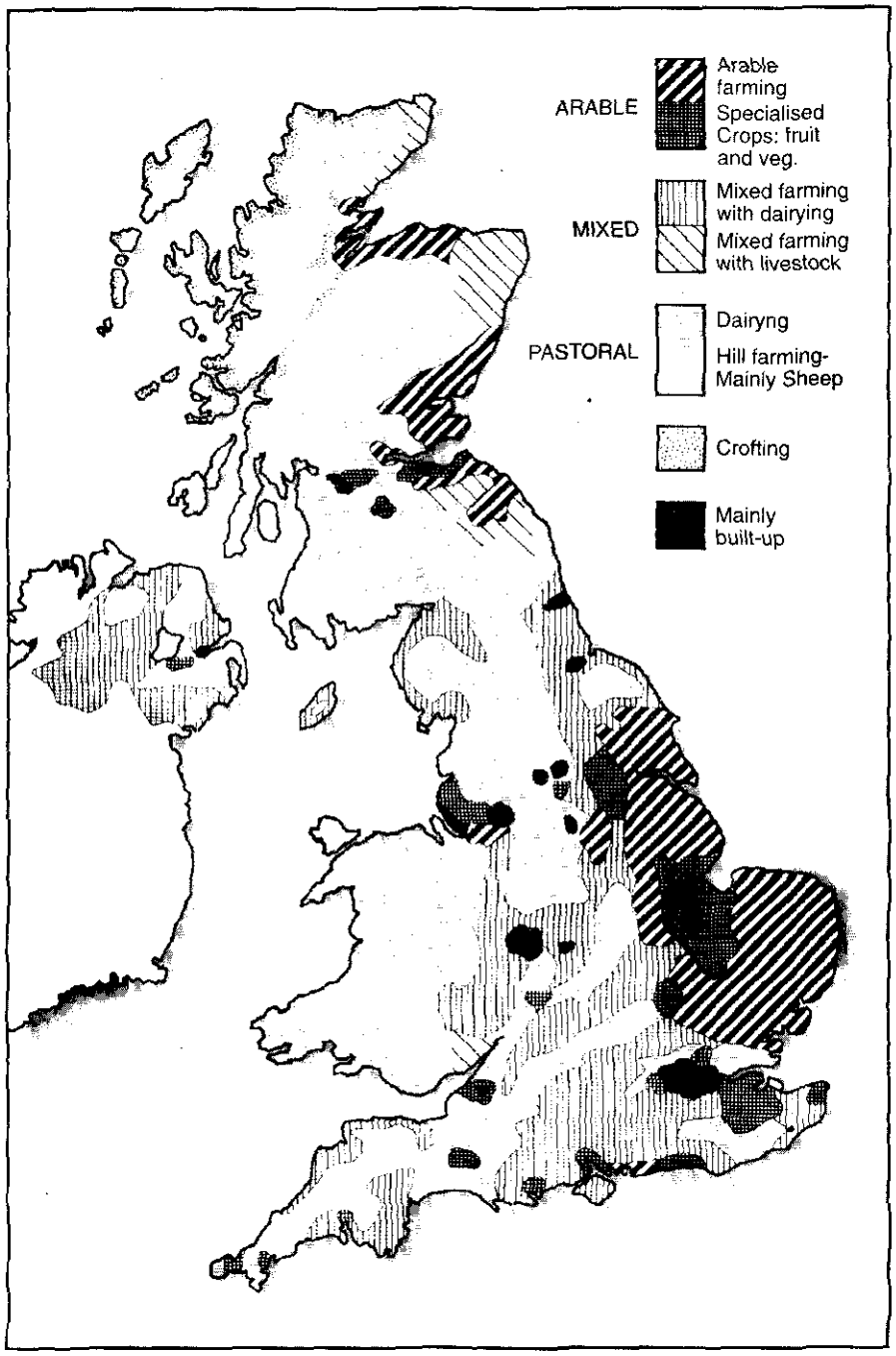
Modern British farming displays two important characteristics. In the first place, it is intensive farming, in other words, no effort is spared to achieve maximum production from the available land. The output of crops per hectare and the quality of the livestock are very high. In the second place, it is mixed farming, in which both crops and livestock play an important part. Only in special areas, such as those devoted to market-gardening or fruit-growing, are activities concentrated upon one particular type of occupation.

The most widespread arable crops grown in Britain together with other minor cereals and root crops are wheat, barley and oats. Climate is the chief factor limiting the successful cultivation of cereal crops, especially of wheat. Therefore the farms devoted mostly to arable crops are found mainly in eastern and southern England and eastern Scotland.

Almost all Britain's WHEAT crop is "winter wheat" which is sown in the autumn. Because of the dampness of the climate it is of the type known as "soft" wheat, in contrast to the "hard" wheat produced in other countries, as the USA or Canada. Since bread made only from soft wheat is of lower quality and slightly grey in colour it is customary to use flour of which about 70 per cent has been made from "hard" imported wheat. Soft wheat, however, is excellent for making biscuits. About one-third of the wheat crop is normally used for flour milling, and about one-third for animal feed.

BARLEY grows best under the same conditions as wheat. It is much more adaptable as far as soil, temperature and rainfall are concerned, and requires a shorter ripening period. That is why areas devoted to barley and wheat roughly coincide, but barley is also grown in cooler, more northerly districts of eastern Scotland and in moister regions in Ireland.

TYPES OF FARMING



Barley is used principally for fodder (40 per cent). But a certain kind of barley with a low nitrogen content is particularly suitable for the production of beer and whisky (15 per cent).

In recent years exports of wheat and barley have increased considerably, accounting for about a quarter of the total production.

Although OATS are more tolerant of poor soils and cool damp conditions the area under this crop is gradually decreasing. This is largely because it is being required less and less to feed horses as mechanisation takes over on the farms. Oats tend to be used in the areas in which they are grown. In England, Wales and Ireland their chief use is as winter feed for cattle. Scotland is one of the few countries in which oats are cultivated for human consumption, to make porridge, oatcakes, etc.

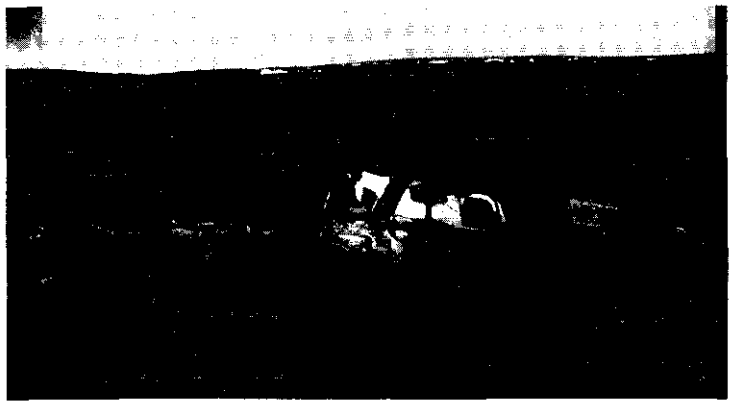
Of root crops cultivated in Britain, most important are potatoes and sugar beet. POTATOES are cultivated throughout the British Isles, but the main areas of production are Cambridgeshire and Lincolnshire in eastern England and in the eastern part of central Scotland. South-west Wales, Kent and south-west England, having a mild winter, are notable for early potatoes. High-grade seed potatoes are grown in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

SUGAR BEET is a root crop which in recent years has assumed considerable importance. Today it provides about 50 per cent of sugar requirements of the country. The best place for growing sugar beet is eastern England, and here for convenience, since it is a bulky crop to transport, most of the sugar-making factories are situated.

MARKET GARDENING may be defined as the intensive production of vegetables and fruit for human consumption. Market gardens specialise in their production. As the name implies, market gardening is strongly influenced by access to markets. This is largely because both fruit and vegetables deteriorate rapidly after packing and must, therefore, be moved to market as quickly as possible. As a result, market gardens have been growing up near to large industrial cities, supplying such industrial areas as Midland England, Lancashire and Yorkshire. Orchards in which fruit-growing is organised on a commercial scale are found principally in the southern half of England, where the climate is most favourable.

Glasshouses are widely used for growing tomatoes, cucumbers, lettuce, flowers, pot plants and nursery stock.

The climate of the British Isles is ideal for CATTLE. Therefore, they are found practically in all areas, particularly in the Midlands and south-west of England, the lowlands of Yorkshire and the coastal areas of Scotland, Wales, the Lake District and Northern Ireland. In contrast, sheep are concentrated in the upland areas of Scotland, Wales, northern and southwestern England and Northern Ireland.



Carrying feed out to the sheep on Lune Moor, Durham

Since British agriculture is highly specialised, cattle serve different purposes in different districts. There are two kinds of cattle: dairy cattle and beef cattle. The need for daily deliveries of fresh milk has given rise to particular concentration of dairy cattle on lowlands close to densely populated areas. Beef cattle are more widely distributed throughout the British Isles than dairy cattle, and rearing extends into upland regions far from urban areas.

SHEEP no longer play such an important part in British agriculture as they did in the past, when there was a steady export of wool to the continent of Europe.

Nowadays they are in general numerous only on land which is unsuitable for other types of farming. Although lamb production is the main source of income for sheep farmers, wool is also important.

Most farmers keep PIGS and POULTRY. Pig production occurs in most areas but is particularly important in northern and eastern England. There exists a high degree of specialisation. Poultry farms are chiefly concerned with the supply of eggs to local markets and the production of poultry meat Britain remains self-sufficient in both. Nowadays the area available for farming is being gradually reduced to meet the needs of housing and industry. However, the loss is outweighed by the increase in output from what remains due to the introduction of up-to-date technology and fertilizers.

Comprehension Check

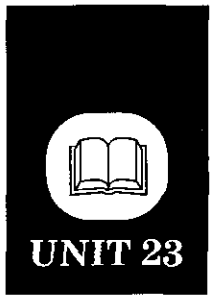
I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. Britain became an industrial and trading nation which _____ to be _____ in foodstuffs.

2. In spite of the fact that the agricultural area of the country is fairly large, only about 2.5 per cent of the working population is _____ in agriculture.
3. It was decided to support agriculture by paying _____ to farmers which would help them to compete with foreign producers.
4. Climate is the chief factor limiting the successful _____ of cereal crops, especially of wheat.
5. Barley is much more adaptable as far as soil, temperature and rainfall are concerned, and requires a shorter _____ period.
6. In recent years exports of wheat and barley have _____ considerably, accounting for about a quarter of the total production.
7. Sugar beet is a root crop which in recent years has _____ considerable importance.
8. As the name implies, market gardening is strongly influenced by _____ to markets.
9. Nowadays sheep are in general numerous only on land which is _____ for other types of farming.
10. Poultry farms are chiefly concerned with the supply of _____ to local markets and the production of _____ .

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Over three-quarters of the land area is used for agriculture, the remainder being
   a) mountain and forest.
   b) grassland and water.
   c) forest and grassland.
2. Britain's agriculture is famous for its high level of
   a) efficiency.
   b) diversity.
   c) productivity.
3. Although cultivable land is found in almost every lowland, particular concentrations of such land occur in
   a) eastern England and eastern Scotland.
   b) western England and western Scotland.
   c) eastern Scotland and northern England.
4. Modern British farming displays two important characteristics:
   a) intensive farming and mixed farming.
   b) extensive farming and mixed farming.
   c) intensive farming and extensive farming.



Food and Meals

The English had long been famous for their appetites, and foreigners, especially those from warmer countries, were astonished at the vast quantities of meat they ate. Even the poor man fed far better than peasants abroad, enjoying his bacon and rabbit when he could not get beef, and only falling back on vegetable broth when times were hard.

In Elizabethan England the main meals were dinner, taken at about 11 o'clock (because the working day started very early, "before five o'clock in the morning" and continued until seven or eight at night, with only half an hour for breakfast and up to one and a half hours for dinner), and the supper. The servants had their dinner at noon.

Although breakfast was not considered a meal, a snack of meat, bread and ale was usual. On the Queen's breakfast table there were chickens, rabbits, mutton, veal and beef, ale and wine, served early in the morning.

At dinner, as much food as possible was put on the table at once, to show the master's wealth. Helpings of mutton, beef, pork and venison, not in slices but in lumps, were followed by fish, game and poultry, and then by elaborate sweets and puddings, often shaped like animals and castles. That was in the past...

What is peculiar about the British food nowadays?

Today the best British food is supposed to be surprisingly regional. It is greatly influenced by local agricultural conditions and depends on geography and climate. For instance, in Scotland, where oats grow better than wheat, local dishes use oatmeal rather than wheat flour. Scottish national dish, porridge, using oats, is eaten only with a pinch of salt.

In Wales, too, oatmeal is the chief cereal, and in both places scones, oatcakes and pancakes are traditionally cooked.

England is famous for the hard cheeses the names of which derive from the rich dairy farming areas, such as Cheddar, Cheshire, Leicester, Derby, etc. Many of them are still made in local farm dairies.

Cheese

Hams also have a regional character and are cured in different ways in Yorkshire, Wiltshire, Cumberland and Suffolk.

Cornwall is famous for meat pies. The pork, veal, ham and egg pies are associated with Midland England. Pigeon and game pies are connected with sporting estates. Steak and kidney pies and puddings are everywhere, but Black Pudding, made from pig's blood, is a speciality of North England. Sausages too, depending on where they are made, are different in flavour.

A characteristic feature of British food is the high quality of the ingredients and the simplicity of the way in which they are used. Fish is usually poached or fried, meat is roasted on a spit over a fire, or boiled. Both are accompanied by traditional sauces.

Parsley sauce accompanies cod, gooseberry sauce goes with mackerel, apple sauce with roast pork, bread sauce with chicken and game, horseradish sauce with beef. Fried fish is served with chips, roast beef with Yorkshire pudding.

Puddings are the most prominent produce of Britain's kitchen. Some of them, like plum pudding, have beef fat as a base and are boiled or steamed, others, like apple pies and fruit tart, for instance, use pastry. Summer puddings and bread puddings are made from stale bread.

The forerunner of today's Christmas pudding was plum porridge. It was made with raisins, currants, plums, breadcrumbs and spices, and was eaten with a spoon. Poorer people were more likely to prepare a simple dish – wheat grains boiled up with milk and sugar.

Alongside with puddings Britain can boast of a wide variety of cakes which are also part of the British tradition. Again they often have a regional emphasis or are connected with special occasions. For instance, Yorkshire Pastry is gingerbread eaten on 5th November to commemorate Guy Fawkes.

The potato, which was brought to England in 1585 by Sir Walter Raleigh, is so popular today that it is eaten, in a variety of ways, at almost every meal. Perhaps, the second most common vegetable is cabbage.

The British people are great liquid milk lovers. Milk consumption per head is almost the highest in the world (over 130 litres a year). But

over the last twenty-five years many of them have changed from full fat to skimmed milk. Figures for skimmed milk went up from almost zero before 1980 to 12 per cent at the beginning of the 1990s.

A special place in the life of the British is occupied by tea. They are the world's greatest tea drinkers. They drink a quarter of all the tea grown in the world each year. Many of them drink it on at least eight different occasions during the day. They drink it at meals and between meals. They even drink early morning tea in bed.

Among stronger traditional drinks in Britain are beer, whisky, gin, wine and cider. Most pubs, besides beer, sell all kinds of alcohol, from whisky to wine. No alcoholic drinks may be served to young people under eighteen, and no children under sixteen are allowed inside the bar.

The six most popular drinks in Britain, in order of priority, are tea, *milk, beer, coffee, soda water and juice.*

The usual meals peculiar to Britain are the English breakfast (early morning), lunch (midday), afternoon tea (4.00-5.00 p.m.) and dinner (7.00-9.00 p.m.); *or, in simpler homes, breakfast, dinner, tea and* supper.

BREAKFAST is generally a bigger meal than they have on the Continent, though some English people like a continental breakfast of rolls and butter and coffee. But the usual English breakfast is porridge or cereals with milk or cream and sugar, bacon and eggs, jam or marmalade with buttered toast, and tea or coffee. For a change one can have a boiled egg, cold ham or fish.

LUNCH is generally eaten about one o'clock. The people usually find it impossible to come home for lunch, and so they go to a cafe or a restaurant. But when at home they have cold meat (left over probably from yesterday's dinner), potatoes, salad and pickles, with a pudding or fruit to follow. Sometimes they may have a mutton chop, or steak and chips, followed by biscuits and cheese. Some people like a glass of light beer with lunch.

AFTERNOON TEA is a sociable sort of thing. It first became popular with the upper and middle classes after the discovery of the Indian plant in Assam in the 1820s and is now a national institution. The classic afternoon tea consists of small sandwiches (the sandwich is also a British invention), bread, butter and jam, scones, sponge cakes, biscuits and sometimes buttered crumpets. In more common families they may serve simply a cup of tea, cake or biscuit. HIGH TEA, on the other hand, is the main meal in Scotland and the north of England. It is eaten at 6 o'clock and includes meat or fish as well as bread and cakes.

DINNER (7.00-9.00 p.m.) is the ordinary evening meal for some *middle-class people. Lower class people call it supper. But when the* latter invite people to a three-course evening meal, and put on their smartest clothes, they usually call the meal dinner. In hotels and *restaurants it is always dinner.*

Dinner usually begins with soup, which is followed by fish, roast chicken, potatoes and vegetables, a sweet, fruit and nuts. Coffee and cigarettes are served in the sitting-room.

SUPPER (9.00-10.00 p.m.) is usually a light snack and may include an omelette or sausages, sometimes bacon and eggs and sometimes just bread and cheese, a cup of coffee or cocoa and fruit.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The English had long been famous for their _____, and foreigners, especially those from warmer countries, were astonished at the vast of _____ meat they ate.
2. In Elizabethan England the main meals were _____ and _____ .
3. Scottish national dish, _____, using oats, is eaten only with a pinch of salt.
4. Hams also have a regional character and are _____ in different ways in Yorkshire, Wiltshire, Cumberland and Suffolk.
5. A characteristic feature of British food is the high quality of the _____ and the simplicity of the way in which they are used.
6. Summer puddings and bread and butter puddings are made from _____ bread.
7. But over the last twenty-five years many of the British people have changed from full fat to _____ milk.
8. Some people like a glass of light _____ with lunch.
9. Afternoon tea is a _____ sort of thing.
10. Dinner usually begins with _____, which is followed by fish, roast chicken, potatoes and vegetables, a sweet, fruit and nuts. Coffee and cigarettes are served in the _____ .

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b, or c).

1. At dinner, as much food as possible was put on the table at once, to show the master's
   a) hospitality.
   b) generosity.
   c) wealth.
2. Today the best British food is supposed to be surprisingly regional. It is greatly influenced by local agricultural conditions and depends on
   a) tradition and custom.
   b) geography and climate.
   c) climate and weather.

3. England is famous for the hard cheeses the names of which derive from the rich dairy farming areas, such as
   a) London, Derby, Rochester, Cheddar.
   b) Cheddar, Cheshire, Leicester, Derby.
   c) Derby, Chester, Kent, Leicester.
4. The forerunner of today's Christmas pudding was
   a) apple porridge.
   b) plum porridge.
   c) oats porridge.
5. A special place in the life of the British is occupied by
   a) beer.
   b) coffee.
   c) tea.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. Even the poor man fed far better than peasants abroad, enjoying his bacon and rabbit when he could not get beef, and only falling back on vegetable broth when times were hard.
2. On the Queen's breakfast table there were chickens, rabbits, mutton, veal and beef, ale and wine, served late in the morning.
3. Pigeon and game pies are connected with sporting estates.
4. Steak and kidney pies and puddings are everywhere, but Black Pudding, made from pig's blood, is a speciality of south England.
5. Alongside with puddings Britain can boast of a wide variety of cakes, which are also part of the British tradition.
6. The British people are the world's greatest coffee drinkers.
7. No alcoholic drinks may be served to young people under eighteen,and no children under sixteen are allowed inside the bar.
8. Breakfast is generally a bigger meal than they have on the Continent, though some English people like a continental breakfast of rolls and butter and tea.
9. Afternoon tea first became popular with the upper and middle classes after the discovery of the Indian plant in Assam in the 1820s and is now a national institution.
10. High tea, on the other hand, is the main meal in Scotland and the south of England.

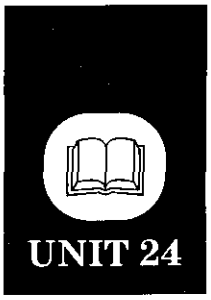
IV. Answer the questions.

1. The English have long been famous for their appetites, haven't they?
2. What were the main meals in Elizabethan England?
3. Describe the food put on the dinner table to show the master's wealth in the past.

4. Why is the best English food supposed to be surprisingly regional today?
5. Is it true that the British are great meat and meat pie eaters?
6. Analyze the place of puddings in the British kitchen. Name some of them.
7. When was the potato brought to Britain?
8. Are the British people great liquid milk lovers? Can you prove it?
9. Give an outline of a special place of tea in the life of the British people.
10. What drinks are served in the pubs? What ages are not served and allowed inside the bar?
11. Describe the usual meals peculiar to Britain (the English breakfast, lunch, afternoon tea, dinner or supper).

V. Points for discussion.

1. Food and meals in the life of the British people.
2. Food and meals in my life.
3. Describe your usual breakfast (dinner, supper) table.



Some National Traits

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

The British are known as a people self-assured, absolutely confident in their national sense of superiority. Although the actual situation of Great Britain in the contemporary world is no longer that of a top nation, it would seem that the implications of this change have not yet penetrated far into British popular consciousness. Deep down the British still feel pretty satisfied with themselves.

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

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

True, for nearly two centuries Britain has undergone changes without serious political and economic violence. Of course, there were the anti-machine riots of the early nineteenth century and a series of strikes. There were some political troubles. But on the whole the process of change has been so orderly that the British cannot be denied a certain reputation for conservatism, which might be listed as another trait of character.

The British are really conservative, they love familiar things in familiar places. They are against any suggestion that some modification of their habits, or the introduction of something new and unknown into their lives, might be to their advantage.

On a national scale their conservatism may be illustrated by the attitude to the monarchy which is held in affection and reverence by nearly all English people. England is full of small-scale and local conservatisms, some of them of highly individual or particular character. Local corporations, universities, schools and societies have their own private traditions. Such groups have customs of their own which they are very reluctant to change. They like to think that their private customs differentiate them, as groups, from the rest of the world.

Self-assurance, willingness to tolerate eccentricity, law-abidingness, a curious mixture of conservatism and enterprise – all these are generalizations which hold reasonably true of all classes of the British people.

The English countryside is many things to many people. Every Englishman is a countryman at heart. Many years he may have lived in the city, but he does not believe he really belongs there. As he looks out of the window of his flat over the vast desert of brick and stone, 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 a garden with beds of flowers.

A delightful cottage garden

The country house is, perhaps, Britain's greatest contribution to European civilization. Perhaps this is because it is in the country that the British are, or like to think that they are, most at home. The village with its church, pub, fishing, cricket, animals, everywhere, especially dogs and horses – all this creates an ideal image of Britain. The village is an essential and much admired part of the rural heritage of England. To many people it is a symbol of "roots" and stability. We should also add to this picture the seaside, a passion for gardening and a love for old customs and traditions.

It was the British who started the fashion for seaside holidays. It is not surprising, since nobody in Britain lives more than one hundred and twenty kilometres from the sea. The coast is the most popular place of English people for their annual holiday. Few English people rent houses or flats for their holidays, but one of the traditional ways of spending a summer holiday is in a boarding-house, which may have a card in its window advertising "apartments", or "bed and breakfast".

Camping holidays in the proper sense of the word, with tents, are not so developed in Britain as on the continent. The summer weather too often can be very unpleasant for tent-dwellers. On the other hand, caravans have become very popular. Some people bring their own caravans, pulling them behind their cars, others hire caravans, already in position. There are holiday camps all round the coast of Great Britain. They are ideal places for people who do not want the effort of looking for entertainment. Trained staff look after the children so that the parents can have time off to enjoy themselves.

There are youth hostels in different parts of Britain. It is possible to arrange a walking or cycling tour, moving from hostel to hostel.

The British people may be conservative about the times they take their holiday, but they have shown themselves very ready to take to new places. Each year more English people go to different parts of continental Europe. Many take their cars, often with tents and caravans, others use the travel agents' scheme for group travel and hotel booking.

Most people in Britain work a five-day week, from Monday to Friday. Schools, colleges and universities are also closed on Saturdays and Sundays. Everyone looks forward to the weekend and when Friday comes along, as people leave work they say to each other: "Have a nice weekend". Then on Monday morning they ask: "Did you have a nice weekend?"

Students, young people working away from home and single people in general like to go away for the weekend. They may go home, go to stay with relatives or friends in different parts of the country, or stay in a hotel or boarding-house in the country or at the sea.

The popular stick dance

Those who stay at home at the weekend try both to relax and to catch up with all the jobs they are too busy to do during the week. For women these include housework, sewing, washing, shopping and sometimes gardening. For men – repairs and other odd jobs in the house, cleaning the car, mowing the lawn and gardening.

Saturday morning is a very busy time for shopping, as this is the only day when people, who are at work can shop for any length of time. On weekdays shops close between 5.30 and 6.00 p.m. and they are closed all day on Sunday.

