

ФЕДЕРАЛЬНОЕ АГЕНТСТВО ПО ОБРАЗОВАНИЮ
Государственное образовательное учреждение высшего профессионального
образования
«Дагестанский государственный педагогический университет»»

УТВЕРЖДАЮ

Проректор по учебно-методической работе
Регистрационный номер __ 315 _____
« ____ » _____ 200__ г.

Кафедра английской филологии

УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС

по дисциплине «СТРАНОВЕДЕНИЕ ВЕЛИКОБРИТАНИИ И США»

033200.00 Иностранный язык с дополнительной специальностью
шифр и название по учебному плану
050300 Филологическое образование, 050303 Иностранный язык
шифр в соответствии с ОКСО и наименование

Махачкала 2008 г.

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Учебно-методический комплекс по дисциплине «Страноведение» для специальности – 03300.00 «Иностранный язык с дополнительной специальностью».

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Учебно-методический комплекс « Страноведение Великобритани и США» составлен в соответствии с требованиями Государственного образовательного стандарта высшего профессионального образования/Основной образовательной программой по специальности – **03300.00 «Иностранный язык с дополнительной специальностью».**

Отдельными главами представлены программа курса, лекционный материал, планы практических занятий, задания для самостоятельной работы, тестовые задания, тематика выпускных квалификационных работ. Рекомендуется преподавателям и студентам филологических факультетов университетов педагогических учебных заведений.

**ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНЫЙ СТАНДАРТ
ВЫСШЕГО ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ**
Специальность 033200.00 \ 050303 Иностранный язык
Квалификация учитель иностранного языка

ДПП.Ф.07

Лингвострановедение и страноведение

Введение в страноведение и лингвострановедение. Роль страноведческой и лингвострановедческой компетенции в реализации адекватного общения и взаимопонимания представителей разных культур. Языковые реалии со страноведческой направленностью. Основные этапы истории страны изучаемого языка. Памятники культуры, сохранившиеся на ее территории. Языковые реалии, связанные с важнейшими историческими событиями, культурно-историческими и социальными ассоциациями.

Страноведение и лингвострановедение. Географическое положение и природные условия страны изучаемого языка. Заповедники, национальные и региональные парки. Проблема охраны окружающей среды. Национальный и социальный состав населения. Демографические и социальные проблемы. Государственное устройство и общественно-политическая жизнь страны. Административно-территориальное деление страны и местные органы самоуправления. Общая характеристика экономики страны. Основные этапы образования Европейского Союза и отношение к нему разных слоев населения (для европейских стран). Переход к единой европейской валюте (для стран Европы). Культура страны. Национальные традиции и праздники страны изучаемого языка.

Языковые реалии, связанные с географическими понятиями (названия морей и океанов, особенности береговой линии, рельефа, климата и растительности и т.п.), особенностями национальной культуры, общественно-политической жизни, государственным устройством, экономикой, традициями и обычаями страны изучаемого языка.

Пояснительная записка

В системе многоуровневой подготовки специалистов по иностранным языкам для школ и учебных заведений различных типов и направлений курс страноведения приобретает очень важную значимость, особенно если учесть общественно-политические, экономические, дипломатические, культурно-образовательные и иные реалии современного мирового развития. Гуманизация и гуманитаризация образования, его демократизация предполагают коренной пересмотр устоявшегося консервативного подхода к преподаванию данного курса. Данный курс нуждается, прежде всего, в решительной деидеологизации, освобождения от догматики и априорных *установок* на противопоставлении двух общественно-политических систем, которые разделяли мир на два лагеря в течение десятилетий, от только черно-белого видения и оценки многогранной и многокрасочной действительности.

РАЗДЕЛ 1. ПРОГРАММА ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

1.1. Цель и задачи дисциплины.

Цель дисциплины: Курс «Страноведение Великобритании и США» предусматривает ознакомление студентов с физической и экономической географией, этапами и особенностями исторического развития, политическим и экономическим строем, культурной жизнью и традициями, наукой и системой образования и т.д. стран, языки которых изучаются на соответствующих отделениях.

Задачи дисциплины:

- Дать будущим преподавателям английского языка достаточно полное и правильное представление о таких сферах жизни Соединенного Королевства, как политика, экономика, культура, положение Великобритании в ЕС, национальные традиции и праздники.
- Раскрытие национально-специфического фона функционирования английского языка в Великобритании через языковые реалии, связанные с разными аспектами жизни британцев.
- Содействовать воспитанию студентов в духе уважения к другой культуре, понимания ее вклада в мировую цивилизацию, содействовать реализации адекватного общения и взаимопонимания представителей двух культур.
- Повышение общего культурного уровня студентов путем сообщения им сведений из разнообразных областей знания /география, политика, искусство, экономика и т. д./ и в связи с этим расширение их кругозора, обогащение их словарного запаса соответствующей терминологией, что поможет им как в общении, так и в овладении английским языком в расширенном объеме.

1.2. Организация учебного материала.

Принципы отбора содержания и организация учебного материала. Дисциплина обеспечивает теоретические и практические знания в области страноведения Великобритании и США.

Отбор материала основывается на необходимости сформировать необходимую систему знаний в области страноведения как объекта научных исследований и как предмета обучения, что предполагает рассмотрение в качестве приоритетных следующих вопросов:

- Взаимоотношение страноведения с другими науками, изучающими как собственно текст, так и употребление языка: историей языка, лексикологией и теорией текста;
- Особенности использования лингвострановедческого материала применительно к современному английскому языку.

Содержательное наполнение дисциплины обусловлено как задачами дисциплины, так и взаимодействием ее с другими лингвистическими дисциплинами. Предлагаемая дисциплина строится на основе коммуникативно-прагматического подхода в обучении.

Курс «Страноведение» рассчитан на 24 часа (12 ч. - лек. ., 12 ч. - практ.).

1.3. Аттестация качества знаний.

Текущая аттестация качества усвоения знаний. Знания проверяются как в письменной, так и в устной форме. Проведение разных по форме и по объему письменных работ (письменные опросы по материалам лекций) дисциплинирует студента и даёт основания для объективной оценки знаний каждого обучаемого, позволяет самому студенту представить реальный уровень своих знаний, стимулирует подготовку к итоговой аттестации.

Итоговая аттестация. Дисциплина завершается зачётом, на котором проверяются полученные знания по истории, социальной, политической и экономической и культурной жизни Великобритании, а также степень усвоения студентом взаимосвязи между лингвистическими и экстралингвистическими факторами в процессе развития и существования английского языка. Зачёт может проходить в форме устного ответа на один из вопросов по курсу (список вопросов предлагается студентом заранее), или вариативно (по соглашению с преподавателем) в форме письменного реферата или эссе на темы, предусмотренные лекционным материалом, а также выбранные студентами самостоятельно и утвержденные преподавателем.

Требования к уровню освоения содержания дисциплины. При изучении курса студенты должны прослушать лекции, подготовиться к семинарским занятиям, а также проделать необходимую самостоятельную работу. Для подготовки к семинарским занятиям рекомендуется использовать список использованной литературы и ряд дополнительных пособий, включающее краткое изложение лекций, планы семинаров, вопросы и практические задания, тексты и образцы анализа и перевода текстов всех периодов истории английского языка, а также ключи к практическим заданиям и глоссарий. При подготовке теоретического материала студенты должны внимательно изучить план и вопросы для подготовки к семинарскому занятию и проработать литературу, руководствуясь вопросами и заданиями, раскрывающими и уточняющими отдельные пункты плана.

1.4. Содержание дисциплины и виды учебной деятельности.

Примерное содержание дисциплины и виды учебной деятельности (тематический план)

Тема	Продолжительность, а/ч		
	лекции	семинара	ксп
Предмет и задачи курса. Физическая география (геогр. положение, климат, погода, флора и	2	1	2

	фауна) Великобритании. История Великобритании.			
.	Политический строй Великобритании (монархия, её устройство, история)	2	2	4
.	Парламент: палата общин и палата лордов, кабинет министров. Выборная система. Политические партии.	2	2	4
.	Средства массовой информации (радио, телевидение, пресса: газеты и журналы)	2	2	4
.	Система образования (начальное, среднее и высшее образование). Университеты Оксфорда и Кембриджа	2	3	6
.	Общая характеристика экономики и экономических районов. Промышленность. Сельское хозяйство. Транспорт. Основные районы и города Великобритании, изменения в уровне развития разных районов (север и юг, центр и периферия).	2	2	4
	Итого	12	12	24

1.5. Содержание учебного материала.

Предмет и задачи курса. Цели и задачи курса страноведения и его место в общей системе подготовки специалистов высшей квалификации по английскому языку для учебных заведений всех типов системы народного образования. Неразрывная связь развития языка с историей народа-носителя данного языка. Обусловленность характера, особенности образа жизни, культуры и традиций английского и американского народов историческими, экономическими, политическими, географическими и другими факторами развития Англии. Роль и значение Великобритании в развитии мировой экономики и цивилизации в целом на разных этапах истории. Ведущая роль Великобритании в мировой экономике до 20 века, его современное политическое и экономическое положение. Великобритания на политической карте мира. Состав территории: остров Великобритания, Ирландия, Гебридские, Шетландские, Оркнейские, Нормандские острова. Острова Мэн, Уайт, Проливы и моря, омывающие британские острова. Понятия “Великобритания”, “Англия”, “Соединенное королевство Великобритании и Северной Ирландии”. Географическое положение, широта и долгота. Нулевой меридиан и Гринвичская обсерватория. Площадь королевства. Численность населения и его социальная структура. Естественный прирост. Истоки британского населения. Формирование английской нации, национальные и языковые различия. Этнический состав населения. Размещение населения, география плотности, соотношение городского и сельского населения. Профессиональная структура населения, ее особенности, тенденция развития отдельных профессиональных групп.

Государственное устройство и политическая жизнь. Государственное устройство. Составные части Соединенного Королевства. Королевская власть и ее роль в современной Англии. Герб, флаг и гимн страны. Законодательная, исполнительная и судебная власти.

Парламент, состав парламента. Палата общин, ее структура и права. Палата лордов, ее права и значение. Правительство, кабинет министров. Всеобщее избирательное право и избирательная система Великобритании. Политические партии современной Англии (консерваторы, лейбористы, социал-демократы, либералы и другие). Классовый состав политических партий, националистические партии. Роль политических партий в общественной и государственной жизни Англии. Административно-территориальное устройство Соединенного королевства (Англия, Шотландия, Северная Ирландия, их флаги). Местное самоуправление. Борьба народов Ирландии, Шотландии, Уэльса за свое самоопределение. Проблема Северной Ирландии (Ольстера) и пути ее решения.

Средства массовой информации. Печать, радио и телевидение. Периодическая печать, “серьезная” и “популярная” пресса. Ежемесячные и еженедельные журналы: деловые (“Экономист”, “Бэнкер”), политические (“Спектейтор”, “Нью стейтсмен”, “Трибьюн”), сатирический журнал “Панч”. Огромные тиражи “популярных” журналов для женщин (“Вуман”, “Вуман энд хоум” и др.) и юношества (“Юс” и др.) - каналы массовой идеологической обработки читателя. Издания, поддерживающие консерваторов газеты “Дейли телеграф”, “Дейли экспресс”, “Санди таймс”, “Таймс” (официально независимая), журналы “Спектейтор”, “Экономист”. Издания, поддерживающие лейбористскую партию: газета “Дейли миррор”, еженедельник “Нью стейтсмен”, еженедельник “Трибьюн” (издаваемый группой левых лейбористов), ряд газет и журналов английских профсоюзов.

Британская радиовещательная корпорация (Би-би-си). Национальное и коммерческое телевидение. Американская “культурная” экспансия в области телевидения.

Система образования в Великобритании. Основы современной организации образования. Соответствие образовательных условий требованиям конвенции ООН по правам ребенка. Основные законодательные акты правительства по реформированию системы народного образования. Правительственный Акт о реформе образования 1988 года. Родительская хартия “Вы и образование для Вашего ребенка” (1991 г.) и другие законодательные акты. Продление обязательного срока обучения до 16 лет. Многообразие типов объединенных школ: “сквозные” (11-18 лет), “промежуточные” (11-13 лет), неполные средние (11-16 лет), “ярусные” школы (11-13 / 14-18 лет или 8/9 - 14/16 - 18 лет). Свободный (без экзаменов) доступ в шестой класс большинства объединенных школ. Пересмотр организации форм обучения. Основные тенденции перестройки системы среднего образования. Борьба двух тенденций в средней школе: к унификации обучения и социальной селекции учащихся. Сохранение элитарных “паблик - скулз”, их резко выраженный классовый характер. Управление народным образованием. Роль и место министерства образования и науки в системе народного образования. Финансирование образования. Субсидируемые школы. Связь между образованием и бизнесом. Тип школ “независимые”, или частные школы. Школа и церковь. Религиозное воспитание и образование в школах. Церковные школы. Коллективное богослужение в школах.

Ступени образования. Начальное образование. Две ступени начального образования. Ступень среднего образования. Система экзаменов для определения уровня знаний детей. Распределение детей в разные виды школ на основе результатов экзаменов - тестов.

Социальная несправедливость таких экзаменов - тестов и их антидемократичный характер.

Типы средних школ и их характеристика Грамматическая школа. Особенности обучения в грамматической школе. Современная средняя школа. Кризис системы среднего образования и попытки его преодоления. Объединенная средняя школа - новый тип школы. "Независимые школы".

Послешкольное образование и его формы. Высшее образование и многообразие его форм. Дальнейшее послешкольное образование. Университеты и университетские колледжи. Государственные и частные колледжи. Управление и финансирование университетов. Полная академическая независимость университетов. Старейшие университеты Англии (Оксфордский и Кембриджский). Особенности организации обучения в них. Шотландские университеты (святого Эдрю, Глазго, Абердина и Эдинбурга). Современные университеты (Эссекский, Суссекский, Бреуфордский, университет Сарри и др.). "Открытый" университет. Дифференцированная подготовка учителей через университеты, "политехникс" или колледжи. Трехгодичные учительские колледжи. Подготовка учителей для начальной и неполной средней школы. Подготовка в университетах учителей для грамматической школы и старших классов полной средней объединенной школы. Перестройка системы педагогического образования в середине 70-х годов. Сокращение количества педагогических колледжей. Слияние мелких колледжей в более крупные. Образование новых образовательных колледжей с двухлетним сроком обучения.

Общая характеристика экономики. Зависимость английской экономики от ввода сырья и продовольствия и сбыта своего промышленного производства на внешний рынок. Великобритания и "Общий рынок". Структура английской экономики. Промышленность и ее роль в хозяйстве страны. Место Великобритании в мировом промышленном производстве. Концентрация капитала, крупные национальные и транснациональные концерны. Особенности послевоенного развития промышленности, национализация в условиях капитализма, ее сущность. Денационализация отраслей промышленности и ее сущность. Научно-техническая революция, ее влияние на структуру и географию размещения промышленности. Быстрый рост новейших отраслей промышленности, отставание традиционных (старых) отраслей. Характеристика ведущих отраслей промышленности современной Англии (металлургия, машиностроение, авиастроение, кораблестроение, химическая промышленность), сдвиги в их размещении. Экологическая проблема как одна из важнейших проблем современной Великобритании.

Основные экономические районы и города Великобритании. Характер размещения населения. Сосредоточение населения в городах. Урбанизация и ее формы. Типы современных городов, особенности их размещения по территории страны. Формы расселения сельского населения. Облик городов Великобритании. Деловая часть города. Социальная обусловленность различий в стилях жилых зданий и богатых районах, в районах мелких служащих, в рабочих районах. Особняки и дворцы в богатых поместьях, и скромный облик сельских поселений. Основные социальные и экономические проблемы английских городов.

РАЗДЕЛ 2. СОДЕРЖАНИЕ МАТЕРИАЛА ПО КУРСУ.

LECTURE I THE LAND

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (usually shortened to the United Kingdom or UK) is the political name of the country, which is made up of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Several islands off the British coast are also part of the UK (# *the Isle of Wight, the Orkneys, Hebrides and Shetlands, and the Isles of Scilly*), although *the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man* are not. However, all these islands do recognise the Queen.

Location

The state, informally known as Britain, constitutes the greater part of the islands, described geographically as the British Isles. The largest island is Great Britain proper comprising England, Scotland and Wales. The second largest island, Ireland, is shared by Northern Ireland (or *Ulster*) and the Republic of Ireland (also known as *Eire*. It is politically independent and not part of the UK). These and over 5,500 smaller islands lie at different distances from the coasts and are included in the British administrative and political union.

GB is located between the latitudes of 50°N, which cuts through the Lizard peninsula in south-west England and 61°N, which stretches across the Shetlands off the north-east coast of Scotland. The prime meridian of 0 passes through the old observatory of Greenwich, London.

The total area of the country is 243,100 sq. km. Thus, GB is relatively small and compact when compared with many European countries, being, #, half the size of France or almost 20% smaller than Italy. GB is about 1 thousand-km long (from the southern coast of England to the extreme north of the Scottish mainland, *Dunnet*, near *John O'Groats*) and about 5 hundred km across in its widest part.

The British Isles are separated from the continental Europe by the English Channel. The channel in its narrowest part (the *Strait of Dover*) is only 32 km wide and when the weather is fine one can easily see from the middle of the Channel the French coast. The widest part of the channel in the west is 220 km wide.

The chalk cliffs of Dover - a striking band of white visible on the horizon across the English Channel from France - have a purity that have always puffed the English chest with pride but puzzled geologists. Analysis has now revealed the cliffs are nothing more than a mountainous pile of shrimp droppings - billions of fragments of tiny algae containing calcium which settled on the sea bed like a snowfall.

The eastern coast reaches the waters of the North Sea. The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast in the west and north-west. From Ireland GB is separated by the Irish Sea, the North Channel and St. George's Channel.

The British coastlines are deeply indented with numerous bays, inlets, and estuaries. Consequently, no part of the country is more than 120 km from some type of tidal water. However, tides along the coast and in inland rivers can cause frequent flooding in many parts, particularly on the English east coast. Besides, the islands are under constant attack from the surrounding sea. Every year, little bits of the east coast vanish into the North Sea. Sometimes the land slips away slowly, at other times it slips away very suddenly. # In 1993, *the Holbeck Hotel* built on a cliff top overlooking the sea, near the town of *Scarborough in Yorkshire* started leaning at odd angles during the day and then slipped down the cliff.

The seas around the coasts are not deep, often less than 90 m, because the greater part of the British Isles lies on the continental Shelf. To the north-west edge of the Shelf (to the west of Ireland) there is a sudden deepening of the sea floor from 180 m to about 900 m.

Climate

GB has a generally mild temperate climate, more or less the same as the climate of the northwestern part of Europe. The geographical position of the British Isles within 50° to 60° N is a basic factor in determining the main characteristics of the climate. Temperature 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 in London ranges from 16 hours 35 min. on 21 June, to 7 hours 50 min. on 21 December. The Sun is never overhead as in the tropical area that's why the British climate is of the temperate nature.

Britain's climate is dominated by the influence of the sea. The warm North Atlantic Current (Gulf Stream) heats the sea water and air as it travels from the Atlantic Ocean across the Shelf. This gives the British Isles a more temperate climate than would otherwise be the case. Edinburgh, # is 56° north of the equator, the same latitude as Moscow, yet its climate is much milder.

Thus, there are no extreme contrasts in temperature anywhere in Britain. In general, British temperature rarely goes above 32°C in the summer or below -10°C in the winter, though there are differences between those of the north and the south. #, The average monthly temperature in the northern Shetlands ranges from 3°Celsius in winter to 11° in summer. The corresponding temperatures for the Isle of Wight off the southern coast of England are 5° and 16°. The temperature is also modified by altitude, so higher land is colder than the low-lying land. Consequently, much of Scotland, because of its height, is cooler in summer and colder in winter than most of England. Snow is a regular feature of the higher areas only and in low-lying parts there are no snow at all. The winters are in general a bit colder in the east of the country than they are in the west. While in summer the south is slightly warmer than the north.

The prevailing winds are south-westerly, they bring rain from the Atlantic to the hills and mountains of the west. This means that the western parts of Britain are wetter than the east, which is fairly sheltered. Contrary to the popular misconception the British weather is not particularly wet. London is # drier than some continental cities such as Hamburg. Rain is fairly well distributed throughout the year, but on the average, March to June tend to be the driest months, September to January - the wettest. Drought conditions are rare.

The British climate has three dominant features: it's mild, humid and changeable. That means that winters are extremely mild, that the growing season is fairly long, and the cattle are kept out in the fields virtually the whole year round.

Though the British are fortunate to have warmer winters than other countries at the same latitude, the changeability of the weather is the main disadvantage. The weather in England has become proverbial (the English often say they have no climate but only weather, or they have three types of weather: rain in the morning, rain in the afternoon or rain in the evening). The unpredictable weather has become almost a national institution in its own right, and a topic of daily conversation among the British.

Physical relief

Britain is not a big country when compared with most Europe. But though the geographical features of this island are comparatively small, there is astonishing variety almost everywhere. Britain's physical relief can be roughly divided into two main regions - Highland Britain and Lowland Britain. The borderline between the two regions is roughly a line from the mouth of the river *Exe* in Devonshire, to the mouth of the *Tyne* on the north-east coast.

Highland Britain comprises the whole of Scotland (the hills and moors of southern Scotland as well as the mountains of the north); the Lake District, in the north-west of England; the broad central upland chain, known as *the Pennines*; almost the whole of Wales; and the south-west peninsula of England, coinciding with the counties of Devon and Cornwall. *Lowland Britain* comprises most of England, central lowlands of Scotland and some areas in south Wales.

Scotland may be divided physically into three main regions. The first is the North-West and the Central Highlands (*Grampians*). The highlands are divided by *the Great Glen or Glen More*,

in which lies the world-famous Loch Ness. The Highlands contain the most ancient of the British geological formations and the majority of Britain's highest mountains - nearly 300 peaks over 900 m. The highest mountains are the Grampians, with Ben Nevis, at 1,343 m the tallest peak. The second region is the Central Lowlands that contain one-fifth of the land area but three quarters of the Scottish population, most of the industrial and commercial centres as well as fertile farmlands. The third is the Southern Uplands that mainly consists of ranges of rounded hills stretching towards the border with England (the Border Country) and is a largely agricultural and pastoral area with many rivers.

Wales is mainly a highland country. Two main mountain areas - *the Brecon Beacons* in the south, rising to 2,906 feet (886 metres), and *Snowdonia* in the northwest,

reaching 3,560 feet (1,085 metres) at Snowdon, the highest mountain in Wales. The upland mass also contains *the Cambrian Mountains*. The lowland zones of Wales are restricted to the narrow coastal belts and to the lower parts of the river valleys in industrial south Wales. Two thirds of the Welsh population lives in and around chief centres such as the capital *Cardiff*, *Swansea*, *Newport* and *Wrexham*, located in the lowland east and south-east Wales.

England consists largely of flat lowland countryside. But lower hill ranges also stretch over much of the country, most important of these are: *the North Yorkshire Moors*, *the limestone Cotswolds*, *the chalk North Downs and South Downs*, and *the Chiltern Hills*. The east of the country is particularly low and flat. Some areas lie below sea level among them *the Norfolk Broads*, *the Suffolk Marshes*. England's upland areas include such major hilly regions as the broad central upland belt of the Pennines - the 890 km long backbone of Britain reaching the Peak District in the south; the north-western mountain region of the Lake District with the highest point in Britain - *Scafell Pike* (978 m) and the Cumbrian Mountains; *the Cheviot Hills* between England and Scotland; and the Yorkshire dales, running to the east coast of Yorkshire.

