ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

МИРЗО УЛУҒБЕК НОМИДАГИ

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН МИЛЛИЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ

ХОРИЖИЙ ФИЛОЛОГИЯ ФАКУЛЬТЕТИ

ИНГЛИЗ ФИЛОЛОГИЯСИ КАФЕДРАСИ

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Ушбу маърузалар матни бакалавриатнинг “Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (инглиз тили)” таълим йуналиши буйича тузилган намунавий дастури асосида ёзилган ва унда Буюк Британия тарихи, иқлими, урф-одатлари, маданияти, ташқи алоқалари, транспорти, Британия ҳудудида яшаган қадимги одамлар, I ва II жаҳон уруши, Конститутционал монархия, Парламентлар уйи, Лордлар уйи, Бош Вазири, сиёсий партиялар, сайлов системаси, таълим тизими, хусусий таълим ва инглиз тилида сўзлашадиган мамлакатлар ҳақидаги маълумотлар ўз ифодасини топган. Ушбу маърузалар матнидан талабалар мустакил таълим олишда фойдаланишлари мумкин.

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INTRODUCTION

Lecture 1. General information about Great Britain

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (commonly known as the United Kingdom, the UK or Britain) is a sovereign state located off the north-western coast of continental Europe. The country includes the island of Great Britain, the north-eastern part of the island of Ireland and many smaller islands. Northern Ireland is the only part of the UK that shares a land border with another sovereign state—the Republic of Ireland. Apart from this land border the UK is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean, the North Sea, the English Channel and the Irish Sea.

The United Kingdom is a unitary state governed under a constitutional monarchy and a parliamentary system, with its seat of government in the capital city of London. It is a country in its own right and consists of four countries: England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales. There are three devolved national administrations, each with varying powers, situated in Belfast, Cardiff and Edinburgh; the capitals of Northern Ireland, Wales and Scotland respectively. Associated with the UK, but not constitutionally part of it, are three Crown Dependencies and fourteen overseas territories. These are remnants of the British Empire which, at its height in 1922, encompassed almost a quarter of the world's land surface and was the largest empire in history. British influence can still be observed in the language, culture and legal systems of many of its former territories.

The UK is a developed country and has the world's sixth-largest economy by nominal GDP and seventh-largest economy by purchasing power parity. It was the world's first industrialised country and the world's foremost power during the 19th and early 20th centuries.The UK remains a great power with leading economic, cultural, military, scientific and political influence.It is a recognised nuclear weapons state and its military expenditure ranks third or fourth in the world. The UK has been a permanent member of the United Nations Security Council since its first session in 1946; it is also a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, the Council of Europe, the European Union, the G7, the G8, the G20, NATO, the OECD and the World Trade Organization.

The name "United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland" was introduced in 1927 by the Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act to reflect the granting of independence to the Irish Free State in 1922, which left Northern Ireland as the only part of the island of Ireland still within the UK.[21] Prior to this, the Acts of Union 1800, that led to the uniting the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland in 1801, had given the new state the name of the United

Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Great Britain before 1801 is occasionally referred to as the "United Kingdom of Great Britain". However, Section 1 of both of the 1707 Acts of Union declare that England and Scotland are "United into One Kingdom by the Name of Great Britain". The term *united kingdom* is found in informal use during the 18th century to describe the new state but only became official with the union with Ireland in 1801.

Although the United Kingdom, as a sovereign state, is a country, England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are also referred to as countries, whether or not they are sovereign states or have devolved or other self-government. The British Prime Minister's website has used the phrase "countries within a country" to describe the United Kingdom.With regard to Northern Ireland, the descriptive name used "can be controversial, with the choice often revealing one's political preferences." Other terms used for Northern Ireland include "region" and "province".

The United Kingdom is often referred to as *Britain*. British government sources frequently use the term as a short form for the United Kingdom, whilst media style guides generally allow its use but point out that the longer term *Great Britain* refers only to England, Scotland and Wales. However, some foreign usage, particularly in the United States, uses *Great Britain* as a loose synonym for the *United Kingdom*. Also, the United Kingdom's Olympic team competes under the name "Great Britain" or "Team GB".*GB* and *GBR* are the standard country codes for the United Kingdom (see ISO 3166-2 and ISO 3166-1 alpha-3) and are consequently commonly used by international organisations to refer to the United Kingdom.

The adjective *British* is commonly used to refer to matters relating to the United Kingdom. Although the term has no definite legal connotation, it is used in legislation to refer to United Kingdom citizenship. However, British people use a number of different terms to describe their national identity. Some may identify themselves as British only, or British *and* English, Scottish, Welsh, or Northern Irish. Others may identify themselves as only English, Scottish, Welsh or Northern Irish and not British. In Northern Ireland, some describe themselves as only Irish

The to pography of the UK.

The total area of the United Kingdom is approximately 243,610 square kilometres (94,060 sq mi). The country occupies the major part of the British Isles archipelago and includes the island of Great Britain, the north-eastern one-sixth of the island of Ireland and some smaller surrounding islands. It

lies between the North Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea with the south-east coast coming within 35 kilometres (22 mi) of the coast of northern France, from which it is separated by the English Channel. As of 1993 10% of the UK was forested, 46% used for pastures and 25% used for agriculture. The Royal Greenwich Observatory in London is the defining point of the Prime Meridian.

The United Kingdom lies between latitudes 49° to 61° N, and longitudes 9° W to 2° E. Northern Ireland shares a 360-kilometre (224 mi) land boundary with the Republic of Ireland. The coastline of Great Britain is 17,820 kilometres (11,073 mi) long. It is connected to continental Europe by the Channel Tunnel, which at 50 kilometres (31 mi) (38 kilometres (24 mi) underwater) is the longest underwater tunnel in the world.

England accounts for just over half of the total area of the UK, covering 130,395 square kilometres (50,350 sq mi). Most of the country consists of lowland terrain, with mountainous terrain north-west of the Tees-Exe line; including the Cumbrian Mountains of the Lake District, the Pennines and limestone hills of the Peak District, Exmoor and Dartmoor. The main rivers and estuaries are the Thames, Severn and the Humber. England's highest mountain is Scafell Pike (978 metres (3,209 ft)) in the Lake District. Its principal rivers are the Severn, Thames, Humber, Tees, Tyne, Tweed, Avon, Exe and Mersey.

Scotland accounts for just under a third of the total area of the UK, covering 78,772 square kilometres (30,410 sq mi) and including nearly eight hundred islands, predominantly west and north of the mainland; notably the Hebrides, Orkney Islands and Shetland Islands. The topography of Scotland is distinguished by the Highland Boundary Fault—a geological rock fracture—which traverses Scotland from Arran in the west to Stonehaven in the east. The faultline separates two distinctively different regions; namely the Highlands to the north and west and the lowlands to the south and east. The more rugged Highland region contains the majority of Scotland's mountainous land, including Ben Nevis which at 1,343 metres (4,406 ft) is the highest point in the British Isles. Lowland areas, especially the narrow waist of land between the Firth of Clyde and the Firth of Forth known as the Central Belt, are flatter and home to most of the population including Glasgow, Scotland's largest city, and Edinburgh, its capital and political centre.

Wales accounts for less than a tenth of the total area of the UK, covering 20,779 square kilometres (8,020 sq mi). Wales is mostly mountainous, though South Wales is less mountainous than North and mid Wales. The

main population and industrial areas are in South Wales, consisting of the coastal cities of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport, and the South Wales Valleys to their north. The highest mountains in Wales are in Snowdonia and include Snowdon (Welsh: *Yr Wyddfa*) which, at 1,085 metres (3,560 ft), is the highest peak in Wales.[100] The 14, or possibly 15, Welsh mountains over 3,000 feet (914 m) high are known collectively as the Welsh 3000s. Wales has over 1,200 km (750 miles) of coastline. There are several islands off the Welsh mainland, the largest of which is Anglesey (*Ynys Môn*) in the northwest.

Northern Ireland accounts for just 14,160 square kilometres (5,470 sq mi) and is mostly hilly. It includes Lough Neagh which, at 388 square kilometres (150 sq mi), is the largest lake in the British Isles by area. The highest peak in Northern Ireland is Slieve Donard in the Mourne Mountains at 852 metres (2,795 ft).

Lecture 2. Climate

The United Kingdom has a temperate climate, with plentiful rainfall all year round. The temperature varies with the seasons seldom dropping below −11 °C (12 °F) or rising above 35 °C (95 °F). The prevailing wind is from the south-west and bears frequent spells of mild and wet weather from the Atlantic Ocean, although the eastern parts are mostly sheltered from this wind—as the majority of the rain falls over the western regions the eastern parts are therefore the driest. Atlantic currents, warmed by the Gulf Stream, bring mild winters; especially in the west where winters are wet and even moreso over high ground. Summers are warmest in the south-east of England, being closest to the European mainland, and coolest in the north. Snowfall can occur in winter and early spring, though it rarely settles to great depth away from high ground.

Administrative divisions

Each country of the United Kingdom has its own system of administrative and geographic demarcation, which often has origins that pre-date the formation of the United Kingdom itself. Consequently there is "no common stratum of administrative unit encompassing the United Kingdom".Until the 19th century there was little change to those arrangements, but there has since been a constant evolution of role and function. Change did not occur in a uniform manner and the devolution of power over local government to Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland means that future changes are unlikely to be uniform either.

The organisation of local government in England is complex, with the distribution of functions varying according to the local arrangements.

Legislation concerning local government in England is decided by the UK parliament and the Government of the United Kingdom, as England does not have. The upper-tier subdivisions of England are the nine Government office regions or European Union government office regions. One region, Greater London, has had a directly elected assembly and mayor since 2000 following popular support for the proposal in a referendum. It was intended that other regions would also be given their own elected regional assemblies but the rejection of a proposed assembly in the North East region, by a referendum in 2004, stopped this idea in its tracks. Below the region level England ze and population. The cities of Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen and Dundee are separate council areas as has either county councils and district councils or unitary authorities and London which consists of 32 London boroughs. Councillors are elected by the first-past-the-post system in single-member wards or by the multi-member plurality system in multi-member wards.