On Saturday afternoon the most important sporting events of the week take place – football, rugby, horse-racing and other sports. Some people go and watch, others sit and watch the sports programmes on television.

Saturday evening is the favourite time for parties, dances, going to the pictures or the theatre, in fact for "going out" generally. If the weather is fine, people may decide to go out for the day.

On Sunday most people stay in bed for at least one hour longer than usual. And there are many young people who never see the light of day before midday. Church bells are another typical feature of an English Sunday morning, though few people go to morning service.

Sunday is the day when most people are engaged in some fairly light activity such as gardening, washing the car, taking the dog for a walk. Another most popular activity on this day consists of a visit to a pub – either a walk to the local pub, or often nowadays a drive to a more pleasant country pub. Sunday has always been a favourite day for inviting people – friends, relations, colleagues – to afternoon tea, and there are no signs that this custom is losing popularity nowadays.

Some people spend Sunday evening quietly at home, others go to see friends, go to a concert or film, or go out for a drink. The realization that the weekend is nearly over casts a slight melancholy on the evening.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The British are known as a people self-assured, absolutely confident in their national sense of _____ .
2. The British display a very wide _____ of individual differences among themselves, and even among others.
3. For example, it is part of the Englishman's code not to _____ upon his neighbours and their way of doing things.
4. On a national scale their conservatism may be illustrated by the attitude to the monarchy, which is held in _____ and _____ by nearly all English people.
5. They like to think that their private customs _____ them, as groups, from the rest of the world.
6. The village with its church, pub, fishing, cricket, animals everywhere, especially dogs and horses _____ all this creates an ideal of _____ Britain.
7. Some people bring their own _____ pulling them behind their cars, others hire _____, already in position.
8. Students, young people working away from home and single people in general like to go away for the _____ .
9. Saturday morning is a very busy time for _____, as this is the only day when people who are at work can _____ for any length of time.
10. Sunday has always been a favourite day for inviting people _____ friends, relations, colleagues _____ to _____ tea, and there are no signs that this custom is losing popularity nowadays.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Some of the British national traits are resulting from the British
   a) culture.
   b) character.
   c) way of life.
2. The British have some very rigid code of behaviour, notably the
   a) Parliamentary code.
   b) university code.
   c) public-school code.

3. They (the British) are against any suggestion that some modification of their habits, or the introduction of something new and unknown into their lives, might be to their
   a) use.
   b) interest.
   c) advantage.
4. The country house is, perhaps, Britain's greatest contribution to European
   a) culture.
   b) image.
   c) civilization.
5. Few English people rent houses or flats for their holidays, but one of the traditional ways of spending a summer holiday is in a
   a) holiday camp.
   b) boarding-house.
   c) hotel.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

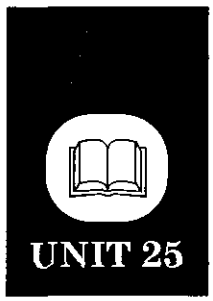
1. Nothing has been more important in British history than the fact that Great Britain is a peninsula.
2. Although the actual situation of Great Britain in the contemporary world is no longer that of a top nation, it would seem that the implications of this change have not penetrated far into British popular consciousness.
3. True, for nearly two centuries Britain has undergone changes with serious political and economic violence.
4. Local corporations, universities, schools and societies have their own private traditions.
5. The village is an essential and much admired part of the rural heritage of England.
6. It was not the British who started the fashion for seaside holidays.
7. Camping holidays in the proper sense of the word, with tents, are not so developed in Britain as on the continent.
8. The British people may be conservative about the times they take their holiday, but they have shown themselves very unready to take to new places.
9. On weekdays shops close between 5.30 and 6.00 p.m. and they are closed all day on Sunday.
10. Church bells are another typical feature of an English Sunday morning, and many people go to morning service.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. What factors contributed to making a distinctive British character?
2. Give some comment on the actual situation of Great Britain in the contemporary world.
3. "The British have some very rigid codes of behaviour". What are these codes?
4. Why are the British considered to be conservative?
5. What is the English countryside to many people?
6. Why do the British people think that it is in the country that they are most at home?
7. Describe the British village.
8. How do the British people spend their holidays?
9. How do the young people spend their weekends?
10. How do the British spend Saturdays and Sundays?

V. Points for discussion.

1. The roots of the British national traits.
2. The British people at the weekend.
3. How do you spend your holidays and weekends?



The Church in Modern Life

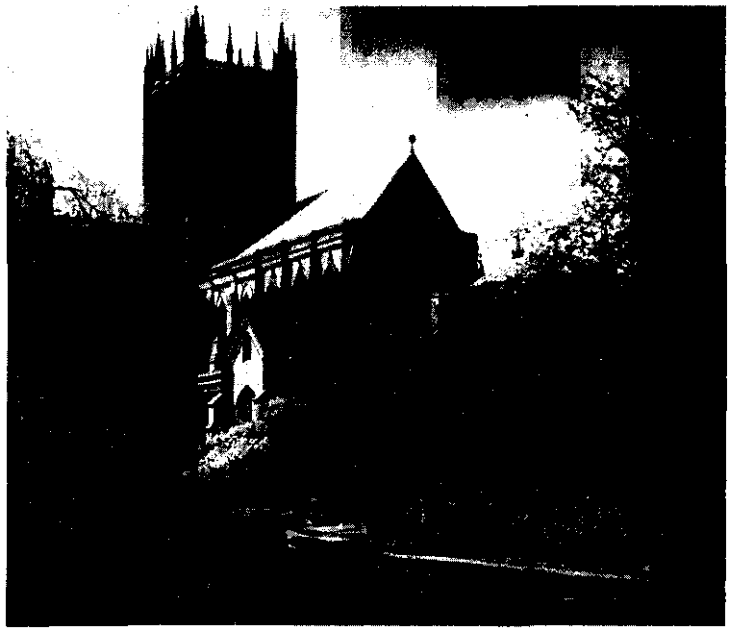
Religion has always played an important part in the national way of life and this is still true today. There is complete religious freedom in the United Kingdom. Churches and religious societies may own property, conduct schools, and propagate their beliefs in speech and writing.

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

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

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

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



Wells Cathedral, Somerset

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

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

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

When James I became King of England in 1603, he began to persecute the Puritans. Some 300 Puritan clergymen were expelled from the Church of England. Many went to prison or left the country. The Puritans could not always agree among themselves either. Many

small Puritan groups formed in England. The Pilgrims who went to the New World belonged to one of them.

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

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

The Church of England has two Archbishops – the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Church's leader, and the Archbishop of York, and the twenty-four senior bishops who sit in the House of Lords. After them come the remaining eighteen bishops.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Men and women are admitted to the priesthood, and each church is governed locally by the Kirk Session, consisting of the priest and the elected elders of the Church. The highest body of the Church of Scotland is the General Assembly, consisting of elected clergy and elders. The adult membership of the Church is about 860,000.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Comprehension Check

I. *Fill in the blanks with the correct words.*

1. Churches and religious societies may own property, conduct schools, and _____ their beliefs in speech and writing.
2. By the 16th century many people had got angry at the richly decorated churches and ceremonies of the _____ Church.
3. But the process of the church reform went on painfully. There was no religious _____ .
4. Catholics and Protestants fought each other and many religious people on both sides died for their _____ .
5. When James I became King of England in 1603, he began to persecute the _____ .
6. England is divided into several dozens of districts, called _____ .
7. In general Britain has the reputation of being an _____ country with poor church-going habits.
8. The Church of Scotland has a presbyterian form of government, that is, government by _____, all of equal rank.
9. Although the Catholic Church feels better than other Christian Churches, even this Church is seeing a _____ in attendance nowadays.
10. Great Britain has a long tradition of religious _____ . Many religious _____ coexist here peacefully.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. As a result of their protesting of widely accepted teachings, Luther, Calvin and other religious reformers soon became known as
   a) Puritans.
   b) Protestants.
   c) Nonconformists.
2. But many English people considered the Church of England too much like
   a) the Church of Rome.
   b) the Catholic Church.
   c) the Protestant Church.
3. The nonconformists wanted to be free to choose their own form of
   a) church service.
   b) church organization and services.
   c) church decoration.

4. The Church has its court whose jurisdiction today extends only to
   a) church attendance.
   b) church discipline.
   c) church property and church discipline.
5. The highest body of the Church of Scotland is
   a) the General Congress.
   b) the General Assembly.
   c) the General Session.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

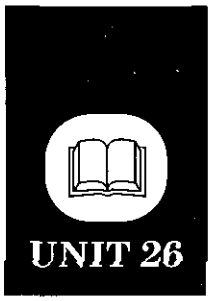
1. Clergy of the established churches work in services which are run by the State, such as the armed forces, national hospitals and prisons, and are paid a salary by the State.
2. For over a thousand years Roman Catholic Christianity had been the religion of most of the world.
3. The Church of England was formed in 1534 by King Henry VIII, who broke away from the Church of Rome and declared himself Head of the Church of England.
4. The Puritans who sailed from Southampton in the "Mayflower" in1620 were the founders of modern America.
5. The Queen of England, on the advice of the Prime Minister, appoints the two archbishops and all the bishops, but the Church receives no money from the State.
6. The central governing body of the Church of England is the General Synod, which is the centre of an administrative system dealing with such matters as education, mission, inter-church relations, social questions, recruitment and training for the clergy, the care of church buildings.
7. To attract young people, some priests have introduced a form of classical music and encouraged young musicians to accompany the prayers.
8. Presbyterianism is a severe form of Protestantism, founded in the 16th century and following the teaching of the great French reformer, Calvin.
9. Both men and women are admitted to the clergy of the Church of Rome.
10. There are Christian communities of foreign origin like the Orthodox, Lutheran and Reformed Churches of various European countries which have their centres of worship.

IV. Answer the questions.

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

V. Points for discussion.

1. The place of the church in the national way of life of a state.
2. "Britain has the reputation of being an irreligious country with poor church-going habits." – Why?
3. Religious communities and religious tolerance in Great Britain.



The British in Their Private Life

Traditionally the British like to live independently in their own houses. No wonder their favourite saying is "My home is my fortress". They do not like to live in flats. In recent years the percentage of people who have their own houses has increased greatly, and more than half of all families in the country live in homes built after 1945. When you buy a house you do not need to have all the money to pay for it. You can make a loan for the house and pay it out over a period of 20 or 25 years.

Basically people live in three types of houses, all depending on your income: in terraced houses, and in detached or semi-detached houses. The older type of housing is the terraced house. These houses, especially in old industrial centres, were arranged in long rows or terraces all standing together and with each house containing its own door, a front room and a back room on each of its two floors, with perhaps a small room above the entrance hall. The other type of house is the detached house standing on its own land and not attached to another building. Such houses are generally more expensive to buy than semi-detached houses, which are houses attached on one side only to another, usually very similar house.

These houses have their tiny front and back gardens and offer the necessary privacy and comfort which every Britisher wants to enjoy. Traditionally they have the dining-room, the living-room for receiving guests and the kitchen on the ground floor, and the bedrooms upstairs. The number of bedrooms, bathrooms and the size of the house depends upon its price. Some houses have large gardens, especially in the countryside. Now that most families have their own cars it isn't difficult to get to work in the industrial centres, and so many people buy houses not only in the suburbs of cities, but also in the countryside

in small old villages, where they can enjoy the fresh air and the quietness of rural life.

Throwing the hammer game

Of course, life in these small places is quite different from life in big cities like London, Birmingham or Manchester. And it is not depressing, as it may seem to some outside visitor from a big industrial centre. Usually the local schools organize evening classes not only for those adults who wish to prepare for examinations leading to professional qualifications. Many people attend classes connected with their hobbies, such as painting, folk-dancing, photography, cake decoration, dog-training, physical training, car maintenance, archaeology, learning foreign languages, gardening and many, many others. Some are most exciting as cave exploration, or handicraft work. With improving living standards more and more people become involved in such activities.

The local churches too play an important role in organizing the life of rural communities, helping the aged people. There are many youth clubs, some but not all of them connected with churches which carry out different social activities. Great numbers of people, especially women, spend much of their free time working together for charity, making clothes or food, or collecting money for the benefit of the various types of people who are in need due to age, or illness, or poor earnings. It is a wonderful sight to see how much is collected and brought to the churches during the traditional autumn harvest festival, or at Christmas. Some of this good work is now co-ordinated with services provided by the local authorities.

The British people have the experience of good organization and they work in various committees to achieve their aims in helping others. Much money is to be collected, and for this purpose they organize different campaigns. For example, during Easter week they may organize a ten miles' walk collecting money from the residents of the rural community. They report in the local press how much is collected and to whom every penny goes. These charity workers may stand in the streets with collecting boxes into which passers-by put money, receiving in exchange little paper "flags" or "flowers" to pin on their coats. Before 11th of November every year, which is known as Remembrance Day when the dead of both world wars are remembered, you will see thousands of people all over the country wearing paper poppy flowers on their coats. Other events are organized such as "bazaars" or "sales of work" with speeches made by people of social importance, such as mayors, bishops, members of parliament. In the

course of these activities people meet their friends and enjoy themselves by doing good to the public.

Public libraries which are supported by the local authorities are very well developed, and everywhere allow people to take books without any payment. The books are kept on open shelves, and the librarians are very helpful to get books from other libraries through the exchange system.

One of the most popular hobbies of the British is gardening, and the people take pride in their gardens. The front gardens may be very small, but the patch of grass is very neatly cut, with flowers and bushes here and there. Every gardener has his or her secrets of decorating the gardens. In every place they have their competitions for the best garden, and every house owner will be very proud to win the cup. Flower shows and vegetable shows, with prizes for the best exhibits, are very popular. For example, the Chelsea Flower Show is the most important flower show in Britain; it is held in May every year in the grounds of Chelsea Hospital (London) and is attended by the Queen.

Dancing and pop music festivals are very popular in the country attracting thousands of young people. For example, the Glastonbury Pop Festival held annually in summer in Somerset (south-west England) is visited by youngsters from all over the country. It continues for more than a week and the police have much work to do to keep order.

The big cities and towns have their night clubs and hotels where an evening's dancing may follow dinner, but such places are rare in the provinces. However, Italian and Chinese restaurants where they serve Italian pizzas and Chinese food are becoming more widespread even in small places.

A very British reality is the fish and chip shop, also known as the chippy, where it is possible to buy a piece of fried fish and chipped potatoes known in many restaurants as French fries. The dish may be taken away, wrapped in paper, or if tables are provided, to be eaten in the shop. Some young people buy the chips alone so as to save money. American influence is becoming more widespread and the Macdonald eateries all around Britain are a vivid indication. Here you can order a big "Mac", that is a hamburger with a Coca-Cola or juice quite cheap.

The pub is another British institution, where alcoholic and non-alcoholic drinks and, usually, snacks or meals are sold. Of course the most popular drink is beer or ale, which is stronger than beer. That is why most pubs are owned by a brewery where beer is made.

The pub is a traditional institution of almost all towns and villages, and is often a place of "character" or even historic interest. It is a very popular place to visit, a kind of a club, where you can rest, talk with friends, listen to music and play games such as darts or billiards, and

enjoy good beer and eating. Darts is a game in which feathered arrows, called darts, are thrown at a board divided into sections with numbers on them. The aim is to score a particular number of points, usually 301 or 501.Many pubs have a darts team which plays matches against teams from other pubs. Most pubs are open twice daily or all day, and many have a garden where food and drink can be taken in summer. Inside the building there may be several bars. Children under 16 are not allowed to come into a pub, although they may sit outside together with their parents in the garden. All pubs have interesting names many of which reflect their long history.

Much social contact takes place in people's homes. On Sunday afternoons many families have friends or relations in for tea. Sometimes people are invited for lunch, or a cocktail party at lunch time. In summer everybody will gather in the garden having informal drinks with sandwiches and moving around talking with whoever you like to. If the weather is bad, or it is cold then the guests gather in the living-room. Dinner parties have a limited number of guests, all depending upon the size of the table. But the general tendency is that these gatherings are becoming very free and easy: you take the food and drinks at a buffet, and move around to talk to as many people as you like, and you may sit wherever you like. Just feel comfortable and at home.

Families who have children often organize children's parties, at which games are organized for quite a lot of children after the tea, which is called by that name although there is usually no tea to drink, only fruit drinks, sandwiches, ice-cream and lots of cakes and fruit. There is very much noise in the house. Music is played all around and many children dance. Some prefer to watch videos or cartoon films. The children have a good time, but after they leave the whole house is turned upside down. However, everybody is happy.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. When you want to buy a house in Britain you can _____ a _____ .
2. The type of house which you choose to live in depends on your _____ .
3. The detached house is a house which is not _____ to another building.
4. Life in small places is not _____ , as it may seem to some outside visitor.
5. Many _____ attend classes in the evenings which are connected with their _____ .

6. Great numbers of people in Britain, especially women, spend much of their free time working together for _____ .
7. Many charity workers on Remembrance Day _____ red paper flowers on the coats of passers-by who put money into charity boxes.
8. A very British reality is the fish and chip shop, also known as the _____ .

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Most pubs are
   a) owned by a brewery where beer is made.
   b) open late into the night.
   c) like big restaurants where you can order anything you like.
2. Darts is a game
   a) which is played on the fields in summer.
   b) in which feathered arrows called darts are thrown at a board.
   c) in which lots of money is lost.
3. Much social contact takes place
   a) during the summer holiday when adults visit each other.
   b) in big cities where the clerks and office workers meet each other at lunch time.
   c) in people's homes on Sundays.
4. Today there is a tendency at parties
   a) to take your seat at the table and stay there all throughout the evening.
   b) to take the food and drinks at a buffet and move around talking to many people.
   c) to have tea and take some small sandwiches from the kitchen table for the rest of the evening.
5. Families who have children
   a) often organize children's parties at which games are organized for quite a lot of children.
   b) usually take the children to the seaside.
   c) organize tea for the guests, and then serve the children.
6. Basically the British like to live
   a) in separate houses of three types.
   b) in flats with all modern conveniences.
   c) near the sea where the air is so clean and fresh.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. In recent years the percentage of people who have their own houses has decreased greatly.

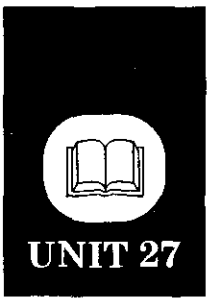
2. Basically people in Britain live in two types of houses: detached and semi-detached.
3. It is difficult nowadays to get to work in the industrial centres from the small villages in the countryside.
4. Local schools organize evening classes only for those who wish to prepare for examinations.
5. The local churches do not play any role in organizing the life of rural communities.
6. The British people have the experience of good organization and they work in various committees to achieve their aims in helping others.
7. Public libraries are not well developed in Britain.
8. The British are quite indifferent to their small gardens where plants grow in disorder.
9. Dancing and pop music festivals are very popular in the north of England, but not in the south.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. What can you buy at the chippy?
2. Is American influence among the eateries becoming more widespread in the U.K.?
3. What is a pub?
4. Can you play games in a pub?
5. Where is darts played?
6. How do many people in Britain spend their Sunday afternoons?
7. Why do dinner parties have a limited number of guests?
8. Is it easy to buy a house in Britain?
9. What is an Englishman's favourite saying?
10. Why do many people in the U.K. prefer to live in the countryside?

V. Do you remember?

1. The three types of houses in Britain.
2. The role of schools in organizing the life of adults.
3. The church in the life of the community.
4. The traditions of charity work in the U.K.



English Gardens and Gardeners

Elizabethan gardens were planned almost as carefully as the house itself. All was neatness with straight walks and flower-beds bordered by tiny hedges of box to form a complicated geometrical pattern known as a "knot". Covered walks, bushes cut in fantastic shapes, fountains and lawns were all arranged with trim accuracy.

Travellers brought new plants from abroad, and the flowers which still remain our favourites today: roses, carnations, violets, lilacs. Many of them were used in making jams, soap and toilet water for the fingers after dinner.

The herb garden was of great importance to the housewife. She used herbs not only for cooking, for medicines and ointments, but also for hanging up in the rooms to sweeten the air. The gardens of some famous herbalists included from 300 to 1,000 different kinds.

In the 16th century British gardeners looked to the continent for inspiration and learned much from the Dutch and Italians in creating formal, departmentalized gardens. Topiary – trimming hedges into formal shapes – came from Italy and was enthusiastically adopted in gardens like Hampton Court and created a fashion still surviving in many gardens. Neat geometrical lawns, parallel lines of trees, a long straight drive and formal statuary – these were some of the characteristics of the classic 17th-century garden. Unfortunately, many of the formal gardens of this period like Wilton and Badminton have gone or changed beyond recognition and they are known only from plans and illustrations.

Britain's greatest contribution to the art of gardening was the 18th-century movement back to nature. From that time until today British gardens have been the most famous in the world. The formal geometric patterns of the Renaissance which had reached their zenith at Versailles, now seemed unattractive to British gardeners and were

rejected. They began to cut down the formal avenues, break up the terraces and search for a kind of gardening that was uniquely English. In their place they made gardens that reflected nature, using only the beauties of the countryside, the contours of the ground, the trees, rivers and lakes, and the contrasts of light and shade that each provided.

The enthusiastic intellectuals and writers, such as Alexander Pope, Horace Walpole, Thomas Gray and others, gave the landscape movement its initial impetus and strong social and economic influences contributed to its success. The wealthy landowners could afford to develop their gardens on a grand scale, creating lakes and forests.

Although the landscape garden was essentially English, it owed something to other lands. There was influence from China, through the paintings on Chinese porcelain that decorated fashionable drawing-rooms. Great influence had also come from French landscape painters, who depicted ideal landscapes with classical temples and statues. The men who made the natural English garden were in constant search for what the English artist William Hogarth called the "wavy line of beauty". So they followed such French painters as Claude and the Poussin brothers. The result was striking: new type of garden design was very much like graphic art. It was a style summed up by Walpole when he wrote of the enthusiasts who made the English landscape: "They leaped the fence and saw that all nature was a garden".

Passion for gardening in Great Britain brought forward many distinguished garden designers. Among them was William Kent, the first of the professional landscape gardeners. He started work as apprentice to a coach builder in Yorkshire. Kent came to London to study art, and then spent four years in Rome where he became influenced by the new French landscape painting school.

William Kent tried to make the gardens more natural by planting dead tree stumps "to give the greater air of truth to the scene". Formal flower-beds were replaced by a lake, temples, ruins and statues to form what he called "landscape pictures". His landscape plan of the grounds can still be seen in Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire. These "landscape pictures", however, were designed for the estates of very rich people, who could afford to pay immense sums of money for such schemes.

Kent's most famous pupil was Lancelot Brown, better known by his nickname "Capability" Brown. It derived from his habit of saying, when looking at the grounds of a future garden, that they had "capabilities" of improvement. He is the most outstanding of all the landscape gardeners of the 18th century. He was originally a gardener, unlike the others. He carried out much of the work planned by William Kent. He began as an independent designer of gardens in 1750, and a few years later a garden designed by Capability Brown was in the forefront of fashion.

Brown's greatest power was probably his management of water, and he created many "natural" lakes. The lake created at Blenheim is considered to be his masterpiece, and Capability Brown himself became nationally known as the "Landscape Architect of England".

The next generation saw a return to more contained styles introduced by Humphry Repton, a talented painter. The name of Repton has became so much a household word by the end of the 18th century that he has the distinction of being mentioned in one of Jane Austen's novels, *Mansfield Park* (1814). He started life as merchant, but had no liking for commerce. His tastes were for painting, poetry and music. The idea of becoming a landscape gardener gave him an opportunity to use his talent for painting.

In his garden designs he retained the wide spaces, but renewed flower-beds and terraces near the house. His changes coincided with renewed interest in individual flowers, trees and shrubs.

More modest gardens sprang up around the smaller country houses of the landowners and the new middle-class people. These gardens also reflected a growing interest in flower-beds. Topiary returned to fashion again. Formal lawns, previously cut with scythes, became suddenly very popular among ordinary gardeners with the invention of Budding's lawn-mower in 1830. Although the task of keeping a garden is so essentially individual, for many people in Britain gardening is the basis of social and competitive relations.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The _____ garden was of great importance to the housewife.
2. In the 16th century British gardeners looked to the _____ for inspiration and learned much from the Dutch and Italians in creating formal, _____ gardens.
3. Unfortunately, many of the formal gardens of this period like Wilton and Badminton have gone or changed beyond _____ and they are known only from plans and illustrations.
4. Although the _____ garden was essentially English, it owed something to other lands.
5. Great influence had also come from French landscape painters, who depicted ideal landscapes with classical _____ and _____ .
6. William Kent started work as _____ to a coach builder in Yorkshire.
7. The lake created at Blenheim is considered to be his _____, and Capability Brown himself became nationally known as the "Landscape Architect of England".

8. The name of Repton became so much a household word by the end of the 18th century that he has the _____ of being mentioned in one of Jane Austen's novels, *Mansfield Park* (1814).