Northern Ireland (or *Ulster*, as it is sometimes called) is situated in the north-west of the island of Ireland. Since the partition of the country in 1921, it has a 488-km border with the Republic of Ireland. In the centre there is a fertile plain surrounded by the mountains: in the north-west - *the Sperrin Mountains*, in the north-east - *the Mountains of Antrim*, in the south-east - *Mourne Mountains* with the highest peak, *Slieve Donard*, which is 853 m high, and in the north the country can boast of a rocky coastline with interesting geological formations such as *the Giant's Causeway*.

Rivers and lakes are numerous but they are short, and since the west coast is mountainous, most of them flow eastward. Because of the humid climate, the water level is always high. Their easy navigability made them important as part of the inland transport network in the 19th century for the transportation of bulk products such as coal, iron ore and steel. Although rivers are not now used much for navigation, their estuaries are making excellent ports. At present, many towns and cities, including London, draw all or part of their water supply from these rivers since they seldom freeze in the winter.

The largest river wholly in **England** is the *Thames* (with *Churn*) — 346 km. It originates in the Cotswolds and first flows eastward, turning south through the Chiltern Hills and then through London to the North Sea. The *Severn* (354 km) is considered longer than the Thames.

Other important rivers are in northern England: the *Tyne*, the *Wear* and the *Tees*, which all originate in the eastern Pennines and flow to the North Sea. The *Mersey* (112 km) in north-western England flows into the Irish Sea. The *Trent(-Humber)* (297 km) from the southern Pennines flows eastward, the *Great* (or *Bedford*) *Ouse* (230 km), originating in the Cotswolds, flows north-east into the *Wash*. The *Bristol Avon* (about 120 km) also rises in the Cotswolds, but flows south-west and at the ocean port of Bristol enters the Severn estuary called *Avonmouth*.

There are several Avons in England. The best known is the Shakespeare Avon on the banks of which Shakespeare's native town is situated. The word 'avon' is Celtic and means 'water'.

Scotland's chief river is the *Tay(-Tummel)* (188 km) long. The largest river in Scotland, it flows north-east through *Loch Tay* and then into the *Firth of Tay*, which empties into the North Sea. The *Forth* (about 183 km) is a river in south Scotland and flows into the *Firth of Forth*. The *Clyde* (170 km) in southern Scotland flows past Glasgow and expands into the *Firth of Clyde*.

The *Shannon* is the largest river of **Ireland**, but it flows through the Republic of Ireland. In Northern Ireland proper, there are few rivers worth mentioning: the *Lagan* in the estuary of which Belfast is situated; the *Foyle* — famous for its eel fisheries; the *Upper Bann* and the *Lower Bann*, which are particularly good for salmon fishing.

The chief river of Wales is the *Wye*, the others are the *Clwyd* and the *Conwy* in the north, the *Dwyrhyd*, *Mawddach* and *Teifi* in the west, and the *Taff* in the south.

The Welsh living in England are often called by the nickname 'Tuffy'. Some say the name comes from the river Taff, which runs through the capital Cardiff, others think it comes from Dafydd, the Welsh form of David.

The British lakes are generally rather small and remote. Having no outlets, they afford limited economic possibilities as navigable waterways, though are attractive as areas for relaxation due to their special charm, beauty and peace. The long and narrow lakes of **Scotland** — usually called *lochs* - lie snugly among the steep slopes of the Highlands. Among sixteen major lakes of Scotland *Loch Lomond* is the largest, and *Loch Ness* is the most famous.

Still, the largest lake of the United Kingdom is to be found at the centre of Northern Ireland - *Lough Neagh* with the water mirror of some 396 sq km.

The deep waters of Loch Ness are believed to be home to a prehistoric creature, called Loch Ness Monster (or Nessie). Although some people say they have seen it, there is no scientific proof, and for most people it is just a story. It is often shown in pictures as a large black or green dinosaur.

The largest lake of Wales — *Lake Bala* is only 10 sq km. The scenic *Lake District* — a number of lakes in beautiful mountain scenery — on the north-west side of the Pennine system, also enjoys world fame, attracting many tourists. The lakes that occupy many of its ice-deepened valleys show a wonderful variety of character. The largest of them are *Windermere*, *Ullswater*, *Derwentwater* and *Conistonwater*.

Major islands

The ***Hebrides*** is a series of islands off the north-west coast of Scotland. They consist of two groups, *the Outer Hebrides*, that Scots sometimes call simply the *Western Isles*, and *the Inner Hebrides*. One of these islands called *Iona* is famous for a very beautiful abbey built by St. Columba. Another large island, *Skye*, has magnificent mountains and Highland cattle. People go there to climb. The main industries are farming, especially sheep, and the making of a cloth called tweed. This is made of wool light in weight but very warm. It is used to make coats for men and women. Many of the islanders speak Gaelic, the native Scottish tongue.

The ***Orkney Islands*** is a sizeable group of islands lying to the north of Scotland. The islands are rich in Scandinavian remains and are popular with tourists. The population (about 20 thousands) is engaged in dairy and poultry farming.

The ***Shetland Islands*** are situated further north, 70 miles north of the *Orkneys*, as far north as St. Petersburg, and are famous for the long summer twilight, which is a reminder of the northerly latitude. The largest island is *Mainland* and the most northerly is *Unst*. This has a reputation for two famous products — «lace-work» shawls and ponies, or «shelties». Shetland ponies are popular for children because of their small size. For many centuries, Scandinavia ruled the islands. This link is clear in the many Norse archaeological sites and place-names. From the 1970s, the Shetlands have become an increasingly important center of the North Oil industry. Besides, the population (18 thousands) is actively engaged in herring fishing.

The **Isle of Man** is the island (571 sq. km) situated in the middle of the Irish Sea and is famous for motorcycle races and Manx cats (cats without tails or with very short ones). The Isle of Man is also famous for Manx sheep, a handsome four-horned breed, of which only one small flock is left. *Shaefell* (2,034 ft), its highest mountain, has a little mountain railway up it. The island is administered by its own Manx Parliament and has a population of about 50 thousands, engaged in farming, fishing and tourist trade.

The **Isle of Anglesey** lies off the coast of North Wales. The station with the longest name in Britain is located here. It is Welsh.

The **Isles of Scilly** are a group of about 140 small islands and islets off Cornwall, England, about 25 miles from *Land's End*. These are Britain's warmest islands. Many semitropical plants and flowers such as fuchsias, geraniums, aloes and cactuses grow here. Early vegetables and spring flowers are grown here in the fields with tall hedges and walls to protect them from Atlantic winds in all weathers. There are several lighthouses here, the best known being the *Bishop Rock Lighthouse*, the most westerly lighthouse in England, built with extreme difficulty in 1858.

The **Isle of Wight** lies off the southern coast of England across a stretch of water called the *Solent* (is in the English Channel) and is reachable by ferry from Portsmouth or Southampton. It's diamond-shaped, 40 km from west to east and about 80 from north to south. The island is a county of England and is a favourite place for about two million holidaymakers a year. Queen Victoria lived there after Prince Albert died. So did the poets Swinburne and Tennyson. The famous *Needles* that are three white chalk cliffs about 100 feet high rise off the western promontory. An annual sailing and yachting regatta at *Cowers* known as Cowers Week is regarded as one of the most important sporting and social events of the year. The best known among the many races is the Britannia Cup. Parkhurst, one of the three prisons on the island, is used to house some of Britain's most dangerous criminals.

The **Channel Islands** are found off the south-east coast of England in the Channel. The two largest islands are *Jersey* and *Guernsey*. They have been part of Britain since the Norman Conquest in 1066. Jersey and Guernsey have liberal tax laws and many rich people live there. The islands are popular with British tourists in the summer.

The **Falklands** are a group of small islands in the South Atlantic close to Argentina, with a population of 1,200 British citizens. They have been British territories since 1892. Disputes about who owns the islands date back to the 18th century. Argentina has long claimed that the islands they call *the Malvinas* belong to them. They occupied the islands in April 1982. The Falklands war lasted until July 1982 when British forces won them back. The Falklands War had an enormous impact on Britain and is still controversial. Some people saw it as a restoration of Britain's old imperial power. Others saw the war as a political mistake turned into a piece of propaganda.

The **Isle of Man** in the Irish Sea and the **Channel Islands** off the French coast are not part of the United Kingdom, although they are members of the Commonwealth. They are self-governing Crown Dependencies possessing their own administrative structures, legal systems, and legislatures. The parliament of the Isle of Man, the *Tynwald*, has two houses: the Legislative Council and the House of Keys. After the bills are passed through both houses they are sent for the royal assent. The Channel Islands' parliament is called the '*States*' in the main three islands of *Jersey*, *Guernsey* and *Alderney*, and the '*Court of Chief Pleas*' in the smaller island of *Sark*. However, the British government as a royal representative is responsible for their defence and international relations and can interfere if good administration is not maintained.

Britain's overseas territories

Britain's 14 Overseas Territories, spread throughout the globe, are diverse communities. They range from the tiny island of Pitcairn with its 54 inhabitants, set in the middle of the Pacific Ocean, to Bermuda, which has a population of 60,000 and is one of the world's major financial centres.

On the launch of the White Paper 'Partnership for Progress and Prosperity', in March 1999, the former Foreign Secretary, Robin Cook, outlined four underlying principles for the relationship between Britain and its Overseas Territories:

- self-determination for the Territories;
- mutual obligations and responsibilities;
- freedom for the Territories to run their own affairs to the greatest degree possible; and
- Britain's firm commitment to promote economic development in the Territories and to help them in emergencies.

Mr Cook said in the foreword of the White Paper:

'The deep bond of affection and respect that exists between the people of Britain and the peoples of the Overseas Territories... is a bond that Britain values highly. It shows how a modern and effective partnership can be built on the foundation of ties that go back centuries.'

1. Anguilla	<p>Full Name: Anguilla Status: British Overseas Territory Area: 90 sq km Population: 11,560 (2001 estimate) Capital City: The Valley Languages: English Religion(s): Christianity Currency: Eastern Caribbean Dollar (EC\$) Location: Anguilla is the most northerly of the Leeward Islands in the eastern Caribbean.</p>
2. Ascension Island Dependency of St Helena	<p>Full Name: Ascension Island Status: Dependency of St Helena Area: 90 Sqkm Population: 1000 Capital City: Georgetown Languages: English Religion: Christian Currency: St Helena/Ascension Pound Location: Ascension lies 700 miles to the north west of St Helena.</p>
3. Bermuda	<p>Full Name: Bermuda Status: British Overseas Territory Area: 53.3 sq km (21 sq miles) Population: 62,059 (2000 CENSUS) Capital City: Hamilton Languages: English. There is also a significant Portuguese-speaking community.</p>

	<p>Religion(s): Mainly Christian although many faiths are represented. The most popular denominations are Anglican and African Methodist Episcopalian (AME).</p> <p>Currency: Bermuda Dollar (parity with US Dollar)</p> <p>Location: The islands and islets of Bermuda (32 degrees 18'N and 64 degrees 46'W) lie along the southern rim of the summit of a submarine volcanic mountain in the Western Atlantic. Bermuda, a group of about 138 islands and islets, lies 570 miles east of the coast of North Carolina.</p>
4. British Antarctic Territory	<p>Full Name: British Antarctic Territory</p> <p>Status: United Kingdom Overseas Territory</p> <p>Area: 1,709,400 sq. km (666,000 sq. miles)</p> <p>Population: No indigenous population. The United Kingdom's presence in the Territory is provided by the British Antarctic Survey (BAS), which maintains two permanently manned scientific stations (at Halley and Rothera) and two summer-only stations (at Fossil Bluff on Alexander Island and Signy in the South Orkney Islands).</p> <p>Currency: Sterling</p> <p>Location: The BAT comprises that sector of the Antarctic south of latitude 60 degrees South, between longitudes 20 degrees West and 80 degrees West.</p>
5. British Indian Ocean Territory	<p>Full Name: British Indian Ocean Territory</p> <p>Status: British Overseas Territory</p> <p>Area: 54,400 sq km</p> <p>Population: Military. No indigenous inhabitants. Approximately 3,000 native inhabitants, known as the Chagosians or Ilois, were evacuated to Mauritius before construction of UK-US military facilities. In 1995, there were approximately 1,700 UK and US military personnel and 1,500 civilian contractors living on the island (July 2000 estimate.)</p> <p>Capital City: Diego Garcia</p> <p>Languages: English</p> <p>Currency: UK£ & US\$</p> <p>Location: The BIOT lies about 1770 km east of Mahe (the main island of the Seychelles).</p>
6. British Virgin Islands	<p>Full Name: British Virgin Islands</p> <p>Status: British Overseas Territory</p> <p>Area: 153 sq km (59 sq miles)</p> <p>Population: 20,986 (2002)</p> <p>Capital City: Road Town (Tortola)</p> <p>Languages: English</p> <p>Religion(s): Mainly Christian</p> <p>Currency: US Dollar</p> <p>The British Virgin Islands are adjacent to the US Virgin Islands (USVI) and 60 miles east of Puerto Rico.</p>
7. Cayman Islands	<p>Full Name: Cayman Islands</p> <p>Status: British Overseas Territory</p> <p>Area: 260 sq km (100 sq miles)</p> <p>Population: 42,000 (approx)</p> <p>Capital City: George Town (Grand Cayman)</p> <p>Languages: English</p>

	<p>Religion(s): Mainly Christian Currency: Caymanian Dollar The three Cayman Islands are situated 268km (180 miles) northwest of Jamaica in the Caribbean Sea and 150 miles south of Cuba.</p>
8. Falkland Islands	<p>Full Name: Falkland Islands Status: UK Overseas Territory Area: 2,173 sq km (4,700 sq mi) Population: 2,379 (2001 Census) Capital City: Stanley Languages: English Religion(s): Christian, with Catholic, Anglican and United Reformed Churches in Stanley. Other Christian churches are also represented. Currency: Falkland Island Pound (at par with sterling) The Falkland Islands are an archipelago of around 700 islands in the South Atlantic, the largest being East Falkland and West Falkland. They are situated about 770 km (480 miles) north-east of Cape Horn and 480 km (300 miles) from the nearest point on the South American mainland.</p>
9. Gibraltar	<p>Full Name: Gibraltar Status: UK Overseas Territory Area: 6.5 sq km Population: 28,231 (2001 census) Capital City: Gibraltar Languages: English Religion(s): Catholic, Protestant, Islam, Hindu Currency: Gibraltar Pound The peninsula that is Gibraltar is in southwest Europe, bordering the Strait of Gibraltar on the southern coast of Spain. The Strait of Gibraltar links the Mediterranean Sea and the North Atlantic Ocean.</p>
10. Montserrat	<p>Full Name: Montserrat Status: British Overseas Territory Area: 102 square km (39 square miles) Population: 4,500 (estimate) Capital City: Plymouth (now destroyed by the volcano) Languages: English Religion: Christianity Currency: Eastern Caribbean Dollar (EC\$) Montserrat is one of the Leeward Islands in the Eastern Caribbean, lying 27 miles southwest of Antigua and 40 miles northwest of Guadeloupe.</p>
11. Pitcairn Henderson Ducie & Oeno Islands	<p>Full Name: Pitcairn, Henderson, Ducie and Oeno Islands Status: British Overseas Territory Area: 4.5 sq km (2 sq m) Population: 44 Capital City: Adamstown (Administrative Centre) People: Descended from the mutineers from the HMS Bounty and their Tahitian companions Languages: English and Pitkern. The latter is a mixture of English and Tahitian and became an official language in 1997. Religion(s): Seventh Day Adventist</p>

	<p>Currency: New Zealand Dollar</p> <p>Pitcairn Island is a small volcanic island situated in the South Pacific Ocean at latitude 25 04 south and longitude 130 06 west. It is roughly 2170km (1350 miles) east south-east of Tahiti; 5310km (3300 miles) east north-east of its administrative headquarters in Auckland, New Zealand and just over 6600km (4100 miles) from Panama.</p>
12. St Helena	<p>Full Name: Saint Helena</p> <p>Status: British Overseas Territory</p> <p>Area: 122 sq km</p> <p>Population: 4000</p> <p>Capital city: Jamestown</p> <p>Languages: English</p> <p>Religion: Mainly Christian, some Bahai.</p> <p>Currency: St Helena Pound on par with UK Pound</p> <p>This remote island in the South Atlantic is about 1200 miles from the South West coast of Africa.</p>
13. South Georgia and South Sandwich Islands	<p>Full Name: South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands</p> <p>Status: British Overseas Territory</p> <p>Area: Some 170km long, varying in width from 2 to 40 km</p> <p>Population: No indigenous population</p> <p>Capital City: King Edward Point (Administrative Centre)</p> <p>People: Not applicable (N/A)</p> <p>Languages: English</p> <p>Religion(s): N/A</p> <p>Currency: Pound Sterling</p> <p>South Georgia is an isolated, mountainous sub-Antarctic island about 1390km south east of the Falkland Islands and about 2,150km east of Tierra del Fuego.</p>
14. Tristan da Cunha	<p>Full Name: Tristan da Cunha</p> <p>Status: Dependency of St Helena</p> <p>Area: 98 sq km</p> <p>Population: 275</p> <p>Capital City: Edinburgh Of The Seven Seas</p> <p>Languages: English</p> <p>Religion: Christian</p> <p>Currency: Pound Sterling</p> <p>Tristan da Cunha is the most remote inhabited island in the world lying 2778 kilometres west of Cape Town.</p>
15. Turks & Caicos Islands	<p>Full Name: Turks and Caicos Islands</p> <p>Status: British Overseas Territory</p> <p>Area: 430 sq km (193 sq miles)</p> <p>Population: 20,200 (2001 census estimate)</p> <p>Capital City: Cockburn Town on Grand Turk</p> <p>Languages: English, some Creole spoken</p> <p>Religion(s): Many Christian churches are represented</p> <p>Currency: US Dollar</p> <p>The Turks and Caicos Islands (TCI) form the south-eastern extremity of the Bahamas chain and lie 90 miles north of Haiti and the Dominican</p>

	Republic and 575 miles south-east of Miami (a 75 minute flight from Miami).
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LECTURE II

THE PEOPLE

Population

The population of the UK according to the 1997 statistics is about 59 million and the country is the 19th in the world in terms of population. Most of the population is concentrated in England - about 49.3 million people. Scotland is the second 'crowded' country - 5.1 million. Wales and Northern Ireland have correspondingly 2.9 and 1.7 million people.

These figures can be compared with some 2 million at the end of the 11th century (the figures were taken from the famous Domesday Book (1086), which was the first systematic attempt to evaluate England's wealth and population).

The census of 1801, which is the first reasonably reliable modern measurement of population, gave figures of 9 million for England and Wales, and 1.5 million for Scotland.

In the second half of the 20th century the lifestyle in Britain has changed greatly. The changes have manifested themselves in a lower birth rate, a longer life expectancy, a higher divorce rate, wider educational opportunities and a higher standard of living. Due to a complex of the factors Britons are becoming an ageing population: the number of people aged over 85 has trebled since 1971 and is now around 1.1 million.

Mid-1996-based projections suggest that population growth in Britain will continue at a relatively low rate. Britain's total population is expected to rise to 60.3 million in 2006, to 61.6 million in 2016 and 62.2 million in 2021.

Within Europe only the Netherlands has a higher population density than England.

The United Kingdom is a very densely populated country with the average figure of some 241 inhabitants per sq. km.

Of the four lands, *England* is the most densely populated, with about **376** persons per sq. km and even higher density can be found in the north-west and south-eastern parts of the country. *Greater London* has by far the greatest concentration of people with **4.5 thousand** people per square kilometer. *Scotland*, with **66** people per sq. km is the least densely populated land, especially in the rural regions of the north. The Highland area of Scotland has the lowest population density with just **8** persons per square kilometer. The greater part of Scotland's population is concentrated in the more lowland areas, particularly the area between Glasgow and Edinburg. *Wales*, whose population is mainly concentrated in the east and south-east, has on average **140** persons per sq. km, and the population of *Northern Ireland*, with **122** persons per sq. km, is more evenly spread.

The present-day distribution of the British population has been conditioned mainly by two factors: Britain's geographical features and historical development. Throughout almost all of Britain's history, the center of economic and political power, and therefore the largest population concentration has been in the south of the country — the result of a better climate, agricultural wealth and easier communication with the wider world. For a very long time the southern part of England had more people than the rest of Britain. From about 1800 the industrial revolution brought enormous development to the English north and midlands, to the Clyde estuary in Scotland and the South Wales. These were the areas rich in the coal to power the machines in the factories, and there was wool from the sheep on the nearby hills. All this brought about a drift of population away from the rural areas to factory towns. People moved, for example, to the textile mills of Lancashire and Yorkshire, and to heavy industries and pottery factories in the West

Midlands (the Black Country). As a result large industrial towns and cities grew in these areas, with the earlier agricultural population changing radically into an industrial workforce.

The long ranging result of the industrial revolution was the obvious disparity in living standards and expectations between the northern and southern parts of England known as the 'North-South' divide. There are many aspects of life in Britain, which illustrate the so-called 'North-South' divide. This is a well-known fact of British life, although there is no actual geographical boundary. Basically, the south has almost always been more prosperous than the north, with lower rates of unemployment and more expensive houses. This is especially true of the south-eastern area surrounding London. This area is often referred to as the 'Home Counties'. The word 'home' in this context highlights the importance attached to London and its domination of public life.

The highest densities of the population today are to be found in 'conurbations', which are groups of once separate towns that have grown and formed a single built-in community. About half of the population lives in a belt of several great urban areas across England:

- the South Lancashire Conurbation, centering on Manchester
- the Mersey Conurbation, centering on Liverpool
- West Yorkshire with two leading centers, Leeds and Bradford in the north and Sheffield in the south
- Greater London area
- the industrial Midlands with two centers of Birmingham and Wolverhampton
- north-east England from the river Tyne (Newcastle upon-Tyne) to the river Tees.

Other areas with large populations are the central lowlands of Scotland (Glasgow), south-east Wales (Cardiff), the Bristol area and the English Channel coast from Poole, in Dorset, eastwards.

The demographic pattern of any country is never static with people always moving about in search of a better life and the 20th century saw a dramatic increase in migration processes. Britain is no exception to this rule. During the 1990s England and Wales both gained population while Scotland and Northern Ireland experienced outward migration.

Origins

The people who now inhabit the United Kingdom are all British by nationality (i.e. citizenship) but, ethnically, are a diverse people having descended from various early people. Peaceful settlements by the Celts in the Iron Age, the Roman occupation of much of Britain for nearly 400 years, the arrival of Germanic Angles and Saxons in the 5th century, the Scandinavian invasion of the 8th - 9th centuries, and the last successful military conquest by the French Normans are but the most important events that helped to determine the future British society. First due to the climatic and geographical reasons and later economic and political ones, the patterns of settlement of various peoples differed. Despite some intermixture, they brought about significant racial and cultural differences between the English and the settlers of Ireland, Scotland and Wales. Today they are divided primarily into the English, Scots, Welsh and Irish.

The Cornish, for example, see themselves as a distinctive cultural element in English society, and have an affinity with Celtic and other similar groups in Britain and Europe.

The English themselves are a relatively mixed people, their customs, accents and behaviour vary considerably, and local pride is strong. English county, regional and local identities are still maintained, and may be demonstrated in many ways, such as sporting events, competitions, cultural activities and politics. Generally, the northern English have often regarded themselves to be superior to the southern English and vice versa. The diversity of the English mixture has also been increased by centuries of overseas immigration, and by existence today of relatively large minority communities.

It is consequently as difficult to find a typical Englishman, who conforms to all or some of the assumed national stereotypes, as it is to find a typical Briton, or a typical member of the other nations.

In Wales, for example, there are cultural and linguistic differences between the industrial south and the rest of the mainly rural country.

The Highlanders of Scotland consider themselves to be the true, original Scots, and therefore superior to the Lowland Scots, who are supposed to be descendants of Danes and Anglo-Saxons.