Local government in Scotland is divided on a basis of 32 council areas, with wide variation in both si is the Highland Council which includes a third of Scotland's area but just over 200,000 people. The power invested in local authorities is administered by elected councillors, of which there are currently 1,222and are each paid a part-time salary. Elections are conducted by single transferable vote in multi-member wards that elect either three or four councillors. Each council elects a Provost, or Convenor, to chair meetings of the council and to act as a figurehead for the area. Councillors are subject to a code of conduct enforced by the Standards Commission for Scotland. The representative association of Scotland's local authorities is the Convention of Scottish Local Authorities (COSLA).

Local government in Wales consists of 22 unitary authorities. These include the cities of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport which are unitary authorities in their own right. Elections are held every four years under the first-past-the-post system. The most recent elections were held in May 2008. The Welsh Local Government Association represents the interests of local authorities in Wales.

Local government in Northern Ireland has, since 1973, been organised into 26 district councils, each elected by single transferable vote. Their powers are limited to services such as collecting waste, controlling dogs, and maintaining parks and cemeteries. On 13 March 2008 the executive agreed on proposals to create 11 new councils and replace the present system. The next local elections were postponed until 2011 to facilitate this.

Dependencies

The United Kingdom has sovereignty over seventeen territories which do not form part of the United Kingdom itself: 14 British Overseas Territories and three Crown Dependencies.

The fourteen British Overseas Territories are: Anguilla; Bermuda; the British Antarctic Territory; the British Indian Ocean Territory; the British Virgin Islands; the Cayman Islands; the Falkland Islands; Gibraltar; Montserrat; Saint Helena, Ascension and Tristan da Cunha; the Turks and Caicos Islands; the Pitcairn Islands; South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands; and the Sovereign Base Areas on Cyprus. British claims in Antarctica are not universally recognised. Collectively Britain's overseas territories encompass an approximate land area of 667,018 square miles (1,727,570 km^2) and a population of approximately 260,000 people. They are the remnants of the British Empire and several have specifically voted to remain British territories.

The Crown Dependencies are British possessions of the Crown, as opposed to overseas territories of the UK. They comprise the Channel Island Bailiwicks of Jersey and Guernsey in the English Channel and the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea. Being independently administered jurisdictions they do not form part of the United Kingdom or of the European Union, although the UK government manages their foreign affairs and defence and the UK Parliament has the authority to legislate on their behalf. The power to pass legislation affecting the islands ultimately rests with their own respective legislative assemblies, with the assent of the Crown (Privy Council or, in the case of the Isle of Man, in certain circumstances the Lieutenant-Governor). Since 2005 each Crown dependency has had a Chief Minister as its head of government.

Lecture 3. Foreign relations

The United Kingdom is a permanent member of the United Nations Security Council, a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, G7, G8, G20, NATO, the OECD, the WTO, the Council of Europe, the OSCE, and is a member state of the European Union. The UK has a "Special Relationship" with the United States and a close partnership with France – the "Entente cordiale" – and shares nuclear weapons technology with both countries. Other close allies include other European Union and NATO members, Commonwealth nations, and Japan. Britain's global presence and influence is further amplified through its trading relations, foreign investments, official development assistance and armed forces.

Economy

The UK has a partially regulated market economy. Based on market exchange rates the UK is today the sixth-largest economy in the world and the third-largest in Europe after Germany and France, having fallen behind France for the first time in over a decade in 2008. HM Treasury, led by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, is responsible for developing and executing the British government's public finance policy and economic policy. The Bank of England is the UK's central bank and is responsible for issuing the nation's currency, the pound sterling. Banks in Scotland and Northern Ireland retain the right to issue their own notes, subject to retaining enough Bank of England notes in reserve to cover their issue. Pound sterling is the world's third-largest reserve currency (after the U.S. Dollar and the Euro). Since 1997 the Bank of England's Monetary Policy Committee, headed by the Governor of the Bank of England, has been responsible for setting interest rates at the level necessary to achieve the overall inflation target for the economy that is set by the Chancellor each year.

In the final quarter of 2008 the UK economy officially entered recession for the first time since 1991. Unemployment increased from 5.2% in May 2008 to 7.6% in May 2009 and by January 2011 the unemployment rate among 18 to 24-year-olds had risen from 11.9% to 20.3%, the highest since current records began in 1992. Total UK government debt rose from 44.5% of GDP in December 2007 to 76.1% of GDP in December 2010.

The UK service sector makes up around 73% of GDP. London is one of the three "command centres" of the global economy (alongside New York City and Tokyo), is the world's largest financial centre alongside New York, and has the largest city GDP in Europe. Edinburgh is also one of the largest financial centres in Europe. Tourism is very important to the British economy and, with over 27 million tourists arriving in 2004, the United Kingdom is ranked as the sixth major tourist destination in the world and London has the most international visitors of any city in the world. The creative industries accounted for 7% GVA in 2005 and grew at an average of 6% per annum between 1997 and 2005.

The Industrial Revolution started in the UK with an initial concentration on the textile industry, followed by other heavy industries such as shipbuilding, coal mining, and Steelmaking. The empire created an overseas market for British products, allowing the UK to dominate international trade in the 19th century. As other nations industrialized, coupled with economic decline after two world wars, the United Kingdom began to lose its competitive advantage and heavy industry declined, by degrees, throughout the 20th century.

Manufacturing remains a significant part of the economy but accounted for only one-sixth of national output in 2003.

The automotive industry is a significant part of the UK manufacturing sector and employs over 800,000 people, with a turnover of some £52 billion, generating £26.6 billion of exports. The aerospace industry of the UK is the second- or third-largest national aerospace industry depending upon the method of measurement and has an annual turnover of around £20 billion. The pharmaceutical industry plays an important role in the UK economy and the country has the third highest share of global pharmaceutical R&D expenditures (after the United States and Japan).

The poverty line in the UK is commonly defined as being 60% of the median household income. In 2007–2008 13.5 million people, or 22% of the population, lived below this line. This is a higher level of relative poverty than all but four other EU members. In the same year 4.0 million children, 31% of the total, lived in households below the poverty line after housing costs were taken into account. This is a decrease of 400,000 children since 1998–1999. The UK imports 40% of its food supplies.

Science and technology

England and Scotland were leading centres of the Scientific Revolution from the 17th centuryand the United Kingdom led the Industrial Revolution from the 18th century, and has continued to produce scientists and engineers credited with important advances. Major theorists from the 17th and 18th centuries include Isaac Newton, whose laws of motion and illumination of gravity have been seen as a keystone of modern science, from the 19th century Charles Darwin, whose theory of evolution by natural selection was fundamental to the development of modern biology, and James Clerk Maxwell, who formulated classical electromagnetic theory, and more recently Stephen Hawking, who has advanced major theories in the fields of cosmology, quantum gravity and the investigation of black holes. Major scientific discoveries from the 18th century include hydrogen by Henry Cavendish, from the 20th century penicillin by Alexander Fleming, and the structure of DNA, by Francis Crick and others. Major engineering projects and applications by people from the UK in the 18th century include the steam locomotive, developed by Richard Trevithick and Andrew Vivian, from the 19th century the electric motor by Michael Faraday, the incandescent light bulb by Joseph Swan, and the first practical telephone, patented by Alexander Graham Bell, and in the 20th century the world's first working television system by John Logie Baird and others, the jet engine by Frank Whittle, the

basis of the modern computer by Alan Turing, and the World Wide Web by Tim Berners-Lee.

The modern UK plays a leading part in the aerospace industry, with companies including Rolls-Royce playing a leading role in the aero-engine market; BAE Systems acting as Britain's largest and the Pentagon's sixth largest defence supplier, and large companies including GKN acting as major suppliers to the Airbus project. Two British-based companies, GlaxoSmithKline and AstraZeneca, ranked in the top five pharmaceutical companies in the world by sales in 2009, and UK companies have discovered and developed more leading medicines than any other country apart from the US. The UK remains a leading centre of automotive design and production, particularly of engines, and has around 2,600 component manufacturers. Scientific research and development remains important in British universities, with many establishing science parks to facilitate production and co-operation with industry. Between 2004 and 2008 the UK produced 7% of the world's scientific research papers and had an 8% share of scientific citations, the third and second highest in the world (after the United States and China, and the United States, respectively). Scientific journals produced in the UK include *Nature*, the *British Medical Journal* and *The Lancet*.

Lecture 4. Transport

A radial road network totals 29,145 miles (46,904 km) of main roads, 2,173 miles (3,497 km) of motorways and 213,750 miles (344,000 km) of paved roads. In 2009 there were a total of 34 million licensed vehicles in Great Britain. The National Rail network of 10,072 route miles (16,116 km) in Great Britain and 189 route miles (303 route km) in Northern Ireland carries over 18,000 passenger and 1,000 freight trains daily. Plans are now being considered to build new high-speed railway lines by 2025.

In the year from October 2009 to September 2010 UK airports handled a total of 211.4 million passengers. In that period the three largest airports were London Heathrow Airport (65.6 million passengers), Gatwick Airport (31.5 million passengers) and London Stansted Airport (18.9 million passengers). London Heathrow Airport, located 24 kilometres (15 mi) west of the capital, has the most international passenger traffic of any airport in the world and is the hub for the UK flag carrier British Airways, as well as BMI and Virgin Atlantic.

Energy

In 2006 the UK was the world's ninth-largest consumer of energy and the 15th largest producer. In 2007 the UK had a total energy output of 9.5 quadrillion Btus, of which the composition was oil (38%), natural gas (36%), coal (13%), nuclear (11%) and other renewables (2%). In 2009 the UK produced 1.5 million barrels per day (bbl/d) of oil and consumed 1.7 million bbl/d. Production is now in decline and the UK has been a net importer of oil since 2005. As of 2010 the UK has around 3.1 billion barrels of proven crude oil reserves, the largest of any EU member state.