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Covered walks, bushes cut in fantastic shapes, fountains and lawns were all arranged with
   a) great care. b) exclusive taste. c) trim accuracy.
2. There was influence from China, through the paintings on Chinese porcelain that decorated fashionable
   a) country houses. b) drawing-rooms. c) living-rooms.
3. The result was striking: new type of garden design was very much like
   a) abstract art. b) fine art. c) graphic art.
4. Kent's most famous pupil was Lancelot Brown, better known by his nickname
   a) "Ability" Brown.
   b) "Possibility" Brown.
   c) "Capability" Brown.
5. Brown's greatest power was probably his management of water, and he created many "natural"
   a) rivers. b) lakes. c) canals.
6. In his garden designs Repton retained the wide spaces, but renewed
   a) flower-beds and terraces near the house.
   b) terraces. c) topiary.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. All was neatness, with straight walks and flower-beds bordered by tiny hedges of box to form a complicated geometrical pattern known as a "knot".
2. Topiary – trimming hedges into formal shapes – came from Holland and was enthusiastically adopted in gardens like Hampton Court and created a fashion still surviving in many gardens.
3. Britain's greatest contribution to the art of gardening was the 18th-century movement back to nature.
4. Kent came to London to study gardening, and then spent four years in Paris where he became influenced by the new French landscape painting school.
5. Formal flower-beds have been replaced by a lake, temples, ruins and statues to form what Kent called "landscape pictures".

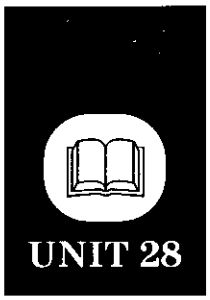
6. These "landscape pictures", however, were designed for the estates of ordinary people, who could afford to pay for such schemes.
7. He began as an independent designer of gardens in 1750, and a few years later a garden designed by Capability Brown was in the forefront of fashion.
8. Repton's tastes were for painting, poetry and music. The idea of becoming a painter gave him an opportunity to use his talent for landscape gardening.
9. More modest gardens sprang up around the smaller country houses of the landowners and the new middle-class people.
10. Although the task of keeping a garden is so essentially individual, for many people in Britain gardening is the basis of social and competitive relations.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. How were Elizabethan gardens planned?
2. Describe the importance of the herb garden.
3. Give an outline of British gardens in the 16th century.
4. Examine Britain's greatest contribution to the art of gardening in the18th century.
5. Who were the enthusiastic intellectuals and writers, who gave the landscape movement its initial impetus?
6. What countries influenced the development of the English landscape garden?
7. Why is William Kent regarded as one of the most distinguished garden designers?
8. Give an account of the work of the most outstanding landscape gardener of the 18th century Capability Brown.
9. Examine the contribution of Humphry Repton to landscape gardening and his style in garden designs.
10. Comment on the importance of the invention of Budding's lawn-mower.

V. Points for discussion.

1. Who contributed to the creation of the English landscape garden?
2. What makes the landscape garden essentially English?
3. What did Walpole mean when he wrote of the enthusiasts who made the English landscape: "They leaped the fence and saw that all nature was a garden?"



UNIT 28

Leisure and Sports

The attitude to leisure has been much influenced by the great love of the British of moving around and by the ease of travel. Industrial and professional workers have their annual holiday with pay, and so they can spend it as they like. Factory holidays are much concentrated in the period between mid-July and mid-August. Many people who have schoolchildren usually take their holiday also in summer, because British schools usually have only six weeks off in summer, from about mid-July to the end of August.

The coast is the most popular place where the British spend their annual holiday, and seaside resorts have many hotels. Food in British hotels and restaurants is quite cheap, but rooms are not. Few British people rent houses or flats for their holidays, but one of the traditional ways of spending a summer holiday is in a boarding-house, which may have a card in its window advertising "apartments" or "bed and breakfast".

In seaside towns there are whole streets of houses almost every one of which has such a notice in its window. Some boarding-houses provide all meals for their guests, others provide breakfast only. There are also lots of so-called holiday camps at the sea. Their name is misleading, because they are really holiday towns or villages. They consist usually of great numbers of small, very comfortable homes, rather like those of a motel , together with central dining halls, dance halls, swimming-pools, lots of attractions, shops, parking for cars – everything a family would need during a holiday.

Camping holidays in the proper sense of the word, with tents, are not so well developed in Britain as in France; the summer weather too often can be very unpleasant for tent-dwellers. On the other hand, caravans have become very popular. Some people bring their own caravans, pulling them behind their cars, others hire caravans, already in position. Very few British people have summer houses, of the type so

A cricket team at rest

popular in Scandinavia, or of dachas so popular in Belarus, or Russia, to visit for holidays and weekends. A caravan, pulled by the family car, can provide good opportunities for holiday making.

The British love to take to new places. Many take their cars together with their tents and caravans and cross the Channel in ferries to get to some distant spot on the French, or Spanish coast to enjoy the sun and the warm waters of the sea. Some, when they are away, have problems with the local shops, especially those which sell handicraft. The British tourists lose much energy, thinking what to buy, struggling to convert the prices into English pounds and pence. When they get home again they can talk endlessly of their purchases and complain of what they were asked to pay for cups of tea or glasses of wine.

The British are great lovers of competitive sports. When they do not play or watch games they like to talk about them, and when they cannot do that they think about them. The game that is especially connected with England is cricket. Many other games too are English in origin; they have become popular in other countries, but cricket has become popular only in some countries like Australia, India, South Africa and the West Indies. So cricket continues to be a game which expresses the British spirit.

Organized amateur cricket is played between club teams mainly on Saturday afternoons. Nearly every village, except in the far north, has its cricket club. A first-class match, as played between English counties, lasts for up to three days, with six hours' play on each day. The game is thus indeed slow, and a spectator, sitting in the afternoon sun after his lunch of sandwiches and beer, may even have a little sleep for half an hour. The game is played between two teams, each of 11 people. They play on a grass field at the centre of which is the pitch (playing zone). The aim is for one team (the batsmen) to win a large number of runs by hitting the ball with a bat bowled (thrown) to them by the other team in the field (the fielders). The fielders try to send the batsmen out of the game as quickly as possible, for example, by catching a ball hit by a batsman before it touches the ground.

However, for the great mass of the British public the eight months of the football season are more important than the four months of cricket. There are plenty of amateur football (or soccer) clubs, but professional football is big business. Every large town has at least one professional football club. The players may not personally have any personal connections with the town for whose team they play. They are bought and sold with their agreement between the clubs.

Money has invaded the world of football through the football pools, which are a big system of betting on the results of these games. English league football is organized in four Divisions with 22 or 24 teams in each. Besides the League games there is also a knock-out contest each season for the Football Association Cup, and the Cup Final, which is played in May each year in London. This is, of course, the greatest event of the season.

Rugby football (or rugger) is played with an egg-shaped ball, which may be carried and thrown (but not forward). If a player is carrying the ball he may be tackled or attacked and made to fall down. Each team has 15 players, who spend much time lying in the mud or on top of each other and become very dirty, but they do not need to wear such protective clothing as men playing American football who look like ice-hockey players.

Rugby is a game very popular at the schools where they have good playing fields for that. Boys normally play rugger or soccer in winter and cricket in summer. Grass hockey is also widely played at schools by boys and girls. Schoolgirls like to play tennis.

In recent years rugby has become very popular among adults and this was quite obvious especially during the World rugby championship when England won the World Cup in the final match against Australia in 2003. The English team was greeted by thousands of fans in London, and the Queen welcomed the victors at Buckingham Palace.

England won the World Cup at the world rugby Championship

Golf and tennis are played by great numbers of people. Golf courses are meeting places of people of different social background. There are plenty of tennis clubs, but every town provides numerous tennis courts in public parks, and anyone may play tennis on a court for a small payment. The greatest event in tennis is the Wimbledon international tennis championship held near London. The ancient game of bowls is played

mainly by middle-aged people. In the game a heavy wooden ball (bowl) is rolled over a smooth lawn (bowling green) in such a way that it stops as close as possible to a small white ball (jack). The game has from two to eight players, each bowling two or more bowls. The game may be played indoors in specially built halls.

Another popular spectator sport in British life is horse racing. There are many race tracks all over the country, and each of these has from two to about six "meetings" every year, with each meeting consisting of two, three or four days of racing. There are totalisators at the race-courses, but bookmakers are also allowed to take the bets of the spectators.

When there are races people all over the country bet on the results. A famous race-course is located near Epsom, where a popular annual horse race is held. The event is named after the Earl of Derby who first organized such a race in 1780. The Derby Cup usually attracts rich and well-to-do people because the tickets are very expensive. Such people also "show off" in their best clothes. For an ordinary working man a visit to horse races may be quite a rare thing, though he may make bets on most days of the week. However, he can easily go to dog races if he wants to. In nearly every town there is at least one greyhound racing track, on which races are held on Saturday afternoons and on several evenings a week after working hours. There are 89 tracks in Britain. The dogs race round a track after an electric "hare", which is really a trolley carrying a piece of meat. Bets are placed on the dogs.

Another popular game is bingo or lotto, which is usually played in halls or former cinemas. Players buy cards with rows of numbers and cross off the numbers as they are called out by a special announcer. The winner is the first player to cross out all the numbers on his or her card. Today it is also possible to play bingo by filling in cards which are published in the newspapers.

Athletic sports and gymnastics are practised at school. Jogging is becoming more popular today, but still it isn't as popular as in the United States or Canada. The same may be said about bicycle racing. On the other hand, rowing, in fours and eights, occupies a leading place in the sporting life of schools and universities which have suitable water nearby, and several regattas held mainly in summer are watched from the river banks by large crowds of spectators. Among these is the Henley Royal Regatta held every year in late June and early July on the river Thames at Henley near Oxford.

When the British people use the word hunting they usually mean fox-hunting which is a popular sport among the rich. Specially trained hounds are brought to the "meet" where the hunt starts. The horses too are brought in vans. The riders usually wearing "pink" (that is, red coats) make a very colourful sight. Having received permission from the local farmers the hunt for the fox starts. There are many people who consider fox-hunting to be cruel. They take action to prevent the hunt,

and this leads to clashes between the supporters and those opposed to this sport. In 2004 the government took action to ban this sport.

Americans use the word "hunting" to include the shooting of birds, but the British do not. The shooting season in Britain starts in August in the north of England and in Scotland. Once again this is the sport of the rich, as well as the fishing of salmon and trout in some of the rivers of Scotland and Wales for which you have to pay much. All around the coasts there is sea-fishing, mainly from piers and from boats, and in inland waters there is coarse fishing (catching the ordinary fish well known in our country) with many competitions.

Britain was the first home of many of the modern world's most popular sports. However, the British cannot claim to be the best, even in these sports. The British pay much attention to the "sporting spirit", which means to play with respect for the rules and the opponents, to win a competition with modesty and to lose with good temper. They apply this sportsmanship not only to sports, but to a person's behaviour in everyday life.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The attitude to _____ has been much influenced by the great love of the British of moving around and by the ease of travel.
2. Few British people rent houses or flats for their holidays, but one of the traditional ways of spending a summer holiday is in a _____ .
3. The names of many holiday camps at the sea are _____, because they are really holiday towns or villages.
4. Camping holidays with tents are not so well developed in Britain because of the changeable weather when _____ feel very uncomfortable.
5. Some British tourists have problems with the local shops in foreign countries, especially those which sell _____ .
6. The football pools are a big system of _____ on the results of football matches.
7. Rugby football is played with an _____ _____, which may be carried and thrown.
8. There are totalisators at the race-courses, but _____ are also allowed to take the _____ of the spectators.
9. In nearly every town there is at least one _____ _____ track, on which dogs race after an electric "hare".
10. When the British people use the word "hunting" they usually mean _____ .

II. Complète the sentences wîth the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Factory holidays are much concentrated in the period
   a) from the 25th of December and 2nd of January.
   b) in spring during the Easter festival.
   c) between mid-July and mid-August.
2. The British usually spend their annual holiday
   a) in the forests of Scotland where it is cool and the air is so fresh.
   b) on the coast where there are many seaside resorts and hôtels.
   c) far away from Britain in Miami in the U.S.A., or in Indonesia.
3. The game that is especially connected with England is
   a) cricket. b) basketball. c) ice-hockey.
4. For the great mass of the British people the eight months of
   a) lawn tennis are more important than the four months of ice-hockey.
   b) football playing are more important than the four months of cricket.
   c) fishing are most popular starting in early October.
5. English league football is organized
   a) in two Divisions with 12 teams in each.
   b) in four Divisions with 22 or 24 teams in each.
   c) in every school and university of the country.
6. Each team in rugby football or rugger
   a) has 15 players who spend much time trying to seize the egg-shaped bail,
   b) has 12 players who wear such protective clothing as men playing American football.
   c) plays inside sports halls where there are spécial facilities for the game to be played.
7. Golf and tennis are played by
   a) very few people because payment is high.
   b) children at schools after classes.
   c) great numbers of people at excellent **golf courses and** tennis courts.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. Another popular spectator sport in British life is coarse fishing.
2. A famous race-course is located near Edinburgh, where a popular annual horse race is held called the Derby Cup.
3. An ordinary working man can easily go to horse races if he wants to.

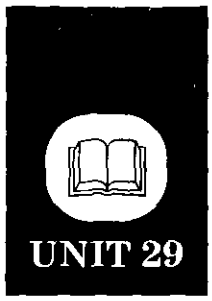
4. Bingo is a popular British game which is usually played outside on green lawns.
5. Rowing in fours and eights occupies a leading place in the sporting life of the British army.
6. In the game of bowling a wooden ball is thrown over a net as in volleyball.
7. Americans use the word "hunting" to include only the shooting of foxes.
8. The British do not pay much attention to the "sporting spirit".
9. You don't need to pay much money for fishing the salmon or trout in Scotland and Wales.
10. Sea-fishing is the sport of the rich.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Why do many British spend their annual holiday on the coast?
2. What are holiday camps?
3. Are caravans very popular in Britain? Why?
4. Do many British people have summer houses or dachas?
5. Where do many British people like to go abroad?
6. Are the British great lovers of competitive sports? Prove it.
7. In what countries has cricket become popular?
8. What games are popular at British schools?
9. Why is tennis popular in Britain?
10. Is horse-racing a popular spectator sport in British life?

V. Points for discussion.

1. Cricket is a game which expresses the British spirit.
2. Football – the game of the great mass of the British public.
3. The British "sporting spirit".



UNIT 29

King Arthur

Everybody in Britain knows something about King Arthur and his knights. Many poems were written about them in the Middle Ages and later.

King Arthur was well-known then in Britain and in other parts of Europe. In recent years King Arthur continues to be quite popular, and there have been poems, paintings, novels, television films and even a musical film called "Camelot" about him. Even a Walt Disney cartoon. "The Sword in the Stone", was produced about this famous king. He is a symbol of strength, courage and goodness.

But who was King Arthur and why is he still so popular?

It is quite strange, but nobody knows exactly who he was. There are many legends about him and very few facts. However, recently the work of archaeologists and historians has given new facts.

According to legend King Arthur ruled from his castle in Camelot, with his beautiful queen, Guinevere. His close friend was an old magician named Merlin. Arthur was a good king, and his reign was a time of peace and goodness for the people. Arthur had a hundred knights with him at his court at Camelot. These knights were chosen by him for their goodness and bravery.

When Arthur and his knights met together, they sat at a round table so that no man should feel that he was more important than the others. The knights quite often went on adventures, which took them far away. During the adventures the knights showed how brave they were, and how loyal they were to Arthur. In many of the adventures the knights tried to find the Holy Grail. According to legend this was the cup from which Jesus Christ drank at the Last Supper. It was believed that Joseph of Arimathea, who was the uncle of the Virgin Mary and who buried Jesus after his death, had brought the cup to Britain, but then it was lost. It was also believed that if the cup could be found, it could bring Christ's kindness to the lives of men.

But the Grail was never found. King Arthur was finally defeated in a great battle. His enemies used Black Magic against him. After the battle, Arthur was taken to the magic island of Avalon to heal his wounds. Today this place is known as Glastonbury. At the time of Arthur, the land around Glastonbury was a lake, and Avalon was an island. According to legend Joseph of Arimathea brought the Holy Grail to Glastonbury when he came to Britain. He built the first British church on the site where Glastonbury Abbey now stands. Once it was the largest church in England, but in the 16th century it was destroyed on the order of King Henry VIII when he started his attacks against the Catholic Church. Though today you can only see the ruins of this great cathedral, thousands of people come to this place all round the year, because it is a place of pilgrimage. Every summer great musical festivals are held here. Among the ruins of Glastonbury you can also see the legendary grave of King Arthur and his wife Guinevere. Many stories say that Arthur did not die on the island of Avalon. They say that he is only asleep and he will wake again when Britain needs him.

Real King Arthur

There are also many stories about Arthur's knights – Launcelot, Gawain, Perceval and others, about the famous sword Excalibur, which Arthur drew out of a stone. The stories of King Arthur and his knights of the Round Table are full of heroic deeds, adventure, love, hate, magic.

The destruction of Glastonbury Cathedral reflected a great quarrel between King Henry VIII and the Pope of Rome. In 1525 Henry VIII decided to divorce his queen, Catherine of Aragon, because she had only given him a daughter, and Henry wanted a son. He fell in love with Anne Boleyn who was younger, but when Henry asked the Pope for permission to divorce Catherine, he refused. Henry became so angry with the Pope that he ended all contact between England and Rome, divorced Catherine without the Pope's permission and married Anne Boleyn. In 1534 Parliament made Henry head of the Church of England. This was the beginning of the Anglican Church. Henry VIII started a real war against the Catholic Church in England, ordering Catholic churches and monasteries to be destroyed. It was then that Glastonbury Abbey was destroyed.

Glastonbury is only 30 kilometres from Cadbury, where Arthur's Castle, Camelot, was believed to be situated, and where today the tasty chocolate sweets are made at the famous chocolate factory.

Some years ago archaeologists began to dig at Cadbury Hill. The old people in the area called the hill "King Arthur's Palace". Digging deeper into the hill the archaeologists found that Cadbury had been a hill-fort. There were many of these hill-forts all over south and west England before the Romans came. When the Romans left Britain, the forts were used again by the Britons. The archaeological findings show that a great leader, who lived at the time of Arthur, did in fact have a fort on Cadbury Hill. Weapons were found, showing that Cadbury was an important military base. Coins, golden objects, pottery show that it was also an important centre of trade. Of course, the real castle of Camelot was not so rich and grand as the Camelot which is described in different stories, or shown in films. But the many tourists who visit this place, especially in summer, enjoy themselves listening to the stories of the guides and taking pictures of the famous place. Most of the people believe that King Arthur and his brave knights lived here. If you visit Cadbury or Glastonbury some day, you will also come to think that these stories are true. Why not?

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. The story of King Arthur and his _____ is well-known to every child in Britain.
2. King Arthur is believed to have lived in a _____ near Cadbury.
3. The name of King Arthur's queen is _____ .
4. Arthur had a hundred knights with him at his court at _____ .
5. Merlin was an old _____ at the court of King Arthur.
6. Thousands of people visit the ruins of Glastonbury Abbey because it is a place of _____ .
7. Arthur was brought to the island of Avalon to _____ his wounds.
8. According to legend only Arthur could draw the magic _____ out of a stone.
9. Most children enjoy the Walt Disney _____ _____ about King Arthur and his knights.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. King Arthur continues to be quite popular today because
   a) he fought against the Romans.
   b) he is a symbol of strength, courage and goodness.
   c) he tried to find the Holy Grail.

2. According to legend King Arthur **ruled**
   a) from the castle in Camelot.
   b) England in the 15th century.
   c) together with his beautiful queen, Guinevere, in Glastonbury.
3. When Arthur and his knights met together, they sat at a round table
   a) because it was easier for them to address each other when they discussed their problems.
   b) to have their meals together.
   c) so that no man should feel that he was more important than the others.
4. According to legend the Holy Grail was the cup
   a) which Jesus Christ brought to Jerusalem when he entered the city.
   b) from which Jesus Christ drank at the Last Supper.
   c) which was lost in Jerusalem after the death of Jesus Christ.
5. We know from many ancient stories that Avalon was
   a) an island located in a big lake near Glastonbury.
   b) a large castle where Arthur had his court.
   c) a big town where the knights of King Arthur lived.
6. Glastonbury is a place of pilgrimage because
   a) here you can see the ruins of the largest cathedral in Britain.
   b) King Arthur is believed to be buried here together with his queen.
   c) it is a sacred place connected with the Holy Grail.
7. When archaeologists dug at Cadbury Hill
   a) they found many objects which proved that once there was an ancient castle at this site.
   b) they found nothing of interest.
   c) they knew nothing about King Arthur and his knights.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. King Arthur is believed to have been killed at Glastonbury.
2. Today Avalon is a big island surrounded by a large lake.
3. Cadbury is famous also because of its large park of attractions.
4. Glastonbury Cathedral was destroyed by the Romans when they occupied the country.
5. Glastonbury is quite popular among young people because musical festivals are held here every year.
6. According to legend Joseph of Arimathea brought the Holy Grail to Cadbury.

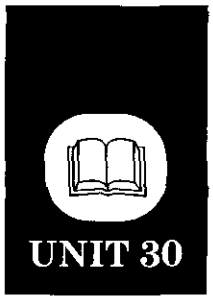
7. Launcelot, Perceval were Arthur's great enemies.
8. The knights of King Arthur took part in many adventures because they hoped to find the Holy Grail.
9. According to legend the knight who found the Holy Grail would become very rich.
10. King Arthur and queen Guinevere are buried on Cadbury Hill.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. When were the poems about King Arthur written?
2. What is the title of Walt Disney's cartoon film about King Arthur?
3. Was Arthur's reign a time of peace in England?
4. How many knights did Arthur have at his court?
5. For what did Arthur choose the knights to his court?
6. How did Arthur's enemies defeat the king?,
7. Why was Arthur taken to the magic island of Avalon?
8. Who destroyed Glastonbury Abbey? Why?
9. What is Cadbury famous for?
10. Did the archaeologists find anything of interest at Cadbury Hill?

V. Do you remember?

1. What was Merlin famous for?
2. What do you know about Joseph of Arimathea?
3. Why do many people visit Glastonbury?
4. Why is King Arthur's sword so famous?
5. What hill is called by old people "King Arthur's Palace"?



"My Bonnie Lies Over the Ocean..."

My Bonnie lies over the ocean,
My Bonnie lies over the sea,
My Bonnie lies over the ocean,
Oh bring back my Bonnie to me.
Chorus: Bring back, bring back,
Bring back my Bonnie to me, to me.

This song is very famous and is known all over the world. It reflects the sad story of Prince Charles Edward Stuart, and he was known as Bonnie Prince Charlie because he was young and handsome ("bonnie" means "good-looking"). His name is closely connected with the time of the Jacobite revolts when Scotland fought her last battle against the English. Jacobites were supporters of King James II of Scotland and England who wanted to preserve Scotland's independence (from the Latin "Jacobus" – James).

In 1707 a special treaty united England and Scotland, but many people who lived in the Highlands (the Highlanders) and Western Isles were against it. They wanted to keep their way of life, their traditions, their clans which were big families ruled by powerful chiefs.

The clans had the tradition of wearing tartans or coloured checks of wool, and this tradition was practised up to 1745 when the English forbade it. Later the Scots won the right to wear tartans again, which is continued to this very day. At the beginning the tartan was worn as a single piece of cloth thrown over the shoulders. The kilt or woollen skirt made of tartan began to be worn by men only at the beginning of the 18th century. Today the kilt is worn both by civilians in Scotland, and by soldiers of the Scottish Highland Regiment. The traditional costume of a Highlander also includes a sporran which is a large leather or fur pouch (bag) worn in front of the kilt. Each clan had its own tartan. Tartans today are very popular.

You can see the full military costume of a Highlander soldier at a military parade, called in Scottish as the tattoo, in Edinburgh every

Bonnie Prince Charlie

August and September during the International Musical Festival. The tattoo takes place near the castle on the Rock (or mountain) overlooking the city. Since the performance is held under floodlights in the evening it becomes a very exciting scene. The soldiers also blow the bagpipes which are traditional musical instruments of the Scots. The name tattoo has an interesting origin. The soldiers were to return to their units each night by a beat of the drum which sounded like "tat-too". The Scots did not want to give up these ancient traditions.

In 1688 James II, the last of the Stuart kings, was driven off the throne of England. He had many supporters. His son James Edward (called "The Old Pretender") tried to get back the throne in 1715, but failed. The most important attempt was made by James II's grandson, Charles Edward, known as "Bonnie Prince Charlie" to the Scots, or "the Young Pretender" to the English. This was in 1745. Charlie spent twenty years in Italy preparing to win back the throne and then he returned to Scotland. The Highlanders were very proud that he still spoke Gaelic, and wore the traditional tartan kilt. Charlie was a really romantic prince. He was only twenty-five when he landed in the Western Isles of Scotland, handsome, tall and brave and adventurous. England was at war with France at the time, and so the French helped him to get to Scotland on a French warship. Though the English guarded the coast Charlie managed to land in the Western Isles.

The news spread quickly throughout Scotland and Charlie moved from the island where he had landed with six followers to Glennfinnan. Today a monument in the form of a tower marks the spot. Quite soon many Highlanders came to his support. The king of England, George II, offered 30,000 pounds sterling to anyone who could capture Charles. Charles also published a notice offering the same sum of money to anyone who could capture the ruler of England.