In Northern Ireland, the social, cultural, political and economic differences between Roman Catholics and Protestants have long been evident and today are often reflected in geographical ghettos. According to the 1991 census, 50.6% of the people regard themselves as Protestants and 38.4% as Roman Catholic. Most of the Protestants are descendants of Scots and English settlers who crossed to north-eastern Ireland; they are British by culture and have traditionally been committed to remaining part of the UK. The Roman Catholic population is mainly Irish by culture and history, and many are nationalist in political aspiration, favouring union with the Irish Republic.

Immigration

The contemporary British represent a very diverse people. This original mixture has been added to by centuries of immigration. Britain has traditionally been the final destination for many waves of immigrants and refugees who came to Britain either in search of better economic opportunities or to escape political or religious persecution.

Among the earliest immigrants (around 1336) were the Flemish weavers who fled from the Netherlands. In the 15th century they helped to transform England into a major nation of sheep farmers, cloth producers and textile exporters. Huguenots (French protestants) settled in the 17th century as did the Jews from continental Europe in the 19th. Refugees from Nazi-occupied Europe arrived in the 1930s before the Second World War. Within the British Empire the pre-war immigration was mainly whites from Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. After the war large numbers of refugees and displaced persons, mainly Poles, Latvians, Ukrainians and subsequently Hungarians, entered Britain. Later, in the middle of the 20th century political refugees came to Britain, such as Czechs, Chileans, Iranians, in addition to other immigrants. In recent years, the number of people coming from the South Asian subcontinent has remained roughly stable, but there has been a rise in immigration from some African countries, such as Ghana, Nigeria, Somalia and Uganda.

The immigration of blacks (largely associated with slave trading) was first recorded in the 16th century. These immigrants were young black people brought to Britain as domestic servants and black seamen who traditionally settled in ports such as Liverpool, Bristol and Cardiff.

The most notable ethnic change in Britain, though, only took place after the Second World War. From 1948 onwards people from the largely coloured former colonies such as India, Pakistan, Hong Kong and the Caribbean (or the West Indies) were specifically invited by government agencies. They were needed to fill the vacant blue-colour low-paying jobs as the British economy was recovering from the human and economic losses of the war. By the 1960s thousands of West Indians had found jobs in public transport, catering, the Health Service and manual trades in London, Birmingham and other large cities. Many Indians and Pakistanis found work in the textile and iron industries of Leeds, Bradford (West Yorkshire) and Leicester.

Until 1962 Commonwealth citizens were free to enter Britain as they wished. Coloured people became a much more familiar sight in other British towns such as Glasgow, Sheffield, Bristol, Manchester, Liverpool, Coventry and Nottingham. Arriving in the 1950s and early 60s, the newcomers settled in the inner city areas where job opportunities at the time were greatest and housing was cheapest but the economic base of which was already declining. They soon discovered that they were the targets of discrimination in class and status. Black people have

generally had the worst-paid jobs, lived in the worst housing and encountered hostility from white neighbours.

By the early 1960s so many Commonwealth immigrants were coming to Britain that the Government decided to limit their number to a level the country could absorb, both economically and socially. The first legislation to control Commonwealth immigration was passed: entry from all countries was controlled under the Immigration Rules passed in the 1970s - 80s, and the Asylum Immigration Appeals Act of 1993. Reflecting these restrictions, the overall level of immigration has been decreasing: total settlement figures fell from over 81,000 in 1976 to 42,000 in 1992.

The 1991-census included a question of ethnic grouping for the first time. This census found that 94.5 % of the population was 'white', while just over 3 million (some 5.5 % of the British population) described themselves as belonging to another ethnic group.

The geographical distribution of ethnic minorities is uneven. The highest concentration is in Greater London, where over 45 % of the population belong to the ethnic minority. Outside London, the main concentrations are in Leicester (where their density is three times the national average), Slough, Luton, Bradford and Birmingham (where it is twice the national average) as well as in Greater Manchester. Regional concentrations vary among the ethnic groups. About three-fifths of people from black ethnic groups live in London, while about two-fifths of Indians and 18 % of Pakistanis are concentrated in other metropolitan areas such as West Yorkshire.

All this diversity of peoples, languages, cultures and religions taken together can well justify the characteristic of Britain as a '**multiracial**' and '**multicultural**' society. Naturally, this diversity makes the issue of immigration to be serious problem in contemporary Britain. Unemployment, low-grade jobs, racial discrimination and poor living conditions have contributed to racial violence, especially in the day-to-day form of relations between young blacks and the police. This is despite the Race Relations Act (1976), that was designed to promote equality of opportunity for people of all races.

The principal means of combatting disadvantages of ethnic minorities is the economic, environmental, educational and health programmes of the central government and local authorities.

To avoid the tensions that can arise between the police and ethnic minorities, there is a statutory consultation between the police and the community. Liaison work is also undertaken in schools. The general policy now is to let people retain their cultural, ethnic and religious identities. English language teaching continues to be a priority for pupils without English as their first language and is supported through specific funding. In addition, all schools must offer not only English and one of the working languages of the European Union, but also a choice of Arabic, Bengali, Hindi, Urdu, Japanese, Mandarin or Cantonese Chinese, Turkish, etc. at secondary level in England and Wales. Schools should also take into account the religious and cultural backgrounds of the pupils, and curricula should reflect ethnic and cultural differences. In certain areas with a concentration of Muslim children, for example, special arrangements have been made regarding the dress of Muslim girls, their sex education, the availability of 'Halal' meat (meat from an animal slaughtered according to Islamic law) and the establishment of single-sex schools.

Broadcasting and the press also take into account ethnic minorities' concerns and interests. Thus, BBC programmes are made for the Asian and Afro-Caribbean minorities. For example - 'East', a topical weekly broadcast covering Asian affairs in Britain and abroad, performances of Asian music and dance, or serials from the South Asian subcontinent, like the 'Mahabharata' — an Indian epic in Hindi. Educational programmes from both the BBC and the commercial companies have been designed to help members of ethnic communities cope with day-to-day life in Britain.

Some 100 newspapers and magazines are produced in Britain by members of ethnic minorities both in Asian languages and in English. Two Chinese newspapers, *Sing Too* and *Wen*

Wei Po, the Urdu *Daily Jang* and the Arabic *Al-Arab* are among most popular dailies. Established English language titles for Asian readers include *The Asian Times*, and *New Life*, for Afro-Caribbeans — *The Weekly Gleaner*.

Traditional British customs and culture are being enriched through contact with other cultures. Thus, Chinese, Indian and Pakistani cuisine are becoming very popular. On the pop-music scene West Indian reggae beat has become very influential in forming people's musical tastes.

Languages

English is the **official** language of the United Kingdom. The English language is descended from one of the dialects spoken by the Anglo-Saxons in the 5th and 6th centuries. Subsequently it was greatly influenced by Latin (the language of learning and religion from the time of Old English) and Norse vocabulary, and then transformed with the settlement by the Normans from France. French was the language of the nobility and the law courts for many years after 1066.

The re-emergence of English as the standard language of England was signified by such events as the Statute of Pleadings in 1362, which laid down that English was to be used in court. The 14th century also saw the first major English literature since the Anglo-Saxon days, with such writings as *Piers Plowman* by William Langland and *The Canterbury Tales* by Geoffrey Chaucer.

The 16th and early 17th centuries saw a considerable flowering of the English literature, with writers such as William Shakespeare, Edmund Spenser and Christopher Marlowe. Cranmer's prayerbook and the Authorised ('King James') Version of the Bible, which have had a profound effect on literature down to modern times, also date from that period. The work of lexicographers, of whom the most famous was Samuel Johnson (1709 - 84), also led to greater standardisation in matters such as spelling.

English is the main language spoken in the UK today, but not everyone in Britain speaks the same kind of English. Within the language there are to be found various regional and local (urban or rural) dialects and accents. Alongside Standard English with RP (Received Pronunciation) there exists Cockney accent in London, with most of the English counties having their own differing accents. There is also a strong local accent and dialect in each of the following cities:

- Newcastle-on-Tyne — the accent and dialects here are called 'Geordie'.
- Liverpool — people here speak 'Scouse'. For example, the Scouse word for 'sandwich' is 'butty'.
- Birmingham — in the UK's second-biggest city the people have a «Brummy» accent. In this accent 'street' becomes 'strate'.

Other cities with accents and dialects include Glasgow, Bristol, Swansea, Belfast, and Penzance.

Traditionally, a true Cockney is anybody born within the sounds of Bow bells (the bells of the church of St. Mary-le-Bow in the East End of London). In fact, these are people who come from a wider area of the innermost eastern suburbs of London and also an adjoining area south of the Thames. 'Cockney' is also used to describe a very strong London accent (associated with working-class origins). A feature of Cockney speech is rhyming slang: 'wife' - 'trouble and strife', 'stairs' - 'apples and pears' (usually shortened to 'apples'). Some rhyming slang has passed into general informal British usage: 'use your loaf' means 'think' ('loaf of bread' is 'head'), 'have a butcher's' means 'have a look' ('butcher's hook' is 'look').

Nor is English the only language that is spoken there today. *Celtic* speech still survives in the British Isles, mainly in the Uplands of Wales and the Highlands of Scotland.

In *Wales* (the Welsh name of which is **Cymru**), Welsh is spoken today. It is estimated that a quarter of the population of Wales speaks Welsh as naturally as they do English - and there may

by a few thousand people who speak Welsh only. The majority of these live in the rural north and west.

In the past twenty years there has been a serious attempt to revive the language. Welsh language study has become compulsory in Welsh schools and there has been an extended use of Welsh in radio and television. Today both Welsh and English are official languages in Wales; it means that Welsh has equal validity with English and can be used for all official purposes, e.g. in law courts; public documents and notices are in Welsh and English.

This is what Welsh looks like: Ail ir ael Eryre, Cyfartal hoewal a hi. = On that day: the head of Snowdon shall be levelled to the ground, and the circling waters shall murmur around it.

Welsh is a lyrical-sounding language, but very tongue twisting for outsiders. The Welsh alphabet omits the consonants j, k, q, v, x and z. It has the one f (pronounced v), a double ff (pronounced as the English f) and a double dd (pronounced as th in then).

Many Welsh place-names begin with words such as Llan (pronounced as [hlan]) — Llanberis, Llandudno, Llangollen, with hundreds of other variants. 'Llan' (usually translated as 'church') dates back to Saxon times, when groups of Celtic preachers went from place to place organising Christian worship, their centres being known as llans. The llans often took the name of the saint who started them. Llandudno, for example, was the llan started by St. Tudno; Llandewi was the llan of St. Dewi (David).

In the county of Anglesey you may see this name of the railway Station: **Llanfairpwllgwyngyllgogerychwyrndrobwlllantysiliogogoch** meaning 'The church of St. Mary in a wood of hazel trees near a rapid whirlpool and near St. Tysilio's cave not far from a red cave'. Being too long it is normally shortened; and on maps the town is called Llanfair P.G.

In *Scotland*, **Scottish Gaelic** [gælik], a language of ancient Celtic origin, is spoken by some 70,000 people (1999) in the Highlands of Scotland and the islands of the Hebrides. The language was introduced there by Irish settlers by about the beginning of the 6th century AD.

Here are some Scottish Gaelic sentences, with word-by-word translations to show the word-order, then followed by literal translation:

Is le Anna an leabhar. (Is book at Ann) — Ann has a book.

The i'na bantraich. (Is she in-her widow) — She is a widow.

Bu duine treun Seumas. (Was man brave James) — James was a brave man.

In *Ireland*, **Irish Gaelic** [gælik] or **Erse** is spoken.

A fourth Celtic language, **Cornish**, was spoken in the peninsula of Cornwall up to the 17th century, became nearly extinct in the 19th century but is now revived.

Manx, the language formerly spoken in the Isle of Man, is still spoken by a few people and is used in addition to English on official occasions.

LECTURE IV

SOCIAL PROFILE

Age and composition of Britain's population

The population will reach 62 million, from its present 59 million, at about 2021. The shape of Britain's population in age and composition has been changing substantially. Since the middle of the century birth rates have fluctuated, rapidly increasing and decreasing (up to 30 % variation) in a single decade. This has serious implications for health and education services, and for employment.

The 'baby boom' of the 1950s, followed by an overall decline in births during the 1970s, is leading to major changes in balance between age groups. The higher birth rate of the 1960s aggravated unemployment of the 1980s, since there were 30 % more young people leaving school than a decade before. The 1970-80s saw a sharp decline in the number of infants (0-4 age group), as a result of which the number of primary school children in 1986 was 26 % lower than

in 1971. At the same time those aged 65 or over increased and became 17.7 % of the total population.

The British population is already one of the oldest in Europe, and it is slowly getting older. Between 1971 and 1996 the proportion of pensioners rose rapidly (and the workforce shrank). In 1990 the median age in Britain was 36 but it will rise to 41 by 2020, the year when there will be twice as many people aged 85 or over as in 1990. (A disproportionate number of the old, incidentally, chooses to retire to the south coast and East Anglia, creating regional imbalances).

In the 1980s there were too many school leavers, but in the 1990s there were too few to fill the jobs left by retiring people. This has important implications for some of the presently unemployed, for the fuller employment of women and for deferring retirement until a later age, a logical step for those who wish to continue working (in view of the better health most enjoy today).

Work and consumption

It should be pointed out that the recent decades have seen a profound change in the nature of *work*. The biggest changes have been in the UK manufacturing industries. The number of people working in factories has declined dramatically. Britain today is no longer the '*workshop of the world*' it used to be in the 19th century when Britain's manufactured goods went all over the world. According to statistics: in 1950 the manufacturing industries provided more than a third GDP (gross domestic product) of the country; by 1993 it was less than a quarter. The service industries had produced about half; by 1993 that had increased to more than two-thirds. The financial sector is a prime example, by the 1980s the City of London, already an established financial center, grew rapidly and contributed vast amounts to the national balance sheet. By the 1980s also tourism had become the second biggest industry.

These changes have been accompanied by changes in the pattern of *consumption*, changes in people's spending habits alongside with a big increase in the amount of leisure time of the British. The number of hours they work in Britain has declined: people tend to work shorter hours and have longer holidays. Most people in Britain now will have a month's holiday a year and most people will work roundabout 37 hours a week. The most common leisure activities are home-based, or social, such as visiting relatives or friends. Television viewing is by far the most popular leisure pastime. The average person - from the age of 4 onwards - watches television 25 hours a week (4h/day). That is on average, so many people spend too much time watching television. Nearly all households have one television set or more, and about

80% of teenagers have a television in their bedroom. Around 82% of families have at least one video recorder, the proportion having doubled in the past ten years.

Other popular pursuits include reading, do-it-yourself home improvements, gardening and going out for a meal, for a drink or to the cinema. Pubs not only retain their popularity as drinking places (with 80% of ale still drunk in pubs and clubs), but also become increasingly popular as places for eating out. Nowadays 'fast food' outlets - selling hamburgers, pizza, chicken and the traditional fish and chips - are widespread in the UK's high streets. Sandwich bars and coffee shops are common, especially in towns and cities. In restaurants one can eat food from many other countries - Chinese, Indian, Italian and French are among the most widely available cuisines.

Pets are traditionally much loved in Britain. About half of families have a pet. Cats have become the most popular type of pet, then come dogs, 8 and 7 million, respectively.

Shorter working hours have had a big impact on an enormous rise in the holiday industry. The number of people in Britain who will go abroad for holidays has increased enormously. Over 29 million of UK residents (around half of the population) went overseas for holidays in 1997. In addition, 6 million were overseas journeys to see friends or relatives. Spain was the most popular holiday destination, with some 7.7 million visits made, followed by France - 6.7

million. Central and South America, and the Caribbean are at present the fastest growing holiday destinations outside Europe.

There has also been a huge increase in the number of people with cars and in car travel. People tend to travel around Britain more. For Easter or any other holiday people would take the car and go away to another part of the country, some prettier place, to the countryside. The most popular holiday destinations are the West Country, eastern England, Scotland, the Heart of England and Wales. Incidentally, this has also brought about lots of traffic, very congested roads, lots of air pollution.

Then there has been a big increase in the number of what are called consumer durables. Televisions, microwaves, washing machines - all those sorts of household gadgets are now fairly commonplace. It has also led to a transformation in the eating habits of the British. More and more people go by convenience foods and frozen foods, there is less cooking of the traditional sorts because of the ready availability of big chain stores where you can buy a whole meal already prepared. A significant shift in eating pattern reflects greater emphasis on health - fresh fruit is increasingly popular, as are 'non-green' vegetables, such as mushrooms, courgettes and peppers. However, consumption of fresh green vegetables, including cabbages, peas and beans was lower in 1997 than ten years earlier. Health considerations appear to be influencing diet, for example, in the fall in red meat sales, the move away from whole milk to skimmed and semi-skimmed milk and the growth in low fat consumption.

Interestingly enough, much advertising on television has led to the commercialization of sport. Very large sums of money are paid to all kinds of sportsmen - football players, rugby players, cricketers, etc. It has changed the nature of sport in Britain enormously.

Family

Changes have taken place in other areas of British social life as well. Take, for example, the classic family. There remains a strong feeling that the immediate or 'nuclear' family is the basic unit of society, and that traditional family values remain the mainstay of national life.

At the outbreak of the war the nuclear family usually contained a married couple, with two children, ideally a girl and a boy, and perhaps their grandmother, or 'granny', in the background. This picture also included the traditional idea of the man going out to work while the wife stayed at home. Social and economic developments in the second half of the century resulted in dramatic changes in the British household structure. There has been a long-term decline in the proportion of families consisting of three or more people and the proportion of traditional families consisting of a couple with dependent children.

Firstly, women now choose to marry later in life: in 1979 only 1 in 7 women aged between 25 and 29 was still single, compared with 1 in 3 (some marrying in mid 30s) in the 1990s. Many women are postponing having children, and there has been an increase in the average age of women giving birth, from 27 years in England and Wales in 1981 to 29 years in 1997. Secondly, ever more women (now about 20 %) choose not to have children at all. Altogether these factors have led to a decline in family size. Today only 42 % of the population live in nuclear family households, and even within this group a considerable proportion of parents are in their second marriage with children from a previous marriage. In fact, it was expected that by the year 2000 only half the children born in Britain would grow up in a conventional family with parents already married when they were born and remaining married after they have grown up.

With social attitudes and behaviour changing now there is an enormous variety of patterns of living in the UK. For instance, the growing tendency not to marry: the number of people living alone has risen significantly, from 1 in 10 in 1951 to 1 in 3 by the end of the century. Many women (and the number of these is growing) live alone preferring independence, which they fear they will lose by marriage. Incidentally, the preference of career rather than marriage was quite characteristic of the 1980s. Thus, the British are clearly becoming a more solitary nation in their

living habits and this will have social implications, for example, need for more housing in the future.

There is also an increasing proportion of men and women living together before marriage. For example, in 1961 only 1% of first-time married couples had previously been living together, compared with 25% in 1997. By the year 2000 it was estimated that most couples would live together before marrying. Others, 'cohabiting', never do get married. Cohabitation has become much more widespread; people in their late 20s and 30s are most likely to cohabit. In 1979 only 1% of all women aged 18-49 were cohabiting, but 10 years later the level had risen to over 15%.

Nevertheless, marriages are as popular as ever, with 400,000 weddings yearly. (It should be pointed out that in 1996 there were 317,500 marriages in the UK, the lowest number since 1917.) In 1961 the yearly divorce rate was 2 per thousand, but by 1988 this had risen to 13 per thousand, almost twice the European average of 7 per thousand. In fact, more than 1 in 3 first marriages end in divorce, with one quarter of first marriages failing in the first five years.

Reasons for climbing divorce rate are partly those of personal development of women who frequently want the right to pursue a career. Alongside a social acceptance of divorce greater today than in the 1950s and 1960s, women have been increasingly dissatisfied by the traditional expectations of the woman's role in marriage. Sometimes the husband's difficulty in adapting to the new situation puts a strain on the marriage. Nearly three-quarters of divorce in 1996 were granted to wives. The most common basis for wives being granted a divorce was the unreasonable behaviour of their husbands, while for men the most common reason was the adultery of their wives. (Research shows that the divorce rate is highest among those on a low income and those who marry very young, say under the age of 24.)

One inevitable consequence of the climbing divorce rate has been the rise of single-parent (or lone-parent) families, whose numbers have been increasing, doubling from 8 % of all families in 1972 to 16 % by 1988. The great majority of single parents are women. Children, of course, are the main victims. 1 in 3 children under the age of 5 have divorced parents. 40 % of children experience the divorce of their parents before the age of 18.

There has also been an increase in babies born outside marriage. It is a sign of changing social attitudes: these babies, once described as 'illegitimate' (a permanent punishment for the innocent baby), are now described officially as 'non-marital'. In 1961 only 6 % of all births were outside marriage, but the rate rose steeply to almost 37 % in 1997. However, 80 % of births outside marriage in 1997 were jointly registered by both parents, and in the majority of these cases the parents shared an address. Unfortunately, cohabitation is no indication of a long-term stable environment for children. Statistics show that cohabiting parents are three times more likely to split up than married parents.

The remaining 20 % of non-marital births are to single mothers, with the rate being highest in areas of high unemployment and the greatest poverty, suggesting to some analysts that the birth of a child gives a woman in such circumstances someone to love, a purpose in life and also state assistance.

What can be done of such evidence? Some critics consider such statistics to be evidence of moral decline and argue the need to return to traditional values. Is Britain really in moral decline? It would be safer to say that moral values are changing with less attention on traditional definitions of immorality.

Women employment

Within the traditional family pattern dominant in Britain through the whole 19th century and well into the 20th, women did not work and were not encouraged to go out to work. There was very much the feeling that their proper place was in the home looking after their husband, their children.

That changed during the First World War because the men went off to war and the women had to work. But after the First World War women were pushed back in their homes. Similar

thing happened with the Second World War. Many men went off to fight in the war and a great number of women were brought in to do the kinds of jobs they hadn't done before. The difference was after the war was over - it was more difficult to push them back into their home as there had been a lot war damage, the economy was recovering and expanding. There were a lot of job opportunities, so it was much easier for women to stay in work.

Women now make up nearly 45 % of the workforce. However, in spite of the considerable change in social attitudes since 1945, and particularly since the feminist revolution, which began in the 1960s, women are still significantly disadvantaged. It is true that women have entered employment in increasing numbers. In 1989 70% of women between the ages of 25 and 44 were in paid work, a figure which rose to 75% or more in the 1990s. A more recent figure: in 1994 70% of all 30-year old women with children worked. So, there are great numbers of working women in Britain at present.

The important disadvantage to be noted here is that the pattern of women employment is very different from that of men, and recently it has improved only slightly. The reasons for this sexual division of labour are complex, but largely to do with the fact, that men continue to control the positions of power and of wealth and are slow to share these with women. In spite of having a female monarch, and having had a female Prime Minister for over a decade, discrimination begins at the top.

If one looks at the senior positions of power in the country virtually none are held by women. At the beginning of 1990, of the 10 judges who formed the highest court of appeal none was a woman, and in the Civil Service there was no female Permanent Secretary. In fact, out of 304 Permanent Secretaries between 1900 and 1990, only two have been women. By 1999, though, the situation had slightly changed: women accounted for 10% of the judges and 15% of senior civil servants.

The following examples help to prove the existence of what we call a vertical segregation - the confining of women to the lower grades of a particular industry - which then become considered 'women's work'. If you look at teaching you will see that fewer than 7% of full-time university professors are women, most of women being primary school teachers. While 25% of qualifying doctors are women, only 2% of them are surgeons. Women account for fewer than 5% of company directors. That's true of any other occupation - even something like catering. Top hotel managers, top restaurant managers will still be men and it will be women at the bottom doing the washing-up, peeling potatoes and all the mundane chores.