In 2009 the UK was the 13th largest producer of natural gas in the world and the largest producer in the EU. Production is now in decline and the UK has been a net importer of natural gas since 2004. In 2009 the UK produced 19.7 million tons of coal and consumed 60.2 million tons. In 2005 it had proven recoverable coal reserves of 171 million tons. It has been estimated that identified onshore areas have the potential to produce between 7 billion tonnes and 16 billion tonnes of coal through underground coal gasification (UCG). Based on current UK coal consumption, these volumes represent reserves that could last the UK between 200 and 400 years. The UK is home to a number of large energy companies, including two of the six oil and gas "supermajors" – BP and Royal Dutch Shell – and BG Group.

Demographics

Main article: Demography of the United Kingdom

A Census occurs simultaneously in all parts of the UK every ten years. The Office for National Statistics is responsible for collecting data for England and Wales with the General Register Office for Scotland and the Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency each being responsible for censuses in their respective countries. In the 2001 census the total population of the United Kingdom was 58,789,194, the third largest in the European Union, the fifth largest in the Commonwealth and the twenty-first largest in the world. By mid-2009 this was estimated to have grown to 61,792,000. In 2008 natural population growth overtook net migration as the main contributor to population growth for the first time since 1998. Between 2001 and 2008 the population increased by an average annual rate of 0.5 per cent. This compares to 0.3 per cent per year in the period 1991 to 2001 and 0.2 per cent in the decade 1981 to 1991. Published in 2008 the mid-2007 population estimates revealed that, for the first time, the UK was home to more people of pensionable age than children under the age of 16. It has been estimated that the number of people aged 100 or over will rise steeply to reach over 626,000 by 2080.

England's population in mid-2008 was estimated to be 51.44 million. It is one of the most densely populated countries in the world, with 383 people resident per square kilometre in mid-2003, with a particular concentration in London and the south east. The mid-2008 estimates put Scotland's population at 5.17 million, Wales at 2.99 million and Northern Ireland at 1.78 million, with much lower population densities than England. Compared to England's 383 inhabitants per square kilometre (990 /sq mi) the corresponding figures were 142 /km^2 (370 /sq mi) for Wales, 125 /km^2 (320 /sq mi) for Northern Ireland and just 65 /km^2 (170 /sq mi) for Scotland in mid-2003. In percentage terms Northern Ireland has had the fastest growing population of any country of the UK in each of the four years to mid-2008.

In 2008 the average total fertility rate (TFR) across the UK was 1.96 children per woman. Whilst a rising birth rate is contributing to current population growth it remains considerably below the 'baby boom' peak of 2.95 children per woman in 1964, below the replacement rate of 2.1, but higher than the 2001 record low of 1.63.Scotland had the lowest fertility at only 1.8 children per woman, while Northern Ireland had the highest at 2.11 children in 2008.

Languages

The English-speaking world. Countries in dark blue have a majority of native speakers; countries where it is an official but not a majority language in light blue. English is also one of the official languages of the European Union and the United Nations

The UK's official language is English, a West Germanic language descended from Old English which features a large number of borrowings from Old Norse, Norman French and Latin. The English language has spread across the world, largely because of the British Empire, and has become the international language of business as well as the most widely taught second language.

Scots, a language descended from early northern Middle English, is recognised at European level, as is its regional variant in the northern counties of Ireland, Ulster Scots. There are also four Celtic languages in use in the UK: Welsh, Irish, Scottish Gaelic and Cornish. In the 2001 Census over a fifth (21%) of the population of Wales said they could speak Welsh, an increase from the 1991 Census (18%).In addition it is estimated that about 200,000 Welsh speakers live in England.

The 2001 census in Northern Ireland showed that 167,487 (10.4%) people "had some knowledge of Irish" (see Irish language in Northern Ireland), almost exclusively in the Catholic/nationalist population. Over 92,000 people

in Scotland (just under 2% of the population) had some Gaelic language ability, including 72% of those living in the Outer Hebrides. The number of schoolchildren being taught in Welsh, Gaelic and Irish is increasing. Welsh and Scottish Gaelic are also spoken by small groups around the globe with some Gaelic still spoken in Nova Scotia, Canada (especially Cape Breton Island), and Welsh in Patagonia, Argentina.

Across the United Kingdom it is generally compulsory for pupils to study a second language to some extent: up to the age of 14 in England, and up to age 16 in Scotland. French and German are the two most commonly taught second languages in England and Scotland. In Wales, all pupils up to age 16 are either taught in Welsh or taught Welsh as a second language.

Religion

Forms of Christianity have dominated religious life in what is now the United Kingdom for over 1,400 years. Although a majority of citizens still identify with Christianity in many surveys, regular church attendance has fallen dramatically since the middle of the 20th century, while immigration and demographic change have contributed to the growth of other faiths, most notably Islam. This has led some commentators to variously describe the UK as a multi-faith, secularised, or post-Christian society. In the 2001 census 71.6% of all respondents indicated that they were Christians, with the next largest faiths (by number of adherents) being Islam (2.8%), Hinduism (1.0%), Sikhism (0.6%), Judaism (0.5%), Buddhism (0.3%) and all other religions (0.3%).15% of respondents stated that they had no religion, with a further 7% not stating a religious preference. A Tearfund survey in 2007 showed only one in ten Britons actually attend church weekly.

The (Anglican) Church of England is the established church in England. It retains a representation in the UK Parliament and the British monarch is its Supreme Governor. In Scotland the Presbyterian Church of Scotland is recognised as the national church. It is not subject to state control, and the British monarch is an ordinary member, required to swear an oath to "maintain and preserve the Protestant Religion and Presbyterian Church Government" upon his or her accession. The Church in Wales was disestablished in 1920, and there is no established church in Northern Ireland. Although there are no UK-wide data in the 2001 census on adherence to individual Christian denominations, Ceri Peach has estimated that 62% of Christians are Anglican, 13.5% Roman Catholic, 6% Presbyterian, 3.4% Methodist with small numbers of other Protestant denominations and the Orthodox church.

Lecture 5. Culture

Main article: Culture of the United Kingdom

The culture of the United Kingdom has been influenced by many factors including: the nation's island status; its history as a western liberal democracy and a major power; as well as being a political union of four countries with each preserving elements of distinctive traditions, customs and symbolism. As a result of the British Empire, British influence can be observed in the language, culture and legal systems of many of its former colonies; including Australia, Canada, India, South Africa and the United States.

Cinema

The United Kingdom has had a considerable influence on the history of the cinema. The British directors Alfred Hitchcock and David Lean are among the most critically acclaimed of all-time, with other important directors including Charlie Chaplin, Michael Powell, Carol Reed and Ridley Scott. Many British actors have achieved international fame and critical success, including: Julie Andrews, Richard Burton, Michael Caine, Charlie Chaplin, Sean Connery, Vivien Leigh, David Niven, Laurence Olivier, Peter Sellers and Kate Winslet. Some of the most commercially successful films of all time have been produced in the United Kingdom, including the two highest-grossing film franchises (*Harry Potter* and *James Bond*). Ealing Studios has a claim to being the oldest continuously working film studio in the world.

Despite a history of important and successful productions, the industry has often been characterised by a debate about its identity and the level of American and European influence. Many British films are co-productions with American producers, often using both British and American actors, and British actors feature regularly in Hollywood films. Many successful Hollywood films have been based on British people, stories or events, including *Titanic*, *The Lord of the Rings*, *Pirates of the Caribbean* and the 'English Cycle' of Disney animated films.

In 2009 British films grossed around $2 billion worldwide and achieved a market share of around 7% globally and 17% in the United Kingdom. UK box-office takings totalled £944 million in 2009, with around 173 million admissions. The British Film Institute has produced a poll ranking of what it considers to be the 100 greatest British films of all time, the BFI Top 100 British films. The annual British Academy Film Awards, hosted by the British Academy of Film and Television Arts, are the British equivalent of the Oscars.

Literature

'British literature' refers to literature associated with the United Kingdom, the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands as well as to literature from England, Wales and Scotland prior to the formation of the UK. Most British literature is in the English language. In 2005, some 206,000 books were published in the United Kingdom and in 2006 it was the largest publisher of books in the world.

The English playwright and poet William Shakespeare is widely regarded as the greatest dramatist of all time. Shakespeare's contemporaries Christopher Marlowe and Ben Jonson added depth. More recently the playwrights Alan Ayckbourn, Harold Pinter, Michael Frayn, Tom Stoppard and David Edgar have combined elements of surrealism, realism and radicalism.

Notable pre-modern and early-modern English writers include Geoffrey Chaucer (14th century), Thomas Malory (15th century), Sir Thomas More (16th century), and John Milton (17th century). In the 18th century Daniel Defoe (author of *Robinson Crusoe*) and Samuel Richardson were pioneers of the modern novel. In the 19th century there followed further innovation by Jane Austen, the gothic novelist Mary Shelley, children's writer Lewis Carroll, the Brontë sisters, the social campaigner Charles Dickens, the naturalist Thomas Hardy, the realist George Eliot, the visionary poet William Blake and romantic poet William Wordsworth. Twentieth century English writers include: science-fiction novelist H. G. Wells; the writers of children's classics Rudyard Kipling, A. A. Milne (the creator of Winnie-the-Pooh) and Enid Blyton; the controversial D. H. Lawrence; modernist Virginia Woolf; the satirist Evelyn Waugh; the prophetic novelist George Orwell; the popular novelists W. Somerset Maugham and Graham Greene; the crime writer Agatha Christie (the best-selling novelist of all time); Ian Fleming (the creator of James Bond); the poets T. S. Eliot, Philip Larkin and Ted Hughes; and the fantasy writers J. R. R. Tolkien, C. S. Lewis and J. K. Rowling.

Scotland's contributions include the detective writer Arthur Conan Doyle (the creator of Sherlock Holmes), romantic literature by Sir Walter Scott, children's writer J.M. Barrie, the epic adventures of Robert Louis Stevenson and the celebrated poet Robert Burns. More recently the modernist and nationalist Hugh MacDiarmid and Neil M. Gunn contributed to the Scottish Renaissance. A more grim outlook is found in Ian Rankin's stories and the psychological horror-comedy of Iain Banks. Scotland's capital, Edinburgh, was UNESCO's first worldwide City of Literature.