With 2,500 men, Charles marched south taking the towns of Perth, Stirling. The Highlanders easily took the capital of Scotland, Edinburgh, and for a few weeks Charles established his court at Holyrood Palace, the ancient home of the Scottish kings. There, on 17th September 1745, his father was proclaimed king of Scotland and England. Four days later the Scots defeated the English army at Prestopans. And then the invasion of England began. By 1st of November Charlie had led his men as far south as Derby in England.

There was panic in London and a ship stood ready to take George II to Germany. However, at this critical moment Charlie decided not to advance, but to return to Scotland, which was a big mistake. It is true that Charlie wanted to advance on London, but practically all his followers were against this decision. Not many Jacobite supporters joined his army in England. Three hundred men from Manchester was in fact all the support he got, and many of the followers who came first had gone back home. So Charlie and his Highlanders returned to Scotland on 21st December and defeated another English army at Falkirk in January 1746.

By April of that year, the commander of the English army, the Duke of Cumberland, had built up a large army of 9,000 men from England and Europe. On 16th April 1746 the English army met Charlie's force of 5,000 tired and hungry men in the wind and the rain at a place known as Culloden. There was a terrible and bloody battle.

The Highlanders fought fiercely against the well-trained and well-armed army of the English redcoats (called so because of the red uniform). After each wave of attack hundreds of brave Scots lay on the field killed by bullets or cannon fire. Having beaten off the attacks the English army started its advance. The clans were beaten back. Prince Charles saw that the battle was lost, and he rode away leaving behind 1,200 dead on the field. But the redcoats continued to hunt down those who had escaped from the battle, and they showed little mercy to those clansmen who were captured. Thus the battle at Culloden was a great tragedy for the Scots.

Prince Charlie had to hide from the English who were looking for him everywhere. Much money was offered to anyone who would capture the Prince dead or alive. But the proud Scots never betrayed the Prince, though they were very poor. His loyal friends hid him in the mountains for about five months. Finally a very noble lady, whose name was Flora Macdonald helped him make his final escape to France. Prince Charlie was dressed as her servant-girl, and taken in a boat to the Island of Skye in the north-west where a ship was waiting to take him to France. Flora was arrested and taken to the Tower of London, but later in 1747 she was pardoned and returned to Scotland.

Bonnie Prince Charlie dreamed all his life to return to Scotland, and some 20 years later he tried to win his cause but failed again. He died in old age all alone in Italy. But his romantic legend remains alive in Scotland to this very day. The Scots continue to sing many songs about those exciting times. If you visit Scotland you may see a whole exhibition about Prince Bonnie in Edinburgh: his portraits, letters, clothes that he wore, his sword, a piece of his hair. And at Culloden you can still see the little stones that mark the men of the clans who were killed on that tragic day: "Clan Mackintosh", "Clan Cameron". The bravest of the brave died for the freedom of their land!

After the revolt of 1745 the Highlanders were forbidden to carry weapons, to speak their native language, Gaelic, or even wear their

tartan cloth. Much of their land was confiscated by the English government and sold. Many Scots were forced to leave their country and emigrate to America, Canada and other lands. Some even went as far as to Russia. But wherever they live they always remember their home country, and are proud of their clans, their tartans, their ballads and songs:

Bonnie Charlie's now awa'[1]
Safely o'er[2] the friendly main[3]
Many a heart will break in twa[4].
Should he ne'er[5] come back again.

[1] awa' = away
[2] o'er = over
[3] main = sea
[4] twa = two
[5] ne'er = never

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. In 1707 a special _____ united England and Scotland.
2. The clans had the tradition of wearing coloured _____
3. The _____ or woollen skirt is worn by men in Scotland.
4. You can see a Highlander soldier in full uniform at a _____ in Edinburgh.
5. The Scottish soldiers also blow the _____ during the military parades.
6. "Bonnie Prince Charlie" is known as "The Young _____", because he claimed the throne.
7. Charlie published a _____ offering a large sum of money to anyone who could capture the ruler of England.
8. In the battle of Culloden many Scots were killed by _____ _____ .
9. Bonnie Prince Charlie dreamed all his life to return to Scotland and he tried to _____ his _____ .
10. After the revolt of 1745 the Highlanders were forbidden to speak _____ which was their native language.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Bonnie Prince Charlie received such a name because
   a) he was a Scottish prince.
   b) he was a young and handsome prince who claimed the throne of Scotland.
   c) he came from the Highlands of Scotland.

2. Many Highlanders were against the treaty of 1707 because
   a) they did not want to be ruled by England.
   b) they did not want to pay new taxes for their lands.
   c) they were not allowed to wear their tartan kilts.
3. When Prince Charlie landed in Scotland in 1745
   a) the Highlanders started a revolt against him.
   b) the English army occupied the country and arrested Charlie.
   c) the Highlanders came to his support.
4. Charlie led his army into England
   a) but did not go far because he was soon defeated by the English.
   b) and went as far south as Derby in England.
   c) and soon he reached London where there was much panic.
5. In April 1746 the English army met Charlie's force
   a) and defeated the Highlanders at Culloden.
   b) but retreated because the English were afraid of the Scots.
   c) defeated the Scots and took Charlie prisoner.
6. After the battle at Culloden
   a) Prince Charlie fled to Italy and never tried to win his cause.
   b) Bonnie Charlie went into hiding in Scotland all the rest of his life.
   c) Flora Macdonald helped Prince Charlie to escape.
7. After the revolt of 1745
   a) the Highlanders were forbidden to carry weapons and to speak their native language.
   b) the English arrested many Scotsmen and sent them away to France.
   c) the English tried to establish good relations with the Scots and allowed the Highlanders to wear their national costume and speak Gaelic.
8. Despite Bonnie Charlie's defeat
   a) many Scots continue to honour him, as a hero.
   b) he is a national hero in England.
   c) his birthday is a national holiday all throughout Scotland.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. The kilt which is a part of the national costume of the Highlanders is worn on the shoulders like a jacket.
2. The sporran is a large leather hat worn on the head.
3. The tattoo in Edinburgh takes place every year in the streets of the city.
4. Prince Bonnie Charlie was popular with the Highlanders because he spoke Gaelic.

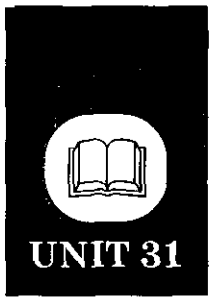
5. With more than two thousand men Charlie took Edinburgh, and there he stayed until the English defeated him.
6. In the battle of Culloden the English army was defeated by the Scots.
7. Prince Charlie managed to escape from Scotland dressed as a priest.
8. Charlie died in old age in Italy all alone.
9. Charlie is no longer popular in Scotland, therefore there is practically nothing about him in the museums and exhibition centres of the country.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. What does the word "bonnie" mean?
2. Who were the Jacobites?
3. What was the attitude of the English to the tradition of wearing tartan kilts?
4. When does the International Musical Festival take place in Edinburgh?
5. What is the highlight of the Festival?
6. Why did the French help Prince Bonnie Charlie?
7. Did the King of England offer a large sum of money to anyone who informed him of Bonnie Charlie?
8. Why didn't the Scots continue their invasion of Britain?
9. Did the Scots betray Prince Charlie?
10. How did Prince Charlie escape from Scotland?

V. Points for discussion.

1. The national costume of the Highlanders.
2. The battle of Culloden.
3. Prince Bonnie Charlie – a popular hero in Scotland.



Canterbury Cathedral and Geoffrey Chaucer – the Great English Story-teller

The Cathedral Church of Christ, Canterbury, is the Mother Church of England. It was from Canterbury in Saxon days that England was converted to Christ. It is to Canterbury today that all Anglican churches throughout the world look as their spiritual centre. The cathedral is the seat of the Archbishop of Canterbury who is the head of the Church of England or Anglican Church. Canterbury is a town in Kent which is located in the very south-east of England.

From the 12th to the 15th centuries, the cathedral was a place of pilgrimage. Thousands of people came to pray at the shrine of a former Archbishop of Canterbury who was murdered in the Cathedral in 1170.His name was Thomas Becket.

During the 12th century King Henry II decided that the church had too much power. In 1162 he made Thomas Becket Archbishop of Canterbury, who was the king's "man" and his personal friend. By this move Henry II hoped to weaken the church and consolidate his power as king. Thomas Becket came of a simple family, and was not even a priest. Therefore many people were not pleased when Thomas was made Archbishop.

Quite soon, however, the king and archbishop became enemies. Henry II was greatly surprised when Thomas began to defend the church against the king. Thomas Becket had to leave Britain because he was afraid that the king might kill him. In 1170 the two men became friends again, and Thomas returned to England. However, quite soon the quarrel resumed, especially when Thomas Becket began to punish those priests and noblemen who had acted against him. Four of Henry

II's knights decided to act for the king and on 29th December 1170 they murdered Thomas Becket in the cathedral near the door which is known as the door of the Martyrdom.

The whole Christian world reacted with great emotion, and Becket was made a saint. His tomb began to be visited by thousands of pilgrims, rich and poor. The shrine was decorated with precious stones many of which were given by kings. The legend was spread that miracles happened at the tomb, and that many sick people got cured. Even the steps leading to Becket's shrine have been worn out by the pilgrims' feet. In the 16th century, when King Henry VIII separated from the Church of Rome, and established the Anglican church, he said that Becket was no longer a saint, and ordered his shrine to be destroyed. In 1538 Becket's tomb was destroyed, and robbed of all its wealth, including its most famous jewel, the "Regale of France", which was given by Louis VII, the King of France, in the 12th century. Henry VIII used this jewel in a ring which he wore.

Of the thousands of pilgrims who visited Canterbury, the best-known are probably those who appear in the book by Geoffrey Chaucer, *The Canterbury Tales*. He was the first great story-teller who wrote in English. Chaucer was born about 1340 when the English language was just beginning to be used for books. Before his time books were written generally in Latin or in French, though there were several fine old poems in Old English, or Anglo-Saxon, telling of the deeds of heroes, and monsters. The greatest of these poems was *Beowulf*. But Chaucer wrote of the life of his own times and told stories in everyday English. Chaucer's father was a London merchant who used to supply the king's table with wine. In those days nearly everyone drank wine and ale, and there was much drunkenness. The boy Chaucer was probably sent to school and was certainly bright and a good scholar, for he always loved books. We know little of his boyhood until we hear of him at 17 as a page in the house of a princess. Later he went to France, fought in the wars, and was taken prisoner.

Some eight years or so after Chaucer had returned to England he married a lady of the queen's court and made friendship with one of the sons of the king. Chaucer now began to be an important figure at court. He was sent by the king several times to France and to Italy on important matters. And during all these years of service he studied and wrote poetry. He tells us that when his work at the office was done he would go home and read and write far into the night. Chaucer died in 1400 at the age of sixty years.

In those old days people travelled on horseback, for the roads were too narrow and too muddy for carriages; and they seldom travelled alone, but in companies, because of the thieves. In Chaucer's greatest poem, which was begun when he was about forty-five years old, he tells

us that one day in the early spring he set out to make a pilgrimage to Canterbury, to Thomas Becket's shrine. In former times a pilgrim took long journeys on foot, dressed in poor clothes and with only a staff or stick in his hand to help him in walking.

Canterbury Cathedral

But in Chaucer's day pilgrims went on horseback, dressed in clothes of bright colour, and the pilgrimage was more a holiday excursion than a religious act. So Chaucer went over London Bridge and put up at Tabard Inn in Southwark, ready to go on a pilgrimage. Here he knew he should find others who were making the same journey, and he would thus have company and protection against the thieves who were known all along the roads of England.

He met twenty-nine people of all kinds and classes. There was a knight, who had just come back from the wars; and his son, who was a young squire; and their servant with a coat and hood of green and a mighty bow. And there were two nuns, and several priests, and a monk, and a merchant with a forked beard, and a lawyer full of business. And there was a miller with a mouth as big as a furnace; and there was a poor scholar from Oxford, and a ploughman, and a carpenter, and a sailor, and many another.

After they had all eaten a good supper, the innkeeper, Harry Bailey, a big man with a bright eye and a merry laugh, suggested that they should make the way seem shorter by telling stories.

"Let each one", he said "tell two stories on the way to Canterbury, and two more on the way home, and the one who tells the best story shall have a good supper here in this place, when we come back, and the others shall pay for the supper. I shall go with you and be your guide". All the party agreed; and the next morning they set out upon their journey. The stories were all very different, some were serious, some were very funny, some were sad, some were tragic.

In its long history, the beginnings of which go down to the sixth century, Canterbury Cathedral faced many dangers of fire and destruction, but in the first week of June 1942 it withstood the greatest threat, when the enemy planes dropped 15 high-explosive bombs and many hundred smaller ones. But the Cathedral survived.

The tradition of visiting Canterbury Cathedral continues to this very day. People come to see this beautiful monument of man's genius from all round the world. Perhaps the most famous modern pilgrim is

Pope John Paul II. His historic visit to Canterbury took place in 1982.Both the Pope of Rome and the Archbishop of Canterbury knelt in silence on the steps that led to the spot where Becket's shrine once stood. This event expressed the new spirit of understanding that exists now between the Roman Catholic and Anglican Churches.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. It was from the Cathedral Church of Christ in Canterbury that England was _____ to Christ.
2. The Cathedral is the _____ of the Archbishop of Canterbury who is the head of the Anglican Church.
3. Thousands of people came to pray at the _____ of Thomas Becket.
4. Thomas Becket was _____ on 29th December 1170 in Canterbury Cathedral by four of Henry II's knights.
5. Legend was spread that _____ happened at Becket's _____ and that many sick people got cured.
6. Of the thousands of _____ who visited Canterbury, the best-known are those who appear in the book by Geoffrey Chaucer.
7. Among the twenty-nine people Chaucer met, there was a _____ with a mouth as big as a furnace.
8. Despite the terrible bombing of Canterbury Cathedral in 1942, it _____ and attracts thousands of tourists who visit Britain every year.
9. The most famous modern _____ is Pope John Paul II who prayed on the steps that led to Becket's _____ .
10. The _____ of Thomas Becket was described in many books written by English writers and poets.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Canterbury is a town in England which is
   a) located to the north of London.
   b) located in Kent in the very south-east of England.
   c) famous for its Sunday markets.
2. When Henry II made Thomas Becket Archbishop of Canterbury he hoped
   a) to weaken the church and consolidate his power as king.
   b) to improve England's reputation abroad.
   c) to introduce new reforms in the life of the church.

3. Henry II was greatly surprised when
   a) Thomas Becket began to improve relations with Italy.
   b) Thomas Becket went to Spain to start a struggle against him.
   c) Thomas began to defend the church against the king.
4. When Thomas Becket was murdered in 1170
   a) the people of England did not pay much attention to this event.
   b) the whole Christian world reacted with great emotion, and Becket was made a saint.
   c) he was buried in France.
5. In the 16th century Henry VIII
   a) ordered Becket's shrine to be destroyed.
   b) broke ties with Rome but didn't destroy Becket's shrine.
   c) made a pilgrimage to Becket's tomb.
6. Geoffrey Chaucer was the first great story-teller
   a) who wrote his works in Latin.
   b) who wrote his .stories in English.
   c) who openly criticized Thomas Becket for quarrelling with the king.
7. Before Chaucer books in England
   a) were written in Spanish or Italian.
   b) were written generally in Latin or in French.
   c) were not written in the country but were brought from abroad.
8. In his lifetime Chaucer
   a) was little known at the king's court.
   b) was an important figure and was sent by the king several times to France and to Italy.
   c) never went abroad and died at an early age.
9. In Chaucer's days pilgrims
   a) usually went to Canterbury on foot.
   b) visited Canterbury only at Christmas or in spring during the Easter holiday.
   c) went to Canterbury on horseback, dressed in clothes of bright colour, and the pilgrimage was more a holiday excursion than a religious act.
10. Chaucer met his pilgrims
   a) at Tabard Inn in Southwark in London.
   b) just outside Canterbury where they stopped for a rest.
   c) just by chance on the way to Canterbury.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

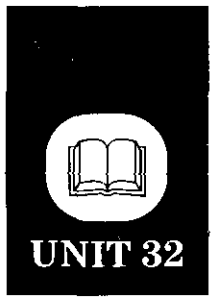
1. The Cathedral Church of Christ, Canterbury, is not an important church in England.
2. The Cathedral is the seat of the Archbishop of Canterbury, the head of the Church of England or Anglican Church.
3. The Cathedral did not attract many pilgrims in the Middle Ages, but today it is a place of mass pilgrimage.
4. Thomas Becket was not murdered but died a natural death.
5. Thomas's shrine was an ordinary tomb, poorly decorated.
6. In his childhood Chaucer was sent to school where he did not study well, though he loved to read books.
7. During Chaucer's service at the court he studied poetry and wrote his poems at his office at the court.
8. In the time of Chaucer people travelled mostly in carriages.
9. People usually made pilgrimages to Canterbury alone, they did not like to come in groups.
10. Today few people visit Canterbury because Becket's shrine is no longer in the church.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Why do all Anglican churches throughout the world look at Canterbury Cathedral as their spiritual centre?
2. Where is the Cathedral located?
3. Why was Thomas Becket murdered?
4. Who murdered Thomas Becket?
5. How did the Christian world react to Becket's martyrdom?
6. Who ordered the destruction of Thomas Becket's shrine? Why?
7. Did Henry VIII make use of any of the jewels which decorated Becket's tomb?
8. What role did Chaucer play for the development of the English language?
9. Were there any famous old poems in English literature before Chaucer's time?
10. How many people took part in the pilgrimage described by Chaucer?

V. Points for discussion.

1. The relationship between Henry II and Thomas Becket.
2. The role of Chaucer in the development of English literature.
3. The twenty-nine people at Tabard Inn and Harry Bailey's suggestion.



Shakespeare and Shakespeareland

In the little village of Stratford-on-Avon, on a spring morning in the year 1564, a boy was born in the home of John and Mary Shakespeare. John Shakespeare was a man of some importance in Stratford. He was one of the town officers (chief alderman) and a dealer in corn, meat, leather, wool. He was also a maker of gloves. Shakespeare's mother, Mary Arden, was the daughter of a wealthy farmer living not far from town.

The Stratford of those days was a quiet little place of some 200 houses. To the neighbouring villages it was something of a capital, but a very sleepy capital from our point of view. Standing on the River Avon, it was the meeting point where the forests of the north met the open farm lands of the south. Here the roads from the great towns met, and therefore the main bridge of the town known as Clopton Bridge, because it was built by H.Clopton in 1500, played an important role in the life of the town. Stratford was full of orchards, gardens and trees. In 1582 there were nearly a thousand elms in and around the town.

The Shakespeares lived in a well-built house of rough stone, covered outside with plaster and crossed with heavy beams of dark oak. The house is still standing in Henley Street and is visited every year by thousands of tourists. Inside are the living-room, kitchen, cellar, the room where William Shakespeare was born, and other upstairs rooms all furnished in the style of the 16th century. Here you can see a unique collection of books, manuscripts and other remarkable things. The garden contains trees, plants and flowers mentioned in Shakespeare's plays and poems.

The parents did not know that their son, William, was going to be such an important person in English poetry and drama, and that his plays would still be so popular four hundred years later in Britain and all over the world.

Other children came into the Shakespeare family, and it was a pleasant life that they led in the old plastered house with the dark oak beams. The Avon River flowed quietly through the meadows at the end of the next street, and the country all around seemed like a great playground. For several years young Will attended the Stratford Grammar School, where he learned Latin and busied himself with such studies as the boys of that day would do.

Strolling companies of players sometimes came to Stratford, and as Will's father was the officer to whom they came to get permission to act their plays, it is probable that Will saw them and was greatly interested, for he loved to see a play. The plays were usually performed out of doors, or perhaps in the courtyard of some inn, and the people who followed the play either stood, or if it were in an inn court, may have looked out of the windows or sat upon the balconies that often stretched around the sides of the court at each storey of the inn. The players would sometimes raise a rough stage of boards; sometimes they would act their play upon the green field; but there were hardly any decorations. The audience had to imagine a great deal, but the actors wore fine costumes and made a great show in their bright clothes; and all the citizens of the town poured out to see the plays.

When Will Shakespeare was about eleven, it became known in Stratford one afternoon that Queen Elizabeth was to visit one of the greatest lords of his time, the Earl of Leicester, at his castle near Stratford. All the people from Stratford and the surrounding countryside hurried to see the Queen and the show. John Shakespeare was there, and, of course, he took Will with him. There were plays and shows of all kinds, like a great fair, and there was the great queen.

When William was about thirteen his father fell into debt, and had to sell much of his property, while the boy had to leave school and work.

We do not know what he did. Some say he worked at the butcher's shop, but the most important thing that he did was to notice carefully all the people whom he met, and the river, and the sky, and the meadows, so that he knew how every sort of man and woman looked and behaved, and how every flower grew, and what every season brought. Later he put all this into his plays.

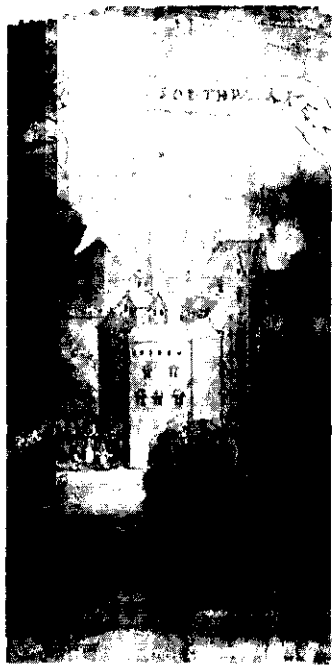
When he was little more than eighteen he married Anne Hathaway, a farmer's daughter living at Shottery, only a short walk across the fields from Stratford. You can still see this beautiful thatched (the roof covered with straw) farm house. The original Hathaway furniture and other things are preserved inside. We don't know how William earned his living during these years. He may have worked for his father, or perhaps, he could be a teacher. During these years his three children were born: Susannah, the eldest daughter, then the twins – a son, Hamnet, and Judith, another daughter.

But Shakespeare could not think of staying forever in the village. There was something in him that told him to look farther, and so one day in 1587 he said good-bye to his wife and children, and went to work in London. There is a story that says this is because he killed some deer which belonged to a lord nearby, and that he had to run away.

When in London, he went straight to the theatre to get some work there. Finding nothing better to do, he began by holding the horses of the fine gentlemen who came to see the plays. It is said that a little later he began to call out the names of the actors and the plays which they performed. After a time he was given a small part to act. But he soon showed that he had the talent to change old plays so that they could be more easily acted. Then he began to write plays himself, and almost before he knew it he was famous. All the actors wanted to act Shakespeare's plays, and all the people wanted to see them acted, because there was life in them, and because they showed men and women as they really were.

By 1592 he was an important member of a well-known acting company, and in 1599 the famous Globe Theatre was built on the south bank of the river Thames. It was in this theatre that most of his plays were performed, and like all theatres of those days, it was a round building with the stage in the centre open to the sky. If it rained, the actors got wet. If the weather was too bad, there was no acting.

By 1603, when Queen Elizabeth I died, Shakespeare was the leading poet and dramatist of his time. In spite of his fame Shakespeare did not grow proud. He worked hard, writing at one time of his life about two plays a year. He returned often to Stratford to see his family, bought a good house for them, paid his father's debts, and when he had earned all that he thought he needed, returned to Stratford in 1613. He spent the rest of his days looking after his farm and living the life of a country gentleman. He died there in 1616 at the age of fifty-two, the most famous writer of his time and of all times. Everyone loved him. He was kind, gentle, full of fun, a good friend, and a great companion. He is buried in Holy Trinity Church, Stratford-upon-Avon, which is a beautiful church whose slender spire is reflected in the quietly flowing Avon. The



Globe Theatre

Shakespeare Memorial Theatre

approach through the churchyard is beautiful, a long paved walk bordered by lime trees. Inside the church you can read the registers containing the lines about Shakespeare's baptism and his burial. Here you can see his monument and gravestone with the famous words, which are supposed to have been written by the poet himself.

Most of his plays are poems written in blank verse – that is, verse without rhyme. Parts of them are in prose. The greatest of the plays are perhaps *The Merchant of Venice*, *Julius Caesar*, *Hamlet*, *King Lear*, *Macbeth*, and *The Tempest*.

Stratford-upon-Avon is one of the most attractive country towns in England. Located on the banks of the winding River Avon in the green heart of England, it still preserves the atmosphere of the market town that Shakespeare knew some three and a half centuries ago. If you arrive by road from London you will enter the town by way of Clopton Bridge which exists since the Middle Ages.

Memories of Shakespeare are everywhere. In fact you can follow the poet's footsteps from the house where he was born in Henley Street to the poet's tomb in Holy Trinity Church. You may also visit the splendid Royal Shakespeare Theatre located on the banks of the Avon and opened in 1932. It was built with money collected from people in Britain and especially the U.S.A. Here each year from April to November, a season of Shakespeare's plays is performed before an audience of enthusiasts, coming from all over the world. The theatre also has an interesting picture gallery and museum. One of the most pleasant ways of spending a quiet hour or two in Stratford

in order to feel the atmosphere of the days of Shakespeare is to take a boat on the River Avon and explore the beautiful countryside. No wonder Shakespeare is known as the "Swan of Avon".