Hardly any women have become trade union leaders. An internal report in 1988 commissioned by the largest union of all, the Transport and General Workers' Union stated that the image of union officials' among its white-collar members is 'male, middle-aged, somewhat aggressive and sexist'.

It is difficult to think of many successful women in business or industry. Those whose names come to mind, Anita Roddick of the Body Shop and the late Laura Ashley, reached their position by creating their own businesses. They did not climb to the top of a career ladder in an already established company. Women in career structures sense that a 'glass ceiling' exists which prevents them reaching the top.

Women are also paid less than men are. On average women earn about two thirds or three quarters of men's pay. Although the Equal Opportunities Act, requiring equal pay and conditions for women, came into effect in 1975, little has changed since then. Among police officers under the rank of sergeant, for example, women earn only 93% of men's hourly rate. In nursing, women earn on average 87% of men's wages.

The main reasons for the difference is the segregation of employment by gender -sometimes called horizontal discrimination - pushing women into a very limited spectrum of jobs (according to official records). These are mainly jobs that are associated with servicing the needs of others (things like cleaning, cooking, clicking at the typewriters), clerical work, shop work, nursing,

welfare and primary education, in short, the categories of work in which women predominate and are significantly less paid.

Another reason is that married women are much more likely to be in part-time work. And the reason is quite clear - women's traditional role is still seen as the wife and mother. Many women feel that they can not take full-time work because that means having two jobs to do. Very few employers provide crèches for young children in order to encourage women to work for them. Even the state provides day care for less than 1% of under-three-year-olds, thus discouraging women from working.

The problems begin early with the assumptions made both by parents and by schools. In Britain traditionally boys did better than girls in schools - they had better exam results and more boys went on to university. Quite significantly in the last few years the situation has changed; girls tend to perform better at school and almost equal numbers go on to university. But girls are often encouraged to specialise in traditionally female subjects still. So, girls tend to do arts subjects, modern languages, social science subjects, in short humanities subjects, and boys still tend to do the sciences, mathematics, and technology.

The strong feminist movement in Britain has helped to change things in school. Undoubtedly perceptions are changing. Women are doing better in the job market, in work, and there is more legislation now to promote equal opportunities - a legal framework so that employers can not discriminate against women. So, the situation for women has changed very dramatically but there is quite a long way to go before we can say that the British women have equal opportunities with men.

Social class division

Another fundamental area to be discussed within this lecture is the matter of *social class*. Britain is often described as being class-conscious but this does not mean that society is more divided than, for example, in France. In part the sense of division probably comes from the love of hierarchy and sense of deference. Not only the Royal Family, but also the surviving titled families and old land-owning families are treated with greater deference than might be expected in a democracy. There can be no doubt that they enjoy special status.

But such people are a small minority of the population. Most people are classified according to their work occupations, falling into two broad groups, as in other industrialised societies, *the middle class* (or white-collar workers) and *the working class* (or blue-collar workers). The kind of work done not only indicates education and how much is earned, but also the kind of social contact that is usual. Most people generally mix socially with the same kind of people as those with whom they work. Manual workers tend to mix with each other, as do professionals (doctors, lawyers and senior civil servants) and managers.

This description looks like a static picture, but in fact there is major movement between classes. Many people move from one category to another or increase their level of responsibility during their working lives. More importantly, the working class is rapidly declining. Since the 1950s there has been a massive growth of the middle class.

The middle class embraces a range of people from senior professionals, for example judges, senior medical specialists and senior civil servants, through to clerical workers - in other words, almost all people who earn their living in a non-manual way. To this extent, the middle class embodies much variety and cannot claim a single identity. The sense of social class or group is affected by social circle, education and comparative wealth; although these do not necessarily work together. A relatively poor but highly educated family may find itself associating with wealthier but similarly highly educated friends. An extremely rich but less highly educated family will probably associate with others of similar educational level.

The middle class is the engine room of the economy. Unlike the working class, the middle class has great fluidity and mobility. During the twenty years 1971-91 approximately two million jobs were created in the professional and managerial fields alone, and the whole middle class is constantly expanding. Over half of today's middle class started life in the working class.

Beyond the middle class lies a small but powerful *upper class*, which survives from one generation to another. Although the upper class seems to be merely an extension of the middle class, it is actually separated by three things: property, networks and power. For example, the top 1% of wealth holders owns about one quarter of the nation's wealth. Members of the upper class share a very specific identity. The sons all go to public schools, usually the more famous ones.

Those who think that Britain is a class society usually think of the contrast between this small group of its great wealth, property and privileged education, and the shrinking unskilled manual working class, which has been characterised by significantly higher unemployment. But these two extremes are where there is the least social mobility. Almost half those born into the upper class remain in it, while 40% of sons of unskilled manual workers themselves remain in that class. But among the intermediate categories of people, skilled manual workers, clerical workers, supervisors, managers and professionals, there is a high degree of social mobility.

RELIGION

Religious life in Britain in the past 30 years is characterised by an increasingly diverse pattern of religious beliefs and affiliations. Although the UK is predominantly Christian, most of the world's religions are represented in the country. There are large Hindu, Jewish, Muslim and Sikh communities, and also smaller communities of Bahais, Buddhists, Jains and Zoroastrians that are common in the areas with large ethnic communities.

Britain today may be characterised by considerable religious freedom, which allows one to belong to any religion or sect, including no religion at all. Churches and religious societies may own property, run schools and promote their beliefs in speech and writing. Religious discrimination is unlawful and there are no religious restrictions to the holding of public office - except that the monarch must always be a member of the Church of England.

History

British religious history is marked by various forms of heathen belief in prehistoric times and consequent conversion to Christianity in the 5th century AD. Ireland was the first to be converted to Christianity around AD 432 by St. Patrick, who brought that faith from Rome. His followers then spread Christianity to Wales, Scotland and Northern England and established a number of religious centres. In 596 - 597 the pagan Saxons of southern England were converted to Christianity by St. Augustine and other monks who had been sent from Rome by Pope Gregory. In AD 597 they also founded the ecclesiastical capital of Canterbury, and St. Augustine was appointed its first Archbishop in AD 601.

Christianity soon became an important and central force in national life. Its influence continued to increase from those early times into the Middle Ages, when the church became an essential part not only of religious life but also of law, administration and government. Heresy was then a legal offence; religious tests were imposed on prospective students and academic staff of the universities of Oxford, Cambridge and Durham. Until the mid-19th century those who did not belong to the official church (nonconformists) could not be appointed to public office or become Members of Parliament.

If you happened to be a visitor to a 14th-century town, your first impression would be a great number of churches, chantries, monasteries and chapels. The church was the center of the all-important spiritual life of the town. The churchyard was often where much of the official business was conducted. Odd as it may seem to us, it was among the graves that the people met for the annual elections of the town officials and leaders.

As the influence and the wealth of the church grew it was increasingly accused of worldliness and materialism and was sometimes considered to be corrupt.

Gradually the relationship between England and Rome became very difficult as the English monarchs were jealous of the expanded wealth and power of the church and resented the dominant influence of Rome in national affairs.

One example would be enough to show how great the power of Rome was. King John the Lackland (1199 -1216) attacked the Church by confiscating its lands and levying excessive fines. In addition, he got into a direct dispute with Pope Innocent I over the filling of the vacant Archbishopric of Canterbury. Ignoring the King's nominee and contrary to the well-established custom, the Pope appointed another man. He followed this by declaring John excommunicated and deposed, and persuaded the Kings of France and Scotland to declare war on him. At the last minute John submitted to Innocent but he failed to win back the support of the Church of England.

Another English king who ruled some 300 years later did succeed in his effort. Henry VIII argued in 1529 that as King of England he, not the Pope, was the supreme legal authority in the country, and that the English Church and its courts should owe their allegiance only to him. In 1534 Henry broke away from Rome by the Act of Supremacy and became Head of the Church of England, then called 'Anglicana Ecclesia'. The immediate reason for this breach was purely political: the Pope refused to accept Henry's divorce from his Queen, Catharine of Aragon, who was then too old to produce the male heir to the throne. But Henry also wanted to diminish the church's legal authority and wealth. By 1540 he had the power to appoint 43 bishops of the Church of England (who were loyal to the king) and to control 800 richest monasteries. He then dissolved many monasteries, confiscating a large part of the church's property and wealth.

However, although he had established a national church, that church retained its medieval organisation and was still Roman Catholic in its faith and practices. Henry did not regard himself as a Protestant nor did he consider the English Church to be part of the Protestant Reformation, which was then profoundly affecting religious life in continental Europe. Indeed, Henry had defended the papacy against Martin Luther in 1521 and the Pope had rewarded the King with the title of Fidei Defensor (Defender of the Faith) which British monarchs still have today and which can be seen on all British coins.

The theological changes were to come later. They were the work of the middle and lower classes, which had kept alive the teachings of John Wyclif, and welcomed those of Luther. This new social and religious force, increased by the influence of the European Reformation, caused the English, Scottish and Welsh Churches to move gradually away from some of Rome's doctrines both in belief and organisation. This movement in England accelerated under Henry's successors Edward VI and Elizabeth I, whose practices and beliefs became more Protestant. In fact, it was Elizabeth I who established the Protestant status of the Church of England by the terms of her Church Settlement.

From the beginning of her reign Elizabeth was determined to avoid the extremes of both her brother's (Edward VI) and her sister's (Mary I - Bloody Mary) reigns. She strove to establish a church that was broadly based with a doctrine sufficiently elastic to satisfy the vast majority of her subjects.

The Church's doctrine was stated in the Thirty-Nine Articles of Faith (1562) and its rituals were largely contained in the central document of the Church of England - the Book of Common Prayer, compiled in 1549 and not altered since 1662.

In 1611 England saw the appearance of the famous King James Bible, the Authorised Version. This translation, originally intended «to be read in stone buildings», became the foundation of the whole of the English system of education, culture and literature and continued to be so for over three hundred years. This also meant that English replaced Latin in church documents and services. A further break with Rome occurred later when priests of the Church of England were allowed to marry.

The English Church now occupied an intermediate position between Roman Catholicism and the Protestant Churches of Europe.

In Scotland, then an independent kingdom, the Reformation led by John Knox resulted in the foundation of the Protestant Church of Scotland in 1560. Ireland meanwhile remained firmly Roman Catholic.

This, however, did not stop the religious arguments, which were to affect Britain in later years. Many Protestants in the 16th and 17th centuries, wishing to distance themselves further from Rome, separated from the Church and formed their own religious organisations. Those who left the established Church to form their own churches were called *Dissenters* because they disagreed with the majority view. These Puritan congregations were extremely radical both in politics and in religion, and were subjected to severe repression and persecution. Later they became known as *Nonconformists*, and today the term members of the *Free Churches* is more common.

Religious conflicts continued between Protestants and Catholics into the 17th century and beyond, affecting both religions. For three hundred years the Roman Catholic Church was repressed and only returned to Britain in 1850. At present, too, we are witnesses of a continuation of the long-time religious conflict in Northern Ireland, a localised but sometimes bloody conflict between Protestants and Catholics.

When we talk of Christianity today we generally mean the following Christian churches:

Christian Churches			
<i>Church of England*</i>	<i>Church of Scotland*</i>	<i>Roman Catholic Church</i>	<i>Free Churches</i>

* — established churches

Church of England

The *Church of England* is the established church in England for the main reason that the ministers of the established church work in services run by the state, such as the armed forces, national hospitals and prisons, and may be paid a salary for such services by the State. Religious education in state schools is required by law, as is a daily collective worship.

The monarch, who is the 'Supreme Governor' of the Church, appoints its archbishops, bishops and deans. During the coronation ceremony, the monarch promises to protect the Church's position. All Anglican clergy, in their turn, take an oath of allegiance to the Crown. Parliament also has a voice in the Church's organisation and rituals: the two archbishops of Canterbury and York, bishops of London, Durham and Winchester and twenty-one other senior bishops sit in the House of Lords and take part in the proceedings. The State helps the Church to repair historic churches. In 1997-8, for instance, English Heritage granted to churches £10 million. Thus, Church and Crown in England are closely entwined, with mutual bonds of responsibility.

Organisationally, the Church is divided into the two provinces of Canterbury and York, each under the control of an Archbishop. The Archbishop of Canterbury (also called the 'Primate of all England') is regarded as senior to the Archbishop of York ('Primate of England') and is the professional head of the church. The two provinces are subdivided in 44 dioceses (Canterbury comprising 30 and York - 14), each under the control of a bishop. Many of the bishops' seats are very old and are situated in ancient cathedral towns, such as Lincoln, Durham, Salisbury and Chichester.

The senior bishops are those of London, Durham and Winchester, but there is no guarantee of promotion according to seniority. George Carey, for instance, the present (103rd) Archbishop of Canterbury, was previously Bishop of Bath and Wells, no longer considered a senior bishopric. Because of the growth in population, some bishops are assisted by deputies assigned to a geographical part of the diocese. These are 'suffragan' bishops.

Bishops, deans and archdeacons usually still wear 18th-century style black gaiters. The bishop of a diocese is referred to as 'My Lord' and lives in an antique palace.

Every diocese has a cathedral as its central church. Each of the old cathedrals has a dean and a number of residentiary canons (collectively called *the dean and chanter*) that are responsible for the cathedral and its services. The canons normally live in elegant houses around the cathedral close.

The dioceses are divided into about 13,000 parishes - basic units of the Church's ministry, each of which is centred on a parish church. Most parishes are run by a priest (called either a *vicar or a rector*); large parishes may have an additional assistant priest (a *curate*). Before being ordained by the local bishop, a priest must first serve as a *deacon* for a year. A priest usually has rent-free accommodation in a vicarage (or a rectory), but does not receive a large salary (which today is paid out of central church funds).

Priests have therefore considerable freedom as to how they conduct their church services. Some priests have even introduced contemporary music and dramatic performances into their services, in order to appeal to young people and modern tastes. Today the priests are more and more involved in social issues and give practical help to many groups - from young people to the homeless.

The total membership of the Church of England is difficult to determine, as membership is usually assumed when a person is baptised into the church. It would seem that over half of the English population (23 million) has been baptised. This membership may be confirmed at 'confirmation', around the age of 14 or 15. It is estimated that only a fifth (or 9 million) have been confirmed. Attendance at services on a normal Sunday are around 1.1 million, however, many people who rarely, if ever, attend services (perhaps half the population), still regard themselves as belonging to the Church of England.

The main financial resources of the Church come from its substantial property and investment holdings; it's enough to say that the Church is the third largest landowner in Britain, after the Royal Family and the Forestry Commission. The Church Commissioners administer the total assets of the church, which have been estimated at over 400 million pounds.

The central governing body of the Church of England is the *General Synod*. It has not only spiritual authority but also legislative powers: in fact, it is the only organisation in the country, which can pass Measures that become national law if they are debated and passed by Parliament. The main work of the Synod, though, is church business, such as missionary work, inter-church relations, recruitment and training for the ministry and other matters like the question of women priests. After a long and heated debate, the first women priests were ordained in 1994. Women priests now can be appointed to all offices in the Church, except those of archbishop or bishop.

Church of Scotland

The *Church of Scotland*, as has been mentioned above, was created in 1560 by John Knox, who was opposed to the idea of bishop's rule and considered that the English Church had not moved sufficiently far from Rome. The Scottish Church followed the teachings of Calvin, a leading proponent of the European Reformation, and developed a rather severe form of Presbyterian Protestantism. Its churches are plain (there is no altar, only a table) and the emphasis is on the pulpit, where the gospel is preached. Unlike the Church of England, the Church of Scotland is subject neither to the Crown, nor to Parliament. The Church of Scotland Act 1921 confirmed its complete freedom in all spiritual matters (questions of doctrine, worship, government and discipline) from state authority, which it asserted after the union of Scotland with England in 1707. The church is generally known as the *Scottish Kirk* and has the adult membership of about 800,000.

The Kirk is more democratic than the Church of England in that it has a Presbyterian form of government. The 1,300 churches are governed locally by Kirk Sessions, consisting of

ministers and elected elders. The minister and one of these elders represent the Kirk at the regional presbytery. Each of the 46 presbyteries of Scotland elects two commissioners to represent at the principal governing body of the Church - the General Assembly. It meets every year under the presidency of an elected Moderator, who serves for one year and is the leader of the church.

In keeping with its democratic nature, it admits women as well as men to the ministry. In 1988, for example, it admitted more women than men.

Roman Catholic Church

The *Roman Catholic Church* in Britain experienced much persecution and discrimination after the Reformation. In England it had ceased to exist in the 16th century (in 1829 only were Catholic priests allowed to live within five miles of towns) and was formally restored in 1850. In Scotland the Church's formal structure was not restored until 1878. However, through this period Catholicism never disappeared entirely.

Since 1850 the Roman Catholic Church has grown rapidly. Today Catholicism is widely practised throughout Britain and enjoys complete freedom, except that no Catholic can become monarch. There are now seven Catholic provinces in Great Britain (four in England, two in Scotland and one in Wales), each under the supervision of an archbishop; 30 dioceses, each under the control of a bishop; and over 3,320 parishes and about 4,800 priests (only men may become priests). The head of the Church in England is the Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster, and the senior lay Catholic is the Duke of Norfolk. In Northern Ireland there is one province with six dioceses, some of which overlap with dioceses in the Irish Republic.

About 10% of British citizens (some 5.7 million) claim to be Roman Catholics. It would seem that the Catholic community is made principally of the very rich and very poor. The former are some of the oldest aristocratic families that are traditionally Catholic; of these the Howards (the hereditary Dukes of Norfolk) are the most famous. The latter are represented by large numbers of Irish immigrants and working class people in deprived areas. Recently there has been a trickle of middle-class converts, including a number of intellectuals, mainly writers, G K Chesterton, Evelyn Waugh, and Graham Greene, just to mention a few.

Most Catholics are seemingly strict in their adherence to religious customs. The church continues to emphasise the important role of education for its children, and requires its members to try to bring up their children in the Catholic faith. There are as many as 2,500 Catholic schools in Britain who are often staffed by members of religious orders, such as Jesuits and Marists. These and other orders also perform considerable social work such as nursing, hospital duties, childcare and running homes for the elderly.

Free Churches

The Free (*or Nonconformist*) Churches are those Protestant sects in Britain which, unlike the Church of England and the Church of Scotland, are not established as official churches of the state. Their history is that of schism and separation, not only from the Church of England but also from each other. This has resulted in the formation of many different sects and the continuation of the nonconformist tradition. These sects have developed their own convictions and traditions, which are often characterised by simple church services, worship and buildings as well as having no bishops or 'episcopacy'. The Free churches tend to be strongest in northern England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland. The major Free Churches today are *the Methodists*, *the Baptists*, *the United Reformed Church* and *the Salvation Army*. All of these allow both men and women to become priests.

The *Methodist Church* is the largest of the Free Churches with some 389,000 full adult members and a community of 1.2 million. It was established in 1784 by John Wesley (1703-91) after Church of England obliged him to separate and form his own organisation. The present church is based on the 1932 union of most of the separate Methodist sects, though independent Methodist churches still exist in Britain (the Methodist Church of Ireland has over 14,000 members in Northern Ireland) and abroad, with a world-wide membership of several million. Members of this church are sometimes referred as Weslians, after their founder. The organisation of this church is similar to that of Presbyterians in practice, that is, it is governed by 'presbyteries' or local councils in which each congregation is represented by its minister and laymen. Most of the ministers in this church are laymen.

The *Baptists* date from the 17th century, being the oldest dissenters in Britain. They reject state authority over the church, each congregation is governed by its own Church Meeting of members over whom the Minister presides. The Baptists practice Believers (Adult) Baptism (whence the name). The Baptists today are mainly grouped in associations of churches, most of which belong to the Baptist Union of Great Britain and Ireland (re-formed in 1812). The membership of this Union is some 150,000. There are also separate Baptist Unions for Scotland, Wales and Ireland, and other independent Baptist Churches.

The third largest of the Free Churches is the *United Reformed Church* (with some 95,000 members). It was formed in 1972 when the Congregational Church in England and Wales (the oldest Protestant minority in Britain, whose origins can be traced back to the Puritans of the 16th century) and the Presbyterian Church of England (a church closely related in doctrine and worship to the Church of Scotland) merged.

The *Religious Society of Friends (Quakers)* came into being in the middle of the 17th century under the leadership of George Fox (1624-91). It has no ordained ministers and no conventionally organised services, like liturgy or sacraments. Silent worship is central to its life as a religious organisation. Their churches, called meeting-houses, are found only in large towns. Most of their members are wealthy and some of the leading industrial families can be counted among them. The Quakers' pacifism and social work are influential and their membership has increased since the early 20th century to about 18,000 adult members and 9,000 attenders in the UK.

The *Salvation Army*, with its emphasis upon saving souls through a very practical Christian mission, was founded in the East End of London by William Booth in 1865 and now has some 55,000 members, 3,150 officers (ordained ministers) and more than 1000 centres of worship. It has since spread to 85 other countries, and has a worldwide strength of about 2.5 million. The Salvation Army is a very efficient organisation and has 130 centres to help alcoholics, the homeless, the poor, the abused and the needy. The members of this church, men and women alike, wear a special dark blue military-like uniform. They may be frequently seen on the streets of British towns and cities, playing and singing religious music, collecting money, preaching and selling their magazine.

The Free churches of Britain are growing and part of their revival may be attributed to the vitality of the West Indian churches. As West Indian immigrants in the 1950s and the 1960s were not welcomed into Anglican churches, many decided to form their own churches. Their music and informal joyfulness of worship spread quickly in evangelical circles.

There are also a number of Christian communities of foreign origin, including *Orthodox*, *Lutheran* and *Reformed Churches* of various European countries, the *Coptic Orthodox Church* and the *Armenian Church*. They have established their own centres of worship, particularly in London, all these churches operate in a variety of languages. The largest is probably the *Greek Orthodox Church*, many of whose members are of Cypriot origin.

There are also several other religious organisations in the UK, which were founded in the United States in the last century. These include the *Christadelphians*, the *Christian Scientists*, the

Church of Jesus Christ of the Latter-Day Saints (the Mormon Church), the *Jehovah's Witnesses*, the *Seventh-Day Adventists*, and the *Spiritualists*.

This diversity of Christian groups and affiliations results in the extremely varied religious life in Britain today, but one, which is an important reality for a large number of people.

Non-Christian Religions

Apart from Christianity, there are at least five major non-Christian religions with a substantial number of adherents in Britain. These are usually either immigrants or descendants of immigrants:

<i>NON-CHRISTIAN RELIGIONS</i>				
JUDAISM	ISLAM	HINDUISM	SIKHISM	BUDDHISM

Since its establishment, the Christian Church has been closely linked to the State and has played an important part in moulding the social structure of the country. For non-Christian religions there was little room left, therefore the *Jewish community* was for a number of centuries the only non-Christian faith in England.

The first groups of Jews came to Britain during the Norman invasion and were mainly merchants and moneylenders and stayed until 1290 when King Edward I expelled Jews from the country by royal decree. The present Jewish community dates from 1656, having been founded by *Sephardim* (Jews from Spain, Portugal and north Africa). Later, in the 19th century a substantial group of some 200,000 Jewish settlers came from Germany and central Europe, these are known as *Ashkenazim*.

The Jews in Britain are divided into the majority Ashkenazi Orthodox faith (that belong to the United Synagogues and whose main spiritual authority is the Chief Rabbi) and the minority Reform group. A much smaller number of Sephardic Orthodox still recognises a different leader, the Haham. Today the Jewish community in Britain has about 285,000 members and is, after that in France, the largest Jewish population in Europe. The majority of Jews live in Greater London, and the rest live mainly in urban areas outside London, like Leeds, Manchester and Salford and in Brighton.