Britain's oldest known poem, *Y Gododdin*, was probably composed in Cumbric or Old Welsh in the late 6th century and contains the earliest known reference to King Arthur. Geoffrey of Monmouth developed the Arthurian legend with his pseudohistorical account of British history, the *Historia Regum Britanniae*. Wales' most celebrated medieval poet, Dafydd ap Gwilym (fl 1320–1370), composed Welsh language poetry on themes including nature, religion and especially love. He is widely regarded as one of the greatest European poets of his age. Until the late 19th century the majority of Welsh literature was in Welsh and much of the prose was religious in character. Daniel Owen is credited as the first Welsh-language novelist, publishing *Rhys Lewis* in 1885. The best-known of the Anglo-Welsh poets are both Thomases. Dylan Thomas became famous on both sides of the Atlantic in the mid 20th century. The Swansea writer is remembered for his poetry – his "Do not go gentle into that good night; Rage, rage against the dying of the light." is one of the most quoted couplets of English language verse – and for his 'play for voices', *Under Milk Wood*. Influential Church in Wales 'poet-priest' and Welsh nationalist, R. S. Thomas, was nominated for the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1996. Leading Welsh novelists include Richard Llewellyn and Kate Roberts.

Authors of other nationalities, particularly from Commonwealth countries, the Republic of Ireland and the United States, have lived and worked in the UK. Significant examples through the centuries include Jonathan Swift, Oscar Wilde, Bram Stoker, George Bernard Shaw, Joseph Conrad, T.S. Eliot, Ezra Pound and more recently British authors born abroad such as Kazuo Ishiguro and Sir Salman Rushdie.

Music

The Beatles are one of the most commercially successful and critically acclaimed bands in the history of music, selling over a billion records internationally.

Various styles of music are popular in the UK from the indigenous folk music of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland to heavy metal. Notable composers of classical music from the United Kingdom and the countries that preceded it include William Byrd, Henry Purcell, Sir Edward Elgar, Gustav Holst, Sir Arthur Sullivan (most famous for working with librettist Sir W.S. Gilbert), Ralph Vaughan Williams and Benjamin Britten, pioneer of modern British opera. Sir Peter Maxwell Davies is one of the foremost living composers and current Master of the Queen's Music. The UK is also home to world-renowned symphonic orchestras and choruses such as the BBC Symphony Orchestra and the London Symphony Chorus. Notable

conductors include Sir Simon Rattle, John Barbirolli and Sir Malcolm Sargent. Some of the notable film score composers include John Barry, Clint Mansell, Mike Oldfield, John Powell, Craig Armstrong, David Arnold, John Murphy, Monty Norman and Harry Gregson-Williams. George Frideric Handel, although born German, was a naturalised British citizen and some of his best works, such as *Messiah*, were written in the English language. Andrew Lloyd Webber has achieved enormous worldwide commercial success and is a prolific composer of musical theatre, works which have dominated London's West End for a number of years and have travelled to Broadway in New York.

The Beatles have international sales of over one billion units and are the biggest-selling and most influential act in the history of popular music. Other prominent British contributors to have influenced popular music over the last 50 years include Queen, Cliff Richard, the Bee Gees, Elton John, Led Zeppelin, Pink Floyd and The Rolling Stones; all of whom have world wide record sales of 200 million or more. According to research by Guinness World Records eight of the ten acts with the most UK chart singles are British: Status Quo, Queen, The Rolling Stones, UB40, Depeche Mode, the Bee Gees, the Pet Shop Boys and the Manic Street Preachers. More recent UK music acts that have had international success include Coldplay, Radiohead, Oasis, Spice Girls, Amy Winehouse, Muse, Adele and Gorillaz.

A number of UK cities are known for their music. Acts from Liverpool have had more UK chart number one hit singles per capita (54) than any other city worldwide. Glasgow's contribution to music was recognised in 2008 when it was named a UNESCO City of Music, one of only three cities in the world to have this honour.

Philosophy

The United Kingdom is famous for the tradition of 'British Empiricism', a branch of the philosophy of knowledge that states that only knowledge verified by experience is valid, and 'Scottish Philosophy', sometimes referred to as the 'Scottish School of Common Sense'. The most famous philosophers of British Empiricism are John Locke, George Berkeley and David Hume; while Dugald Stewart, Thomas Reid and William Hamilton were major exponents of the Scottish "common sense" school. Two Britons are also notable for a theory of moral philosophy utilitarianism, first used by Jeremy Bentham and later by John Stuart Mill in his short work *Utilitarianism*. Other eminent philosophers from the UK and the unions and countries that preceded it include Duns Scotus, John Lilburne, Mary Wollstonecraft, Sir Francis Bacon, Adam Smith, Thomas Hobbes, William of Ockham, Bertrand

Russell and A.J. "Freddie" Ayer. Foreign-born philosophers who settled in the UK include Isaiah Berlin, Karl Marx, Karl Popper and Ludwig Wittgenstein.

Symbols

The flag of the United Kingdom is the Union Flag (also referred to as the Union Jack). It was first created in 1606 by the superimposition of the Flag of England on the Flag of Scotland and updated in 1801 with the addition of Saint Patrick's Flag. Wales is not represented in the Union Flag as Wales had been conquered and annexed to England prior to the formation of the United Kingdom; the possibility of redesigning the Union Flag to include representation of Wales has not been completely ruled out. The national anthem of the United Kingdom is "God Save the King", with "King" replaced with "Queen" in the lyrics whenever the monarch is a woman.

Britannia is a national personification of the United Kingdom, originating from Roman Britain. Britannia is symbolised as a young woman with brown or golden hair wearing a Corinthian helmet and white robes. She holds Poseidon's three-pronged trident and a shield, bearing the Union Flag. Sometimes she is depicted as riding on the back of a lion. At and since the height of the British Empire, Britannia has often associated with maritime dominance, as in the patriotic song *Rule, Britannia!*. The lion symbol is depicted behind Britannia on the British fifty pence coin and one is shown crowned on the back of the British ten pence coin. It is also used as a symbol on the non-ceremonial flag of the British Army. The bulldog is sometimes used as a symbol of the United Kingdom and has been associated with Winston Churchill's defiance of Nazi Germany.

Lecture 6. Ancient people on the territory of the British Isles. The Celts.

Britain has not always been an island. It became one only after the end of the last ice age. The temperature rose and the ice cap melted, flooding the lower-lying land that is now under the North Sea and the English Channel. The Ice Age was not just one long equally cold period. There were warmer times when the ice cap retreated, and colder periods when the ice cap reached as far south as the River Thames. Our first evidence of human life is a few stone tools, dating from one of the warmer periods, about 250,000 BC (Middle Pleistosene Era). There were two different kinds of inhabitant. The earlier group made their tools from flakes of flint, similar in kind to stone tools found across the north European plain as far as Russia. The other group made tools from a central core of flint, probably the earliest method of human

tool making, which spread from Africa to Europe. Hand axes made in this way have been found widely, as far as Yorkshire and as far west as Wales. The most ancient open air camps are near Clacton-Sea in Essex and box grove in Sussex where human and animal bones and stone tools were found. From about 50,000 BC a new type of human being seems to have arrived, who was the ancestor of the modern British. These people looked similar to the modern British, but were probably smaller and had a life span of only about thirty years. Caves in Somerset, Devon, Derby Shiry and Kent have shown the traces of occupancy from the mid Paleolithic period some 35-40,000 BC left by Neanderthal man. The landscape was a subarctic tundra inhospitable to settlement from the upper Paleolithic period through the Mesolithic and Neolithic periods which correspond to Old, Middle and New Stone Age. Around 10,000 BC, as the Ice Age drew to a close, Britain was peopled by small groups of hunters, gatherers and fishers. They seemed to have followed the herds of deer which provided them with food and clothing. These people are usually referred to Old Stone Age Men. Britain was part of the continent, a wide plane joined England and Holland in which the Thames and the Rhine met together and flowed to the North. At the end of the second last Ice Age (6000 BC) Britain became an island. The temperature rose, the ice melted, flooded the lower line land which is now under the North Sea and the English Channel. About 3000BC Neolithic (or New Stone Age) people crossed the narrow sea from Europe in small round boats of bent wood covered with animal skins, each could carry 1-2 persons. These people kept animals and grew corn crops, and knew how to make pottery. They cultivated land, sowed the seeds of edible grasses, they constructed earthwork closures on hilltops such as Windmill Hill near Abebury into which they drove their cattle at night. They developed a means of polishing flints into perfect shape for killing thus improving their weapons. They probably came from either the Iberian (Spanish) peninsula or even the North African coast – they are called Iberians. They were small, dark, a nd long-headed people, and may be the forefathers of dark-haired inhabitants of Wales and Cornwall today. They settled in the western parts of Britain and Ireland, from Cornwall at the southwest end of Britain all the way to the far north.

After copper and tin were discovered the men found the way to blend them and make bronze. The infiltration of bronze tools and weapons from the continent spread for many centuries. This time is called the Bronze Age. After 2400 BC new groups of people arrived in southeast Britain from Europe. They were round-headed and strongly built, taller than Neolithic Britons. They spoke Indo-European language. It is not known whether they invaded by armed force, or whether they were invited by Neolithic Britons because of their military or metal-working skills. Their influence was soon felt and, as a result, they became leaders of British society. They accepted

many of the old ways and mixed with local people. Their arrival is marked by the first individual graves, furnished with pottery beakers, from which these people get their name: the “Beaker” people. They seem to have brought a single culture to the whole of Britain. They also brought skills to make bronze tools and these began to replace stone ones.

There are monuments that remained: after 3000 BC they started building great circles of earthworks and ditches. Inside they erected wooden dwellings and stone circles – hedges. They were the centre of religious, political and economical power. Stonehenge was built in 3 stages near Salisbury in South England. It was started 2600 BC. The largest of the stones weigh 50 tons. People didn’t use metal and their tools were made of stone, bone and wood. It was finished 600 years later.