It is an interesting fact that William Shakespeare was born in 1564 on St.George's Day who is the patron saint of England, and he died on the saint's day in 1616. Every 23rd April is a special day in Stratford, as the bells of Holy Trinity Church ring out. Flags from many nations are put up, and the Mayor leads a big procession to lay flowers on Shakespeare's grave at Holy Trinity Church.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. Companies of players sometimes came to Stratford, and it is probable that Will saw the plays which they acted, for he loved to see a _____ .
2. Once when Queen Elizabeth visited the Earl of Stratford at his castle there were many plays and shows of all kinds, like a great _____ .
3. When William was about thirteen his father _____ _____ _____ and had to sell much of his property.
4. Anne Hathaway, Shakespeare's wife, lived in a _____ farm-house before her marriage.
5. Most of Shakespeare's plays were performed in the famous _____ Theatre.
6. In spite of his fame Shakespeare did not grow _____ .
7. Shakespeare died at the age of fifty-two and was _____ in Holy Trinity Church.
8. The _____ through the churchyard is beautiful, a long paved walk bordered by lime trees.
9. Most of Shakespeare's plays are written in _____ verse, that is, verse without rhyme.
10. Memories of Shakespeare are everywhere in Stratford-upon-Avon: you can _____ the poet's _____ from his house to the Poet's _____ in Holy Trinity Church.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. In the little village of Stratford-on-Avon, in the year 1564
   a) a great battle took place between two opposing feudal lords.
   b) a boy was born in the home of John and Mary Shakespeare.
   c) a great fair took place which was visited by the Queen of England.

2. The Shakespeares lived in a well-built house of
   a) round stone, covered outside with plaster and crossed with heavy beams of dark oak.
   b) brick which their parents had built for them.
   c) logs which they built themselves when they got married.
3. For several years young Will attended
   a) a church school, where he also sang in a choir.
   b) classes of a local school teacher.
   c) the Stratford Grammar School, where he learned Latin.
4. The plays in Shakespeare's time were usually performed
   a) in big theatres specially built for this purpose.
   b) out-of-doors, or in the courtyard of some inn.
   c) on an open field in summer when the weather was good.
5. When William was thirteen he left school
   a) because he wanted to go to London.
   b) because his father fell into debt and so Will had to start to work.
   c) as he did not like to study.
6. In 1587 Shakespeare left Stratford for London
   a) in order to continue with his studies.
   b) because according to one story he killed some deer of a lord nearby and had to run away.
   c) because he wanted to become an actor.
7. All the actors wanted to act Shakespeare's plays
   a) because there was life in them, and because they showed men and women as they really were.
   b) because they were very short.
   c) as they were written in very good English.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. Shakespeare's father was a priest at the local church.
2. In Shakespeare's time actors performed in very simple clothes, but the decorations were fine.
3. When Shakespeare was little more than eighteen he married Anne Hathaway, a rich man's daughter from London.
4. When in London Will started to work in a dock carrying the goods which were brought by the ships.
5. In 1599 the famous Globe Theatre was built on the south bank of the river Thames.
6. By 1603, when Queen Elizabeth I died, Shakespeare was not yet well known as a dramatist.
7. After 1613 Shakespeare lived on his farm together with his family enjoying the life of a country gentleman.

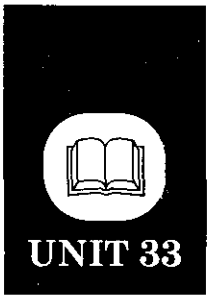
8. Stratford-upon-Avon is a typical big city with many streets and tall buildings.
9. The splendid Royal Shakespeare Theatre located on the banks of the Avon is a very old theatre built in the 17th century.
10. When in Stratford the best way to explore the town is to take a taxi and drive through its quiet streets.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Who was Shakespeare's mother?
2. Is Shakespeare's house preserved as it looked like in the 16th century?
3. Why is it interesting to visit the garden of Shakespeare's home?
4. Where were plays usually performed in Shakespeare's time?
5. What interesting event happened when Will was about eleven?
6. What did Shakespeare do when he first came to London?
7. Why did the actors want to act Shakespeare's plays?
8. Where were most of Shakespeare's plays performed?
9. When did Shakespeare die?
10. What plays of Shakespeare do you know?

V. Points for discussion.

1. How did Shakespeare's early years have an influence on his career as a poet and dramatist?
2. Shakespeare's life in London when he first came there.
3. What kind of a person was Shakespeare?



UNIT 33

Britain's Great Hero

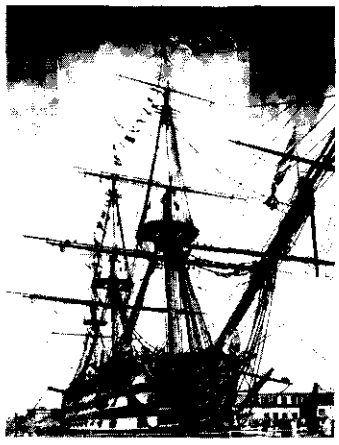
Every visitor who comes to London will always find time to see Trafalgar Square which is located in the very centre of the British capital. This square was laid out to mark Admiral Nelson's victory at the Battle of Trafalgar and was completed in 1841. In its centre stands the Nelson column of granite about 58 metres high designed by William Railton, with the Admiral's statue (about 6 metres high) by E.H.Bailey on the top, high enough for a sailor to get a glimpse of the sea. Bronze reliefs at the foot of the column, made from captured French guns, represent Nelson's four great naval victories. The four bronze lions at the base were added in 1867. Trafalgar Square has become famous as a place for all kinds of demonstrations and public meetings. The great numbers of pigeons and starlings make this place still more popular.

Admiral Nelson is Britain's greatest naval hero. Born in the family of a Norfolk priest on 29th September 1758 Horatio Nelson seemed very unlikely to become a seaman, because he was too weak and small when he was a child. He was the fifth son of a family of 11 children. However, despite his physical weakness he impressed his fellow pupils at the Norwich and North Walsham grammar schools in Eastern England by his great will to become a seaman. He did much physical exercise to achieve his aim. When his uncle, a captain, learned of his twelve-year-old nephew's intention to go to sea he was very surprised saying that the first rough storm would make the boy change his mind.

However, in 1771 his uncle took him aboard his ship, and later sent him to the West Indies in a merchant ship. Nelson did well, and so his uncle supported him to go on with his seaman's job.

At the age of 14 Nelson was allowed to join an expedition to the North Pole. It was during this time that he disappeared over the ice one night to try to get a polar bear skin for his father. His gun did not fire in time, and the bear began to attack the boy. But Nelson was not afraid. He used the butt of the gun to defend himself. Someone on the ship saw this, and a shot was fired. The bear turned away.

In 1777, having satisfied the regulations by serving six years at sea, Nelson received the rank of lieutenant. Later he was sent to the West Indies and there became commander of a brig, his first command of a ship. Here during military operations against Spain he acted very bravely, but was taken ill and sent home to England to recover. In 1784 he took command of a frigate and again was sent to the West Indies. Being a very honest man and officer, he came into conflict with the officers and rulers of the islands who broke the regulations on trade with the U.S.A. As a result of action against him he lost command of his ship and stayed all alone on the island of Nevis. Here he met and married Mrs. Frances Nisbet, a young widow with a small son. Shortly afterwards the Nelsons – husband, wife and stepson – sailed to England. Nelson spent five happy years at his family home in Norfolk. In 1793 war broke out between England and France, and Lord Hood, the chief English admiral offered Nelson the command of a big ship of 64 guns, which soon joined the English fleet in the Mediterranean Sea. It was here in the many battles against France and her allies that Nelson displayed his outstanding qualities as a seaman, commander and admiral. The Mediterranean fleet was under the command of Lord Hood who was highly respected by Nelson. Hood's flagship was the "Victory", a first class man-of-war of 100 guns, which later came under Nelson's command.



H.M.S. "Victory"

Nelson, as a naval commander, took every opportunity to be active and aggressive. He never feared for his life. In one of the battles to drive the French out of the island of Corsica he was wounded and lost his right eye.

In 1796 Spain, which was encouraged by France's victories on land, declared war on Britain. The English fleet was now in a more difficult position because it had to fight against the combined fleets of France and Spain. The difficult situation made Nelson still more daring: in one battle when 15 British ships were facing 27 Spanish ones Nelson displayed such initiative and bravery which resulted in the seizure of 2 big enemy warships. The whole British fleet greeted him for his action, and quite soon Nelson became admiral. Again war gave Nelson the opportunity to display his bravery for which he had to pay a dear price: during military action against the Spanish forces to take a fortress, he disobeyed instructions and went ashore to lead the final attack. In the

Horatio Nelson

fighting he lost his right arm and thought that his career was over. But Nelson did not give up, and quite soon after recovery he was sent to take action against the French fleet.

By this time Napoleon with the help of the French fleet was already in Egypt. Nelson guessed the plans of the French and with extreme boldness attacked the French fleet at the mouth of the Nile. It was a brilliant victory for Nelson: of 17 French ships which fought at the battle 13 were burned, sunk, driven ashore or captured. Napoleon was left in Egypt without a support fleet. News of the victory reached London and there were celebrations. Nelson received the title Baron of the Nile. The political consequences of the battle of the Nile were very great – Napoleon had to give up plans to conquer India.

Nelson himself could not return to England at this time because he was wounded in the head. So he stayed in Naples in Italy where Lady Hamilton, the wife of the English ambassador, took care of him helping him to restore his health. This lady played an important part in the life of the admiral, and much has been written about their relationship. In recent times a very popular film was produced about Nelson and Lady Hamilton. As a result of their relationship Nelson separated from his wife.

Nelson became a national hero though he hadn't yet achieved his greatest victory which cost him his life.

The greatest sea battle between the English and combined French and Spanish fleets took place near Cadiz in Spain at Cape Trafalgar on 21st October 1805. Nelson had 27 ships against 18 French and 15 Spanish. Nelson himself was on the "Victory". Before the battle the admiral gave his final instructions to the captains of the ships. Moving in two columns the British were to break the enemy line. Nelson wore his usual uniform with the four orders on the breast. His personal doctor wanted to warn him to cover these up or remove them because when the ships came close to one another the enemy could easily shoot him. But, unfortunately, he hadn't time to do this. Just before the beginning of the battle Nelson sent the famous signal to the ships: "England expects that every man will do his duty".

Nelson was on the captain's deck watching the course of the battle. Both sides suffered much. The "Victory" itself suffered much, and many sailors were wounded and killed. Gunfire became more and more intense as the ships approached each other. At 13.25 Nelson received his death wound by a musket ball shot by a sniper. He was carried below and laid amongst the wounded, where he was taken care by his doctor. Captain Hardy took command of the ship. Before Nelson died three

hours later Hardy was able to report to him complete victory with 15 enemy ships destroyed. But Nelson had planned not less than 20, and in the end 19 were lost by the enemy.

Nelson died thanking God he had done his duty. Throughout the fleet and throughout his native land the joy of victory was accompanied with great sorrow for the death of their national hero. At the end of the battle 57 were killed and 103 wounded on the "Victory" which was greatly damaged. On the French ship from which Nelson was shot there were 500 killed out of a crew of 600. Nelson's body was brought to England for burial. There was a great public funeral, and on 9th January 1806 the body of Britain's great son was laid to rest in St. Paul's Cathedral.

The war at sea continued after Trafalgar but the enemy never recovered from the effects of the defeat, and England for the rest of the war against Napoleon was free from the danger of invasion. The "Victory" herself, severely damaged by fire, was never again in such a battle. She was repaired and continued to be used until 1840. On 12th January 1922 the "Victory" went into Number 2 Dry Dock in Portsmouth Dockyard where she can be visited today. The year 2005 was a-4-remarkable year for the British people who widely celebrated the bicentennial anniversary of the victory at Cape Trafalgar and the historic dockyard was visited by lots of tourists from all over the world.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. Trafalgar Square was _____ _____ to mark Admiral Nelson's victory at the Battle of Trafalgar.
2. Nelson seemed very unlikely to become a seaman, because he was too _____ and _____ when he was a child.
3. During the expedition to the North Pole Nelson was attacked by a bear, and he defended himself using the _____ of a gun.
4. In 1777 Nelson was sent to the West Indies where he took part in military operations against Spain acting very bravely, but was taken ill and sent home to England to _____ .
5. Frances Nisbet was a _____ who later became Nelson's wife.
6. In many battles against France and her _____ Nelson _____ his outstanding _____ .
7. Admiral Nelson was a very brave seaman who never _____ _____ _____ _____ .
8. During the Battle of Trafalgar Nelson's personal doctor wanted to warn Nelson to cover or remove the _____ on his uniform so as not to attract the attention of the French snipers.

9. At the end of the battle many seamen were killed and wounded on the "Victory" which was greatly _____ .
10. After a great public _____, the body of Admiral Nelson was laid to rest in St. Paul's Cathedral.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. Nelson impressed his fellow pupils at school
   a) by his knowledge of geography and mathematics.
   b) by doing much physical exercise to become a seaman.
   c) by reading many books about the sea.
2. During the expedition to the North Pole Nelson wanted
   a) to prove that the cold climate of the North Pole was not so severe as many thought.
   b) to explore the ice fields for other expeditions in the future.
   c) to get a polar bear skin for his father.
3. When Nelson received the rank of lieutenant
   a) he became commander of a brig.
   b) he was sent to the Far East.
   c) he continued his studies at a naval school.
4. After his marriage to Frances Nisbet
   a) Nelson was sent to the West Indies.
   b) Nelson together with his wife and stepson visited the U.S.A.
   c) Nelson returned to England where he spent five happy years at his family home.
5. During Nelson's years of service with the English fleet in the Mediterranean Sea
   a) he displayed his outstanding qualities as a seaman, commander and admiral.
   b) he visited Greece and Turkey.
   c) he organized military operations against France and Italy.
6. In one of the battles to drive the French out of the island of Corsica
   a) Nelson's force captured several French ships.
   b) Nelson was wounded and lost his right eye.
   c) Nelson lost many ships and seamen.
7. The greatest sea battle between the English and combined French and Spanish fleets
   a) took place at the mouth of the Nile in Egypt.
   b) made Napoleon change his plans to conquer India.
   c) took place near Cadiz in Spain at Cape Trafalgar on 21st October1805.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

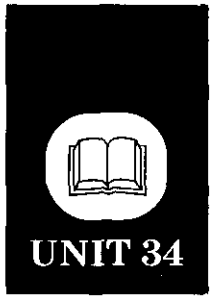
1. When Nelson's uncle learned of his nephew's intention to go to sea he was very happy.
2. At the age of 14 Nelson was allowed by his parents to continue his studies at a naval school.
3. When war broke out between England and France in 1793 Lord Hood offered Nelson the command of a small warship.
4. During one of the battles at sea against Spain Nelson was wounded and lost his right arm.
5. It was by mere chance that Nelson's fleet met the French fleet near the mouth of the Nile.
6. In the battle at Cape Trafalgar Nelson had more ships under his command than the French and Spanish fleets.
7. Nelson died before he learned the news of the victory.
8. The battle of Trafalgar did not have any effect on the course of the war between England and France.
9. The "Victory" was severely damaged and was never repaired again.

IV. *Answer the questions.*

1. Why was Trafalgar Square laid out in London?
2. What kinds of events take place in Trafalgar Square?
3. When and where was Horatio Nelson born?
4. Why was Horatio's uncle surprised at his nephew's intention to go to sea?
5. How long did it take Nelson to receive his first naval rank?
6. Why did Nelson lose command of his ship in the West Indies?
7. What kind of a naval commander was Nelson?
8. How did Nelson respond to Spain's actions as an ally of France?
9. Why did Nelson receive the title Baron of the Nile?
10. Under what circumstances did Nelson meet Lady Hamilton?
11. Can you see the "Victory" today in Britain? Where?

V. Points for discussion.

1. *Trafalgar Square in London.*
2. Nelson's activities in the Mediterranean Sea.
3. The Battle of Trafalgar – the greatest sea battle between the English and combined French and Spanish fleets.



"The Lady with the Lamp"

Of the many great English women, perhaps, most outstanding is Florence Nightingale, who is known as "The Lady with the Lamp", for this is how she was called by the wounded British soldiers during the Crimean War of 1853-56 between Britain and Russia. Florence Nightingale has gone down into history as a person who did so much to help the wounded soldiers during the Crimean War, who despite all official opposition changed the whole system of hospital organization in the army. She changed the whole idea of hospital organization and is the founder of modern nursing.

The activities and contribution made by Florence Nightingale to the British health service to a great degree resemble the outstanding contribution made by Nikolai Pirogov, the famous Russian surgeon, to Russian medical organization. It is interesting to note that just at the same time when Florence Nightingale was nursing the wounded English soldiers, Nikolai Pirogov was performing his operations on the battlefield during the defence of Sevastopol.

Florence Nightingale came of a very rich and influential family. The Nightingales moved in the highest social class. They had two large country houses and a big mansion in London. They travelled a lot all throughout Europe, and Florence was born in Italy in the city of Florence in 1820. That is why she was called Florence. She was highly educated in literature, art, music, Latin and Greek. She could speak fluently Italian, French, German. Florence was very attractive, and everyone expected her to marry one of the numerous rich young men who often came to her home.

Since early childhood Florence took care of the villagers who became ill, and nursed the sick dogs and cats and horses round her family home. She had a great wish to become a nurse. Her parents were horrified and they did everything to prevent her from becoming a nurse. But Florence who had a very kind heart, was determined to achieve her aim. Like

Yevfrosinniya of Polatsk from Belarus, the great educator of the 12th century, who despite her beauty and possibility to marry very rich aristocratic admirers became a nun in order to devote her life to learning, Florence was not to be turned aside either.

Florence Nightingale

Whenever she went abroad, she visited hospitals, she read books on nursing, reports of medical societies. She spent some weeks as a nurse in a hospital in Paris, then three months in a nursing school in Germany. Finally she won a great moral victory when her mother with tears in her eyes agreed to Florence's wish to become a nurse. In those days nursing was done by women of the lowest moral class, and so it was not a popular profession. Moreover, when women were charged in the courts, they were often given the choice of either going to prison or to hospital service.

So with her parents' agreement she founded a nursing school in London known as an "Establishment for Gentlewomen During Illness". She had been there a year when in 1853 the Crimean War broke out. It was from there that she wrote to the Minister for War offering her services as a nurse. The Minister who knew her personally agreed.

Meanwhile, the situation in the Crimea was terrible. Reports from the battle front described the terrible conditions in the hospitals where the wounded soldiers were treated. The main hospital of the British army was located at Scutari in Turkey. It was an old barracks, where the floors were broken and the building was swarming with rats. The air was bad, and the wounded were lying in dirty rags and bandages. Thousands were dying due to such terrible conditions. The only nurses were old soldiers who knew nothing of nursing and were quite unable to do the work.

Having received the permission from the War Minister, Florence left for Scutari with thirty-eight nurses. On arrival she found the conditions even worse than the reports had stated. Practically, the barracks in Scutari did not resemble any hospital. There were no clothes, towels, soap, knives, plates. There were no bandages, no linen to make bandages, few medicines and any proper food. Florence and her party of nurses brought large quantities of food, medical supplies and other necessary things. Everywhere Florence met with inefficiency, and everywhere she had to overcome difficulties which were created by the officials. However, despite these terrible conditions Florence coped with the situation successfully. She had a kind heart, but a will of iron.

The nurses worked twenty-four hours a day. Florence spared no one. She did not spare herself either. The nurses dressed the soldiers' wounds, helped the surgeons in their operations, eased the pain of the sick and comforted the dying. At night, carrying a little oil-lamp to light her way, she walked by the beds of the soldiers, comforting them, giving them new hope of recovery. Quite soon she became known as "The Lady with the Lamp".

Florence and her party of nurses changed the whole situation at the hospital in Scutari. They turned the barracks into a real hospital, scrubbing the floors and walls, cooking the men's food, washing their clothes, preparing new bandages, helping the surgeons with their operations. Meeting inefficiency of local officials, she wrote letters to the War Minister, other members of the Government of England. At times she wrote letters of anger in order to raise public awareness. Often she would get very rude answers, but Florence would not give in. She managed to establish order. In 1855 Florence was appointed Inspector of all hospitals in the Crimea. This meant new hardships for Florence Nightingale, because she had to take long journeys in snow, rain and cold. Quite soon she became ill, but continued her work from her bed. Florence could easily return home, but she didn't do this until the last soldier left the Crimea in 1856 after peace was declared.

Florence returned to England to become invalid for life. She couldn't leave her house, often not even her bed, but she continued to go on with her work with the same feeling of determination as she had previously displayed in the Crimean War. Important changes were introduced in the organization of hospital service, teaching of nurses. But these changes were implemented due to Florence's great energy, because the officials did not like to introduce changes. However, now, a most popular figure, she had the strong support of the public, and even of Queen Victoria, who became a great admirer of her. Florence Nightingale wrote books on nursing and founded the Nightingale Training School for nurses at St. Thomas's Hospital in London, which was the best hospital in Great Britain. Being a great expert in nursing, foreign governments consulted her on the organization of health services in their countries. Though a complete invalid after the Crimean War Florence Nightingale led a most active life of devotion to help people in need. In 1907 she was given the Order of Merit, the highest civil honour which the British Government could give, and the first ever given to a woman. Florence Nightingale died at the age of 90 in 1910, having won the hearts of the civilized world for her life-long contribution to help the people in pain and in need. The foundation of the International Red Cross was a logical continuation of her outstanding activities.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. Florence Nightingale has gone down into history as the founder of modern _____ .
2. The Nightingales were very rich and influential: they had a big _____ in London.
3. Florence could speak _____ Italian, French, German.
4. Florence Nightingale was _____ to become a nurse.
5. When women were _____ in the courts, they were often given the choice of either going to prison or to _____ service.
6. The barracks in Scutari was _____ with rats.
7. In Turkey Florence met with _____ and everywhere she had to overcome difficulties which were created by the _____ .
8. While taking care of the wounded soldiers Florence Nightingale _____ *neither herself, nor the other nurses.*
9. The nurses turned the barracks into a real hospital, _____ the floors and the walls.
10. In her letters home Florence tried to _____ public awareness of the situation in the Crimea.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. In 1855 Florence was appointed Inspector of all hospitals in *the Crimea*
   a) which meant that she could lead an easy life as a high official.
   b) which meant that she had to take long journeys in snow, *rain and cold.*
   c) which gave her the opportunity to return to England.
2. After the Crimean War
   a) Florence returned to England and led an easy life as a great reformer.
   b) Florence became invalid for life but continued her work with great energy and devotion.
   c) Florence returned to her family home in the countryside *leading the life of a rich lady.*
3. Important changes were introduced by Florence Nightingale
   a) in the organization of hospital service, teaching of nurses and aiding the poor.
   b) in the teaching of medicine at medical colleges and other institutions.
   c) in the structure of the army after the Crimean War.

4. Florence Nightingale wrote books on
   a) literature, art, music, etc.
   b) nursing and founded the Nightingale Training School for nurses.
   c) her experience as a correspondent and interpreter.
5. In 1907 she was given
   a) the Order of Merit, the highest civil honour in England.
   b) the Nobel Peace Prize for her outstanding peace activities abroad.
   c) an aristocratic title and became member of the House of Lords.
6. The foundation of the International Red Cross was
   a) not connected with Nightingale's previous activities.
   b) influenced by the life-long contribution of Florence Nightingale to help the people in pain and in need.
   c) a minor event which the world community hardly noticed.
7. While Florence was nursing the wounded at Scutari
   a) many people in England were completely indifferent to the Crimean War.
   b) Nikolai Pirogov was carrying out his operations in Sevastopol.
   c) the officials tried to help her this way or that.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

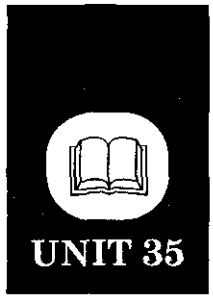
1. Florence Nightingale came of a very poor family.
2. She was born in England and received her name from her aunt who loved Italy and Florence.
3. The Minister for War asked Florence to go to the Crimea and she agreed.
4. Reports from the battlefront described that the wounded were treated normally.
5. Florence did not have to overcome difficulties, because the officials all supported her.
6. Everywhere in the Crimea Florence met with efficiency and a great sense of national pride.
7. While working in the hospital as a nurse Florence comforted the wounded soldiers, giving them new hope of recovery.
8. The changes which were started by Florence Nightingale in the hospitals were never implemented.
9. Foreign governments often consulted her on the organization of social security in their countries.
10. She was never granted any award by the British government.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. Why is Florence Nightingale one of the most outstanding women in British history?
2. Who resembled Florence in Russia as regards reforming hospital service?
3. Where was Florence born?
4. Were her parents enthusiastic of her intention to become a nurse?
5. Was the nursing profession popular in Britain at that time?
6. In what did Florence resemble Yevfrosinniya of Polatsk?
7. Why did the Minister for War agree to send Florence to the Crimea?
8. What was the situation at the barracks in Scutari?
9. Why was Florence called "The Lady with the Lamp"?
10. How did Florence raise the awareness of the British public?