Non-white immigration into Britain during the past 50 years has resulted in the substantial growth of other non-Christian communities: *Hindus, Sikhs, Buddhists and Muslims*.

The Muslim community (with some 1.5-2 million) is the largest in the country. Most of them come from Pakistan and Bangladesh, but there are sizeable groups from India, Cyprus, the Arab countries, Malaysia and parts of Africa. This population is increasing due to both a higher birth rate among Muslims and a growing conversion to Islam. The Muslim community is the most important and not only on account of its size. The British Muslims have become very vocal in expressing their opinions on a range of matters. There are over 1,000 mosques and community Muslim prayer centres throughout Britain. They range from converted houses in many towns to the London Central Mosque at Regent's Park and its associated Islamic Cultural Centre, one of the most important institutions in the Western world. There are also important mosques and cultural centres in Liverpool, Manchester, Leicester, Birmingham, Bradford, Cardiff, Edinburgh and Glasgow. Mosques are not only places of worship; they also offer instruction in the Muslim way of life and facilities for educational and welfare activities.

There is also a large **Hindu community** in Britain. This religious group comprises around 400,000 to 500,000 members, most of who come from India. The Hindu community is made up predominantly of Gujaratis and Punjabis, the remainder including Bengalis and Tamils. The largest groups of Hindus are to be found in different areas of London, Leicester, Birmingham,

Bradford and Leeds. The first Hindu temple, or mandir, was opened in London in 1962 and there are now over 150 mandirs scattered around the country.

The large **Sikh community** in Britain comprises over 400,000 to 500,000 members and also originates from India, particularly from Punjab. The largest groups of Sikhs are to be found in Greater London, Manchester, Birmingham, Nottingham and Wolverhampton. Sikh temples, or gurdwaras, cater for the religious, educational, social welfare and cultural needs of the community. The oldest gurdwara in London was established in 1908 and the largest is in Hounslow, Middlesex (to the west of London). There are over 200 gurdwaras in Britain.

Buddhism is also represented in the UK and consists largely of adherents of British or Western origin with some numbers of South Asian and Asian background. There are well over 500 Buddhist groups and centres, with at least 50 monasteries and temples in the country. All the main schools of Buddhism are represented.

Small communities of other faiths include about 30,000 **Jains**, whose religion is of ancient Indian origin. A deresar, or Jain temple, opened in Leicester in 1988. The *Zoroastrian religion*, or *Mazdaism*, originated in ancient Iran. It is mainly represented in Britain by Parsi community, whose ancestors left Iran in the 10th century and settled in north-west India (estimates range from 5,000 to 10,000 members). The *Bahai* movement, which originated in 19th-century Iran, regards all the major religions as divine in origin; there are an estimated 6,000 Bahais in Britain.

Rastafarianism emerged out of the back-to-Africa movement in the West Indies early this century, and arrived in the UK through Jamaican immigration in the 1950s. It has no single creed, but draws heavily on the Old Testament.

These non-Christian religions have notably changed the religious face of the British society and have influenced employment conditions, since allowances have to be made for non-Christians to follow their own religious observances and customs.

LECTURE V

THE MONARCHY

The United Kingdom is one of six constitutional monarchies within Europe (the other five being Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway and Spain). Britain's monarchy is the oldest, dating back to the 9th century. It existed four centuries before the Parliament and three centuries before the law courts. The present monarch, Queen Elizabeth II, is directly descended from Saxon king Egbert, who united England under his rule in 829.

The full royal title in Britain 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 title thus reflects the union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland in 1707, the union with Ireland in 1801 and the emergence of the Commonwealth.

There has been only one interruption in the history of the monarchy: following the execution of king Charles I and the proclamation of a republic, lasting until the restoration to the throne of King Charles II in 1660.

Succession

Succession to the Throne in the United Kingdom is still hereditary, but only for Protestants in the direct line of descent: the English *Act of Settlement (1701)* laid down that only Protestant descendants of Princess Sophia - the Electress of Hanover and a grand-daughter of King James I (1603-25) are eligible to succeed. The sons of the Sovereign and their descendants have precedence over daughters in succeeding to the throne, but daughters take precedence over the descendants of the Sovereign's brothers. A daughter who succeeds to the throne becomes *Queen Regnant* and acquires the Crown's powers as though she were king. While the consort of a king takes her husband's rank and style and becomes Queen, the constitution does not give any special rank or privileges to the husband of a Queen Regnant. In practice, although, he fills an important role in the life of the nation, as does the Duke of Edinburgh, Queen Elizabeth II's husband.

The Act of Settlement (1701) made sure that only a Protestant could inherit the crown. It stated that if Mary had no children, the crown would pass to her sister Anne. If she also died, without children, it would go to a granddaughter of James I, who had married the German elector of Hanover, and her children.

The sovereign succeeds to the throne as soon as his or her predecessor dies; there is no interval of interregnum. The automatic succession is summed up in the famous phrase «the King is dead; long live the King!» The new Sovereign is proclaimed at an Accession Council to which all members of the Privy Council are summoned. Members of the House of Lords, the Lord Mayor and Aldermen and the leading citizens of the City of London are also invited.

Coronation

Coronation of the new Sovereign follows the accession after a convenient interval. The coronation of Queen Elizabeth II in 1953, for example, took place over a year after she became queen. This does not affect the legal powers of the Crown: King Edward VIII, for instance, was never crowned but reigned for nearly a year in 1936. The coronation ceremony has remained essentially the same for over a thousand years, although details have been changed to match the customs of the time. The coronation service is traditionally conducted by the Archbishop of Canterbury at Westminster Abbey in the presence of representatives of the Houses of Parliament. The Prime Minister and leading citizens from the Commonwealth and representatives of other countries also attend. The coronation is an occasion for pageantry and celebration, but it is a religious ceremony. During the ceremony, the Sovereign takes the coronation oath - the form and wording have varied over the centuries. Today, the Sovereign undertakes to rule according to law, to exercise justice with mercy - and to maintain the Church of England. The Sovereign is then 'anointed, blessed and consecrated' by the Archbishop, whilst the Sovereign is seated in King Edward's chair (made in 1300, and used by every Sovereign since 1626). After receiving the orb and sceptres, the Archbishop places St. Edward's Crown on the Sovereign's head. After homage is paid by the Archbishop of Canterbury and senior peers, Holy Communion is celebrated. A Queen consort is crowned with the King, in a similar but simpler ceremony. If the new Sovereign is a Queen, her consort is not crowned or anointed at the coronation ceremony. After the present Queen was crowned the Duke of Edinburgh was the first, after the archbishops and bishops, to pay homage to her. The Queen's Coronation took place on 2 June 1953 following her accession on 6 February 1952. The service used at Queen Elizabeth II's coronation in 1953 was based on that used at the coronation of the Saxon King Egbert at Bath in 973.

Royal family name

Historically, members of Royal families had no need for surnames, as kings and princes were known by the names of the countries over which they and their families ruled. Kings and queens therefore signed themselves by their first names only, a tradition in the United Kingdom which has continued to the present day. Members of the British Royal family had no surname before 1917, but only the name of the dynasty to which they belonged.

The names of dynasties tended to change when the line of succession was taken by a rival faction within the family (e.g. Henry IV and the Lancastrians, Edward IV and the Yorkists, Henry VII and the Tudors), or when succession passed to a different family branch through females (e.g. Henry II and the Angevins, James I and the Stuarts, George I and the Hanoverians).

Just as children can take their surnames from their father, so sovereigns normally take the name of their 'House' from their father. For this reason, Queen Victoria's eldest son Edward VII belonged to the House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (the family name of his father Prince Albert). Edward VII's son George V became the second king of that dynasty when he succeeded to the throne in 1910.

In 1917, there was a radical change, when George V specifically adopted Windsor, not only as the name of the 'House' or dynasty but also as the surname of his family. The family name was changed as a result of anti-German feeling during the First World War, and the name Windsor was adopted after the Castle of the same name. At a meeting of the Privy Council on 17 July 1917, George V declared that 'all descendants in the male line of Queen Victoria, who are subjects of these realms, other than female descendants who marry or who have married, shall bear the name of Windsor'.

The Royal family name of Windsor was confirmed by The Queen after her accession in 1952. However, in 1960, The Queen and The Duke of Edinburgh decided that they would like their own direct descendants to be distinguished from the rest of the Royal family (without changing the name of the Royal House), as Windsor is the surname used by all the male and unmarried female descendants of George V.

It was therefore declared in the Privy Council that The Queen's descendants, other than those with the style of Royal Highness and the title of Prince/Princess, or female descendants who marry, would carry the name of Mountbatten-Windsor. (In 1947, when Prince Philip of Greece took the Oath of Allegiance, he became naturalised, and assumed the name of Philip Mountbatten as a Lieutenant in the Royal Navy.) The surname Mountbatten-Windsor first appeared on an official document on 14 November 1973, in the Marriage Register at Westminster Abbey for the marriage of Princess Anne and Captain Mark Phillips.

A proclamation on the Royal family name by the reigning monarch is not statutory; unlike an Act of Parliament, it does not pass into the law of the land. Such a proclamation is not binding on succeeding reigning sovereigns, nor does it set a precedent which must be followed by reigning sovereigns who come after. Unless The Prince of Wales chooses to alter the present decisions when he becomes king, he will continue to be of the House of Windsor and his grandchildren will use the surname Mountbatten-Windsor.

The present royal family belonged to the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha until 1917 when, in the light of the First World War, it was considered more appropriate for the King to have an English rather than a German name. It was therefore proclaimed that Queen Victoria's descendants in the male line would adopt the name Windsor. In 1952 Queen Elizabeth II declared that she and her children should be known *as the House and the Family of Windsor*.

The Queen

The Queen personifies the State. As has been mentioned, in law she is head of the executive and of the judiciary, an integral part of the legislature, commander-in-chief of all armed forces of the Crown and the 'supreme governor' of the established Church of England. As a result of a long process of evolution, especially since 1689, the monarchy's absolute powers have been progressively reduced, the Queen today is only a formal ruler and does not actually govern: nowadays monarchs reign but do not rule. The Queen does not act independently. Whatever she does must be done on the advice of a Minister; and the Minister is politically responsible for the royal act.

Though Britain is actually governed by Her Majesty's Government, it would be wrong to underestimate the role of the monarchy in Britain. The official and state duties of the Queen are numerous. The Queen's involvement is still required in many important acts of government. It is the Queen who summons, prorogues (suspends until the next session) and dissolves Parliament. She normally opens each session with a speech from the throne, which outlines her Government's programme. Before a bill that has passed all its stages in both Houses of Parliament becomes a law it must receive the Royal Assent.

It is the Queen's duty to make appointments of many important office holders, including government ministers, judges, officers in the armed forces, governors, diplomats, bishops and

other senior clergy of the Church of England. She also confers all peerages, knighthoods and other honours. While the Queen normally does all this on the direction of the government, there are a few honours conferred on her personal selection - the Order of the Garter, the Order of the Thistle, the Order of the Merit and the Royal Victorian Order.

The Order of the Garter was created in the fourteenth century by King Edward III. He selected the twenty-four bravest soldiers in England and made them knights of 'The Order of the Garter'. These days most knights of the Garter aren't soldiers - they are politicians, earls or church leaders. The Order's home is at Windsor. Each year all the knights meet there on a Monday in June. Then they walk (watched by thousands of visitors and tourists) from the Castle to St George's Chapel where a special ceremony takes place. In fact the garter ceremony always happens on the Monday of 'Ascot Week', a famous horse-racing event.

An important function of the Queen is appointing the Prime Minister, but when doing so she is bound to invite the leader of the political party, which commands a majority in the House of Commons to form a government.

In international affairs the Queen, as head of state, has the power to declare war and make peace, to recognise foreign states and governments, to conclude treaties and to annex or cede territories. For advice on such matters the Queen has her own Privy Council. In earlier times it was a body of advisers of English monarchs and was the chief source of executive power in the State. As the system of Cabinet government developed, the Privy Council declined in importance. The present-day Privy Council exists mainly to give effect to policy decisions made elsewhere. The Privy Council consists of members of the royal family, the Archbishops and all senior ministers and ex-ministers, together with others to whom membership has been given as an honour. Privy Councillors are entitled to the prefix - the Right Honourable - before their name. There are about 300 of them altogether.

The Queen is also active in the work of government: she gives audiences to her ministers and other officials in Britain and overseas, reads dispatches and signs numerous state papers, these arrive in special 'red boxes'. Some are new laws that need her 'assent'. Others are reports, documents or telegrams from ambassadors. This is an important part of the Queen's job. She is not a political leader, but she has 'the right to be consulted, the right to encourage and the right to warn'. That is also why the Queen is visited by the Prime Minister every Tuesday evening to receive an account of Cabinet decisions, as she must be informed and consulted on every aspect of national life. Since 1952 the Queen has given audience, as it is called, to ten Prime Ministers and her forty years' experience gives importance to those meetings.

'Prince of Wales'

There is no automatic succession to this title, which at every vacancy becomes merged in the Crown, and is renewed only by the Sovereign. The title 'Prince of Wales' may be possessed only by the eldest son of a Sovereign. (The title 'Princess of Wales' applies only to the wife of the Prince of Wales. The title cannot be used by the Sovereign's daughter, even if she is heir to the throne. For example, the Queen was known as Princess Elizabeth until she succeeded to the throne.)

The present Prince of Wales is 21st in the line, counting several who were never formally invested. He can trace his descent back through the Tudors to the original Princes of Wales, of whom the last native Prince of Wales was Llywelyn ap Gruffyd (1246-82). Edward II was the first Prince of Wales in the present line; he was formally created Prince of Wales by his father Edward I in 1301 and he was invested before Parliament in Lincoln.

When Henry VIII united England and Wales and gave Wales representation in the Parliament at Westminster, the direct link between the Prince of Wales and the government of that principality was severed. George II, as Prince of Wales, was the last to be granted the

revenues of Wales, by a special Act of Parliament. There are no revenues or estates attaching to the principality as such today. (As heir apparent, the Prince of Wales became Duke of Cornwall in 1952 on The Queen's accession, and he receives the annual net revenues from the Duchy of Cornwall to meet all his costs.)

Prince Charles was created Prince of Wales on 26 July 1958 thus becoming the first Prince of Wales since 1936. Although investitures of Princes of Wales were traditionally held in front of Parliament, and not all Princes of Wales have been invested, the investiture of the present Prince of Wales (like that of his predecessor Prince Edward, later Edward VIII, in 1911) was a State occasion in a Welsh setting before the Welsh people, and it took place at Caernarvon Castle on 1 July 1969. The Welsh regalia (crown jewels associated with the Princes of Wales) used at the investitures in 1911 and 1969 are on loan to the National Museum of Wales in Cardiff.

The Prince of Wales's other titles are the Duke of Cornwall, Duke of Rothesay, Earl of Carrick, Lord of Renfrew, Lord of the Isles, Prince and Great Steward of Scotland and Earl of Chester. The dukedom of Cornwall was first conferred on Edward the Black Prince by his father Edward III in 1343. The Scottish titles were all vested in the heir to the throne of Scotland by an Act of Scottish Parliament, 1469. The earldom of Chester, created by William I as a self-governing territory to guard the Welsh border, reverted to the Crown in 1237. The earldom of Chester has always been conferred on the Prince of Wales since Edward I conferred the earldom on his second son Edward, the first Prince of Wales.

Independent Princes 844 to 1282:

844-878 Rhodri the Great
878-916 Anarawd (son of Rhodri)
916-950 Hywel Dda, the Good
950-979 Iago ab Idwal (or Ieuaf)
979-985 Hywel ab Ieuaf, the Bad
985-986 Cadwallon (his brother)
986-999 Maredudd ab Owain ap Hywel Dda
999-1008 Cynan ap Hywel ab Ieuaf
1018-1023 Llywelyn ap Seisyll
1023-1039 Iago ab Idwal ap Meurig
1039-1063 Gruffydd ap Llywelyn ap Seisyll
1063-1075 Bleddyn ap Cynfyn
1075-1081 Trahaern ap Caradog
1081-1137 Gruffydd ap Cynan ab Iago
1137-1170 Owain Gwynedd
1170-1194 Dafydd ab Owain Gwynedd
1194-1240 Llywelyn Fawr, the Great
1240-1246 Dafydd ap Llywelyn
1246-1282 Llywelyn ap Gruffydd ap Llywelyn

Princes since 1301, from which time the eldest son of the King or Queen of England (and later Scotland) has been granted the title Prince of Wales:

Edward (son of Edward I and Eleanor of Castile) Created Prince of Wales 7 February 1301, aged 16, in Lincoln. First example of the eldest son of the King of England being invested with title.

Acceded as Edward II 8 June 1307.

Edward (son of Edward III and Philippa of Hainault, known as the Black Prince) Created Prince of Wales 12 May 1343, aged 12, at Westminster. Died 8 June 1376.

Richard (son of Edward, Prince of Wales and Joan of Kent) Created Prince of Wales 20 November 1376, aged 9, at Havering. Acceded as Richard II 22 June 1377.

Henry (son of Henry VI and Mary de Bohun) Created Prince of Wales 15 October 1399, aged 12, at Westminster. Acceded as Henry V 20 March 1413.

Edward (son of Henry VI and Margaret of Anjou) Created Prince of Wales 15 March 1454, aged 5 months; invested 9 June at Windsor. Died 4 May 1471.

Edward (son of Edward IV and Elizabeth Woodville) Created Prince of Wales 26 June 1471, aged 7 months, at Westminster. Acceded as Edward V 9 April 1483.

Edward (son of Richard III and Anne of Warwick) Created Prince of Wales 24 August 1483, aged 10; invested 8 September at York Minster. Died 9 April 1484.

Arthur (eldest son of Henry VII and Elizabeth of York) Created Prince of Wales 29 November 1489, aged 3; invested 27 February 1490 at Westminster. Died 2 April 1502.

Henry (second son of Henry VII and Elizabeth of York) Created Prince of Wales 18 February 1504, aged 12, at Westminster. Acceded as Henry VIII 22 April 1509.

Henry (eldest son of James I and VI and Anne of Denmark) Created Prince of Wales 4 June 1610, aged 16, at Westminster. Died 6 November 1612.

Charles (second son of James I and VI and Anne of Denmark) Created Prince of Wales 4 November 1616, aged 15, at Whitehall. Acceded as Charles I 27 March 1625.

Charles (son of Charles I and Henrietta Maria of France) Declared Prince of Wales *c.* 1638-41, in London, aged *c.* 8-11. Acceded as Charles II 30 January 1649.

James (son of James II and Mary of Modena, later known as the Old Pretender) Created Prince of Wales *c.* 4 July 1688, aged 3 weeks, at St James's, London. Forfeited title when James II was declared to have abdicated, 11 December 1688.

George (son of George I and Sophia Dorothea of Brunswick-Lüneburg and Celle) Created Prince of Wales 27 September 1714, aged 30, at Westminster. Acceded as George II 11 June 1727.

Frederick (son of George II and Caroline of Brandenburg-Anspach) Created Prince of Wales 8 January 1729, aged 21, in London. Died 20 March 1751.

George (son of Frederick, Prince of Wales and Augusta of Saxe-Gotha) Created Prince of Wales 20 April 1751, aged 12, in London. Acceded as George III 25 October 1760.

George (son of George III and Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz) Created Prince of Wales 19 August 1762, aged 1 week, in London. Acceded as George IV 29 January 1820.

Albert Edward (son of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert) Created Prince of Wales 8 December 1841, aged 4 weeks, in London. Acceded as Edward VII 22 January 1901.

George (son of Edward VII and Queen Alexandra) Created Prince of Wales 9 November 1901, aged 36, in London. Acceded as George V 6 May 1910.

Edward (son of George V and Queen Mary) Created Prince of Wales 23 June 1910, aged 16; invested 13 July 1911 at Caernarvon Castle. Acceded as Edward VIII 20 January 1936.

Charles (son of The Queen and The Duke of Edinburgh) Created Prince of Wales 26 July 1958, aged 9; invested 1 July 1969 at Caernarvon Castle.

'Princess Royal'

The title 'Princess Royal' is customarily given by the Sovereign to his or her eldest daughter, and it is purely honorary. It is the highest honour given to a female member of the Royal family.

Although only the eldest daughter of the Sovereign can be Princess Royal, she does not automatically become so (The Queen was never Princess Royal, as her aunt Princess Mary was already Princess Royal and remained so until her death in 1965).

It was introduced in around 1642 by Charles I for his eldest daughter Princess Mary, who was born in 1631. She later married William II of Orange and her son William III reigned jointly with his wife Mary after the 'Glorious Revolution' of 1688. The title of Princess Royal fell from use until the reign of George II, whose daughter Princess Anne was called Princess Royal.

Queen Victoria's eldest daughter Princess Victoria was baptised as Princess Royal, but after her death in 1901 the style was not used until 1905, when Edward VII created Princess Louise, his eldest daughter, Princess Royal.

It has become established that the style belongs to no one by right, but is given entirely at the Sovereign's discretion. It is held for life, and on the death of a Princess Royal the style is not inherited by any of her daughters.

Successive Princesses Royal:

Mary (eldest daughter of Charles I and Henrietta Maria of France) 1631-60; styled Princess Royal c.1642.

Anne (eldest daughter of George II and Caroline of Brandenburg-Anspach) 1709-59; styled Princess Royal 1727.

Charlotte (eldest daughter of George III and Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz) 1766-1828; styled Princess Royal 1766.

Victoria (eldest daughter of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert) 1840-1901; styled Princess Royal 1840.

Louise (eldest daughter of Edward VII and Queen Alexandra) 1867-1931; declared Princess Royal 1905.

Mary (only daughter of George V and Queen Mary) 1897-1965; declared Princess Royal 1932.

Anne (only daughter of The Queen and The Duke of Edinburgh) born 1950; declared Princess Royal 1987.

Royal Ceremonial

Ceremonial activities have always been associated with British kings and queens and, in spite of changing attitudes, many traditional ceremonies still take place. Royal marriages and funerals, for instance, are major ceremonial events. Royal processions play an important part on occasions such as the arrival of visiting heads of State, and the State Opening of Parliament, when the Queen drives in state from Buckingham Palace to Westminster. Such royal ceremonial normally attracts large crowds; millions more in Britain and abroad follow the events on television.

Trooping the Colour on Horse Guards Parade is the ceremony that takes place in June to celebrate the Sovereign's official birthday. Although the Queen was actually born on 21 April, the Sovereign's Official Birthday has long been celebrated in June near Buckingham Palace. The ceremony dates back to the 18th century when it became customary to salute the 'colours' (flags) and standards, as symbols of the military spirit, by carrying them before the ranks: this is what the expression 'Trooping' means. On the Sovereign's Birthday all the regiments of Foot Guards take part in the Trooping. Only one colour can be trooped at a time. The five regiments – Grenadier, Coldstream, Scots, Irish and Welsh Guards - take their turn year by year. The Queen and other members of the royal family attend the parade. For millions of people at home and

overseas these traditions connect Britain's past with the modern world. In other words, the Queen and her family are symbols of British history.

Four *Royal Garden Parties*, attended by some 30,000 people from all sections of the community, including visitors from overseas, are held every year. Three are held at Buckingham Palace and one - at the Palace of Holyroodhouse in Edinburgh, at which the Queen distributes the awards granted to both civilians and members of the armed forces. She presents some 3,000 orders, decorations and medals annually. There are occasionally special parties in London and Edinburgh for organisations, such as the British Royal Legion or the National Federation of Women's Institutes, as well as regular *luncheon parties* attended by people distinguished in widely different spheres.