Stonehenge 1 is a rectangle surrounded by a circular ditch. Outside it stood a very big stone called the Heel stone. The builders also dug 56 little holes (Aubrey) in a circle round the rectangle. Stonehenge 2 was started 200 years later. They brought about 80 stones called “bluestones” and put them into a horseshoe in the middle of the rectangle. They weight about 5 tons each. Stonehenge 3 is what we can see today. They took down the Stonehenge 2 horseshoe and put up a circle of a new kind stone – Sarsen stone inside they built a Sarsen horseshoe. Some of them weigh 50 tons and the stones placed on top weigh 25 tons. They put some of the bluestones back between the outer circle and horseshoe. The bigger people added a new circle of 30 stone columns this time connected with stone graves or cross pieces. The richest graves of the Beaker people are found near. Stonehenge remained the most important centre until 1300 BC. From this time power shifted to the Thames valley and South-East Britain. Hill forts replaced hedges as the centres of local power and most of them were found in the South- East. Also a number of better designed bronze tools and swords were found in this region which shows that local people were more highly developed in crafts and warfare.

The Celts.

During 6-1 BC a people called the Celts spread across the Europe to the west, they came from central Europe or further east, from southern Russia, and had moved slowly westwards in earlier centuries. A commonly accepted theory – they came to Britain in 3 distinct waves. There were invasions, but it’s not known whether they came to conquer or as a result of trade.

The first group – the Gaels [geilz]. Later new invaders drove them to the more mountainous western and northern regions.

The second – the Prethonical Celts (Brithons) arrived between 600-500 BC and settled in the South of England in Wales, North-West England, South-West Scotland. The native tribes were not able to fight back the attacks of the Celts who were better armed with metal spears, swords, daggers and axes. Most of the local people were killed. Some of them were driven to the mountains and others mixed with the Celts.

400 BC – iron was dug and forged. The Iron Age brought the revival of the hilltop celts which have been deserted since the Neolithic Age. The Celts' hilltop consisted of simple rampart sometimes od stone but usually an earthwork reverted with timber and surrounded with a ditch. The camps were also protected from bears and wolves that were plenty at that time. The Celts had no towers. Apart from the hilltops there were isolated farms or groups of farms sometimes mounting to villages. They were surrounded by small enclosures. Larger expanses of permanent fields, woodland and great open pastures. Among the hill forts the most well-known is Maiden Castle in Dorset made of rock and earth dug out of the ground. It has steep-sided slopes and inside there were circular thatched houses forming a small town.

The third wave of invaders – Belgae [beldgi] from Northern Gaul [gol] (France) arrived 100 BC and occupied the central part of the island. They were by far the most enlightened active invaders, easily conquering and establishing their dominion. They were people of chariots and horsemen who started to build towns in the valleys sometimes below the hilltop on which the old fort had stood.

The earliest writer who gave information about the country and its people – Julius Caesar. In his book "Commentaries on the Gaelic war" he writes about his war campaign in Gaul and in Britain. He wrote: the Celts were tall and blue-eyed, red-haired, they wore long flowing moustaches but no beards. The Celts were technically advanced. They knew how to work with iron, and could make better weapons than the people who used bronze. It is possible that they drove many of older inhabitants westwards into Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Celts began to control all the lowlands areas of Britain, and were joined by new arrivals from the European mainland.

The Celts are important in British history because they are the ancestors of many of the people in Highlands Scotland, Wales, Ireland, and Cornwall today the Iberian people of Wales and Cornwall took on the new Celtic culture. Celtic languages, which have been continuously used in some areas since that time, are still spoken. The British today are often described as Anglo-Saxon. It would be better to call them Anglo-Celt. The Celts were organised into different tribes, and tribal chiefs were chosen from each family or tribe, sometimes as the result of fighting matches between individuals, and soon sometimes by election. The last Celtic arrivals from Europe were the

Belgic tribes. It was natural for them to settle in the southeast of Britain, probably pushing other Celtic tribes northwards as they did so.

The Celtic tribes continued the same kind of agriculture as the Bronze Age people before them. But their use of iron technology and their introduction of more advanced ploughing methods made it possible for them to farm heavier soils. However, they continued to use, and build, hill-forts. The hill-fort remained the centre for local groups. The insides of these hill-forts were filled with houses, and they became the simple economic capitals and smaller "towns" of the different tribal areas into which Britain was now divided. Today the empty hill-forts stand on lonely hilltops.

The Celts traded across tribal borders and trade was probably important for political and social contact between the tribes. The two main trade outlets eastwards to Europe were the settlements along the Thames River in the south and on the Firth of Forth in the north. Much trade, both inside and beyond Britain, was conducted by river and sea. For money the Celts used iron bars, until they began to copy the Roman coins they saw used in Gaul (France).

Beyond these advanced tribes archaeology reveals that there were some less advanced peoples but they shared the same Celtic language and similar culture. The Celts worshiped nature. They believed that the Sky, the Sun, the Sea were ruled by beings like themselves but more powerful, in nameless spirits who lived in the rivers, lakes, forests, another life after death (their souls passed after death to another body)

The Celtic tribes were ruled over by a warrior class, of which the priests, or Druids, seem to have been particularly important members. These Druids could not read or write, but they memorized all the religious teachings, the tribal laws, history, medicine and other knowledge necessary in Celtic society. The druids met together in dark woods called sacred Groves to worship gods and spirits and to look for science of future. They practiced human sacrifice, later animals to soften the rage of gods. They had pupils who had to study for 20 years. The main heritage – languages – Welsh, Gaelic, Irish.

During the Celtic period women may have had more independence than they had again for hundreds of years. When the Romans invaded Britain two of the largest were ruled by women who fought from their chariots. The most powerful Celt to stand up to the Romans was a woman, Boadicea. She had become the queen of her tribe when her husband had died. In 61 AD she led her tribe against the Romans. She nearly drove them from Britain, and she destroyed London, the Roman capital, before she was defeated and killed.

Lecture 7. The Roman Conquest

The name “ Britain ” comes from the word “Pretani”, the Greco-Roman word for the inhabitants of Britain. The Romans mispronounced the word and called the island “ Britannia ”.

The Romans had invaded because the Celts of Britain were working with the Celts of Gaul against them. The British Celts were giving them food, and allowing them to hide the Britain. There was another reason. The Celts used cattle to pull their ploughs and this meant that richer, heavier land could be farmed. Under the Celts Britain had become an important food producer because of its mild climate. It now exported corn and animals, as well as hunting dogs and slaves, to the European mainland. The Romans could make use of British food for their own army fighting the Gauls.

The people who used to reject Latin began to use it in speech and writing. Further instead of the national dress the toga (the Roman cloak) came into fashion. But Latin completely disappeared both in spoken and written forms when the Anglo-Saxons invaded Britain in the fifth century AD. Britain was probably more literate under the Romans than it was to be again until the fifteenth century.

Julius Caesar first come to Britain in 55 BC. Ten thousand men crossed the channel. The Celts saw their ships approaching and attacked in the sea. The Celts made a great impression on the Romans who saw them for the first time in battle. The native tribes were ruled by kings. Society was divided into a warrior aristocracy and agricultural commons. The 3d group – Druids-priests. They were characterized as quarrelsome, having bonds within the tribes and in intertribal warfare. Only in rear cases in the face of great danger would Celtic tribes combine to choose a single leader. In the following year with the army of 25,000 people Julius Caesar landed again and penetrated to where now London stands. Then he defeated the Celtic tribesmen though he gained victory he wasn’t able to conquer the country. The Celtic chiefs promised tribute but it was never paid. The situation in Gaul was explosive and that prevented Caesar from taking advantage of the surrender of the temporary confederation of chiefs. In the immediate military terms the results of his campaigns were modest but the consequences were great. Caesar put Britain on the Roman map and set an important precedent for intervention into Britain.

But it was not until almost a century later, in 43 AD, that a Roman army actually occupied Britain.

The Roman emperor Claudius sent an army to Britain .The Romans were determined to conquer the whole island. They had little difficulty, apart from Boadicea’s revolt, because they had a better trained army and because the Celtic tribes fought among themselves. The Romans considered the Celts as war-mad, “high spirited and quick for battle”, a description some would

still give the Scots, Irish and Welsh today. The Romans established a Romano-British culture across the southern half of Britain, from the river Humber to the river Severn. This part of Britain was inside the empire. Beyond were the upland areas, under Roman control but not developed. These areas were watched from the towns of York, Chester and Caerleon in the western peninsula of Britain that later became known as Wales. Each of these towns was held by a Roman legion of about 7,000 men. The total Roman army in Britain was about 40,000 men. Examples of opposition: the struggle of Caractacus (I AD). He lead resistance

The Romans could not conquer "Caledonia", as they called Scotland, although they spent over a century trying to do so. At last they built a strong wall along the northern border, named after the Emperor Hadrian who planned it. At the time, Hadrian's wall was simply intended to keep out raiders from the north. But it also marked the border between the two later countries, England and Scotland. Eventually, the border was established a few miles further north. Roman control of Britain came to an end as the empire began to collapse. The first signs were the attacks by Celts of Caledonia in 367 AD. The Romans legions found it more and more difficult to stop the raiders from crossing Hadrian's wall.

In 409 AD Rome pulled it last soldiers out of Britain and the Romano-British, the Romanised Celts, were left to fight alone against the Scots, the Irish and Saxon raiders from Germany. The following year Rome itself fell to raiders. When Britain called to Rome for help against the raiders from Saxon Germany in the mid-fifth century, no answer came.

The most obvious characteristic of Roman Britain was its towns, which were the basis of Roman administration and civilisation. Many grew out of Celtic settlements, military camps or market centers. There were three different kinds of town in Roman Britain, two of which were towns established by Roman character. These were the coloniae, towns peopled by Roman settlers, and the municipia, large cities in which the whole population was given Roman citizenship. The third kind, the civitas, included the old Celtic tribal capitals, through which the Romans administered the Celtic population in the countryside. At first these towns had no walls. Then, almost every town was given walls. The Romans left about twenty large towns of about 5,000 inhabitants, and almost one hundred smaller ones. Many of these towns were at first army camps. These towns were built with stone as well as wood, and had planned streets, markets and shops. Outside the towns, the biggest change during the Roman occupation was the growth of large farms, called "villas". These belonged to the richer Britons who were, like the townspeople, more Roman than Celt in their manners.

It is very difficult to be sure how many people were living in Britain when the Romans left. Probably it was as many as five million, partly

because of the peace and the increased economic life which the Romans had brought to the country. The new wave of invaders changed all that.