V. Points for discussion.

1. Florence Nightingale's determination to become a nurse.
2. Nightingale's activities during the Crimean War.
3. Florence Nightingale's life after the Crimean War.



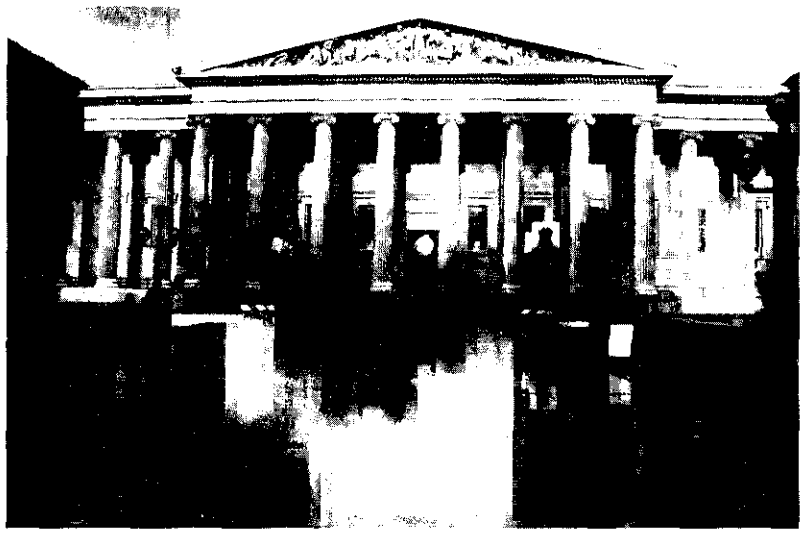
Museums and Other Treasures

The British have always been known as great art collectors. During the colonial times the aristocracy and rich merchants filled their houses and castles with valuable paintings, furniture and ornaments which they brought back from their travels abroad. So their collections can be seen today in palaces and castles, country houses and, of course, in museums and various picture galleries. In 1753 by an Act of Parliament the British Museum was founded, and the state itself became a big collector. London is the world's leading centre of museums and galleries, holding the richest variety of works of arts.

There are about 2,000 museums and galleries in Britain which include the chief national collections, and a great variety of independently or privately owned institutions. But some of the most comprehensive collections of objects of artistic, archaeological, scientific, historical and general interest are contained in the national museums and galleries in London. Among them are the British Museum, the Victoria and Albert Museum, the Science Museum, the National Gallery, the Tate Gallery, the National Portrait Gallery, the Geological Museum, the Natural History Museum, Madame Tussaud's, the Tower of London and many other treasure institutions.

There are national museums and art galleries in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. In Edinburgh – the National Museum of Antiquities of Scotland, the Royal Scottish Museum; in Cardiff – the National Museum of Wales; in Belfast – the Ulster Museum.

Situated in Bloomsbury, THE BRITISH MUSEUM is the world's largest museum. It was built between 1823 and 1852. Most famous exhibits include the Rosetta Stone in the Southern Egyptian Gallery, and in the manuscript room, the Magna Charta, Nelson's log-book, and Scott's last diary.



The British Museum

The British Museum includes also the British Library, which is the national library of the United Kingdom and ranks among the greatest libraries in the world, such as the National Library of Congress in Washington or the National Library in Paris. The Library has the world-famous collections of about 12 million items of monographs, manuscripts, maps, stamps, newspapers and sound records. Publishers are obliged, by law, to supply the Library with a copy of each new book, pamphlet or newspaper published in Britain.

THE VICTORIA AND ALBERT MUSEUM is a national collection of fine and applied arts of all countries and periods. Of great interest are the costumes displays, the rooms of different historical periods, the jewellery and porcelain, the celebrated Raphael cartoons belonging to the Crown and the best collection of English miniatures to be found in the country. The Museum has about seven miles of galleries with various exhibits, including ethnic arts and crafts.

THE NATIONAL GALLERY exhibits all schools of European painting from the 13th century and includes works by Van Dyck, Rubens, Vermeer, Holbein, El Greco, Goya, Velasquez, Gainsborough and Leonardo da Vinci. It also includes the largest collection of Rembrandts outside Holland. There are over thirty rooms in the Gallery and lectures are given regularly by experts.

THE TATE GALLERY is really three galleries: a national gallery of British art, a gallery of modern sculpture and a gallery of modern foreign painting. Among the treasures to be found are modern sculptures by Rodin, Moore and Epstein.

THE SCIENCE MUSEUM houses the national collections of science, industry and medicine. Many exhibits are full size and there are many historic objects of scientific and technological significance. Additionally there are exhibits sectioned to show their internal construction and working models. The children's gallery gives a dioramic history of the development of transport.

THE NATURAL HISTORY MUSEUM is the home of the national collections of living and fossil plants and animals. It also has collections of rocks, minerals and meteorites, as well as coins, manuscripts and other treasures. At first these collections were all kept in the British Museum as part of its exhibits. But, over the years, so much was added to the collections that shortage of space became a major problem and, in 1860, it was decided to split off the natural history departments and house them separately. The architect Alfred Waterhouse designed a suitable building, the construction of which was completed in 1880.

The building of the National History Museum, which is over one hundred years old, also houses a scientific research institution. More than 300 scientists are engaged in the identification and classification of animals, plants and minerals.

THE NATIONAL ARMY MUSEUM covers the history of the British Army from the formation of the Yeomen of the Guard by Henry VII in 1485 to the outbreak of the First World War in 1914.It also displays the history of the Commonwealth armies up to independence. The Museum is situated in Royal Hospital Road.

THE IMPERIAL WAR MUSEUM gives a visual record of all the campaigns in which British and Commonwealth armed forces have been engaged since the outbreak of the First World War. Its portraits, books, photographs, maps and films constitute an important source of reference for historians.

MADAME TUSSAUD'S MUSEUM OF WAXWORKS in Marylebone Road is one of London's great attractions.

Madame Tussaud first became associated with life-size wax portraits in 1770 when, at the age of 9, she helped her uncle open an exhibition in Paris. When she was 17 she made a wax portrait of Voltaire and followed this with death-masks of Marie Antoinette, Robespierre and other victims of the French Revolution.

She came to England in 1802, travelling with her exhibition for about thirty years before settling down permanently in Baker Street. The exhibition moved to its present site and the Museum was founded in 1884 not far from this street, which is famous as the home of the first great detective in ıiction, Conan Doyle's Sherlock Holmes, who shared rooms with Dr. Watson at "221B", Baker Street. Madame Tussaud continued to make wax models until she was 81.

Her figures were extremely realistic, and their costumes could be characterized by great accuracy. The range of her works was really enormous. A visitor to London's great Wax Museum will see kings and queens, statesmen and writers, actors and musicians, artists and sportsmen, scientists, astronauts, world leaders and so on and so forth. Unsuspecting visitors will be struck by the Chamber of Horrors displaying many notorious criminals.

The last of notable events on view includes those depicting the historical Battle of Trafalgar and the Battle of Britain.

THE TOWER OF LONDON is the capital's top tourist attraction. Built to impress and dominate the people of London, it has been a severe symbol of power throughout its 900-year history.

The Tower of London was founded by William the Conqueror in 1078 on the north bank of the Thames, from which he could govern and control the capital of his new kingdom. Successive kings added to the fortification and further building went on until the 19th century.

For centuries the Tower was Britain's most imposing and important centre for historical activity and royal intrigues. In its long history the Tower has been a fortress, a royal residence, a state prison and the Royal Mint. Here can be seen Tower Green, the site, where two of Henry VIII's queens Anne Boleyn and Catherine Howard, met their deaths, the Bloody Tower where "Little Princes", Edward V and his brother, the Duke of York, were murdered in 1483, and where Sir Walter Releigh spent some 13 years writing his "History of the World". Famous prisoners, who were executed in the Tower, include the Earl of Essex, the Duke of Monmouth, Lady Jane Grey and Guy Fawkes, who planned to blow up the Houses of Parliament. Statesmen, bishops, poets, plotters have all met their end in the Tower. Even in the 20th century traitors have died here, several spies were shot during the World Wars.

Visitors today can view the instruments of execution and torture, an arsenal of weapons, and the nation's treasure, the Crown Jewels, dating mostly from the Restoration (1660).

TOWER BRIDGE – the gateway to London – was built in 1894. It is the most famous and distinctive bridge in London with two Gothic towers that rise from the river bed.

Most cities and towns have museums and other treasures devoted to arts, archaeology and natural history. Rich in museums, for example, are Oxford and Cambridge. Many of them are associated with the universities, such as the Ashmolean Museum in Oxford, founded in 1683 and the oldest in the world, and the Fitzwilliam Museum in Cambridge. In York, founded in 1882, is the Yorkshire Museum, containing a wealth of Roman remains and medieval sculpture not to mention a fine natural history collection. The four museums of Norwich cover a wide range of subjects illustrating the background and history of East Anglia.

Many private art collections in historic family mansions, including those owned by the National Trust, are open to the public. An increasing number of open-air museums depict the regional life of an area.

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. In 1753 by an Act of Parliament the British Museum was founded, and the state itself became a big _____ .
2. But some of the most _____ collections of objects of artistic, archaeological, scientific, historical and general interest are contained in the _____ museums and galleries in London.
3. Most famous _____ include the Rosetta Stone in the Southern Egyptian Gallery, and, in the _____ _____, the Magna Charta, Nelson's log-book, and Scott's last diary.
4. The Victoria and Albert Museum is a national collection of _____ and _____ arts of all countries and periods.
5. The architect Alfred Waterhouse _____ a suitable building, the construction of which was completed in 1880.
6. More than 300 scientists are engaged in the _____ and _____ of animals, plants and minerals.
7. The Imperial War Museum gives a visual record of all the _____ in which British and Commonwealth armed forces have been engaged since the outbreak of the First World War.

II. Complete the sentences with the best answer (a, b or c).

1. During the colonial times the aristocracy and rich merchants filled their houses and castles with valuable
   a) sculptures, furniture and ornaments.
   b) works of arts.
   c) jewellery.
2. The British Museum includes also the British Library, which is the national library of the United Kingdom and ranks among the greatest libraries in
   a) Britain.
   b) Europe.
   c) the world.
3. Madame Tussaud's figures were extremely realistic, and their costumes could be characterized by great
   a) elegance.
   b) accuracy.
   c) perfection.

4. The list of notable events on view includes those depicting the historical
   a) Battle of Hastings.
   b) Battle of Britain.
   c) Battle of Trafalgar.

III. Are the statements true or false? Correct the false statements.

1. There are about 2,000 museums and galleries in Britain, which include the chief national collections, and a great variety of independently or privately owned institutions.
2. The Victoria and Albert Museum has about five miles of galleries with various exhibits, including ethnic arts and crafts.
3. The National Gallery exhibits all schools of European painting from the 13th to 19th century and includes works by Van Dyck, Rubens, Vermeer, Holbein, El Greco, Goya, Velasquez, Gainsborough and Leonardo da Vinci.
4. The Tate Gallery is really three galleries: a national gallery of British art, a gallery of modern sculpture and a gallery of modern British painting.
5. The Natural History Museum is the home of the national collections of living and fossil plants and animals.
6. Madame Tussaud first became associated with life-size wax portraits in 1770 when, at the age of 9, she helped her uncle open an exhibition in Paris.
7. She came to England in 1802, travelling with her exhibition for about thirty years before settling down permanently in Victoria Street.
8. Built to impress and dominate the people of London, the British Museum has been a severe symbol of power throughout its 900-year history.

IV. Answer the questions.

1. How did the British collect articles of arts during the colonial times?
2. When and what for was the British Museum founded?
3. Can you call Great Britain a country of museums?
4. Describe the British Museum.
5. Describe the Victoria and Albert Museum.
6. Describe the National Gallery.
7. Describe the Tate Gallery.
8. Describe the Science Museum.

9. Describe the Natural History Museum.
10. Describe the National Army Museum.
11. Describe the Imperial War Museum.
12. Describe Madame Tussaud's Museum of Waxworks.
13 Describe the Tower of London.

V. Points for discussion.

1. Arts and museums in the life of the people.
2. "London is the world's leading centre of museums." Comment on this statement.
3. Describe the leading museum in your city or town (in the neighbouring city or town).

TEST

Test your knowledge answering the following questions. Refer to the suggested Unit.

1. What independent states are located on the British Isles? *(Unit 1)*
2. How large is the United Kingdom territorially? *(Unit 1)*
3. Explain the origin of the word "London". *(Unit 1)*
4. Why do some people say that today Britain is, figuratively speaking, no longer an island country? *(Unit 2)*
5. What forms the backbone of England? *(Unit 3)*
6. Which part of Britain is associated with famous English poets? Why? *(Unit 3)*
7. What are the highest peaks in Britain? *(Unit 3)*
8. Name the longest river in Britain. *(Unit 3)*
9. What is the longest distance from the sea in Britain and how does this affect the climate of the country? *(Unit 4)*
10. What natural offshore resources of the country play a major role in the development of the economy? *(Unit 5)*
11. Who are the patron saints of the country and how is this reflected in the national symbols? *(Unit 6)*
12. Why is Britain often referred to as "Albion"? *(Unit 7)*
13. How can you explain the origin of the name "England"? *(Unit 7)*
14. What Saxon King successfully fought the Danes? *(Unit 7)*
15. When was the French language introduced as the official language in Britain? Why? What were the consequences? *(Unit 7)*
16. When was Wales finally brought under the rule of England? *(Unit 7)*
17. When was the union between England, Wales and Scotland formed which led to the establishment of Great Britain? *(Unit 7)*
18. Comment on 1707 concerning the history of Scotland. *(Unit 7)*
19. What does the term "devolution" mean and how did it affect the national parts of Britain? *(Units 7, 8)*
20. Refer to 1921 concerning the history of Ireland and to the role of religion in the development of events. *(Unit 8)*
21. How did immigration in the 20th century change the face of Britain? *(Unit 8)*
22. Name the most important ancient monument in British history. What was its purpose *(Unit 9)*
23. What famous festival takes place in Wales every year? Describe it. *(Unit 10)*
24. Name a popular place in Ireland allegedly associated with the activities of giants. *(Unit 11)*

25. What constitutional change was introduced in Britain in 1999? *(Unit 12)*
26. Expand on a multinational organization formed on the basis of the former British colonies. *(Unit 12)*
27. Which House of the British Parliament plays a leading role in the life of the country? Why? *(Unit 13)*
28. What does No 10 Downing Street mean? *(Unit 14)*
29. Name the three major political parties and explain their political influence in Parliament. *(Unit 14)*
30. Into what two groups are quality papers divided? Give some examples of the leading newspapers. *(Unit 15)*
31. For whom are the BBC television programmes (BBC1, BBC2) designed? *(Unit 16)*
32. What type of state secondary schools prevail in the country? *(Unit 17)*
33. Why are public schools limited in number? *(Unit 17, 18)*
34. What is the difference between GCSE and GCE? *(Unit 17)*
35. What place does Britain occupy in the world in terms of her GDP and share in world trade? *(Unit 19)*
36. Name the two most developed economic regions in the U.K. *(Units 19, 20)*
37. Name the two chief airports located near London. *(Unit 21)*
38. Describe the two important characteristics of modern British farming. *(Unit 22)*
39. What is the most popular dish served at Christmas? Describe it. *(Unit 23)*
40. Does the countryside play an important role in the lives of the British people? *(Unit 24)*
41. Name the two established churches in Britain. *(Unit 26)*
42. What can you buy at the chippy? *(Unit 26)*
43. Is a lawn-mower an important tool in the life of an average Britisher? Why? *(Unit 27)*
44. Of what traditional sports are the British great lovers? *(Unit 28)*
45. The story of what King is traditionally well-known to every child in Britain? Why? *(Unit 29)*
46. What are the main items of the traditional costume of the Highlanders? *(Unit 30)*
47. What made Canterbury Cathedral the site of mass pilgrimage for centuries? *(Unit 31)*
48. What plays of Shakespeare do you know? *(Unit 32)*
49. Why is Trafalgar Square one of the most important places of interest in London? *(Unit 33)*
50. What contribution did Florence Nightingale make to the history of medicine? *(Unit 34)*

APPENDICES

CHRONOLOGICAL OUTLINE

BC	
3000-2000	The Iberians and Beaker Folk inhabited England.
700-100	The Celts invaded and settled in England.
AD	
43	The Roman conquest of England began under the Emperor Claudius.
407-410	The Roman army was withdrawn from England.
450-500	The Anglo-Saxons and Jutes conquered England.
800-900	The struggle against the Danish invaders.
1065	The foundation of Westminster Abbey,
1066	The Norman Conquest. The Duke of Normandy, William defeated Harold near Hastings.
1086	The Domesday survey was made.
1215	Magna Charta was signed by king John.
1263	Merton College was founded at Oxford.
1265	The first English parliament was summoned by Simon de Montfort.
1282-4	Edward I conquered Wales.
1284	Peterhouse was founded as a college at Cambridge.
1314	The Scots under Bruce defeated the English at Bannockburn.
1337-1453	The Hundred Years' War between England and France.
1381	The peasants' uprising of Wat Tyler.
1431	Joan of Arc was burned by the English as a witch.
1440	Eton college was founded.
1455-85	The Wars of the Roses.
1476	William Caxton set up the first English printing press at Westminster.
1485	Richard III was defeated in battle on Bosworth Field by Henry Tudor.
1497	Henry VII patronized Cabot's voyage to North America.
1516	Thomas More wrote *Utopia*.
1534	The Act of Supremacy was passed by Parliament which abolished papal authority in England.
1536-9	All monasteries were dissolved.
1555	The Muscovy Company was chartered following Chancellor's voyages to Russia.
1578-80	Francis Drake made his voyage around the world.
1588	The English navy defeated the Spanish Armada The African Company was chartered.

1600	The East India Company was chartered.
1605	The Gunpowder Plot.
1640-60	The English revolution.
1642-6	The first Civil war.
1648	The second Civil war.
1649	Charles I was executed and England was declared a Commonwealth. The conquest of Ireland was begun by Cromwell.
1653	Cromwell became Lord Protector.
1660	The restoration of monarchy took place.
1665	The Great Plague swept London.
1666	The fire destroyed much of the City of London.
1679	The Habeas Corpus Act was passed.
1689	The Bill of Rights was enacted by Parliament.
1694	The bank of England was founded.
1701	The Act of Settlement was enacted by Parliament.
1707	The Union of Scotland and England was effected.
1768	The Royal Academy was founded, Captain Cook made his first voyage to Australia and New Zealand.
1775-83	The War of Independence.
1776	The American Declaration of Independence was issued.
1789	The French revolution began.
1801	The Union of Great Britain and Ireland was effected.
1805	Nelson defeated the French fleet off Cape Trafalgar.
1807	The Slave trade was abolished.
1811-12	The Luddite movement.
1815	The battle of Waterloo took place.
1819	The Peterloo Massacre took place.
1825	The Stockton and Darlington railway was opened.
1829	Peel established a civilian police force in London.
1832	The Reform Bill was passed by Parliament.
1834	The Poor Law Reform Act was passed;
1839	The Chartists' Petition was rejected by Parliament.
1845-6	Ireland suffered the Great Potato Famine.
1846	The Corn Laws were repealed. The last Chartist Petition was drawn.
1851	The Great Exhibition was held in Hyde Park.
1861-5	The American Civil war.
1867	The Reform Bill extended the franchise.
1868	The first Trades Union Congress was held.
1869	The Suez Canal was built.
1884	The Third Reform Bill extended the franchise to the population in rural districts.
1899-1902	The Boer War was fought in South Africa.
1900	The British Labour party was founded.
1904	An Entente Cordiale between France and England was effected.
1907	An Anglo-Russian Entente was effected.
1911	The Parliament Act restricted the veto power of the House of

	Lords.
1916	The Easter Rising took place in Dublin.
1918	The Franchise Act extended the electorate to men and to women over thirty.
1919	The Versailles Peace Treaty was signed and the League of Nations was founded.
1921	The Irish Free State was established.
1924	The first Labour government was formed.
1926	The General Strike was held.
1928	The franchise was extended to women at 21.
1929	The World economic crisis started.
1938	The Munich Agreement was signed.
1939-45	World War II.
1940	Britain experienced a devastating defeat at Dunkirk.
1942	Fascist Germany lost a decisive battle at Stalingrad.
1944	D-Day. Anglo-American forces landed in Normandy on June 6th. The opening of the second front.
1945	The Potsdam Agreement was signed. The United Nations Organization was founded.
1947	The Nationalization Acts were passed.
1948	The National Health Service was established.
1949	NATO was formed.
1969	The voting age was reduced to 18.
1973	Britain joined the EEC (European Economic Community or Common Market).
1979	Margaret Thatcher became the first woman Prime Minister.
1982	The war for the Falkland Islands took place between Britain and Argentina.
1987	Margaret Thatcher formed her third Conservative government.
1990	The resignation of Margaret Thatcher. John Major became Prime Minister.
1992	The Conservatives won their fourth victory in the general elections. Establishment of direct diplomatic relations between Britain and Belarus.
1997	The Labour party won the general elections and Anthony Blair became Prime Minister.
1999	Abolition of the hereditary Lords in the House of Lords. Restoration of the Welsh Assembly and the Scottish Parliament known as the process of devolution.
2001	The Labour party won its second victory in the general elections.
2002	The death of the Queen Mother.
2003	The Golden Jubilee of the coronation of Queen Elizabeth II.
2005	The Labour party under Anthony Blair won its third successive victory in the general elections.

KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND FROM ALFRED

871-901	Alfred
901-25	Edward the Elder
925-40	Athelstan
940-6	Edmund
946-55	Edred
	Saxon Line
955-9	Edwy
959-75	Edgar
975-8	Edward the Martyr
978-1016	Ethelred II the Unready
1016	Edmund Ironside
	Danish Line
1016-35	Canute
1035-40	Harold Harefoot
1040-2	Hardicanute
	Saxon Line
1042-66	Edward the Confessor
1066	Harold Godwinson
	House of Normandy
1066-87	William the Conqueror
1087-1100	William II (Rufus)
1100-35	Henry I
1135-54	Stephen
	House of Plantagenet
1154-89	Henry II
1189-99	Richard I
1199-1216	John
1216-72	Henry III
1272-1307	Edward I
1307-27	Edward II
1327-77	Edward III
1377-99	Richard II
	House of Lancaster
1399-1413	Henry IV
1413-1422	Henry V
1422-61	Henry VI
	House of York
1461-83	Edward IV
1483	Edward V
1483-5	Richard III
	House of Tudor
1485-1509	Henry VII
1509-47	Henry VIII
1547-53	Edward VI
1553-8	Mary
1558-1603	Elizabeth I
	House of Stuart
1603-25	James I
1625-49	Charles I
1649-60 in exile	Charles II
1660-85	
1685-8	James II
1689-94	William III and Mary II
1694-1702	William III (alone)
1702-14	Anne
	House of Hanover
1714-27	George I
1727-60	George II
1760-1820	George III
1820-30	George IV
1830-7	William IV
1837-1901	Victoria
	House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha
1901-10	Edward VII
	House of Windsor
1910-36	George V
1936	Edward VIII
1936-52	George VI
1952-	Elizabeth II

BRITISH PRIME MINISTERS AND GOVERNMENTS

Name	*Party*	*Date*
Spencer Perceval	Tory	1809
Earl of Liverpool	Tory	1812
George Canning	Tory	1827
Viscount Goderich	Tory	1827
Duke of Wellington	Tory	1828
Earl Grey	Whig	1830
Viscount Melbourne	Whig	1834
Sir Robert Peel	Tory	1834
Viscount Melbourne	Whig	1835
Sir Robert Peel	Tory	1841
Lord John Russell	Whig	1846
Earl of Derby	Tory	1852
Earl of Aberdeen	Peelite	1852
Viscount Palmerston	Liberal	1855
Earl of Derby	Conservative	1858
Viscount Palmerston	Liberal	1859
Earl Russell	Liberal	1865
Earl of Derby	Conservative	1866
Benjamin Disraeli	Conservative	1868
W. E. Gladstone	Liberal	1868
Benjamin Disraeli	Conservative	1874
W. B. Gladstone	Liberal	1880
Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative	1885
W. E. Gladstone	Liberal	1886
Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative	1886
W. E. Gladstone	Liberal	1892
Earl of Rosebery	Liberal	1894
Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative	1895
A. J. Balfour	Conservative	1902
Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman	Liberal	1905
H. H. Asquith	Liberal	1908
H. H. Asquith	Coalition	1915
D. Lloyd-George	Coalition	1916
A. Bonar Law	Conservative	1922
Stanley Baldwin	Conservative	1923
J. Ramsay MacDonald	Labour	1924
Stanley Baldwin	Conservative	1924
J. Ramsay MacDonald	Labour	1929
J. Ramsay MacDonald	Coalition	1931
Stanley Baldwin	Coalition	1935

Neville Chamberlain	Coalition	1937
Winston S. Churchill	Coalition	1940
Winston S. Churchill	Conservative	1945
Clement R. Attlee	Labour	1945
Sir Winston Churchill	Conservative	1951
Sir Anthony Eden	Conservative	1955
Harold Macmillan	Conservative	1957
Sir Alec Douglas-Home	Conservative	1963
Harold Wilson	Labour	1964
Edward Heath	Conservative	1970
Harold Wilson	Labour	1974
James Callaghan	Labour	1975
Margaret Thatcher	Conservative	1979
Margaret Thatcher	Conservative	1983
Margaret Thatcher	Conservative	1987
John Major	Conservative	1990
Anthony Blair	Labour	1997
Anthony Blair	Labour	2001
Anthony Blair	Labour	2005

LIST OF GEOGRAPHICAL AND PROPER NAMES

Aberdeen [ˌæbəˈdi:n]
Aberystwyth [ˌæbəˈrɪstwɪθ]
Albert Mathieu [ˈælbət ˈmætjə]
Albion [ˈælbɪən]
Angles [ˈænglz]
Anglesey [ˈæŋglsɪ]
Anne Hathaway [ˈæn ˈhæθəweɪ]
Armagh [ɑ:ˈmɑ:]
Aubrey Holes [ˈɔ:brɪ həʊlz]
Auld Lang Syne [ˌɔ:ld læŋ ˈsaɪn]
Austen Jane [ˌɒstɪn ˈdʒeɪn]
Avalon [ˈævəlɒn]
Avebury [ˈeɪvbrɪ]
Avon [ˈeɪvən]
Bannockburn [ˌbænəkˈbə:n]
Beaker people [ˌbi:kəˈpi:pl]
Belfast Lough [belˈfɑ:st lɒk]
Bengali [benˈgɑ:lɪ]
Ben Nevis [ˈben ˈnevɪs]
Beowulf [ˈbeɪəwʊlf]
Bermuda [bəˈmju:də]
Bernard Shaw [ˈbɜ:nəd ʃɔ:]
Bloomsbury [ˈblu:mzb(ə)rɪ]
Cadiz [ˈkædɪz]
Caernarfon [kəˈnɑ:vn]
Calvin John [ˈkælvɪn ˈdʒɒn]
Cambrian [ˈkæmbrɪən]
Camelot [ˈkæmɪlət]
Canterbury [ˈkæntəbərɪ]
Cardiff [ˈkɑ:dɪf]
Caribbean [kəˈrɪbɪən]
Carrickfergus [ˌkærɪkˈfɜ:gəs]
Celt [kelt]
Charles Edward Stuart [tʃɑ:lz ˈedwəd ˈstju:ət]
Charter House [ˈtʃɑ:tə ˈhaʊs]
Cheviot [ˈtʃevɪət]
Cirencester [ˈsaɪrənˈsestə]
Claude [klɔ:d]
Clyde [klaɪd]
Cornwall [ˈkɔ:nwəl]
Cowley [ˈkaʊlɪ]
Crimea [kraɪˈmɪə]
Culloden [kəˈlɒdn]
Cumbrian [ˈkʌmbrɪən]
Danes [deɪnz]
Dee [di:]
Derby [ˈdɑ:bɪ]
Devon [ˈdevn]
Donegall [ˈdɒnɪgɔ:l]
Douglas [ˈdʌgləs]
Down [daʊn]
Doyle, Conan [ˈdɔɪl ˈkɒnən]
Druid [ˈdru:ɪd]
Earl of Leicester [ˈɜ:l əv ˈlestə]
Eden [ˈi:dn]
Edinburgh [ˈedɪnbərə]
Eire [ˈeərə]
Eisteddfod [aɪˈsteðvɒd]
Elbe [elb]
Eton [ˈi:tn]
Etonian [ɪˈtəʊnɪən]
Excalibur [eksˈkælɪbə]
Exeter [ˈeksətə]
Falkirk [ˈfɔ:lkɜ:k]
Fermanagh [fəˈnænə]
Fingal's Cave [ˈfɪŋglz keɪv]
Finn McCool [ˌfɪn məˈku:l]
Fitzwilliam [fɪtsˈwiljəm]
Fleetwood [ˈfli:twʊd]
Folkestone [ˈfəʊkstən]
Forth [fɔ:θ]
Francois Mitterrand [ˈfrænswɑ: ˈmɪtərɑ:n]
Gaelic [ˈgeɪlɪk]
Gainsborough [ˈgeɪnzb(ə)rə]
Gatwick [ˈgætwɪk]
Gaul [gɔ:l]
Gawain [ˈgɑ:weɪn]
Gelert [ˈgelə:t]
Geoffrey Chaucer [ˈdʒefrɪ ˈtʃɔ:sə]
George Lloyd [ˈdʒɔ:dʒ ˈlɔɪd]

Gerald Hawkins ['dʒerəld 'hɔ:kɪnz]
Gibraltar [dʒɪ'brɔ:ltə]
Glasgow ['glɑ:sgəʊ, 'glɑ:zgəʊ]
Grasmere ['grɑ:smɪə]
Grimsby ['grɪmzbɪ]
Guernsey ['gɜ:nzɪ]
Guinevere ['gwɪnɪvɪə]
Gujarati [ˌgʊdʒə'rɑ:tɪ]
Hadrian ['heɪdrɪən]
Harrow ['hærəʊ]
Harwich ['hærɪdʒ]
Hastings ['heɪstɪŋz]
Hawswater ['hɔ:zwɔ:tə]
Hebrides ['hebrɪdi:z]
Helvellyn [hel'velɪn]
Holbein ['hɒlbaɪn]
Holmes, Sherlock ['həʊmz 'ʃɜ:lɒk]
Holy Grail ['həʊlɪ 'greɪl]
Horatio Nelson [hə'reɪʃɪəʊ 'nelsən]
Humber ['hʌmbə]
Iberian [aɪ'bɪərɪən]
Jacobite ['dʒækəbaɪt]
James Joyce ['dʒeɪmz 'dʒɔɪs]
Jersey ['dʒɜ:zɪ]
Jonathan Swift ['dʒɒnəθən swɪft]
Joseph of Arimathea ['dʒəʊzɪf əv ˌærɪmə'θi:ə]
Julius Caesar ['dʒu:lɪəs 'si:zə]
Jutes [dʒu:ts]
Knox [nɒks]
Lancashire ['læŋkəʃɪə]
Launcelot ['lɔ:nslət]
Leicester ['lestə]
Leinster ['lenstə]
Lincolnshire ['lɪŋkənʃ(ɪ)ə]
Liverpool ['lɪvəpu:l]
Lizard ['lɪzəd]
Llewelyn [lu:'elɪn]
Lomond ['ləʊmənd]
Lough Neagh [ˌlɒk'neɪ]
Louis ['lu:ɪ]
Lowestoft ['ləʊstɒft]
Macnaghtan [mək'nɔ:tn]
Madame Tussaud ['mædəm 'tju:səʊ]
Martin Luther ['mɑ:tɪn 'lu:θə]
Mediterranean ['medɪtə'reɪnɪən]
Megalithic ['megə'lɪθɪk]
Merchant Taylor's ['mɜ:tʃ(ə)nt 'teɪləz]
Mersey ['mɜ:zɪ]
Milford, Haven ['mɪlfəd 'heɪvən]
Mourne [mɔ:n]
Naples ['neɪplz]
Napoleon [nə'pəʊlɪən]
Neolithic [ˌni:ə'lɪθɪk]
Newhaven ['nju:'heɪvn]
Nile [naɪl]
Norwich ['nɒrɪtʃ]
Orkney ['ɔ:knɪ]
Ouse [u:z]
Pennine ['penaɪn]
Pentland ['pentlənd]
Perceval ['pɜ:sɪvl]
Plaid Cymru [ˌplaɪd 'kʌmrɪ]
Plymouth ['plɪməθ]
Pope, Alexander ['pəʊp ˌælɪg'zɑ:ndə]
Portsmouth ['pɔ:tsməθ]
Punjabi [pʌn'dʒɑ:bɪ]
Rembrandt ['rembrænt]
Renaissance [rə'neɪs(ə)ns]
Repton, Humphry ['repten 'hʌmfrɪ]
Rhine [raɪn]
Robert Bruce ['rɒbət bru:s]
Rugby ['rʌgbɪ]
Sabrina [sə'braɪnə]
Saxon ['sæksn]
Scafell ['skɔ:'fel]
Scarborough ['skɑ:brə]
Scilly ['sɪlɪ]
Scunthorpe ['skʌnθɔ:p]
Sean [ʃɔ:n]
Seathwaite ['si:ðweɪt]
Severn ['sevən], ['sevɜ:n]
Shakespeare ['ʃeɪkspɪə]
Shetland ['ʃetlənd]
Shrewsbury ['ʃrəʊzb(ə)rɪ]
Sinn Fein [ˌʃɪn 'feɪn]
Skye [skaɪ]

Slieve Donard ['sli:v 'dɒnɜ:d]
Snowdon ['snəʊdn]
Solent ['səʊlənt]
Somerset ['sʌmɒsɪt]
Southampton [saʊθ'æmptən]
Southwark ['sʌðək]
Sperrin ['sperɪn]
Spey [speɪ]
Staffa ['stæfə]
St. Augustine [snt ɔ:'gʌstɪn]
St. Columba [snt kə'lʌmbə]
Stirling ['stɜ:lɪŋ]
St. Paul's [snt 'pɔ:lz]
Stonehenge [ˌstəʊn'hendʒ]
Stormont ['stɔ:mɒnt]
Suffolk ['sʌfək]
Susannah [su:'zænə]
Swansea ['swɒnzɪ]
Tabard Inn ['tæbəd ɪn]
Thor [θɔ:]
Tilbury ['tɪlb(ə)rɪ]
Titanic [taɪ'tænɪk]
Trafalgar [trə'fælgə]
Tudor ['tju:də]
Tyne [taɪn]
Tyrone [tɪ'rəʊn]
Ullswater ['ʌlzˌwɔ:tə]
Ulster ['ʌlstə]
Urdu ['ʊədu:]
Velasquez [vɪ'læsk(w)ɪz]
Venice ['venɪs]
Versailles [veə'saɪ]
Viking ['vaɪkɪŋ]
Vinci, Leonardo ['vɪntʃɪ ˌlɪə'nɑ:dəʊ]
Walpole, Horace ['wɔ:lpəʊl 'hɒrəs]
Walting Street ['wɒltɪŋ stri:t]
Wear and Tees [ˌwɪə ən 'ti:z]
Wessex ['wesɪks]
Wight [waɪt]
William Railton ['wɪlɪəm 'reɪltən]
Wiltshire ['wɪltʃ(ɪ)ə]
Windermere ['wɪndəmɪə]
Windsor ['wɪnzə]
Woden ['wəʊdn]
Wolverhampton ['wʊlvəˌhæmptən]
Yorkshire ['jɔ:kʃɪə]

ALPHABETICAL WORD LIST

Abbreviation used in the list:

a – adjective
n – noun
pl – plural
prep – preposition
v – verb
бот. – ботаника
в знач. прил. – в значении прилагательного
геогр. – география
ирл. – употребительно в Ирландии
собир. –собирательно
сокр. – сокращение
с.-х. – сельское хозяйство
тж. – также
шотл. – употребительно в Шотландии

A

abbey ['æbɪ] *n* аббатство, монастырь
abundant *a* обильный, изобилующий
accent *n* произношение, акцент
access *n* доступ
accessible *a* доступный
account *n* счет; отчет
account *v* ~ for отчитываться, объяснять; отвечать, нести ответственность
accuracy *n* точность, правильность; тщательность
acquisition *n* приобретение
act *n* акт, закон; A. of Parliament парламентский акт, закон; A. of Settlement Акт о престолонаследии (*1701 г.*)
adaptable *a* легко приспосабливаемый
adequate *a* соответствующий, адекватный
adhere *v* придерживаться
adherent *n* приверженец, сторонник
admission *n* доступ, принятие, допущение
admit v допускать, принимать
adult *n, a* взрослый, совершеннолетний
advertise *v* рекламировать
advocate *v* отстаивать, защищать, поддерживать; пропагандировать
affection *n* привязанность, любовь
ale *n* эль, пиво
ally ['ælaɪ] *n* союзник
ambassador *n* посол
amend *v* вносить поправки
amendment *n* поправка *(к резолюции, законопроекту и т.п.)*
amount *n* количество
amount *v* составлять *(сумму)*, равняться
anachronistic *a* анахронистический, устаревший
ancient ['eɪnʃənt] *a* древний
Anglican *a* англиканский, относящийся к англиканской церкви
annoy *v* досаждать, докучать, надоедать, раздражать
anticipate *v* ожидать, предвидеть, предчувствовать

applicant *n* претендент, кандидат; проситель, тот, кто обращается *(с заявлением)*; абитуриент
application *n* заявление, прошение
apply *v* обращаться *(за работой, помощью и т.п.)*; подавать заявление
apprentice *n* ученик, подмастерье
approach *n* подступ; подход
approach *v* приближаться, подходить; обращаться
approval [ə'pru:'vəl] *n* одобрение
arable *a* пахотный
archaeologist ['ɑ:kɪ'ɒlədʒɪst] *n* археолог
archbishop *n* архиепископ
archipelago *n* архипелаг
arm *n* род войск; *pl* оружие; coat of ~s герб
armour *n* вооружение, броня; доспехи
arsenal *n* арсенал
assent *n* согласие, разрешение
assume *v* принимать на себя, присваивать; допускать
attach *v* прикреплять
attain *v* достигать, добиваться
attempt *n* попытка
attendance *n* посещаемость
attitude *n* позиция, отношение
audience *n* публика, зрители
authority *n* власть; авторитет
available *a* доступный, имеющийся в распоряжении
average *a* средний
awareness *n* осведомленность, знание; осознание

B

bagpipe *n* волынка
ballot *n* избирательный бюллетень; голосование
baptism *n* крещение
barley *n* ячмень
barrier *n* барьер, преграда
basalt *n* базальт
base *n* основа, основание; база; базис
bat *n* бита *(в крикете)*
BBC *сокр.* (=British Broadcasting Corporation) Би-Би-Си, Британская радиовещательная корпорация
Beaker : ~ people народ Чаш
beam *n* балка; брус; перекладина
bear *v* нести, выдерживать
benefit *n* выгода, польза
benefit *v* приносить или извлекать пользу
bet *n* пари, ставка
betray *v* предавать, изменять
bill *n* билль, законопроект
bind *v* вязать, связывать
biscuit ['bɪskɪt] *n* печенье
bishop *n* епископ
blend *v* смешивать, изготовлять смеси
boarding-house *n* пансион; меблированные комнаты со столом
boarding-school *n* школа-интернат
boldness *n* смелость
bourgeois ['bʊəʒwɑ:] *a* буржуазный
bow *n* лук, самострел
bowls *n pl* игра в шары
breed *n* порода; потомство, поколение; племя
brew *v* варить (пиво)
brewery *n* пивоваренный завод
broadcast *n* радиовещание; *v* передавать по радио; вещать
broth *n* мясной бульон; суп
Buddhism ['bʊdɪzəm] *n* буддизм
bulk *n* объем; основная масса, большая часть
bulky *a* большой, объемный; грузный
bundle *n* узел(ок); связка; сверток
burgher ['bɜ:gə] *n ист.* горожанин
burial ['berɪəl] *n* похороны
butt *n* приклад *(ружья)*

C

Caernarfon [kə'nɑ:vən] *n* Карнарвон *(знаменитый замок 13 в. в Уэльсе)*

cape *n* мыс
capture *v* захватывать
carnation *n* гвоздика
cartoon *n* (тж. ~ film) мультфильм
castle ['kɑ:sl] *n* за́мок
cater *v* (*for*) поставлять провизию; обслуживать *(посетителей)*
cause *v* быть причиной; причинять; вызывать
causeway *n* мостовая; the Giant's C. "Мостовая Великана" *(знаменитые вулканические образования в Сев. Ирландии, получившие такое название)*
caution *n* осторожность; предусмотрительность, предосторожность
cave *n* пещера
cease *v* переставать, прекращать(ся)
censorship *n* цензура
cereal *n* хлебный злак; *pl* зерновые; каша
chamber *n* палата
chancellor *n* канцлер; C. of the Exchequer канцлер казначейства, министр финансов
channel *n* пролив; канал; the (English) C. Ла-Манш
chaplain *n* капеллан; священник
charge *v* обвинять
charity *n* благотворительность
choir ['kwaɪə] *n* хор
chop *n* отбивная
chrome [krəʊm] *n* хром
church *n* церковь
circuit *n* округ *(судебный, церковный и т.п.)*, участок; район
circulate *v* циркулировать; распространять(ся)
claim *v* претендовать, заявлять права
clash *n* конфликт
clause *n* статья, пункт
clergy *n* духовенство
coarse *n* грубый; ~ fishing ловля пресноводной рыбы
cod *n* треска
collapse *n* обвал; разрушение; крушение, крах
combustion *n* горение, сгорание; воспламенение
commemorate *v* праздновать, отмечать *(годовщину и т.п.)*; устраивать, воздвигать и т.п. в память, в честь *(чего-л.)*; ознаменовывать
commodity *n* товар
commonwealth *n* содружество
commuter *n* пассажир, совершающий регулярные поездки на работу в город из пригорода и обратно
complaint *n* жалоба, претензия
completeness *n* полнота, законченность, завершенность
compose *v* составлять; to be ~d of состоять из
comprise *v* включать, заключать в себе
concern *v* касаться, иметь отношение; to be ~d about беспокоиться, заботиться (о); to ~ oneself (with) интересоваться, заниматься *(чем-л.)*
conclude *v* заключать *(договор)*
conduct *v* вести
confine *v* ограничивать
confuse *v* смешивать, спутывать
congestion *n* перегруженность, затор (*уличного движения*), "пробка"
conquest *n* завоевание, покорение
consciousness ['kɒnʃəsnɪs] *n* сознание; сознательность
consequence *n* последствие
Conservative *n, a* консерватор; консервативный
constituency *n* избирательный округ
constitute *v* составлять
consume *v* потреблять
consumer *n* потребитель; ~ goods товары народного потребления
consumption *n* потребление
contain *v* содержать (*в себе*)
contemporary *a* современный

content *n* содержание
contest *n* соревнование, состязание; конкурс; соперничество
contour *n* очертание, контур
convenient *a* удобный
convention *n* договор, соглашение; собрание, съезд
conventional *a* обычный, традиционный
converge *v* сходиться *(о линиях, дорогах)*
convert *v* превращать; конвертировать
cope *v* (with) справиться (с)
copper *n* медь
corresponding *a* соответствующий
cot *n* детская кроватка
county *n* графство
court *n* суд; двор *(короля и т.п.)*; C. of Appeal апелляционный суд
coverage *n* охват, освещение *(в прессе и т.п.)*
craft *n* ремесло
crime *n* преступление; преступность
crofting *n* ведение мелкого фермерского хозяйства; система развития сельского хозяйства на основе содержания небольших ферм *(особ. в Шотландии)*
cross *v* скрещивать; пересекать, переправляться и т.п.
crude *a* грубый
crumpet *n* лепешка; блин
crush *v давить; дробить;* уничтожать; подавлять
crust *n* корка; земная кора
cultivable *a* обрабатываемый *(о земле)*
curate *n* викарий, исправляющий должность священника
cure *v* вылечивать, исцелять
curriculum *n* учебный план *(школы, университета)*
customary *a* обычный, привычный
cutlery *n* ножевые изделия

D

daffodil *n* нарцисс
dairy-farm *n* молочная ферма
dampness *n* сырость, влажность; влага
daring *a* смелый, отважный, бесстрашный
darts *n pl* "дротики" *(игра, особ. популярная в пабах)*
debt [det] *n* долг; in ~ в долгах
decent ['di:snt] *a* порядочный
decline *n* склон; спад; упадок
decline *v* приходить в упадок
degree *n* степень; градус
density *n плотность*
department *n* министерство
departure *n* отступление; уход
depict *v* изображать, описывать
deposit *n* вклад *(в банке)*; взнос; *месторождение; залежь*
depression *n* низина, впадина; депрессия; уныние
deprive *v* лишать
derive *v* происходить
descend [dɪ'send] *v* спускаться, сходить; происходить
descendant [dɪ'sendənt] *n* потомок
design *n* план; рисунок; проект; чертеж; эскиз
design *v* составлять план; проектировать; рисовать; делать эскизы
despair *n* отчаяние
detach *v* отделять(ся); ~ed house *особняк*
deteriorate *v* ухудшаться
determination *n* решительность; решимость
devolution *n* деволюция, предоставление национальной автономии
diamond *n* алмаз; бриллиант
dilatory *a* медленный; запоздалый
diocese ['daɪəsɪs] *n* епархия
dioramic *a* диорамный
disgust *v* внушать отвращение
display *v* демонстрировать, показывать; выставлять *(на выставке и т.п.)*; проявлять

dissolution *n* расторжение; роспуск, закрытие *(парламента и т.п.)*
dissolve *v* расторгать; распускать *(парламент и т.п.)*
distillery *n* винокуренный завод, перегонный завод
distinction *n* различие, отличие; известность
distinguish *v* различать; отличаться
disturbance *n* нарушение порядка *и т.п.; pl* беспорядки, волнения
ditch *n* канава, ров
dive *v* нырять; пикировать
diversify *v* разнообразить
diversity *n* разнообразие, многообразие
documentary *n* документальный фильм
domestic *a* домашний; внутренний *(внутри страны)*
doubtful ['daʊtfl] *a* сомнительный, полный сомнений
downfall *n* падение, гибель, разорение
dragon *n* дракон
drift *n* медленное течение
drive-off: ~ platform платформа, с которой съезжает машины
drive-on: ~ platform платформа для въезда автомобилей
drizzle *n* мелкий дождь, изморось
drought [draʊt] *n* засуха
Druid ['dru:ɪd] *n* друид, жрец
drunkenness *n* пьянство
duchy *n* герцогство
duke *n* герцог
duration *n* продолжительность
dweller *n* житель, обитатель

E

earnings ['ɜ:nɪŋz] *n pl* заработанные деньги, заработок
Easter *n* Пасха
eatery *n* закусочная, столовая *и т.п.*; "забегаловка"
eclipse *n* затмение
efficiency *n* эффективность, производительность
efficient *a* действенный; эффективный; производительный
elaborate *a* тщательно разработанный, продуманный
electorate *n* избиратели; избирательный округ
Elizabethan [ɪ'lɪzə'bi:θən] *a* эпохи королевы Елизаветы, елизаветинский
emerge *v* появляться
emphasis *n* выразительность, сила; ударение, акцент; to make an ~ on smth. придавать особое значение чему-л.; выделять, подчеркивать что-л.
emphasize *v* придавать особое значение; выделять, подчеркивать
encourage [ɪn'kʌrɪdʒ] *v* ободрять, поощрять, способствовать
engineering *n* машиностроение
enterprise *n* предприятие; предпринимательство
entertainment *n* развлечение, увеселение
entire *a* полный, целый, весь
environment *n* окружающая среда; окружение
erect *v* сооружать, возводить, воздвигать
essential *a* существенный, важный
establishment *n* истэблишмент; совокупность основ и устоев государственного и социального устройства; правящая элита
estate *n* имение, поместье
estimate *v* оценивать, давать оценку
estuary *n* устье *(реки)*
evaluate *v* оценивать
evidence *n* свидетельское показание; свидетельство; данные; признаки
evolve *v* развиваться; развертываться
exaggerate *v* преувеличивать

exceed *v* превышать; превосходить
executive *a* исполнительный
exert *v* напрягать *(силы)*; прилагать *(все усилия)*
exhaust [ɪg'zɔ:st] *n* выхлоп
exhaustion *n* изнеможение; истощение
exhibit [ɪg'zɪbɪt] *n* экспонат
expand *v* расширять(ся)
expel *v* выдворять; выгонять, исключать *(из учебного заведения и т.п.)*
expose *v* разоблачать
extend *v* простираться
extensive *a* обширный; пространный; экстенсивный
extreme *a* крайний, чрезвычайный

F

fair *n* ярмарка
faith *n* вера
fame *n* слава, известность
favour *v* поддерживать, способствовать
fee *n* взнос
female *a* женский, женского пола
ferrous *a* содержащий двухвалентное железо; ~ metal черный металл
ferry *n* паром
fertile *a* плодородный
fertility *n* плодородие; плодовитость
fertilizer *n* удобрение
feudal ['fju:dəl] *a* феодальный
fibre ['faɪbə] *n* волокно
flagttaff *n* флагшток
flavour *n* вкус; аромат
flax *n* лен
flexible *a* гибкий
flood [flʌd] *v* затоплять
flour ['flaʊə] *n* мука
flourish [flʌrɪʃ] *v* пышно расти; процветать
forerunner *n* предтеча; предвестник
fortify *v* укреплять, сооружать укрепление
fossil *n* окаменелость
foundation *n* фундамент, основание, основа
freight [freɪt] *n* груз:
frequency *n* частота; частотность
frequent *a* частый
friar *n* монах
fuel ['fju:əl] *n* топливо, горючее
funeral *n* похороны
furnace *n* очаг; печь; топка