Other public duties of the Queen include *the Remembrance Day* ceremony at the Cenotaph in Whitehall. This special ceremony remembers the soldiers who died in World War I and World War II and all of the Royal Family (plus Britain's political leaders) attend it. First, they lay wreaths on a monument called 'The Cenotaph', (the Queen always lays the first wreath). Then, at exactly 11 o'clock, there is two minutes' silence. Remembrance Sunday happens every November.

The Royal Maundy is another best-known ancient tradition. On Maundy Thursday (the day before Good Friday at Easter) each year the Queen gives Maundy money to a group of old people at Westminster Abbey or in one of the other cathedrals in the country. She gives them as many coins as her age plus one. The Royal Maundy started over 1,000 years ago to show that monarchs cared for the old and poor. (At one time kings and queens had to wash poor people's feet on Maundy Thursday as well. That part of the tradition stopped in 1574.)

Among more modern ceremonies and customs there should be mentioned *100th Birthday Telegrams*, which the Queen sends to anyone in Britain or the Commonwealth on their 100th birthday, and the *Royal Film Performances* in London's West End, attended by someone from the Royal Family (the money from royal premieres always goes to charity.)

The Queen's Christmas Speech to the Commonwealth is made on December 25 and lasts ten minutes. In it the Queen usually talks about the past twelve months and her hopes for the year ahead. In her Christmas speech broadcast by radio and TV the Queen breaks the monarchs' tradition of calling themselves 'we' and she just says 'I' or 'my husband and I'.

The *ambassadorial role* of the Queen and the other members of the royal family is very important. On average, Britain's top ten 'royals', spend one month per year on official foreign tours. When visiting the other countries of the Commonwealth, the Queen is usually accompanied by the Duke of Edinburgh. Other members of the royal family also pay official visits overseas, sometimes representing the Queen or often in connection with an organisation with which they are associated. Their presence at scientific, artistic, industrial and charitable events attracts considerable interest. They are also closely involved in the work of many charities especially as presidents or patrons. The Duke of Edinburgh, for example, being particularly interested in science and technology, the environment and overpopulation, is Patron of the Industrial Society and International President of the Worldwide Fund for Nature. Prince Charles is associated as president or patron, with more than 200 organisations; Princess Ann, among her many patronages and presidencies, is head or 'Chancellor' of London University and President of the Save the Children Fund. On behalf of all these she has undertaken extensive tours of Africa, the Middle East, South Asia and South America.

Royal Finances

Royal income and expenditure are mostly met from public funds. The government pays for 75% of royal costs. Some expenditure also met by public department arises from state visits overseas and other official duties. These include the costs of the Royal Yacht «Britannia» (the largest private yacht in the world with the crew of 256 sailors and 21 officers), the Queen's Flight

(that costs £3 million per year and consists of five planes and two helicopters), the £7 million Royal Train, which isn't, in fact, just one train but 13, and numerous official cars and coaches.

Of the Royal coaches three are most famous:

- **The Gold State Coach.** *The Queen travelled to her coronation in this coach. It was built in 1762 for King George III and weighs four tons. It takes eight horses to pull it.*
- **The Irish State Coach.** *Every November the Queen travels to the State Opening of Parliament in this coach. It is a copy of one made for Queen Victoria in 1852.*
- **The Glass Coach.** *This coach is often used at royal wedding because it has big windows so that everyone can see the bride.*

The rest of the Queen's expenditure is financed from *the Queen's Civil List*, a payment from public funds also approved by Parliament. The Civil List finances the costs of running the Royal Household and the provision of members of the royal family. In 1994 Civil List payments were fixed at £7.9 million a year for ten years. The Queen Mother's annuity, for example, was £643,000, the Duke of Edinburgh's - £359,000; the Duke of York's - £249,000. The sovereign's salary is fixed by parliament at the beginning of the reign and is reconsidered every ten years. Queen Elizabeth's allowance amounts to 75,000 pounds a year.

The monarch's private expenses as sovereign come from the Privy Purse - financed from the revenues of some royal estates such as the Duchy of Lancaster which comprises some 13,600 hectares of farmland and moorland, as well as a number of commercial enterprises. Other costs incurred by the monarch as a private individual come from the Crown's own resources, which are very considerable. The Royal Family is the largest landowner in Britain, with large areas of land in England, Scotland and valuable city property in London, including Regent's Park, parts of Pall Mall, Piccadilly, Holborn and Kensington. The Queen and her family own several castles, official residences and numerous country homes, most famous of them are Buckingham Palace and Kensington Palace in London, Windsor Castle, Holyrood

House in Edinburgh, Balmoral Castle in Scotland and Sandringham in Norfolk. On top of this, the Queen has her private fortune, a source of interminable speculation. In addition to her capital, the Queen owns the finest art collection in the world, fabulous royal jewellery, the royal stamp collection, the royal race-horses, which yield a profit, and no less than five tons of gold plate. Some sources reckon that the private fortune of the Queen is between 50 and 60 million pounds a year.

Most of the Queen's private wealth and income are exempt from tax, as well as the income from the Duchy of Lancaster and the income and property of the Duchy of Cornwall. Since 1993, though, the Queen has voluntarily paid income tax on all personal income and on that part of the Privy Purse income, which is used for private purposes. In line with these changes the Prince of Wales pays income tax on the income from the Duchy of Cornwall so far as it is used for private purposes.

Attitude to the British Monarchy

The British Monarchy today is perceived by people in the country and beyond with mixed feelings. It should be pointed out, though, that the popularity of the Royal Family started to grow in the early 1980s, with the weddings of princes Charles and Andrew. The media and tabloids like *The Sun*, *The Star* and *The Daily Mirror* made the most of royal gossip - illness, romance, drama, arguments, divorce, accident - scandal and sensation. As well as newspaper stories, television has contributed to the Royal Family success. In the last twenty years there have been dozens of royal documentaries, series and interviews. Before the days of television the Royal Family seemed formal and distant. Today they seem informal and friendly. They are still national symbols, but they are also 'stars' just like pop singers and Hollywood actors. Along this 'film star' factor there is also a 'soup-opera' factor, which makes the British Royal Family so

popular. Like the Carringtons from the soap opera of *Dynasty*, the Windsors are a big family with lots of different and very interesting characters.

The *arguments against the monarchy* as a continuing institution in British life maintain that it is anachronistic, non-democratic, too expensive, too exclusive and too closely associated with aristocratic privilege and establishment thinking. It is also suggested that, if the monarch's functions today are merely ceremonial and lack power, the office should be abolished and replaced by a cheaper figurehead presidency.

Arguments in favour of the monarchy suggest that it has developed and adapted to modern requirements, and is not remote from people. Some British people look to the Queen not only as their head of State but also as the symbol of tradition and unity. It is argued that it serves as a unifying force in both the Constitution and the nation, possessing a political neutrality with which people can feel secure; and performs an important ambassadorial role in Britain and overseas. As has been mentioned above, the monarchy is also said to have certain glamour (some would say soap-opera quality) about it, which is attractive to many people. Besides, most people think that the Royal Family is good for tourism. Public opinion polls from time to time demonstrate majority support for the institution of monarchy as against a republican alternative. But the polls also suggest that the monarchy should adapt more to changes in society, that less public money should be spent on it, and that its income should be subject to income tax.

LECTURE VI

PARLIAMENT

Parliament of the United Kingdom is the supreme legislative authority and consists of three separate elements: the Queen, the House of Lords and the elected House of Commons. These are outwardly separate, constituted on different principles, and meet together only on occasions of symbolic significance such as the State Opening of Parliament. Over the centuries the balance between the three parts of the legislature has changed, so that the Queen's role is now only formal and the House of Commons has gained supremacy over the House of Lords.

Origins

Like the monarchy, Parliament is an ancient institution dating from the middle of the 13th century. In medieval times the kings were expected to meet all royal expenses, private and public, out of their own revenue. If extra resources were needed for an emergency, such as a war, the Sovereign would seek to persuade his barons in the *Great Council* - gathering of the nobility, which met several times a year - to grant aid. Not always the Sovereign's wishes were complied with.

An important occasion presented itself when King John the Lackland was forced by his rebel barons to set his seal to the Great Charter. At Runnymede, on June 10, 1215, *Magna Carta Libertata*, the Great Charter was signed. It was an important symbol of political freedom as this programme gave the barons a more positive and permanent share in the government as well as the right to a fair and legal trial.

When Henry III, his successor, came to the throne he tried to concentrate all power in his own hands and again and again demanded money from the Great Council. As barons refused to grant money, a civil war began. The king supported by a group of powerful barons was defeated by *Simon de Monfort*, leader of the lesser barons and the new merchant class and poorer clergy, at the battle of Lewes in 1264. In 1265, de Monfort summoned 'two knights from every shire, two burgesses from every borough' to his Parliament (from French 'parler'). The term 'parliament' originally meant 'a meeting for parley or discussion'. This first Parliament was indeed a revolutionary body and was in keeping with the changing class structure of England.

During the reign of Henry's son, Edward I, Parliament permanently assumed the form, which de Monfort had given it. In 1295, Edward summoned *the Model Parliament*, so called because it contained all the elements, which were to become recognised as necessary to make a full assembly. This Parliament was not prepared to keep on granting money to the King and the Confirmation of the Charter was secured. Edward promised, in effect, that no new taxes would be raised without the consent of the Parliament.

His grandson, King Edward III continually needed money to carry on the Hundred Years' War and this led to further developments of Parliamentary control over taxation. It was during the period that the division into Lords and Commons took place: the knights and the burgesses together formed a single House of Commons, sitting separately from the barons. Over the course of time the commons began to realise the strength of their position. In 1407 Henry IV pledged that henceforth all money grants would be approved by the House of Commons before being considered by the Lords.

With the decline of feudalism the position of the Commons was strengthened, representing the new merchant, non-feudal class. A similar advance was made in the legislative field. Originally, the King's legislation needed only the assent of his councillors. Starting with the right of individual commoners to present petitions at about 1352, commons' petitions appeared, suggesting that the whole of the commons acted together. Later, during the 15th century, they gained the right to participate in giving their requests - their "bills" - the form of law.

The clash between King Charles I and Parliament became so sharp that it resulted in the open revolt of Parliament against the King, in *Civil War* and in revolution. Parliament played a decisive role during the *Bourgeois Revolution* of 1640-1649. Following the defeat of the royalist armies and the execution of King Charles I in 1649, the monarchy and the House of Lords were abolished and the country was proclaimed a *republic*. However, the Commonwealth period came to an end in 1660, two years after the death of the '*Lord Protector*', *Oliver Cromwell*. Charles I's son was restored to the throne as King Charles II.

King James II, his successor, attempted to rule without the consent of Parliament. As a result of this, a group of Whigs, joined by Tories, invited in 1688 *William of Orange* (a grandson of Charles I and the husband of Mary, James II's eldest daughter) to invade the country. James II fled to France, leaving parliament to accept William III and Mary II as joint sovereigns. (A Jacobite attempt to restore him to the throne failed at the Boyne in 1690).

Following the 'Glorious Revolution' of 1688, Parliament passed *the Bill of Rights* in 1689, which laid down the conditions under which the Whig bourgeoisie would allow the monarchy to exist. The King was no longer able to control either the Army or the judges. The control of finance passed once and for all to Parliament and it was made illegal for the Sovereign to override laws. Parliament also had to be summoned at least once in every three years and could not be kept in existence for a longer period. In 1911, the duration of Parliament was fixed at five years.

To enable the Sovereign and Parliament to work together, a group of ministers, or *Cabinet*, became the link between the executive and the legislature. Although the ministers were appointed by the Sovereign, they had to have sufficient support in the House of Commons to persuade Parliament to pass legislation and vote for taxation.

A few years after the accession to the throne of George I in 1714, the monarch ceased to attend Cabinet meetings and none of his successors did thereafter. Instead, the Cabinet was presided over by the First Lord of the Treasury, who came to be known as the *Prime Minister*. After that the individual influence of the monarch in exercising executive power declined and that of the Cabinet as a whole increased. Sir Robert Peel, Prime Minister from 1841 to 1846, was probably the first holder of his office to perform a role similar to that of a modern Prime Minister. Since the mid-19th century the Prime Minister has normally been the leader of the party with a majority in the House of Commons.

Britain has no written constitution and Parliament is able to legislate as it pleases. It can make, abolish or change any law; it can destroy established conventions or, vice versa, turn a convention into law. Thus, Parliament rather than the will of the people, is clearly the real sovereign in the state. In practise, however, Parliament does not assert its supremacy in this way. Politicians are generally sensitive to traditions, conventions and public opinion. Besides, a set of formal and informal checks and balances - such as party discipline, the official Opposition, public reaction and pressure groups - normally ensures that Parliament legislates with its responsibility to the electorate in mind.

Parliament is also known as 'Westminster', since it is housed in the Palace of Westminster, once a home of the monarchy.

As a member of the European Union, Britain acts according to the Union legislation and wider policies, and sends 87 elected members to the European Parliament. These members are usually called *Euro-MPs* or *MEPs*.

Functions of Parliament

The main functions of British Parliament today are as follows:

- to pass laws
- to vote on financial bills so that the government could carry on his work
- to discuss the government's administrative policies - foreign affairs, the state of agriculture, educational problems, etc.
- to debate important political issues of the day.

By custom, Parliament is also informed before the ratification of all important international treaties and agreements. The making of treaties is, however, a royal prerogative exercised on the advice of the government and is not subject to parliamentary approval.

Meeting of Parliament

A Parliament has a maximum duration of five years, but it is not fixed, and the government of the day may dissolve it and call for a general election at any time during the term. This is done by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister. The life of a Parliament is divided into periods, called *sessions*. Each usually lasts for one year - normally beginning and ending most often in October or November. Each session is ended by *prorogation*. Parliament then 'stands prorogued', until the new session begins. Prorogation terminates nearly all parliamentary business: in particular, bills which have not been passed by the end of the session are lost, and every new session begins with a clean slate.

A by-election is called if an individual MP dies, resigns or is given peerage and Parliament as a whole is not dissolved.

At weekends, at Christmas, Easter and the late Spring Bank Holiday as well as during a long summer 'recess' (usually late July until October) Parliament is *adjourned*.

Britain has a two-chamber parliament, consisting of two houses: the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

House of Lords

The House of Lords today consists of some 1200 members: the Lords Spiritual and the Lords Temporal.

The *Lords Spiritual* are 26 in number: the two Anglican Archbishops - of Canterbury and of York, the Bishops of Durham, London and Winchester together with 21 other senior bishops of the Church of England. (The other 'established' church, the Church of Scotland is not represented, nor are other religious denominations.)

16 Scottish representative peers also sit in the Lords. When Scotland was united with England in 1707, it was provided that the peers of Scotland should not all have seats in the House of Lords, but that at each general election they should meet and elect 16 of their number to sit in the Lords.

The *Lords Temporal* (in May 1998) consisted of:

- 634 *hereditary peers* and *peeresses* (about 30 dukes, 40 marquises, 200 earls, 130 viscounts and 550 barons), who make the largest group. Hereditary peers carry a right to sit in the House provided holders establish their claim and are aged 21 years or over.

- 479 *life peers* and *peeresses*, who, under the terms of the Life Peerages Act of 1958, do not pass their title when they die. Many of them are politicians, others are drawn from different aspects of national life - former senior servicemen, trade union leaders, civil servants, doctors, academics, etc. - people elevated to peerage for their political or public service to the nation. The purpose in creating life peerages was not merely to honour but also to enhance the quality of business done in the Lords. Only one quarter of these life peers are women.

Of these, 39 *Lords of Appeal (Law Lords)* become life peers on their judicial appointments. These serve the House of Lords as Britain's Supreme Court of appeal. Under the chairmanship of the Lord Chancellor, forming a quorum of three to five, they hear about 70 appeal cases a year.

Although there are 1,139 (May 1998) peers entitled to sit in the Lords, the House can boast of the average daily attendance of some 380 and most of these are life peers, who retain a strong interest in the affairs of state. (Those who attend rarely are sometimes known as 'backwoodsmen'.) Peers receive no salary for their parliamentary work, but can claim for expenses incurred in attending the House and certain travelling expenses if they choose.

The House is presided over by the *Lord Chancellor*, the senior law officer of the state. The position is not like that of the Speaker (in the Commons), for the Lord Chancellor is appointed by the government, and besides, the Lords are expected to conduct their business in a far more orderly fashion than the Commons. He sits on the woolsack as Chairman of the House and controls the procedure and meetings of the House. The Lord Chancellor is also responsible for the administration of justice all over the country and in this capacity (of Minister of Justice) is an automatic member of the Cabinet.

The woolsack is a seat in the form of a large cushion stuffed with wool from several Commonwealth countries; it is a tradition dating from the medieval period when wool was the chief source of the country's wealth.

Among the permanent officers of the House are:

- * *the Clerk of the Parliaments* who is responsible for the records of proceedings and for the text of Acts of Parliament. He is also in charge of the administrative staff of the House, known as the Parliament Office;

- * *the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod*, usually known as «Black Rod», who is responsible for security, accommodation and services in the House of Lords' part of the Palace of Westminster. He is better known, though, for his colourful role at the State Opening of the Parliament as it is his duty to summon the Commons to listen to the Queen's speech in the House of Lords.

There are frequent demands that the House of Lords as an unelected and unrepresentative body should be abolished and replaced by a second democratically elected chamber. Hence problems arise concerning which alternative model to adopt, and there is little agreement on the point. Meanwhile arguments in favour of the House maintain that the House does its job well as a safeguard against possible hasty partisan legislation by the Commons. It still retains an important revising, amending and delaying function because of the above-mentioned tendency of the Lords to be more independently minded than MPs in the Commons, and no rigid party discipline.

The new, Labour government intends to introduce legislation to end the right of hereditary peers to sit and vote in the House of Lords. This is intended to be the first stage in a process of

reform to make the House of Lords more democratic and representative. The legislative powers of the Lords will remain unaltered.

House of Commons

The dynamic power of Parliament lies with the House of Commons, which consists of 659 Members of Parliament (MPs). MPs are elected by universal adult suffrage of the British people and are said to represent the citizens in Parliament. Of the total 659 seats, 529 are for England, 40 for Wales, 72 for Scotland and 18 for Northern Ireland.

The number of Scottish seats will be reviewed after the Scottish Parliament has been set up. In July 1998 there were 9 MPs from ethnic minorities and 121 women.

Unlike the Lords, who can only claim expenses, MPs are paid an annual salary (from 1 April 1998 to 31 March 1999) of £45,066 (approximately twice the average national wage) and an office costs allowance of up to £49,232 (from April 1998). There are also a number of other allowances, including travel allowances, a supplement for London members and, for provincial members, subsistence allowances and allowances for second homes.

The chief officer of the House of Commons is the *Speaker* (Mr. Speaker, as he is always referred to in the House). The Speaker is chosen by MPs and then is customarily reappointed to his office in each new Parliament, even if the majority in the House has changed. Although first elected to Parliament as a party MP, a Speaker must abandon party politics until retirement to the House of Lords. And, becoming a neutral official, neither speaks nor votes other than in his official capacity.

The Speaker has full authority to interpret the rules and orders of the House and is very important to orderly running of the House: he protects the House against any abuse of procedure; he controls the voting system and announces the final results. The Speaker has the power to adjourn the House to a later time or suspend a sitting, if disorder in the Chamber is general. When individual MPs become too combative and often unruly, the Speaker can discipline a member by dismissing or suspending him from the House.

Overall responsibility for the staffing, budget and administration of the House rests with the House of Commons Commission, a statutory body chaired by the Speaker.

The central function of the Speaker, that of maintaining order in debate has become most obvious since broadcasting and televising of the Commons began.

Official Dress

On normal sitting days, the Speaker wears a black cloth court suit with linen bands, over which is worn a black silk robe with train. The current Speaker does not wear knee breeches or silk stockings as Speakers have done in the past, but wears black flannel trousers. He also wears his own shoes rather than buckled court shoes, and, like his predecessor, Rt Hon Betty Boothroyd (now Baroness Boothroyd), has decided not to wear the full-bottomed wig previously associated with the position.

On state occasions (such as the Opening of Parliament), the Speaker wears a splendid robe of black satin damask trimmed with gold, at the neck a lace jabot, with lace frills at the sleeves.

Salary

The Speaker is paid a salary on a par with Cabinet Ministers. Pensions for former Speakers used to be fixed by a special Bill (Mr Speaker ... 's Retirement Act) after they resigned, but are now calculated according to the Parliamentary and Other Salaries and Pensions Acts. The figure from April 2003 is £71,433.

History of the Speakership

The Speakership under its present title dates back to 1377 when Sir Thomas Hungerford was appointed. Equivalent presiding officers before this time were called 'parlour' or 'prolocutor', and have been identified as far back as 1258 when Peter de Montfort is said to have presided over the "Mad Parliament" held at Oxford that year. Up to the seventeenth century, the Speaker was often an agent of the King, though as stated above, some Speakers encountered difficulties when reporting the view of the Commons to the Monarch. During the Civil War in the 1640s, however, the struggle between Crown and Parliament was reflected in the attitude of Speakers to the House vis-à-vis the King. It is often said that the Speaker Lenthall's celebrated reply in the House to King Charles I in 1642, where he had come to arrest five Members for treason, sums up the then new philosophy of the Speaker's duty to the

House: May it please Your Majesty, I have neither eyes to see, nor tongue to speak in this place, but as the House is pleased to direct me, whose servant I am here, and I humbly beg Your Majesty's pardon that I cannot give any other answer than this to what Your Majesty is pleased to demand of me.

After the Restoration of the Monarchy in 1660, Speakers were usually associated politically with Governments and often held an office in the Government. Arthur Onslow (Speaker 1728-61) was responsible for slackening these ties and establishing many of the practices associated with the Speaker today. By the mid-nineteenth century, the concept of the Speaker being above party was the norm.

Permanent officers (who are not MPs) include the *Clerk of the House of Commons*, who is the principal adviser to the Speaker on its privileges and procedures. The Clerk is also accounting officer for the House. The *Sergeant at Arms*, who waits upon the Speaker, carries out certain orders of the House. He is also the official housekeeper of the Commons' part of the building, and is responsible for security.

Electoral System

The maximum legal life of the House of Commons is five years and the Queen on the advice of the Prime Minister may dissolve it before the end of this term. The Prime Minister is bound to do this if his Ministry is defeated on an important issue by the vote of the House of Commons. Nowadays, though, when the electorate often votes for a particular party leader rather than the party itself, government leaders try to use the power of dissolving Parliament and hold elections at moments of highest popularity, as, for example, Mrs. Thatcher did after her victory in the Falklands War.

When it has been decided to hold a General Election, the old Parliament is dissolved and 20 clear days must elapse before the new Parliament meets. A notice, or writ, has to be sent to each constituency, where the Returning Officer makes provisions for the holding of the election.

For electoral purposes the whole of the United Kingdom is divided into 659 electoral constituencies. Each constituency usually contains about 66,000 voters and returns one member to the House of Commons. To ensure that constituencies electorates are kept roughly equal, four permanent Parliamentary Boundary Commissions, one for each England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, keep constituencies under review.

General elections for parliamentary seats are by secret ballot. British citizens, together with citizens of other Commonwealth countries and citizens of the Irish Republic resident in Britain, may vote provided they are at least 18 years old, are registered in the annual register of electors for the constituency and are not subject to any disqualifications. People not entitled to vote include the Royal Family; members of the House of Lords; mentally ill people; convicted prisoners still in prison; and persons convicted within the previous five years of corrupt or illegal practices.

People, vote for any one of the candidates in the constituency in which they are registered. Each elector normally casts one vote in person, at a polling station. He or she will make a cross on a ballot paper next to the name of the candidate, for whom the vote is cast, fold the paper and

drop it folded through the slot in the ballot box. But there are always people who are not able to vote in person, e.g. the sick or physically incapacitated, members of the armed forces or Crown servants employed overseas. These people may apply for and become entitled to an absent vote - a vote by post or a vote by proxy (authorising another person to cast a vote). Certain voting rights also exist for expatriate Britons.