The Anglo-Saxon Conquest.

The invaders came from three powerful Germanic tribes, the Saxons, Angles and Jutes. The Jutes settled mainly the Kent and along the south coast, and were soon considered no different from the Angles and Saxons. The Angles settled in the east, and also in the north Midlands, while the Saxons settled between the Jutes and the Angles in a band of land from the Thames Estuary westwards. The Anglo-Saxons migrations gave the larger part of Britain its new name, England, "the land of the Angles".

The British Celts fought the raiders and settlers from Germany as well as they could. However, during the next hundred years they were slowly pushed westwards until by 570 they were forced west of Gloucester. Finally most were driven into the mountains in the far west, which the Saxons called "Weallas", or "Wales", meaning "the land of the foreigners". Some Celts were driven into Cornwall, where they later accepted the rule of Saxon lords. In the north, other Celts were driven into the lowlands of the country which became known as Scotland. Some Celts stayed behind, and many became slaves of the Saxons. Hardly anything is left of Celtic language or culture in England, except of the names of some rivers, Thames, Mersey, Severn and Avon, and two large cities, London and Leeds.

The strength of Anglo-Saxon culture is obvious even today. "Days of the week were named after Germanic gods: Tig (Tuesday), Wodin (Wednesday), Thor (Thursday), Frey (Friday). New place-names appeared on the map. The first of these show that the earliest Saxons Villages, like the Celtic ones, were family villages. The ending –ing meant folk or family, thus "Reading" is the place of the family of Rada. Ham means farm, ton meant settlement. Birmingham, Nottingham and Southampton, for example, are Saxon place-names. Because the Anglo-Saxon kings often established settlements, Kingston is a frequent place-name."[1, 11].

The Anglo-Saxons established a number of kingdoms, some of which still exist in country or regional names to this day: Essex (East Saxons), Sussex (South Saxons), Wessex (West Saxons), East Anglia (East Angles). By the middle of the seventh century the three largest kingdoms, those of Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex, were the most powerful.

It was not until a century later that one of these kings, King Offa of Mercia (757 - 896), claimed "kingship of the English". He had good reason to do so. He was powerful enough to employ thousands of men to build a huge dyke, or earth wall, the length of the Welsh border to keep out the

troublesome Celts. But although he was the most powerful king of his time, he did not control all of England.

The power of Mercia did survive after Offa's death. At the time, a king's power depended on the personal loyalty of his followers. After his death the next king had to work hard to rebuild these personal feelings of loyalty. Most people still believed, as the Celts had done, that a man's first duty was the duty to his own family. However, things were changing. The Saxon kings began to replace loyalty to family with loyalty to lord and king.

The Saxons created institutions which made the English state strong for the next 500 years. One of these instructions was the King's Council, called the Witan. The Witan probably grew out of informal groups of senior warriors and churchmen to whom kings like Offa had turned for advice or support on difficult matters. By the tenth century the Witan was a formal body, issuing laws and charters. It was not at all democratic, and the king could decide to ignore the Witan's advice. But he knew that it might be dangerous to do so. For the Witan's authority was based on its right to choose kings, and to agree the use of the king's laws.

The Saxon divided the land into new administrative areas, based on shires, or countries. These shires, established by the end of the tenth century, remained almost exactly the same for a thousand years. "Shire" is the Saxon word, "country" the Norman one, but both are still used. Over each shire was appointed "sheriff" (the king's local administrator).

Anglo-Saxon technology changed the shape of English agriculture. The Celts had kept small, square fields which were well suited to the light plough they used, drawn either by an animal or two people. This plough could turn corners easily. The Anglo-Saxons introduced a far heavier plough which was better able to plough in long straight lines across the field. It was particularly useful for cultivating heavier soils.

The Saxons settled previously farmed areas. They cut down many forested areas in valleys to farm the richer lowland soil, and they began to drain the wet land. As a result, almost all the villages which appear on eighteenth-century maps already existed by the eleventh century.

In the last hundred years of Roman government Christianity became firmly established across Britain, both in Roman-controlled areas and beyond. However, the Anglo-Saxons belonged to an older Germanic religion, and they drove Celts into the west and north. In the Celtic areas Christianity continued to spread, building paganism to an end.

The two Christian Churches, Celtic and Roman, could hardly have been more different in character. One was most interested in the hearts of ordinary people, the other was interested in authority and organisation. Saxon kings helped the Church to grow, but the Church also increased the power of kings.

Bishops gave kings their support, which made it harder for royal power to be questioned.

There were also other ways in which the Church increased the power of the English state. It established monasteries, or ministers, for example Westminster, which were places of learning and education. These monasteries trained the men who could read and write, so that they had the necessary skills for the growth of royal and Church authority.

The Anglo-Saxon kings also preferred the Roman Church to the Celtic Church for economic reasons. Villages and towns grew around the monasteries and increased local trade. Anglo-Saxon England became well known in Europe for its exports of woolen goods, cheese, hunting dogs, pottery and metal goods. It imported wine, fish, pepper, jewellery and wheel-made pottery.

Lecture 8. The Vikings

Towards the end of the eighth century new raiders were tempted by Britain's wealth. These were the Vikings, a word which probably means either "pirates" or "the people of the sea inlets", and they came from Norway and Denmark. Like the Anglo-Saxons they only raided at first. They burnt churches and monasteries along the east, north and west coasts of Britain and Ireland. London was itself raided in 842.

In 865 the Vikings invaded Britain. It was clear that the quarrelling Anglo-Saxon kingdoms could not keep them out. This time they came to conquer and to settle. The Vikings quickly accepted Christianity and did not disturb the local population. By 875 only King Alfred in the west of Wessex held out against the Vikings, who had already taken most of England. After some serious defeats Alfred won a decisive battle in 878, and eight years later he captured London. He was strong enough to make a treaty with the Vikings. Viking rule was recognised in the east and north of England. It was called the Danelaw, the land where the law of the Danes ruled. In the rest of the country Alfred was recognised as king. During his struggle against the Danes, he had built walled settlements to keep them out. These were called burghs. They became prosperous market towns, and the word, now usually spelt borough, is one of the commonest endings to place names, as well as the name of the until of municipal or town administration today.

By 950 England seemed rich and peaceful again after the troubles of the Viking invasion. But soon afterwards the Danish Vikings started raiding westwards. The Saxon king Ethelred decided to pay the Vikings to stay away. To find the money he set a tax on all his people, called Danegeld, or "Danish money". It was the beginning of a regular tax system of the people which would provide the money for armies. The effects of this tax were most

heavily felt by the ordinary villages, because they had to provide enough money for their village landlord to pay Danegeld.

When Ethelred died Cnut (or Canute), the leader of the Danish Vikings, controlled much of England. He became king for the simple reason that the royal council, the Witan, and everyone else, feared disorder. Rule by a Danish king was far better than rule by no one at all. Cnut died in 1035, and his son died shortly after, in 1040. The Witan (a group of senior warriors and churchmen to whom kings turned for advice or support on difficult matters) chose Edward, one of Saxon Ethelred's sons, to be king.

Edward, known as "Confessor", was more interested in the Church than in kingship. Church building had been going on for over a century, and he encouraged it. By the time Edward died there was a church in almost every village.

Edward only lived until 1066, when he died without an obvious heir. Edward had brought many Normans to his English court from France. One of them was Harold, whom the Witan chose to be the next king of England. Harold had already shown his bravery and ability. He had no royal blood, but he seemed a good choice for the throne of England. Harold's right to the English throne was challenged by Duke William of Normandy. William had two claims to the English throne. His first claim was that King Edward had promised it to him. The second claim was that Harold had promised William that he, Harold, would not try to take the throne for himself. Harold was faced by two dangers, one in the south and one in the north. The Danish Vikings had not given up their claim to the English throne. In 1066 Harold had to match north into Yorkshire to defeat the Danes. No sooner had he defeated them that he learnt that William had landed in England with an army. His men marched south as fast as possible.

Harold decided not to wait for the whole Saxon army, the fyrd, to gather because the William's army was small. But the Norman soldiers were better armed, better organised, and were mounted on horses.

William marched to London, which quickly gave in when he began to burn villages outside the city. He was crowned king of England in Edward's new church of Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, 1066. A new period had begun.

It should be said that Earliest times are characterised by a big number of invasions. Every conqueror was trying to spread its own national specific and order. Its influenced on economy, politics and even language of Great Britain. And during this period of time a great number of people suffered. They had to put under conquerors' supervision and to stand laws and orders.

The Norman Conquest and the establishment of feudalism in England.

The Normans – people that came from Normandy. They were children of the Vikings who settled in Northern France. They soon became French in their language and Christian in their religion.

Edward the Confessor (1042-1066) – was half Norman by blood and wholly Norman by upbringing. He spent 25 years in exile in Normandy, after 1041 he returned to London, succeeded to the throne and quickly seized the property of his mother, who had plotted against his accession. He brought with him a number of clerics to be bishops and councilors. People said that he was more fitted to be a Norman monk than a king. He encouraged church building. At the time he died there were a church in every village. He spent much time on rebuilding Westminster Abbey, where he was buried in 1066. After his death the pope gave him name – Confessor. His close ties to Normandy prepared the way for the conquest of England by Normans.

For the first 11 years of his reign the real master of England was Earl Godwin of Wessex. Edward married Godwin's daughter Edith in 1045, but by 1049 a breach had occurred between two men. In 1051, Edward outlawed the Godwin family and dismissed Edith. During this period Edward was rapidly losing popularity by giving Normans high positions in his government.

When Godwin died in 1052 his son Harold became the dominant power in the kingdom. Consequently, Edward on his deathbed named Harold as his successor even though he allegedly had already promised the crown to William.

Harold prepared to defend the coast against an attack, as William enlisted knights from Normandy and Northern France. But the king of Norway suddenly invaded northern England to claim the throne. Harold took his troops north on a forced march. His Anglo-Saxon forces defeated the Norse near York. Soon after they knew that William wanted to go to the South. His army was tired but he had to move quickly without rest. Harold didn't gather the whole Saxon army (9000), because William's army was small. He waited in Sussex for William, but in December he decided that William didn't come this year, so he demobilized his people and let them go home.