G

Gaelic ['geɪlɪk] *a* гаэльский, галльский
game *n* дичь
gap *n* брешь; пробел; глубокое расхождение *(во взглядах)*; разрыв
gateway *n* ворота
gather *v* собирать; to ~ speed набирать скорость
GDP *сокр.* (=Gross Domestic Product), валовой внутренний продукт
general *a* общий; ~ election всеобщие *выборы*
genuine ['dʒenjʊɪn] *a* подлинный, истинный
gingerbread *n* имбирный пряник
GNP сокр. (=Gross National Product) валовой национальный продукт
goods *n pl* товары; consumer ~ товары народного потребления
gooseberry *n* крыжовник
Gothic *a* готский; готический
governor *n* губернатор
grace *n* грация, изящество
Grail *n* Грааль; the Holy ~ чаша Грааля (см. **Holy**)
grain *n* зерно; хлебные злаки
grant *v* дарить, даровать
gravel *n* гравий

graze *v* пасти(сь)
guess *v* угадывать, отгадывать
gulf *n* морской залив
gypsum *n* гипс

H

habit *n* привычка, обычай
harbour *n* гавань
hare *n* заяц
haze *n* легкий туман, дымка, мгла
headline ['hedlaɪn] *n* заголовок
headmaster ['hedmɑ:stə] *n* директор школы
heal *v* излечивать, исцелять
Heel Stone *n* "Пяточный камень" *(в доисторическом сооружении Стоунхендж)*
heir ['eə] *n* наследник
herb *n* трава, растение
herbalist *n* знаток трав
hereditary *a* наследственный
herring ['herɪŋ] *n* селедка
hexagonal *a* шестиугольный
hierarchy ['haɪərɑ:kɪ] *n* иерархия
high-grade *a* высокосортный, высококачественный
Hindu [ˌhɪn'du:] *n* индус
holly *n бот.* падуб
Holy Grail *n* священный грааль
horseradish *n* хрен
horseshoe *n* подкова
hound *n* пес
house *n* дом; палата *(парламента)*; the H. of Commons палата общин; the H. of Lords палата лордов
household *n* семья, домочадцы; домашнее хозяйство

I

I.B.A. *сокр.* (Independent Broadcasting Authority) **независимое** агентство вещания
Iberian *a* иберийский
identical *a* одинаковый, идентичный
identify *v* устанавливать тождество; опознавать, устанавливать личность
immense *a* огромный, безмерный
immortal *a* бессмертный; вечный
impact *n* влияние, воздействие
impetus *n* толчок; импульс; стимул
imply *v* заключать в себе; подразумевать, предполагать
impose *v* облагать *(налогом)*; навязывать(ся)
imposing *a* производящий сильное впечатление; внушительный, импозантный, впечатляющий
income *n* доход
indented *a* изрезанный; ~ coastline изрезанная береговая линия
indicative *a* указывающий, показывающий
inefficiency *n* неспособность; неэффективность
inevitable *a* неизбежный, неминуемый
infuriate [ɪn'fju:rɪeɪt] *v* приводить в ярость, разъярять
ingredient *n* составная часть, ингредиент
inherit *v* (у)наследовать
initial *a* (перво)начальный
initiate *v* вводить *(в должность, общество)*; принимать *(в клуб и т.п.)*; начинать; знакомить
insular *a* островной
insurance [ɪn'ʃʊrəns] *n* страхование; ~ policy страховой полис
intellectual *n* интеллигент; мыслящий человек
intend *v* намереваться; to be ~ed for smth. предназначаться для чего-л.
intentional *a* намеренный, умышленный
interchange *n* обмен, чередование, смена
intermediary *n* посредник
internal *a* внутренний

intrigue [ɪn'tri:g] *n* интрига, происк, козни
invention *n* изобретение
investiture *n* инвеституpа *(официальная церемония введения в должность духовного лица или присвоения титула члену королевской семьи, посвящения в рыцари)*
irresistible *a* неотразимый; непреодолимый
issue ['ɪʃu:] *n* выпуск *(издания)*; издание; (спорный) вопрос, проблема
I.T.V. *сокр.* (Independent Television) независимое телевидение

J

Jacobite *n якобит (сторонник короля Иакова II (1685-1688) и его наследников)*
jewel ['dʒu:əl] *n* драгоценный камень; драгоценность; the Crown ~s драгоценности из королевской казны
jewellery *n* драгоценности; ювелирные изделия
judge *n* судья
judgement *n* приговор, решение суда; мнение, взгляд
judicial [dʒu:'dɪʃl] *a* судебный
judiciary [dʒu:'dɪʃərɪ] *n* судоустройство, суд
junction *n* соединение; союз, коалиция; железнодорожный узел; скрещивание *(дорог)*; перекресток; слияние *(рек)*
jurisdiction [ˌdʒʊərɪs'dɪkʃn] *n* судебное производство, отправление правосудия; юриспруденция

K

kaolin *n* каолин
kidney *n* почка
kilt *n* юбка шотландского горца или солдата шотландского полка
kinsman *n* (кровный) родственник
kirk *n шотл.* церковь
knight *n* рыцарь
knit *v вязать (носки и т.п.)*
knitwear *n* вязаные вещи, трикотажные изделия
knot *n* узел

L

lace *n* кружево; шнурок
lamb [læm] *n* ягненок, барашек; овечка; мясо молодого барашка
landmark *n* межевой знак; веха *(в истории)*
large-scale *a* крупномасштабный; крупный *(о промышленности и т.п.)*, массовый
latitude *n геогр.* широта
lawyer ['lɔ:jə] *n* юрист; адвокат
layout *n* планировка; оформление
lead [led] *n* свинец
leap *v* прыгать, скакать; перепрыгивать
leek *n* лук-порей
legal *n* юридический, правовой; законный; легальный
legislation *n* законодательство
legislative *a* законодательный
legislature *n* законодательная власть
leisure ['leʒə] *n* досуг, свободное время
lettuce ['letɪs] *n* салат-латук
lever *n* рычаг
linen *n* полотно, холст; белье
link *n* связь; *v* связывать
lintel *n* перемычка *(окна или дверей)*; камень, служащий перемычкой
livestock *n* (домашний) скот
loan [ləʊn] *n* заем; ссуда
loch [lɒk] *n шотл.* озеро
lofty *a* возвышенный; величественный

log-book *n* вахтенный журнал, судовой журнал
longitude *n геогр.* долгота
lord *n* лорд; L.Chancellor лорд-канцлер *(один из ведущих членов кабинета министров)*; Lords Spiritual "духовные" лорды *(26 архиепископов и епископов английской церкви в палате лордов в отличие от светских членов палаты лордов)*; Lords Temporal "светские" лорды
lough [lɒk] *n ирл.* озеро
loyal *a* верный, преданный; лояльный
loyalty *n* верность, преданность; лояльность
lump *n* глыба, ком; опухоль, шишка
luxurious [lʌˈzjuːərɪəs] *a* роскошный
luxury [ˈlʌkʃərɪ] *n* роскошь; предмет роскоши

M

mackerel *n* макрель, скумбрия
Magna Carta *n* Великая Хартия Вольностей *(грамота, подписанная в 1215г. королем Иоанном Безземельным под давлением восставших баронов)*
mainland *n* материк
maintain *v* поддерживать, сохранять
maintenance *n* поддержание, сохранение; содержание, уход
majority *n* большинство; *a* мажоритарный (в *избирательной системе)*
male *a* мужской, мужского пола
manganese *n* марганец
manifesto *n* манифест
man-of-war *n* военный корабль
mansion *n* большой особняк, дом
manuscript *n* рукопись
margin *n* поле *(страницы)*; край, грань; полоса
marine *a* морской
maritime *a* морской; приморский
martyr [ˈmɑːtə] *n* мученик
mass media *n* средства массовой информации
masterpiece *n* шедевр
mean *a* средний
means *n* средство, способ; by ~ of посредством
medieval [ˌmedɪˈiːvl] *a* средневековый
mercantile *a* коммерческий; торговый
mercenary [ˈmɜːsɪnərɪ] *n* наемник
mercy *n* милосердие, сострадание
merit *n* заслуга; Order of M. орден "За заслуги"
mild *a* мягкий; умеренный; тихий; спокойный
miller *n* мельник
minor *a* незначительный; второстепенный; меньший из двух
mint *n* монетный двор; Royal M. Королевский монетный двор *(в Лондоне)*
miracle *n* чудо
mist *n* туман; дымка; мгла
mistletoe [ˈmɪsltəʊ] *n бот.* омела белая
moderate *a* умеренный; посредственный
modest *a* скромный
moist *a* влажный
moisture *n* влажность, сырость; влага
monastery *n* монастырь
monk *n* монах
moor [ˈmʊə] *n* моховое болото; местность, поросшая вереском
mound *n* курган
mouthpiece *n* рупор
move *v* двигать(ся); передвигать(ся); переезжать; бывать (в *обществе)*, вращаться *(в кругах)*, общаться
mow [məʊ] *v* косить, жать
mower *n* косилка
murder *v* убивать (*жестоко*)

musket *n* мушкет; ~ ball ядро от корабельной пушки
Muslim *n* мусульманин
mutton *n* баранина

N

National Trust *n* Национальный трест *(организация по охране исторических памятников, достопримечательностей и живописных мест; основана в 1895 г.)*
navigable *a* судоходный; мореходный
navigator *n* мореплаватель
neatness *n* чистота; аккуратность, *опрятность*
network *n* сеть
nickel *n* никель
nickname *n* прозвище
nightmare *n* кошмар
nobility *n* дворянство
noble *a* благородный
nominate *v* выдвигать *(кандидата)*
Nonconformists *n pl* нонконформисты *(секта, отделившаяся от англиканской церкви и не признающая ее власть; объединяет баптистов, методистов, пресвитериан)*
notable *a* достопримечательный, *заметный; значительный;* видный, выдающийся
notice *n* извещение, уведомление; объявление
notorious *a* пользующийся дурной славой; пресловутый; печально известный
nuclear *a* ядерный
nun *n* монахиня
nurse *n* медсестра
nursery *n* питомник; ~ stock рассада

O

oak *n* дуб
oats *n pl* овес
obedience [ə'bi:dɪəns] *n* послушание, повиновение, покорность
observer [əb'zɜ:və] *n* наблюдатель
obsess *v* завладевать, преследовать, мучить *(о навязчивой идее и т.п.)*
obtain *v* добиваться, получать, приобретать
obvious *a явный, очевидный,* ясный
occur *v* происходить, случаться
odd *a* нечетный; необычный, странный
offshore *a* находящийся на расстоянии от берега; оффшорный
order *n* приказ; орден; O. of Merit орден "За заслуги" *(одна из высших наград; присуждается монархом за выдающиеся заслуги в разных областях; число награжденных, не считая иностранцев, не должно превышать 24)*
ore [ɔ:] *n* руда
origin *n* происхождение; источник
ornament *n* орнамент; украшение
Orthodox *n* православный
outbreak *n* вспышка *(эпидемии);* начало *(войны и т.п.)*
output *n* выпуск *(продукции);* выработка; продукция, продукт
own *v* владеть, обладать, иметь

P

pace *n :* to keep ~ with smb. не отставать от кого-л., держаться наравне с кем-л.
pagan *n язычник*
page *n* паж
parish *n* церковный приход; прихожане
parsley *n* петрушка
pastime *n* приятное времяпрепровождение; развлечение, игра
pastoral *a* пастушеский
pastry ['peɪstrɪ] *n* кондитерские изделия; сдоба

pasture *n* пастбище
patch *n* небольшой участок земли
peculiar [pɪˈkju:lɪə] *a* специфический, особенный, своеобразный
pedestrian *n* пешеход
peer *n* титулованный дворянин, пэр, лорд *(имеет право быть членом палаты лордов)*
peninsula *n* полуостров
pennillion [pəˈnɪljən] **singing** *n* пеннилльон *(исполнение песен на импровизированные стихи валлийскими певцами на фестивале Eisteddfod под аккомпанемент арфы)*
persecute *v* преследовать, подвергать гонениям
personify *v* персонифицировать, олицетворять, воплощать
petroleum *n* нефть
pickles *n pl* соленье, маринад, пикули, маринованные огурцы и т.п.
pie [paɪ] *n* пирог
pigeon [ˈpɪdʒɪn] *n* голубь
pilgrim *n* пилигрим, паломник; странник
pilgrimage *n* паломничество; странствие
pin *n* булавка, шпилька, прищепка; значок
pit *n* яма
plot *n* заговор
plum *n* слива
poach *v* варить *(яйцо-пашот)*
porcelain [ˈpɔ:slɪn] *n* фарфор
pork *n* свинина
porridge *n* овсяная каша
possession *n* владение; собственность
potash *n* поташ, углекислый калий
pot plant *n* горшочное растение
pottery *n* гончарные изделия, керамика
poultry [ˈpəʊltrɪ] *n* домашняя птица
precedent *n* прецедент
precipitate *v* выпадать *(об осадках)*
predominant *a* преобладающий, доминирующий
predominate *v* господствовать, преобладать
prefect *n* старший ученик, следящий за дисциплиной; староста
Presbyterian [ˌprezbɪˈtɪərɪən] *a* пресвитерианский
prescription *n* предписание, рекомендация; рецепт
preside *v* председательствовать
prestige [presˈti:ʒ] *n* престиж
pretender *n* претендент (*на трон и т.п.*)
prevail *v* преобладать, господствовать, превалировать
priority *n* приоритет
privacy *n* уединение; уединенность
privilege [ˈprɪvɪlɪdʒ] *n* привилегия
Privy Council *n* тайный совет *(юридический орган государственного управления; был создан в средние века и являлся совещательным органом при монархе; в настоящее время утратил свое значение; его главой считается монарх, но фактически его деятельностью руководит лорд-председатель тайного совета)*
proclaim *v* провозглашать, объявлять
product *n* продукт; Gross National P. *(сокр.* GNP) валовой национальный продукт
prominent *a* известный, выдающийся
property *n* собственность
proportion *n* пропорция, количественное (со)отношение
Protestant *n, a* протестант(ский)
public *a* общественный; государственный, национальный; ~ school закрытая частная школа
Puritan [ˈpjʊərɪtən] *n* пуританин; *a* пуританский
puzzle *v* приводить в затруднение, озадачивать

Q

quantity *n* количество
quarrel *n* ссора
quay [ki:] *n* причал; набережная

R

rain-storm *n* ливень с ураганом
range *n* цепь *(горная)*; пределы; сфера, зона; область
rate *n* скорость, темп; ход
raw *a* сырой, необработанный; ~ materials сырьё
realm [relm] *n* королевство; государство; царство; область, сфера
rear [rɪɔ] *v* выращивать, разводить *(животных)*; воспитывать
recognize *v* узнавать, признавать
recreation *n* отдых; развлечение
recruit *v* комплектовать, пополнять; вербовать *(новобранцев)*
recruitment [rɪ'kru:tmənt] *n* пополнение; подкрепление; комплектование личным составом; вербовка *(новобранцев)*
rectangular *a* прямоугольный
refer *v* иметь отношение, относиться
reference *n* ссылка, сноска; справка
refine *v* очищать; рафинировать
regardless of *prep* независимо от, не считаясь с, не принимая во внимание, невзирая на
register *v* регистрировать(ся); заносить в список
reign [reɪn] *v* царствовать
relax *v* ослаблять(ся); расслаблять(ся); отдыхать
reliable *a* надежный; заслуживающий доверия; достоверный
relief *n* рельеф
reluctant *a* делающий (что-л.) с неохотой, неохотный
rely *v* (on) полагаться, доверять
Renaissance [rɔ'neɪs(ə)ns] *n* Ренессанс, эпоха Возрождения
rent *v* арендовать; снимать *(комнату и т.п.)*
representative *n* представитель; член палаты представителей
requirement *n* требование, необходимое условие
research *n* (научное) исследование
resemble *v* походить, иметь сходство, быть
reservoir *n* резервуар; бассейн; водоем; водохранилище
reside *v* проживать; пребывать, находиться
residence *n* резиденция; местожительство; проживание; пребывание
resist *v* сопротивляться, противиться
resolve *v* решать(ся), принимать решение; решать *(проблему и т.п.)*
resort *n* курорт
resources *n pl* ресурсы, средства; запасы; natural ~ природные ресурсы, богатства
restoration *n* реставрация, восстановление
retain *v* сохранять, удерживать
retire *v* уходить в отставку *или* на пенсию
reverence *n* почтение; почтительность
rigid *a* жесткий, твердый; строгий; суровый
ripen *v* зреть, созревать
rival *n* соперник
roast *v* жарить(ся), печь(ся)
rope *n* веревка; канат
rough *a* грубый; неровный
route [ru:t] *n* маршрут; путь, курс, трасса, дорога
row [rəu] *v* грести
rugby ['rʌgbɪ] *n* регби

rule [ru:l] *n* правило; норма; принцип; ~s of custom господство обычая, правила соблюдения традиций; ~s of law господство, власть закона
run *v* управлять; руководить
rural *a* сельский, деревенский

S

sacred ['seɪkrɪd] *a* священный
sacrifice ['sækrɪfaɪs] *n* жертва; жертвоприношение
saint *n, a* святой
salmon ['sæmən] *n* лосось
sauce *n* соус
scale *n* ступень, уровень *(развития)*; масштаб; размер; размах; шкала
scatter *v* разбрасывать; разгонять, рассеивать
scheme [ski:m] *n* схема
scone *n* ячменная *или* пшеничная лепешка
scythe [saɪð] *n с.-х.* коса
seam *n* шов; рубец; пласт
seat *n* место (в *парламенте и т.п.)*
security *n* безопасность
seed *n* семя
self-assurance *n* самоуверенность,
self-sufficient *a* самостоятельный, независимый в экономическом отношении, обеспечивающий себя сам
semi-detached house *n* один из двух домов (особняков), имеющих общую стену
semi-manufactures *n pl* полуфабрикаты
settler *n* поселенец
severe *a* строгий; суровый; жестокий
sew *v* шить
share *n* доля; акция
shelf *n* шельф
shield *n* щит
show *v*: ~ off показывать в выгодном свете; пускать пыль в глаза; рисоваться
shrine *n* гробница, усыпальница; святыня, место поклонения
shuttle *n* челнок; *в знач. прил.* челночный
siege [si:dʒ] *n* осада
Sikh *n* сикх
silt *n* осадок, наносы
similar *a* подобный, сходный, похожий
sitting *n* заседание
skim *v* снимать *(сливки* и *т.п.)*
slice *n* ломтик, ломоть
slope *n* наклон; склон; уклон
smart *a* резкий, сильный; остроумный; находчивый; щеголеватый
snack *n* легкая закуска; to have a ~ перекусить
sociable *a* общительный
solid *a* твердый; массивный; прочный, крепкий
solidify *v* делать(ся) твердым, твердеть, застывать
solstice ['sɒlstɪs] *n* солнцестояние
soot *n* сажа, копоть
sovereign ['sɒvrɪn] *n* монарх
sovereignty ['sɒvrəntɪ] *n* суверенитет; верховная власть
sow [səʊ] *v* сеять
spa [spɑ:] *n* курорт с минеральными водами
spacious *a* просторный
spare *v* жалеть
sparse *a* редкий; разбросанный
Speaker *n* спикер *(в парламенте)*
speciality *n* специальность; фирменное блюдо
speculation *n* размышление; предположение
spice *n* специя, пряность
spider *n* паук
spin *v* прясть, плести; крутить(ся)
spire *n* шпиль; остроконечная вершина, верхушка
spiritual *a* духовный
spit *n* шампур

split *v* раскалывать(ся); расщеплять(ся)
sponge cake *n* бисквит
sporran *n* спорран, кожаная сумка с мехом наружу *(часть костюма шотл. горца)*
squire *n* сквайр, помещик
staff [stɑ:f] *n* штат, персонал; посох, палка; растение
stale *a* несвежий; черствый
standing committee *n* постоянная комиссия
staple ['steɪpl] *a* главный, основной *(о продуктах потребления или предметах торговли)*
statuary *n собир.* скульптура
steak *n* кусок мяса *или* рыбы
steam roller *n* паровой каток
stepson *n* пасынок
stiff *a* тугой; негибкий; жесткий
stocks *n pl* акции, фонды
strait *n* пролив
stretch *v растягивать(ся); тянуться*
strip *n* длинный узкий кусок; полоса; лента
stroll *v* прогуливаться; бродить, странствовать
sub-committee *n* подкомитет, подкомиссия
subdue *v* подчинять, покорять
subject *v* (to) подчинять; подвергать *(воздействию, влиянию и т.п.)*;
submarine *n* подводная лодка
submarine *a* подводный
submerge *v* затоплять; погружать(ся)
submit *v* подчинять(ся), покорять(ся); представлять на рассмотрение
substantial *a* существенный, важный
substitute *v* заменять; замещать
successive *a* последующий; последовательный
summit *n* вершина, верх; встреча глав государств
summon *v* вызывать *(в суд и т.п.)*; созывать *(парламент, собрание и т.п.)*
superficial *a* поверхностный, неглубокий
superiority *n* превосходство, преимущество
supervision *n* надзор, наблюдение
supply *v* снабжать; поставлять
suppress *v* пресекать; подавлять
supremacy [sjʊ'preməsɪ] *n* превосходство; господство, верховенство
supreme [sjʊ'pri:m] *a* верховный, высший
surface *n* поверхность
surgeon *n* хирург
survive *v* пережить; остаться в живых, уцелеть; сохраниться
swan *n* лебедь
swarm *v толпиться; кишеть*
sword *n* меч; сабля
sympathetic *a* (to) сочувствующий, полный сочувствия
synod ['sɪnɔd] *n* синод

T

tart *n* пирог *(с фруктами, ягодами и т.п.)*
tartan *n* шотландский плед
tattoo [tɔ'tu:] *n* военное представление в сопровождении оркестра *(проводимое обычно вечером)*
teleprinter *n* телетайп
temper *n* нрав, характер; настроение
temperate *a* умеренный
temple *n* храм
tend *v* иметь тенденцию, иметь склонность
term *n срок, определенный период*; семестр; *pl.* условия *(соглашения, оплаты и т.п.)*
terraced house *n* дом в виде террасы *(ряд домов)*
thatched *a* крытый соломой

thief *n* вор
thorn *n* шип, колючка
thorough *a* основательный, тщательный
tide *n* морской прилив и отлив
tin *n* олово
tiny *a* очень маленький, крошечный
tolerant *a* терпимый
tolerate *v* терпеть, выносить
tomb *n* могила (с надгробием)
topiary ['təʊpɪərɪ] *n* сад с подстриженными деревьями; искусство фигурной стрижки садовых деревьев
Tory *n* тори, консерватор, член консервативной партии
trait *n* характерная черта, особенность
traitor *n* предатель
transaction *n* дело; сделка
transfer *v* переносить, перемещать; делать пересадку
transmit *v* передавать; посылать, отправлять
treat *v* угощать; обращаться, обходиться, относиться; обрабатывать, подвергать воздействию
tribute *n* дань
trim *a* аккуратный, опрятный
trim *v* подрезать; приводить в порядок
trout *n* форель
trust *n* доверие; *v* доверять
tunnel *n* туннель
typify *v* служить типичным примером или образцом; олицетворять; символизировать
tyre *n* покрышка

U

unique [ju:'ni:k] *a* единственный в своем роде, уникальный
uphold *v* поддерживать; защищать; поощрять
uranium [jʊə'reɪnɪəm] *n* уран
urban *a* городской

V

vague [veɪg] *a* неопределенный, неясный, смутный
variable *a* изменчивый, непостоянный; неустойчивый
variation *n* изменение, перемена; разновидность, вариант
variety *n* разнообразие; (of) ряд, множество
vary *v* менять(ся), изменять(ся)
veal *n* телятина
vehicle ['vɪi:kl] *n* перевозочное средство, автомобиль *и т.п.*
venison *n* оленина
verse *n* строфа, стих; blank ~ белый стих
veto *n* вето
veto *v* наложить вето, запрет
vicar ['vɪkə] *n* приходской священник
violence *n* насилие
vocation *n* призвание, склонность; профессия
vote *n* голосование; голос
vote *v* голосовать

W

warfare ['wɔ:feə] *n* война; боевые действия; борьба, столкновение
warn *v* предупреждать, предостерегать
waste *n* отходы, отбросы
waste *a* пустынный; незаселенный; невозделанный
watershed *n* водораздел
wax *n* воск
web *n* паутина
weight *n* вес, масса
weighty *a* тяжелый, обременительный; важный, весомый, веский

welfare *n* благосостояние; social ~ социальное благосостояние; социальное обеспечение
wheat *n* пшеница
Whig *n* виг, член партии вигов
wicked *a* злой; порочный; безнравственный; нехороший, плохой
widow *n* вдова
withstand *v* устоять, выстоять; выдержать; противостоять; сопротивляться; давать отпор
woolsack *n* набитая шерстью подушка, на которой сидит председатель (лорд-канцлер) в палате лордов
workshop *n* мастерская; цех
worship ['wɜ:ʃɪp] *v* поклоняться; почитать
worsted ['wʊstɪd] *a* камвольный; ~ manufacture камвольное производство

Y

yell *n* крик
yield [ji:ld] *n* урожай