Voting is not compulsory; 71.5% of a total electorate of 44.2 million people took part in the General Election in May 1997. (It is worth noting that turnout at the election was relatively small - the lowest national level of turnout since 1935). The candidate that obtains the largest number of voices in a constituency, irrespective of whether he or she has an overall majority, is returned as MP for that area. The other candidates, even if they come close to the winner, will not get a seat in Parliament and their votes are «wasted». This system is known as the simple majority, or the «first-past-the post». If there are more than two candidates in a constituency (which is usually the case), the MP, who is elected, represents very often a minority of the electorate. In practice it means that a government can be elected with a minority of the popular vote and is able to carry out its policies because it has achieved a majority of the seats in the House of Commons. This system also means that a party can obtain a considerable number of votes nationally but have very few MPs in the Commons, because these votes are distributed evenly among the various constituencies and thus wasted.

British citizens may stand and be elected as MPs provided they are over 21 and are not subject to any disqualifications. Among those disqualified are undischarged bankrupts; people sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment; clergy of the Church of England, the Church of Scotland and Roman Catholic Church; peers, and holders of certain offices like civil servants, some local government officers, members of the regular armed forces or the police service.

A candidate's nomination for election must be signed by 2 electors who act as proposer and seconder, and by 8 other electors registered in the constituency. He or she, in theory, does not require any party backing in order to stand for election, but the practice today shows that no independent candidates succeed in being elected. A candidate must also pay a deposit (currently £500), which is lost if his or her votes do not exceed 5% of those validly cast.

In recent years the national election campaign, fought between the party leaders, has become more important and less importance is attached to the local campaign. One of the best known local activities still in existence is «canvassing», i.e. supporters of a candidate go from door to door arguing and persuading the residents to cast their votes for the candidate they represent.

There have been many debates about the British electoral system. Many see it as unfair, because this system prevents numerically smaller parties from being represented in Parliament.

Political Party System

As has been just shown, the electoral system in Britain depends much upon the political party system, which has existed in the country since the 17th century. Organised political parties present their policies in the form of manifestos to the electorate for consideration during the intensive few weeks of campaigning before General Election Day. A party candidate in a constituency is elected to Parliament on a combination of election manifesto, the personality of the candidate and the attraction of the party. It should be noted, though, that party activity is not limited by the election period itself but continues as the politicians battle for power and the ears of the electorate.

For the last 250 years a predominantly two-party system has operated in Britain. Until 1918 it were the Conservatives (still known by their previous nickname, the 'Tories') and Liberals (the party which traces its origins to the 18th century 'Whigs') that took turns at holding power. Since 1945 either the Conservative Party or the Labour Party has held power.

The Conservative Party was formed by Robert Peel from what was left of the old Tory Party in the 1830s. Peel and his successor Benjamin Disraeli (the first Conservative Prime Minister) together shaped modern Conservatism. Originally the party of church, aristocracy and landed gentry, it has always been the party of the Right, identified with the idea of economic freedom and the existing social order. The Party gives emphasis to the importance of law and order, and the maintenance of strong armed forces to protect British interests. Today as in the 19th century, it appeals to a 'property-owning' democracy and is supported by wealthier classes, large business, a sizeable percentage of skilled and unskilled workers, and women who always vote Conservative.

The party is highly disciplined, and its leader is accepted as the director of its policies. The party's Central Office is responsible to the leader. The MPs are expected to observe discipline and to vote with the party.

The Conservative Party leader, even when Prime Minister, is subject to annual re-election by Conservative MPs. In 1997 John Major was replaced by William Hague following a leadership election.

Outside Parliament the party has more than a million individual members who pay annual subscriptions, with an association for each constituency. The most important function of an association is to choose the party's candidate for the next election, and then to keep in close touch with him as an MP if he is elected.

The most dedicated Tories welcomed the privatisation of nationalised industries, the sale of council houses and the rhetoric of the state's withdrawal from direction of the economy. They would be critical of an MP showing weakness on these matters (they call it «wetness»). At the 1997 General Election the Conservative Party suffered a defeat, getting its lowest 30.7% of votes and only 165 seats in the Commons.

The Labour Party was founded by James Keir Hardie in 1892 at the Trades Union Congress as a result of the movement for independent political working class representation in Parliament. It has traditionally gathered its support from the trade unions, the working class and some middle-class backing.

The Labour Party is less disciplined but possibly more democratic, the more open disagreements between the leadership and other party members. Labour is the party of social justice, though its emphasis is less on equality than on the achievement of wellbeing and opportunity for all members of society. It tends to put the collective wellbeing of society above individual freedom, in the economic sphere at any rate. The trade union movement, which founded the Labour Party, remains influential in the evolution of the party policy.

Labour's annual conference is the supreme policy-making body of the party, and the parliamentary leaders are expected to follow its general policies when in power or in opposition. At each conference the unions and other sections of the party elect their 28 representatives on the National Executive Committee (NEC), which makes decisions week by week.

Most of the union members are affiliated through the union to the Labour Party. The union pays part of each member's subscription to the party, which derives most of its funds from this source. Each union sends a delegation to the party's annual conference, and at each vote its delegates usually vote together as a single "bloc".

People may also join their constituency Labour Parties, each of which sends delegates to the annual conference, and each local delegation casts its votes, usually as a bloc, on the basis of decisions made at local party meetings. The individual party membership was estimated at about 300,000 in the 1980s.

*The Labour Party won a land-sliding victory in the 1997 general election and, formed a Labour government headed by its leader **Tony Blair** as Prime Minister. The Labour Party Leader is chosen by an Electoral College consisting of representatives of affiliated trade unions, local party organisations and Labour MPs.*

Before 1918 there had never been a centre party on the British political scene. With the formation of the new Labour Party, a party of the Left, first a small ally of **the Liberal Party** and eventually the main alternative to the Conservatives, there appeared a chance for the Liberal Party as a centre party. But after a disastrous division of the Liberals between the wars and the second split in 1931, the party seemed to have ceased any effective existence. In the 1960s, however, growing dislike for both major parties helped Liberals to win some by-elections, and these local successes inspired a vigorous revival.

At the elections of 1974 Liberals received a fifth of the votes cast, though only a dozen MPs were elected. In 1977-78, when the Labour government lost its overall majority in the Commons, the Liberals gave support to the government, which consulted them in forming its policies.

In 1981 a second centre party was created, **the Social Democratic Party**. It was inspired by Roy Jenkins, a former Labour moderate. Many people, including academics, who had not previously been active in party politics, soon joined the new party. The Social Democrats and Liberals quickly formed an alliance of the centre, and at the end of 1981 had much more public support, than either the Conservative Government or the Labour Opposition. The two parties prepared an agreed statement of their policy, and each constituency had one Alliance candidate for Parliament, either a Liberal or a Social Democrat. However, the Alliance's support was not concentrated in some areas, but widely spread, its success was frustrated by the electoral system. In the next 4 years the Alliance had many successes in elections to local councils and in by-elections for Parliament, but failed to make a sustained advance.

After the general election of 1987, in which the Alliance did a little less well than in 1983, most members of the both parties agreed that they should merge to form a single party, and the merger was accomplished. The united party, called SLDP (Social and Liberal Democrats), since 1989 known as the **Liberal Democrats**, now remains as the only serious party of the centre. In 1997 the party got 16.8% of votes and now has 48 seats in the Commons.

The Liberal Democrat leader is chosen by a postal vote of all party members. Charles Kennedy became Leader of the Liberal Democratic Party in 1999.

There are about half a dozen **other parties** represented in the House of Commons, mainly regionally based in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Among most prominent are two nationalistic parties: **the Scottish National Party** (founded in 1934) with 6 MPs now in Parliament and **Plaid Cymru** or the Welsh National Party (founded in 1925) that has 4 MPs. In Northern Ireland there compete the pro-Catholic nationalistic party of **Sinn Fein** (a political wing of the IRA) with 2 seats now in the Commons and **Ulster Unionist Party**, which is strongly Protestant. Their aims are ranging up to the extreme of complete independence. These parties gained enough support in the early 1970s to cause alarm in the major parties, particularly Labour.

In 1978-79 a bill was passed by Parliament to increase the autonomy of Scotland and Wales within the Kingdom, and to provide for them to elect national parliaments (though still keeping their seats in the UK House of Commons). But some English Labour MPs did not like these privileges, and the bill was passed with a requirement for a referendum in each of the two nations. To bring the bill's provisions into effect there must be not only a majority of those voting, but also at least 40% of those registered to vote. In Scotland the votes were 32 % 'Yes', Wales produced only 12 % of 'Yes' votes, so the bill collapsed.

The **Green Party**, who campaigns chiefly on environmental issues, was slower to develop than the Greens in some other European countries but the number of votes it had rapidly increased. By 1989 the Green Party had attracted more people ready to work actively for it, and to give it money. At the election for the European Parliament it had candidates for all the seats in Great Britain and gained 14 % of the votes cast - more than twice as many as the two rival centre parties combined.

Other smaller parties such as the extreme-right-wing **National Front** as well as publicity-seeking fringe groups may also contest a general election. But a party which does not achieve a certain number of votes in the election loses its deposit - the sum paid when a party registers to fight an election.

Party System in Parliament

The party system in Parliament largely operates as follows: once the results of a general election are known, the majority party in the Commons normally forms the new government. By tradition, the leader of the majority party is asked by the Sovereign to form a government and about a hundred of its members in the House of Commons and the House of Lords receive ministerial appointments on the advice of the Prime Minister. The largest minority party becomes the official Opposition, with its own leader and 'shadow cabinet', which is more or less as the government would be if the party were in power, and the relevant members act as opposition spokesmen on major issues.

The shape of the Commons debating chamber makes an important comment on the political process in Britain. Unlike many European chambers which are semicircular, thus reflecting the spectrum of political opinion in their seating plan, the Commons is rectangular, with the Speaker's chair at one end, and either side of it five rows of benches running the length of the chamber. On one side, to the Speaker's right, sits Her Majesty's Government and its supporters, and on the other Her Majesty's Opposition, composed of all members who oppose the government. The front benches on either side are reserved for members of the Cabinet and other ministers, and Opposition spokesmen, known as the '*shadow cabinet*', respectively. Thus, the arrangement of seating in the House of Commons reflects the system, since leaders of the government and the opposition parties sit on facing '*front benches*', with their supporting MPs, or '*backbenchers*' behind them. Similar arrangements for the parties also exist in the House of Lords; however, Lords who do not wish to be associated with any political party may sit on the '*cross-benches*'.

The effectiveness of the party system in Parliament depends largely on the relationship between the government and the opposition parties. Depending on the relative voting strengths of the parties in the House of Commons, the Opposition may try to overthrow the government by defeating it in a vote on a 'matter of confidence'.

Generally, the aims of the Opposition are:

- to contribute to the formation of national policies by their criticism of pending legislation;
- to secure concessions on Government bills by proposing amendments to them;
- to oppose government proposals it considers objectionable;
- to present its own policies in such a way as to improve its chances of winning at the next general elections;
- to increase support for their performance and policies inside and outside the Commons.

Inside Parliament, party discipline is exercised by the *Whips* (or party managers) who are chosen from party MPs by the party leaders and who are normally under the direction of a *Chief Whip*. Their duties include informing MPs of forthcoming parliamentary business; maintaining the party's voting strength by ensuring members' attendance of important debates; and conveying to the party leadership the opinion of backbench members. This line of communication is really important: each week MPs receive from the Whips underlined notices. The number of underlinings (once, twice or three times) indicate the importance the party attaches to a vote on a particular issue. For example, a 'three-line whip' signifies a crucial vote, and failure to attend or to comply with the party instructions is usually regarded as a rebellion against the party policy.

Party discipline is very strong in the Commons and less so in the Lords, since the Lords have less hope of high office and no need of party support in elections.

The Government Chief Whips in consultation with the Opposition Chief Whips settles the detailed arrangement of government business, under the direction of the Prime Minister and the Leaders of the two Houses. Outside Parliament, party control is exercised by the national and local organisations, which can be very influential. They promote the party at every opportunity, but especially at election time.

On rare occasions free votes only take place in the Commons on matters of individual conscience. In recent years, e.g., these included votes on abortion law reform; an attempt to restore capital punishment for murder, prohibiting the private ownership of handguns and lowering the age of consent to homosexual sex from 18 to 16.

Central government

Her Majesty's Government that is responsible for the administration of national affairs represents *the Executive*. The modern government is a body of over a hundred ministers and other officials, arranged in about fifteen departments. The government can vary both in the number of ministers and in the titles of some offices. New departments may be created, others may be abolished and function may be transferred from one minister to another.

The heads of government departments are commonly described as '*ministers*', some of them carrying this title, (e.g., Minister of Transport or Minister of Agriculture), while others have the official title of '*Secretary of State*' (e.g. Secretaries of State for Foreign Affairs, War, Air, Home Affairs). There are also some special titles: the minister in charge of finance still has the archaic title of the 'Chancellor of the Exchequer', and the 'Lord Chancellor' performs most of the functions appropriate to the Minister of Justice. There are also the titles of the 'President of the Board of Trade' and the 'First Lord of the Admiralty', among others.

Non-departmental Ministers are the holders of various traditional offices, namely the President of the Council, the Cooperation Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, the Lord Privy Seal, the Paymaster General and, from time to time, Ministers without Portfolio, who have few or no departmental duties. They are available to perform any duties the Prime Minister may wish to give them. In the present administration, for example, the President of the Council is Leader of the House of Commons and the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster is Minister of the Public Service.

Because of the enormous increase in government business in recent years the system has become further complicated by the introduction of a new junior ministerial rank, that of 'Minister of State'. Today nearly every head of department has under him one, two or three 'ministers of state', who normally have specific responsibilities, and are sometimes given titles which reflect these functions, for example, 'Minister for School Standards', 'Minister for Welfare Reform', 'Minister of Transport'. A Minister of State may be given a seat in the Cabinet and be paid accordingly.

Junior ministers (generally Parliamentary Under-Secretaries of State or, where the senior minister is not a Secretary of State, simply Parliamentary Secretaries) also have both parliamentary and departmental duties. They may be given responsibility, directly under the departmental minister, for specific aspects of the department's work.

Prime Minister

The government is headed by *the Prime Minister* (PM) who is appointed by the Queen and is normally the leader of the party which won most seats in the House of Commons. All other ministers are appointed by the Queen on the recommendation of the Prime Minister. The majority of ministers are selected from the majority party in the Commons, although the Lords are also represented in the Government. The Lord Chancellor, for example, is always a member of the House of Lords. The Prime Minister in Britain has a unique position of power that stems

from majority support in Parliament, from the leadership of the party in the country and from control of policy-making. By modern convention, the Prime Minister always sits in the Commons.

Cabinet

Traditionally, the British government is based on the Cabinet principle which means that out of one hundred of ministers, the 20 or so senior ministers are invited by the Prime Minister to form the *Cabinet*. The principle also means that the position of the Prime Minister is that of 'first among equals'. Among the 20 Cabinet ministers (the number can vary) in 1999 there were the Chancellor of the Exchequer (Finance Minister), the Foreign Secretary, the Home Secretary, the Minister of Defence, Lord Chancellor, the Secretary of State for Education and Employment, the Secretary of Trade and Industry and the Secretary of the Environment, Transport and the Regions.

The Cabinet presided by the Prime Minister, usually meets for a few hours once a week in the Prime Minister's Office at 10 Downing Street. The Cabinet meets in private and its proceedings are secret (its members are bound by an oath not to disclose information about them).

The Cabinet's functions are to make the main decisions about government policy as well as to exercise supreme control over and to coordinate government departments. There are many cabinet committees, some permanent and meeting regularly, others set up to deal with special problems. The Prime Minister decides who is to be in each committee, what each one has to do, and what matters are included in the full cabinet's agenda; he also has informal meetings with one or two ministers alone.

These arrangements are made necessary by the complexity of modern government, but they also increase the Prime Minister's personal influence. This authority is also helped by the Prime Minister's power to appoint all ministers, and to dismiss any of them at any time. Most had been dismissed or had resigned because of disagreements; Secretaries of State have so much to do in their own departments (not forgetting their work as MPs for their constituencies) that they cannot easily find time to think deeply about government policy as a whole. Because of this the Prime Minister is well placed to dominate the government. His position is further strengthened by television, which tends to personalise politics.

The Prime Minister's other responsibilities include informing the Queen during the weekly audience of the general policies and business of the government; recommending a number of appointments to the Queen such as Church of England archbishops, bishops and deans, senior judges, Privy Councillors and Lord-Lieutenants. They also include certain civil appointments, such as Poet Laureate, Constable of the Tower, some university posts; and appointments, such as chairmanship of nationalised industries, the BBC and various boards.

As the Prime Minister has great power within the British system of government, there are arguments that the office has become like an all-powerful presidency. It is partially true, as there seems to be a greater emphasis upon prime ministerial government rather than on the traditional constitutional notions of Cabinet government according to which the Cabinet collectively initiates and decides government policy. It also has control of the government apparatus and ministries because it is composed of members of the majority party in the Commons. Still, the popular convention that Government rule is Cabinet rule seems to have become much weaker. Since it is the Prime Minister who is responsible for Cabinet agendas and the control of Cabinet proceedings, the Cabinet itself can become merely a 'rubber-stamp' to policies which have already been decided upon by the Prime Minister, or by a smaller group (sometimes called the *Inner Cabinet*).

Much depends on the personality of the Prime Minister in this situation. Some are strong and like to take the lead. Others have given the impression of being able to work within a traditional Cabinet structure.

РАЗДЕЛ 3. ОРГАНИЗАЦИЯ САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ СТУДЕНТОВ.

Рекомендации по организации самостоятельной работы студентов

Для самостоятельной подготовки к итоговой аттестации студентам предлагается список специальных вопросов по отдельным проблемным вопросам курса и список литературы для их подготовки. Также студентам предлагается готовить индивидуальные и групповые доклады и выступления по текущим темам, ориентируясь на список дополнительной литературы.

ВОПРОСЫ ДЛЯ САМОКОНТРОЛЯ

QUESTIONS ON GREAT BRITAIN

PHYSICAL BACKGROUND OF THE U.K.

1. Geographical position of the U.K.
2. What minor isles surround Great Britain?
3. What seas and oceans wash GB?
4. Highland Britain.
5. Lowland Britain.
6. British climate.
7. Vegetation.
8. What is British climate notorious for?
9. What rivers and mountains do you know in GB?
10. What do the following names – the U.K., Great Britain and England stand for?

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

1. Why do you think Magna Carta is considered to be a “Symbol of Freedom under Law”? When was it signed?
2. When was the first Parliament summoned?
3. What were the conditions laid down by the Bill of Rights 1689?
4. Name the events to match the following dates: 1215, 1265, 1640-1649, 1609, 1837-1848, 1867.
5. Do you know the dates relating to the following events: Magna Carta, the first Parliament, Bourgeois Revolution, The Bill of Rights, The Chartist Movement, the Reform Bill?

POLITICAL SET-UP.

1. What political set-up can be characterized as a constitutional monarchy. Give examples.
2. Political set-up of the U.K.
3. What is the role of the queen in the political set-up of the UK?
4. The title of the queen includes “Defender of the Faith”. What does it mean?
5. The Queen is the Head of the commonwealth. Comment on it.
6. What is the red box designed for?
7. What are the ties between the Queen and Parliament?

8. The Queen and the Prime Minister.
9. Speak on the “Shadow Cabinet”. Who is the leader of the Shadow Cabinet today?
10. The Parliamentary regime of G.B. is something referred to as a system of Cabinet Government. Explain what it means.
11. How many ministers are members of the Cabinet. Name some of them.
12. How do the British call their Ministry of Finance? Who is the head of this Department?

POLITICAL PARTIES.

1. What political parties do you know in England?
2. What time does the origin of the Cons. Party date back from?
3. When was the Labour Party formed?
4. Name ex-leaders and today’s leaders of the Conservative and Liberal parties.

PARLIAMENT.

1. Draw the scheme of arrangement of seating in the House of Commons.
2. Membership of the House of Lords.
3. Three readings in the House of Commons.
4. What do you know about the State Opening of Parliament?
5. Voting in the House of Commons.
6. How can you account for the tradition to drag the Speaker forcibly after the elections?
7. Give Russian equivalents for the Sergeant –at –Arms, Black Rod, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Treasury.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

1. What are the characteristic features of English law?
2. What is the difference between common and criminal law?
3. What kinds of courts administer justice in England?
4. Give the names of all the civil courts and tell their functions.
5. Is there a written code of law in Britain?
6. What are the four sources of English law?
7. What are the five subdivisions of English law?

EDUCATION

1. Between what ages, in England, must every child attend school regularly?
2. What is a comprehensive school?
3. What are the two important school certificates called and when are the examinations for them taken?
4. What is puzzling to foreigners about the name “public school”?
5. How many subjects is it necessary to pass in order to gain the GCE (CSE – certificate of secondary education)?
6. When were the two oldest English universities established and what is special about them?
7. Which universities were established during the 19th century?
8. What is the main reason for the founding of new universities after the Second World War?
9. What is meant by an arts student? What is a graduate?
10. What aspects of university life, apart from purely academic, would you expect to be important at British universities?

PLACES OF INTEREST IN LONDON.

1. Houses of Parliament.
2. Westminster Abbey.
3. Trafalgar square.
4. St. Paul's Cathedral.
5. The Tower of London.
6. British Museum.
7. Parks in London.
8. Art galleries in London.
9. Piccadilly Circus.

CUSTOMS AND TRADITIONS.

1. Christmas and Boxing Day.
2. St. Valentine's Day.
3. Bank Holidays.
4. Guy Fawkes Day.
5. What is a pub? Why is it that some foreigners have wrong ideas about English pubs?

QUESTIONS ON USA

I. POPULATION

1. How many immigrants entered the country in different periods (immigration waves)?
2. Why does the Constitution of the USA provide for a census of the population every ten years?
3. The most highly populated states and cities in the USA.
4. Ethnic communities and groups and their position in the country (melting pot).

II. THE STRUCTURE OF THE GOVERNMENT AND ELECTION SYSTEM

1. What kind of state is the USA in its political set-up?
2. What's the flag of the USA?
3. What's the coat-of-arms of the USA?
4. Why is the USA Government informally referred to as Uncle Sam?
5. What are three main branches the US federal government vested in?
6. What is the function of the legislative branch of the Government?
7. What is the judicial branch responsible for?
8. What is the executive branch responsible for?
9. What's the Congress of the USA?
10. Who can be elected to the Senate?
11. Who can be elected to the House of Representatives?
12. How many standing committees are there in the Senate?
13. How many standing committees are there in the House of Representatives?
14. What's the first reading of a bill?
15. What's the second reading of a bill?
16. What's the third reading of a bill?
17. What's a "pocket veto"?

18. What term is the President elected for?
19. Who can be elected the President?
20. Who is the USA President today? Dwell on the problem.
21. What is “the Cabinet”?
22. What sort of court system is there in the USA?
23. What is the working schedule of the US Supreme Court?
24. What are the functions of the Court of Appeals?
25. What are the District Courts and what do they do?
26. What right did the 24th Amendment to the Constitution give to the citizens?
27. What are electoral regulations to the US Congress?
28. How are Representatives elected?
29. How are Senators elected?
30. What requirements to electors are provided by US Constitution?

I. PARTIES AND ORGANIZATIONS.

1. What was the difference between the Federalists and the Republicans?
2. What political party came to power in 1796?
3. What distinguishes the two parties?
4. What’s the main goal of the parties?
5. What do the “Tweedle-In” and “Tweedle –Out” mean?
6. Why is the traditional bipartisan system highly cherished by Big Business?
7. What are the most numerous extreme right organizations of the USA?
8. When was the Ku-Klux-Klan founded?