But in 1066 William came to England to Hastings and 14 October the decisive battle started. The Saxon army was defeated. The forces were fairly equal in number, but the Normans were superior in quality. Harold's army consisted only with amateur soldiers because he hurriedly gathered peasants, detachments and armed his knights and warriors. The major feudalists refused to give him their support. Normans and Frenchmen were all men to

whom fighting war was their main occupation – archers, men-at-arms and knights. The English axmen turned back a Norman cavalry charge, whereupon a section of the Norman infantry turned and fled. Then some of the Harold's personal guard left their places to pursue some stragglers, and William ordered a feigned retreat. The strategy worked – many of the English troops broke ranks to run down the hill after the Normans, who then turned and cut them down. William then resumed his attack on the hill, with his archers shooting into the air. With arrows falling about them, the English opened up, allowing the Norman foot soldiers to get among them. Harold and his two brothers were killed and his army totally destroyed. This battle was the greatest disaster in history Harold's death left England open to Norman rule.

William was crowned 25 December 1066 at Westminster as William I the Conqueror. His coronation didn't go as planned. When the people shouted "God Save the King" the nervous Norman guards at Westminster Abbey thought they were going to attack William. In their fear they set fire to nearby houses and the coronation ceremony ended in disorder.

Although William was now crowned king, his conquest had only just begun, and the fighting lasted for another five years. There was an Anglo-Saxon rebellion against the Normans every year until 1070. The small Norman army marched from village to village, destroying places it could not control, and building forts to guard the others. It was a true army of occupation for at least 20 years.

Few Saxon lords kept their lands and those who did were the very small number who had accepted William immediately. All the others lost everything. By 1086, 20 years after the arrival of the Normans, only 2 of the greater landlords and only 2 bishops were Saxon. William gave the Saxon lands to his Norman nobles. Over 4000 Saxon landlords were replaced by 200 Norman ones. Of all the farmland of England he gave half to the Norman nobles, a quarter to the Church, and kept a fifth himself. He kept the Saxon system of sheriffs, and used these as a balance to local nobles. As a result England was different from the rest of Europe because it had one powerful family, instead of a large number of powerful nobles. William, and the kings after him, thought of England as their personal property.

William organized his English kingdom according to the feudal system which had already begun to develop in England before his arrival. The basis of feudal society was the holding of land, and its main purpose was economic. The central idea was that all land was owned by the king but it was held by others, called "vassals", in return for services and goods. The king gave large estates to his main nobles in return for a promise to serve him in war for up to forty days. The nobles also had to give him part of the produce of the land. The greater nobles gave part of their lands to lesser

nobles, knights, and other "freemen". Some freemen paid for the land by doing military service, while others paid rent. The nobles kept "serfs" to work on his own land. These were not free to leave the estate, and were often little better than slaves.

Social organization: king – barons – knights – clergy – villeins – yeomen – merchants – lawyers – craftspeople – shopkeepers – foot soldiers.

There were 2 basic principles to feudalism: every man had a lord, and every lord had land. The king was connected through this "chain" of people to the lowest man in the country. At each level a man had to promise loyalty and service to his lord ("homage").

If the king didn't give the nobles land they would not fight for him. Between 1066 and mid 14th century there were only 30 years of complete peace. So feudal duties were extremely important. The king had to make sure that he had enough satisfied nobles who would be willing to fight for him.

William gave out land all over England to his nobles. By 1086 he wanted to know exactly who owned which piece of land, and how much it was worth. He needed this information so that he could plan his economy, find out how much was produced and how much he could ask in tax. He therefore sent a team of people all through England to make a complete economic survey. This survey was the only one of its kind in Europe. Not surprisingly, it was most unpopular with the people, because they felt they could not escape from its findings. It so reminded them of the paintings of the day of Judgement, or "doom", on the walls of their churches that they called it the "Doomsday" Book. The name stuck. The Doomsday Book still exists, and gives us an extraordinary amount of information.

At the end of his life William quarreled with his sons and wife and was left by his family. When William died, in 1087, he left the Duchy of Normandy to his elder son, Robert. He gave England to his second son, William, known as Rufus. When Robert went to fight the Muslims in the Holy Land, he left William II Rufus in charge of Normandy. William Rufus died in a hunting accident in1100. He had not married, and therefore had no son to take the crown. At the time of William's death, Robert was on his way home to Normandy from the Holy Land. Their younger brother, Henry, knew that if he wanted the English crown he would have to act very quickly. He had been with William at the time of the accident. He rode to Winchester and took charge of the king's treasury. He then rode to Westminster, where he was crowned king three days later. Robert was very angry and prepared to invade. But it took him a year to organize an army.

The Norman nobles in England had to choose between Henry and Robert. This was not easy because most of them held land in Normandy. In the end they chose Henry because he was in London, with the crown already on his head. Robert's invasion was a failure and he accepted payment to

return to Normandy. But Henry wanted more. He knew that many of his nobles would willingly follow him to Normandy so that they could win back their Norman lands. In 1106 Henry invaded Normandy and captured Robert. Normandy and England were reunited under one ruler.

Henry I's most important aim was to pass on both Normandy and England to his successor. But in 1120 Henry's only son was drowned at sea.

During the next 15 years Henry hoped for another son but finally accepted that his daughter, Matilda, would follow him. Henry had married Matilda to another great noble in France, Geoffrey Plantagenet. Geoffrey was heir to Anjou. Henry hoped that the family lands would be made larger by this marriage. He made all the nobles promise to accept Matilda when he died. But then Henry himself quarreled publicly with Matilda's husband, and died soon after. This left the succession in question. At that time Matilda was with her husband in Anjou and Henry's nephew, Stephen of Blots, was in Boulogne. Stephen raced to England to claim the crown. The nobles in England had to choose between Stephen, who was in England, and Matilda, who was in France. Most chose Stephen. Only a few nobles supported Matilda's claim.

Matilda invaded England four years later. Her fight with Stephen led to a terrible civil war in which villages were destroyed and many people were killed. Neither side could win, and finally in 1153 Matilda and Stephen agreed that Stephen could keep the throne but only if Matilda's son, Henry, could succeed him. Fortunately for England, Stephen died the following year, and the family possessions of England and the lands in France were united under a king accepted by everyone. It took years for England to recover from the civil war. Henry II was the first unquestioned ruler of the English throne for a hundred years.

Lecture 9. The Wars of Roses

The Wars of the Roses were the series of dynastic civil wars whose violence preceded the strong government of the Tudors. Fought between the Houses of Lancaster and York for the English throne, the wars were named many years afterward from the supposed badges of the opposing parties: the white rose of York and the red of Lancaster. Both houses claimed the throne through descent from the sons of Edward III. Since the Lancastrians had occupied the throne from 1399, the Yorkists might never have pressed a claim but for the near anarchy prevailing in the mid-15th century. After the death of Henry V in 1422, the country was subjected to the long minority of Henry VI. Great magnates with private armies dominated the countryside. Lawlessness was rife (распространена) and taxation burdensome (обременительна). Henry later proved to be feckless (бесполезным) and simple-minded, and

dominated by his ambitious queen, Margaret of Anjou, whose party had allowed the English position in France to deteriorate. Henry lapsed into insanity in 1453, causing a powerful baronial clique backed (поддержанной) by Richard Neville, the Earl of Warwick (the "Kingmaker"), to install Richard, Duke of York, as protector of the realm (государства). When Henry recovered in 1455, he reestablished the authority of Margaret's party, forcing York to take up arms for self-protection. The first battle of the wars, at St Albans (22 May, 1455), resulted in a Yorkist victory and four years of uneasy truce (перемирия). Civil war was resumed in 1459. The Yorkists were successful at Blore Heath (23 September) but were scattered after a skirmish (стычка) at Ludford Bridge (12 October). In France Warwick regrouped the Yorkist forces and returned to England in June 1460, defeating the Lancastrian forces at Northampton (10 July). York tried to claim the throne but settled for the right to succeed upon the death of Henry. This effectively disinherited Henry's son, Prince Edward, and caused Queen Margaret to continue her opposition. Gathering forces in northern England, the Lancastrians surprised and killed York at Wakefield in December and then marched south toward London, defeating Warwick on the way at the Second Battle of St Albans (17 February, 1461). Meanwhile, York's eldest son and heir, Edward, had defeated a Lancastrian force at Mortimer's Cross (2 February) and marched to relieve London, arriving before Margaret on February 26. The young Duke of York was proclaimed King Edward IV at Westminster on 4 March. Then Edward, with the remainder of Warwick's forces, pursued Margaret north to Towton. There, the bloodiest battle of the war, the Yorkists on a complete victory. Henry, Margaret, and their son fled to Scotland. The first phase of the fighting was over, except for the reduction of a few pockets of Lancastrian resistance. The next round of the wars arose out of disputes within the Yorkist ranks. Warwick and his circle were increasingly passed over at Edward's court; more seriously, Warwick differed with the King on foreign policy. In 1469, civil war was renewed. Warwick and Edward's rebellious brother George, Duke of Clarence, fomented (подстрекать) risings in the north; and in July, at Edgecote (near Banbury), defeated Edward's supporters, afterward holding the King prisoner. By March 1470, however, Edward regained his control, forcing Warwick and Clarence to flee to France, where they allied themselves with the French King Louis XIE and their former enemy, Margaret of Anjou. Returning to England (September 1470), they deposed Edward and restored the crown to Henry VI. Edward fled to the Netherlands with his followers and returned to England in March 1471. Edward outmanoeuvred Warwick and defeated Warwick at Barnet on 14 April. That very day, Margaret had landed at Weymouths. Hearing the news of Barnet, she marched west, trying to reach the safety of Wales; but

Edward won the race to the Severn. At Tewkes-bury (4 May) Margaret was captured, her forces destroyed, and her son killed. Shortly afterward, Henry VI was murdered in the Tower of London. Edward's throne was secure for the rest of his life (he died in 1483). In 1483, Edward's brother Richard III, overriding the claims of his nephew, the young Edward V, alienated (ну типа альянса) many Yorkists, who then turned to the last hope of the Lancastrians, Henry Tudor (later Henry VII). With the help of the French and of Yorkist defectors, Henry defeated and killed Richard at Bosworth Field on 22 August, 1485, bringing the wars to a close. By his marriage to Edward IV's daughter Elizabeth of York in 1486, Henry united the Yorkish and Lancastrian claims. Henry defeated a Yorkish rising supporting the pretender Lambert Simnel on 16 June, 1487, a date which some historians prefer over the traditional 1485 for the termination of the Wars.