II. PRESS, RADIO AND TELEVISION.

1. What’s the major agency for distributing information to the public?
2. Who owns all the American newspapers and periodicals?
3. What American newspapers had the largest circulation?
4. What’s the role of advertising in newspaper business?
5. What are the most influential newspapers which may claim a national distribution?
6. What is a soap opera?
7. Who controls public opinion, taste and culture in the USA?
8. What are TV commercials?
9. American foreign radio services and their propaganda.
10. The way American media influence public opinion?

III. EDUCATION.

1. What divisions are there in the elementary and secondary school system in the USA?
2. Where does the money come for the public school?
3. Who controls public schools?
4. How many grades are there in American elementary and secondary schools?
5. What subjects does the elementary schools curriculum comprise?
6. What does the high school prepare young people for?
7. What programs of study can a high school student follow?
8. What activities are sponsored by the school outside its academic program?
9. What’s the fundamental task the US faces today in education?
10. By whom are public institutions owned and operated?
11. How many institutions of higher learning are state institutions and how many are privately controlled?
12. What must one do to get a scholarship?
13. On what conditions are the students given loans?

14. What are the main problems of school education in the USA today?
15. Speak on American colleges and Universities.

Примерная тематика докладов и рефератов по курсу

Требования к контрольной работе (реферату).

Объем работы – в пределах 7 страниц (страниц машинописного текста через 1,5 интервала). В работе должен быть: титульный лист, небольшой план и список использованной литературы. На титульном листе печатается наименование учебного заведения, института, специальности, фамилия и инициалы автора, тема реферата или контрольной работы, год написания. План работы может быть самым разнообразным. Он зависит от темы реферата), но, тем не менее, следует выделить 2-4 раздела, а если возникает необходимость, то и соответствующие параграфы внутри разделов (глав).

В конце реферата необходимо указать список использованной литературы с точными выходными данными (фамилия, инициалы автора (авторов), название книги, статьи, сборника и т.п., место и год издания). Для журнальных статей название журнала. Для использованных цитат необходимо указывать все выше отмеченные данные и страницы цитируемого издания.

1. Римское завоевание и его влияние на язык, и культуру Англии.
2. Христианизация Великобритании. Вторая волна латинских заимствований в английском языке.
3. Миграция скандинавских племен и Англия в период до 1066 г. Развитие английского языка в указанный период.
4. Норманнское завоевание и его влияние на язык, и культуру Англии.
5. Столетняя война.
6. Внешняя и внутренняя политика Англии в период Реформации.
7. Елизавета I и Мария Стюарт.
8. Протекторат Кромвеля и период Реставрации.
9. Колониальная политика Великобритании в XVIII – XIX вв.
10. Политическая жизнь Англии XX в.
11. Особенности географического положения Соединенного Королевства.
12. Владения Великобритании за её пределами.
13. История королевской семьи
14. Обязанности английской королевы
15. Принц и принцесса Уэльская, происхождение титула
16. Королевские церемонии
17. Финансы королевской семьи
18. Законодательные акты и их ратификация
19. Функции Верхней Палаты парламента
20. Внутренняя и внешняя политика консервативной партии
21. Из истории Лейбористской партии
22. Народные праздники в Великобритании.
23. Частные школы. История, традиции.
24. Оксфорд и Кембридж: знаменитые студенты и преподаватели.
25. Открытый университет.
26. Современные английские писатели, драматурги, поэты и художники, актеры и режиссеры.
27. Догерманская история Британии (кельтская и римская Британия)
28. Завоевание Британии германцами и его последствия.

- 29.Скандинавское и нормандское завоевание Британии.
- 30.Географическое положение Британских островов; рельеф, климат, погода, флора и фауна, реки и озера.
- 31.Основные экономические районы Великобритании.
- 32.Сельское хозяйство и рыболовство.
- 33.Лондон – столица королевства. Основные города.
- 34.Политический строй Великобритании (общий обзор)
- 35.Становление, развитие и современный статус монархии.
- 36.Британский парламент, его истоки и современный статус.
- 37.Особенности парламентских процедур.
- 38.Политические партии и система выборов.
- 39.Кабинет министров (Правительство Её Величества), его состав.
- 40.Система образования Великобритании (начальное, среднее, высшее).
- 41.Университеты Оксфорда и Кембриджа.
- 42.Средства массовой информации Британии (общий обзор).
- 43.Радио и телевидение Британии.
- 44.Пресса (газеты и журналы).
- 45.Спорт и развлечения, отдых.
- 46.Британская кухня и еда.
- 47.Основные достопримечательности Лондона и Британии в целом.
- 48.Знаменитые политические деятели Великобритании.
- 49.Выдающиеся ученые Британии и их вклад в мировую науку.
- 50.Выдающиеся писатели и деятели культуры Великобритании.

РАЗДЕЛ 4. ПРИМЕРНЫЙ ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ВОПРОСОВ К ЗАЧЕТУ

AREA STUDIES. COUNTRY & PEOPLE.

Part I: GREAT BRITAIN

I. General outline: physical geography, population, symbols

1. Wales
2. Northern Ireland
3. Scotland
4. England

II. GOVERNMENT OF UK

- 1 Constitutional Monarchy
- 2 Parliament of UK
- 3 The functions of Parliament
- 4 The Privy Council
- 5 Her Majesty's Government

III. JUSTICE & THE LAW. JUDICIAL BRANCH

- 1 Common Law
- 2 Statute Law

IV. THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

1. School education.
2. Higher education: colleges and universities.

V. Topics for self study:

1. Culture (Great Britain)

Part II: USA

I. GEOGRAPHY

1. General geographic outline
2. Size and position
3. Regions and states
 - a. The North-East
 - b. The South
 - c. The West
 - d. The Midwest
 - e. Mobility of people
 - f. US natural resources

II THE MAKING OF A NATION

- 1 Nation and immigrants
- 2 South-Eastern Europeans
- 3 Assimilation process
- 4 Recent immigration
- 5 Refugees

III. THE PAGES OF HISTORY

- 1 The first settlers. Original colonies. Colonial period.
- 2 The first settlers in North America.
- 3 The original 13 colonies
- 4 Wars:
 - a) Period before and during The War for Independence
 - b) The Civil War in The USA (1861-1865)

IV. POLITICAL SYSTEM OF THE USA

- 1 The Constitution of the USA
- 2 Form of Government
- 3 How a Bill becomes a Law
- 4 Executive Branch
- 5 Legislative Branch
- 6 Checks and Balances
- 7 Judicial Branch
- 8 Party system

V. Topics for self study:

- a) Education (USA)
- b) Art and Culture (USA)

РАЗДЕЛ 5. КОНТРОЛИРУЮЩИЕ МОДУЛИ И ТЕСТЫ

5.1. Контролирующий модуль по страноведению (Великобритания)

- 1. University College London was established in ...**
 - A. 1215
 - B. 1828
 - C. 1567
 - D. 1945
- 2. Which of the following is not in Prime Minister's power?**
 - A. He can dismiss ministers
 - B. He represents the country abroad
 - C. He appoints ministers
 - D. He directs the policy of the government
- 3. The two main political parties in Great Britain are ...**
 - A. Conservative and Democratic
 - B. Conservative and Labor
 - C. Labor and Republican
 - D. Conservative and Republican
- 4. The capital of Northern Ireland is...**
 - A. Cardiff
 - B. London
 - C. Belfast
 - D. Edinburgh
- 5. The capital of Scotland is...**
 - A. London
 - B. Edinburgh
 - C. Belfast
 - D. Cardiff
- 6. The capital of Wales is ...**
 - A. Cardiff
 - B. Belfast
 - C. Dublin
 - D. London
- 7. The United Kingdom is ...**
 - A. a federal republic
 - B. a constitutional monarchy
 - C. an absolute monarchy
 - D. a dictatorship
- 8. The official residence of the Prime Minister is ...**
 - A. 10, Downing street
 - B. Westminster Abbey
 - C. House of Parliament
 - D. St. Paul's Cathedral
- 9. Anglican Church was established by ...**
 - A. Henry VIII
 - B. William the Conqueror
 - C. Elisabeth 1
 - D. John II
- 10. Members of the House of Commons are ...**
 - A. appointed by Queen

- B. elected by population
- C. appointed by Prime Minister
- D. none of the above

11. Which is the Upper House of the British Parliament?

- A. House of Commons
- B. House of Lords
- C. Cabinet
- D. Queen

12. Who invaded Britain in the 11th century?

- A. Normans
- B. Vikings
- C. Angles
- D. Romans

13. The British Parliament works in ...

- A. the Palace of Westminster
- B. Westminster Abbey
- C. 10, Downing street
- D. Buckingham Palace

14. Who defeated Harold in 1066?

- A. William the Conqueror
- B. King John
- C. Charles II
- D. Elisabeth II

15. What is the longest river in Britain?

- A. The Thames
- B. The Severn
- C. The Clyde
- D. The Avon

16. The British Parliament is divided into ... chambers

- A. 2
- B. 3
- C. 5
- D. 6

17. Magna Carta was signed in ..

- A. 1312
- B. 1215
- C. 1756
- D. 1872

18. Explain the meaning of the following:

1. MP
2. PM
3. The Speaker
4. The Lord –Chancellor

19. Prime Minister holds the office for ...

- A. 5 years
- B. 4 years
- C. 6 years
- D. 7 years

20. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland got its official name in

- A. 1922
- B. 1801

C. 1701

D. 1345

21. What is the most densely populated part of Britain?

A. England

B. Scotland

C. Wales

D. Northern Ireland

22. What title is the eldest son of the King or the Queen given since 1301?

A. Your Majesty

B. Prince of Wales

C. Monarch

D. PM

23. At the age of ... children can leave school

A. 17

B. 18

C. 16

D. 15

24. Universities select students on the basis of ...

A. GCSE

B. A –level exams

C. ACT

D. SAT

25. Explain the meaning of the expressions:

A. mixed schools

B. private education

C. compulsory education

D. boarding schools

Контролирующий модуль по страноведению (США)

1. What is the presidential term in the USA?

A. 6 years

B. 4 years

C. 7 years

D. for life

2. What did Great Britain do by signing the Peace of Paris?

A. Recruit French troops

B. Declare war against the American colonies

C. Trade supplies with France

D. Recognize the independence of the American colonies

3. The Constitution divides the government into three branches. Which one of these is not a branch?

A. Legislative

B. Executive

C. Judicial

D. Commercial

4. What is the Bill of Rights?

A. First Ten Amendments to the Constitution

B. Last Ten Amendments to the Constitution

C. The first paragraph of the Constitution

D. The main ideas in the Declaration of Independence

5. What is the name for the beginning of the Constitution?

- A. Preamble
- B. The Bill of Rights
- C. Introduction
- D. Article 3

6. On what date did the Constitutional Convention sign the Constitution?

- A. September 17, 1787
- B. October 17, 1800
- C. July 4, 1776
- D. January 1, 1790

7. Where did the first public reading of the Declaration of Independence take place?

- A. New York, New York
- B. Washington, D.C.
- C. Williamsburg, Virginia
- D. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

8. The Declaration of Independence took place during what war?

- A. Revolutionary War
- B. War of 1812
- C. Spanish-American War
- D. World War I

9. July 4, 1776 is known as Independence Day. What happened that day?

- A. Pilgrims Arrive
- B. Boston Tea Party Held
- C. Declaration of Independence adopted
- D. Constitution adopted

10. What is the name of the President's office?

- A. Circular Office
- B. Square Center
- C. Triangle Corner
- D. Oval Office

11. The United States flag has many nicknames. Which of the following is a nickname for the flag...

- A. Oh, Beautiful
- B. Stars and Stripes
- C. Wavy Blue
- D. Red, White and Blue

12. President Theodore Roosevelt officially gave the White House its name. What are some other names for the White House?

- A. The People's House
- B. The President's House
- C. The Executive Mansion
- D. All of the above

13. The two main parties in US are

- A. Republicans and Democrats
- B. Whigs and Hats
- C. Lords and Commons
- D. Congress and Legislature

14. If something happens to the President who assumes office?

- A. The first lady
- B. Vice president
- C. Speaker
- D. Chief Justice

15. What is the minimum age limit for a person contesting for the post of President?

- A. 35 years
- B. 21 years
- C. 18 years
- D. 40 years

16. Who elects the President and Vice President of the United States?

- A. National voting
- B. State Assemblies
- C. Electoral College
- D. Sortition

17. How many houses does the Congress consist of?

- A. 1
- B. 2
- C. 3

18. How many members are there in the House of Representatives?

- A. 435
- B. 335
- C. 535

19. How many senators are there in the Senate?

- A. 98
- B. 100
- C. 102

20. In which month is the Election day?

- A. September
- B. October
- C. November

21. When and where was the present constitution proclaimed?

- A. 1820, New York
- B. 1763, Boston
- C. 1787, Philadelphia

22. Who was the first President of the USA?

- A. Abraham Lincoln
- B. George Washington
- C. Thomas Jefferson

23. Where are the five Great Lakes located?

- A. Between the USA and Canada
- B. Between the USA and Mexico
- C. Between the USA and Cuba

24. What kind of state is the USA?

- A. A parliamentary monarchy
- B. A federal republic
- C. A monarchy

25. In which city is Hollywood?

- A. Los Angeles
- B. Las Vegas
- C. San Francisco

5.2. ПРОМЕЖУТОЧНЫЙ ТЕСТ

THE SYSTEM OF LAW IN GREAT BRITAIN AND THE USA

1. The judicial system of Britain consists of

- a) statutes, criminal law, unwritten law, Acts of Parliament
- b) statutes, Acts of Senate, unwritten law, criminal law
- c) statutes or Acts of Parliament, common law or unwritten law

2. Common law is unwritten law dated back from the time of

- a) Richard of the Lion Heart
- b) Robin Hood
- c) William the Conqueror

3. English law is divided into

- a) written and unwritten
- b) civil and criminal
- c) indictable and non-indictable

4. Offences in England are distinguished into

- a) circumstantial and aggravating
- b) indictable and non-indictable
- c) heavy and petty

5. The courts of criminal jurisdiction include

- a) Magistrates' courts, Courts of Quarter Sessions, Courts of civil cases
- b) Magistrates' courts, Courts of civil cases, Courts of Assize
- c) Magistrates' courts, Courts of Assize, Courts of Quarter Sessions

6. The Magistrates' Court may try

- a) a very serious case, like felony
- b) a petty offence
- c) not very serious offences

7. Magistrates' courts bring in their verdicts

- a) in 97 % of cases b) 58% c) 50%

8. In most places the magistrates are

- a) Justices of the Peace b) The Jury c) Laymen

9. If a case can't be dealt with in the Magistrates' court it is sent for the trial

- a) to the Court of Quarter Sessions or Court on Juvenile matters
- b) to the Court of Quarter Sessions or Assizes
- c) to the Court of Civil matters or Assizes

10. Courts of Quarter sessions sit at least

- a) 2 times a year b) 3 times a year c) 4 times a year

11. The Central Criminal Court in London is

- a) a court of appeal b) a permanent assize court c) a probate

12. The age limit for a juror is

- a) 20-50 b) 21-60 c) 18-60

13. If the jury are unable to agree unanimously on a verdict

- a) the case must be tried again
- b) the law must be reviewed
- c) the jury members must be dismissed

14. The highest court of appeal is

- a) the House of Lords
- b) the House of Representatives
- c) the House of Commons

15. Capital punishment was brought to an end in Britain

- a) on the 28th of October, 1965
- b) on the 30th of November, 1975

c) on the 23rd of April, 1948

16. The legal profession in England is divided into 2 branches

- a) lawyers and councillors
- b) solicitors and barristers
- c) probation officers and bailiffs

17. Judges and full-time paid magistrates are appointed from among

- a) barristers b) solicitors c) solicitor's clerks

18. County courts are presided over by

- a) a paid judge and sometimes a jury
- b) a non-paid judge and justices
- c) 12 jurors and a non-paid judge

19. In case a juvenile commits a crime he may be put to

- a) a remand home, a jail, an approved school
- b) a remand home, approved school, attendance center, detention center
- c) a juvenile court, a remand home, approved school, attendance center

20. The probation system is designed

- a) to release a person
- b) to imprison a person
- c) to secure rehabilitation of an offender while he remains at school or at work

21. American courts handle approximately

- a) 5 mln. cases a month b) 15 mln. cases a year c) 12 mln. cases a decade
- d) 12 mln. cases a year

22. Who was the first person in the USA killed by a lethal dose?

- a) Charlie Brooks, Senior b) Charlie Brooks, Jr. c) Charlie Bronx, Sr.
- d) Charlie Bruke, Jr.

23. Such cases as destruction of government property, hijacking, narcotic violations are taken under

- a) state jurisdiction b) federal jurisdiction c) public jurisdiction d) local jurisdiction

24. The lowest federal court in the USA is

- a) state court b) federal court c) district court d) mayors' court

25. Name the courts that bear main burden in the administration of justice,

- a) federal courts b) trial courts c) courts of Appeal d) high courts

26. The probate division in the USA deals with...

- a) wills, kidnapping, guardianship
- b) adoptions, wills, mugging
- c) guardianship, adoptions, wills
- d) wills, adoptions, embezzlement

27. What is the standardized number of jury members in the USA?

- a) 10 b) 12 c) 8 d) 16

28. Greater criminal cases in the USA are tried to

- a) 3-judge panel b) 1 judge alone c) 1 judge and a jury d) a jury

29. Who instructs the jury on its duty?

- a) a monitor b) a judge c) a senior juror d) an instructor

30. The verdict in a criminal case in the USA must be

- a) unanimous b) ambiguous c) biased d) that of majority

ПРОМЕЖУТОЧНЫЙ ТЕСТ

THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN THE USA, GREAT BRITAIN AND RUSSIA.

1. Pre-school education in the USA covers the system of...

- a) kindergartens and elementary schools
- b) elementary schools and nurseries

c) kindergartens and nursery schools

2. Who is responsible for the education service in Great Britain?

- a) LEAs, county authorities, schools
- b) Schools themselves, governing bodies, the Department of Education and Science
- c) LEAs, schools themselves, the Department of education and Science

3. Compulsory education in Great Britain, America and Russia comprises

- a) 1 stage b) 2 stages c) 3 stages

4. Comprehensive schools in Great Britain

- a) admit children of A-abilities
- b) admit handicapped children
- c) admit children of all abilities

5. Schools in Great Britain are distinguished between:

- a) grammar schools, technical schools, nurseries
- b) day nurseries, grammar schools, secondary modern schools
- c) grammar schools, technical schools, secondary modern schools

6. GCSE in Great Britain stands for

- a) General Certificate of School Education
- b) General certificate of Studying English
- c) General certificate of Secondary Education

7. The principal exams students are to take to have a chance to be enrolled to a university are...

- a) GNVQ, GCSE, AS
- b) GNVQ, GCE A-level, AS
- c) GCE A level, GCSE, AS

8. The peculiar feature of American system of education is...

- a) the system of credits
- b) there is no national curriculum
- c) primary and secondary education lasts for 14 years

9. The Department of Education and Science in the USA is responsible for

- a) the prescription of national curriculum
- b) collecting information, providing consultations and financing certain programs
- c) lobbying the most important questions in the Senate

10. Elementary schooling in the USA consists of...

- a) teaching 3 Rs
- b) Teaching prescribed subject matters
- c) Teaching communication

11. "Electives" in the USA stand for...

- a) the subjects a person is obliged to take
- b) the subjects a person is free to study
- c) the subjects a student should practice

12. In the USA students are graded from

- a) A to D b) A to E c) A to F

13. To receive a high school diploma a student must

- a) be successful in school activities and extra-curriculum activities
- b) must not have courses repeated and retaken
- c) must satisfactorily complete specified number of courses

14. "Report cards" indicate

- a) student's progress in his life
- b) the grades received in the subjects taken
- c) whether a person can be enrolled to the university

15. "Transcripts" summarize

- a) the courses taken and the grades received, the retakes
- b) General assessment of the applicant's character
- c) the courses repeated and retaken

16. The Universities of the USA are headed by...

- a) Presidents and deans
- b) Presidents and Vice-presidents
- c) Presidents or Chancellors

17. Associate's degree in the USA is awarded...

- a) at high school
- b) at the university
- c) at community or junior colleges

18. Master's degree in the USA requires

- a) proficiency in languages and a dissertation
- b) a thesis or a final oral or written exam
- c) proficiency in languages or written in oral exam

19. SAT can be taken

- a) 2 times
- b) Only 1 time
- c) 2 or 3 times

20. Sat measures.

- a) aptitudes in verbal and mathematical field
- b) a person's verbal abilities
- c) student's abilities to think academically

21. ACT stands for and scores.

- a) American Community Testing which scores social studies
- b) American College Testing Programme which scores social and natural studies
- c) American College Testing programme which scores natural studies

22. Achievement tests are ...

- a) tests measuring a student's achievements
- b) Tests required by some universities and colleges
- c) Tests each student is to take to be admitted to a university

23. The Unified State exam aims at...

- a) giving every child an opportunity to enter any university regardless the place he lives in
- b) to check his knowledge free of charge
- c) to choose as many subjects as he wants

24. Many prestigious universities

- a) accept the results of USE
- b) don't accept the results of USE
- c) are in two minds whether to accept the results of USE or not

25. three Rs in British schools stand for...

- a) Reading, Riding, Arithmetic's
- b) Reading, Writing, Arithmetic's
- c) Reading, Rendering, Arithmetic's

26. Secondary modern schools in Great Britain

- a) admit unruly and delinquent children
- b) children of average abilities to help them get a profession
- c) Retarded children

27. The system of credits is more typical of...

- a) American system of education
- b) Russian system of education
- c) British system of education

28. to get a place at a British University a person should

- a) have much money
- b) apply in his/her last year at school
- c) have profound knowledge

29. Redbrick Universities are

- a) Oxford and Cambridge
- b) London, Sussex, York, Essex
- c) Birmingham, Bristol, Durham, Manchester

30. The system of higher education in Great Britain includes...

- a) universities, advanced courses
- b) universities and polytechniques
- c) universities, colleges of higher education, advanced courses of further education

Keys

The System of law in Great Britain and USA

1. c	16. b
2. c	17. a
3. b	18. a
4. b	19. b
5. c	20. c
6. c	21. d
7. a	22. b
8. a	23. b
9. b	24. c
10. c	25. b
11. b	26. c
12. b	27. b
13. a	28. a
14. a	29. b
15. a	30. a

The System of Education in the USA, Great Britain and Russia

1. c	16. c
2. c	17. c
3. b	18. b
4. c	19. c
5. c	20. a
6. c	21. b
7. b	22. b
8. b	23. a
9. b	24. b
10. c	25. b
11. b	26. b
12. c	27. a
13. c	28. b
14. b	29. c
15. a	

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СОДЕРЖАНИЕ

Государственный образовательный стандарт по дисциплине	
Пояснительная записка.....	
Раздел 1. Программа дисциплины.....	
1.1. Цель и задачи дисциплины.	
1.2. Организация учебного материала.	
1.3. Аттестация качества знаний.	
1.4. Содержание дисциплины и виды учебной деятельности.	
1.5. Содержание учебного материала.	
Раздел 2. Содержание материала по курсу.	
Лекция 1	
Лекция 2	
Лекция 3	
Лекция 4	
Лекция 5	
Лекция 6	
Раздел 3. Организация самостоятельной работы студентов.	
Раздел 4. Примерный перечень вопросов к зачету	
4.1. Пример экзаменационного билета.....	
4.2. Пример экзаменационного задания.....	
Раздел 5. Контролирующие модули и тесты	
5.1. Контролирующий модуль	
5.2. Промежуточный тест	
Рекомендуемая литература.....	