Lecture 10. World War I and II

In the 19th century the post-Napoleonic wars period of reaction was being gradually reformed and more liberal ministers were included in the Government, more progressive policies and laws were adopted. Under ultra-conservatory Wellington, who became Prime minister in 1828, some reforms were introduced: R. Peel, the Home Secretary created an efficient police force, and the policeman were called peelers or bobbies.

A Policeman (A Bobby)

The Catholic Emancipation Act was a forced decision that split the Tory party and brought the Whigs to power in 1830. The Whigs were determined to reform the Parliament and the parliamentary franchise, which had not changed since the reign of Elizabeth I. The electoral franchise and

distribution of seats in Parliament were in a mess. Different parts of the country were represented in an uneven and unjust way. The county of Cornwall where the population was less than the population of Manchester or Birmingham elected 44 men to the House of Commons, but neither of these big industrial cities elected a single M. P. The voting was not secret, the whole system was corrupt and unrepresentative.

The confusion at Westminster reflected the situation in the country. There were outbreaks of machinebreaking and riots: people exploited at the factories by factory owners and left unemployed by machines replacing them, were outraged; they smashed machines blaming Ned Ludd for it and bearing his name – Luddites, wearing masks and damaging the factories.

The Parliament Reform came together with railways. The Manchester and Liverpool Railway was opened by the Duke of Wellington in 1830. George Stephenson built a locomotive – "the Rocket", which reached a maximum speed of fourty eight kilometres per hour.

The technological revolution was going on strengthened by social reforms that were obviously lagging behind.

The reformed Parliament passed a number of progressive acts, due to Lord Shaftesbury the first effective Factory Act was passed, limitting the hours worked) by children in cotton factories to nine, prohibiting their employment under nine years of age, and appointing inspectors to see that the decisions were enforced.

The state assumed also some responsibility for the poor. According to the Poor Law all the able bodied poor were to go to the workhouses where the conditions were terrible. It was described by Ch. Dickens in his novel "Oliver Twist". The working classes were infuriated by the injustice and inhumanity of the Poor Law and demanded more radical reforms.

Chartists

In 1838 the first petition was drawn up by leaders of first association of workers, which was called the **People's Charter.** It included six main demands for changes: the vote for all males, parliamentary constituencies of equal size, voting by secret ballot, a salary for MPs, no property qualifications for MPs, annual Parliaments. All these reforms seemed revolutionary at that time.

The Chartist movement was supported by the working people, but it had its ups and downs. The first Charter was rejected by Parliament in 1839, which was followed by protests of the working people and repressions by the Government. The Chartist leaders were arrested; the Movement was defeated when the second Petition was also rejected by Parliament in 1842.

The revival of Chartism in 1848 coincided with the Revolution in Europe and with nationalist demands of the Irish, but the third petition having been rejected, Chartism began to decline and grew into the cooperative and trade unionist movements.

The Parliamentary struggles of the Tories and the Whigs, the working classes struggle for social rights and a better life, were all developing against the background of a drastic change in the Monarchy. The only daughter of the Hanoverian Duke of Kent turned out to be the only heiress to the British throne, and after the death other uncle William (William IV 1830-1837) 18 year old Victoria became Queen (1837-1901). Her first Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, taught the young Queen the duties of the constitutional monarch. The accession of Queen Victoria came at a difficult time: the Whigs lost their popularity and the majority in the House of Commons; the Hungry Thirties passed into the Hungry Forties, and the alternative to the Whigs polices was the new Conservative Party, created by R. Peel. Peel's financial reforms brought revival to the country (1844), and legislation to protect factory and mine workers improved their conditions, but the disaster came with the poor harvests in Britain and Ireland. Famine in Ireland (1845) convinced Peel that the Corn Laws should be repealed (in 1846). It was the greatest victory of the free traders. But it destroyed the Tory Party and R. Peel was forced to resign.

The reforms brought cheaper food and exports from "the workshop of the world". And the Whigs inherited the benefits of Peel's reforms.

Queen Victoria's Prime Ministers followed one another due to the Political developments in Parliament: Lord Melbourne (1835-1841), Sir R. Peel, Lord John Russel, Earl of Derby, Earl of Aberdeen, Viscount Palmerstone, Benjamin Disraeli, W. E. Gladstone, Earl of Ro-sebery, Marquess of Salisbury.

In 1840 Victoria married her cousin (see Table 6) of Saxe-Coburg of Gotha. The marriage was happy, and the Royal family became a model for moral standards in high society as well as for the middle classes.

Prince Albert became deeply interested in the British affairs, both foreign and home. He was the initiator of a great display of Victorian glory and progress in the country – the Great Exhibition of 1851. This international exhibition was quite a new idea, and Albert had to overcome a lot of opposition. The Exhibition building was an enormous glass-and-iron structure – the Crystal Palace in Hyde Park, it had on display machinery and products from Britain, the Empire and other countries.

"The Crystal Palace" was the symbol of Technological progress. The new poet-laureate Tennyson wrote an ode to it. All the Victorian writers, poets, painters glorified English culture. Tennyson and Browning dominated the poetry. Charles Dickens in his novels David Copperfield, Oliver Twist, Nicholas Nickleby exposed the social evils of the time. Thackeray exposed the middle class hypocracy in his "Vanity Fair". It was a great age for novels. Women writers – the Bronte sisters, Mrs Gaskell–flourished as never before.

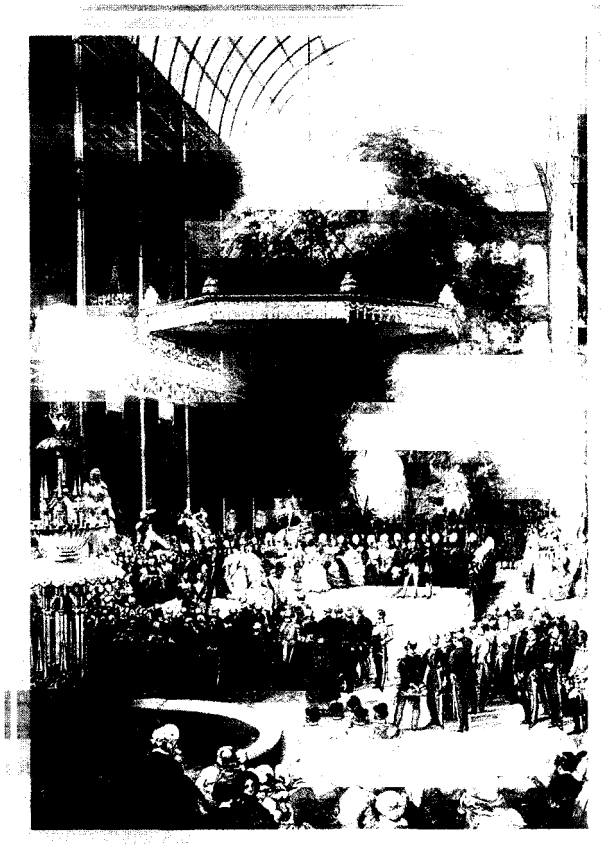
Queen Victoria

Thomas Hardy and Henry James were "Victorian" novelists too. The English drama was brilliantly represented by Irish talents: Oscar Wilde wrote his brilliantly entertaining comedies, Bernard Shaw's plays were more serious but extremely witty.

Painters of the group called the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood expressed the great Victorian nostalgia for the Middle Ages.

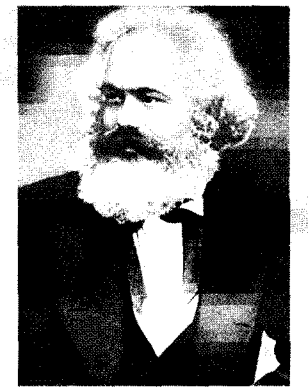
Victorian science was to become greatly influential on the developments in the Modern Time. These three men: K. Marx (1818-1883) – the founder of Communism, Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) – the founder of psycho-analysis and Ch. Darvin – the founder of the modem theory of biological evolution – shocked the world.

Encouraged by Prince Albert, the Queen came into conflict with Palmerston. In 1854 the Crimean War broke out – when Britain and France declared war on Russia in support of Turkey. Prince Albert had supported the policy of preventing the war while Palmerston was given the Parliamentary support as the only Prime Minister capable of winning the War, and the Queen was compelled to accept him as Prime Minister in 1855. Palmerston became the symbol of British superiority in everything: in fights, in trade, in politics.

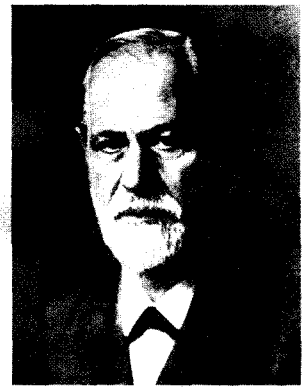


The Great Exhibition in "the Crystal Palace"

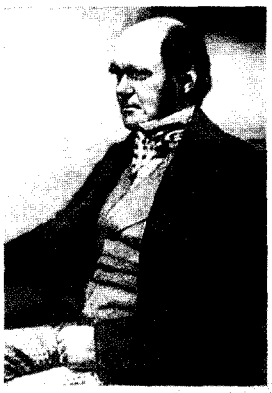
The Crimean War revealed the courage of ordinary soldiers and the incompetence of the command. Newspapers reported the shocking conditions in the army hospitals, the terrible organization of supplies: a load of army boots sent out from Britain turned out to be for the left foot. The war solved nothing but it brought a glory to the remarkable work of **Florence Nightingale,** "the lady with the lamp", who organized hospitals and treatment of the wounded.



Karl Marx



Sigmund Freud



Charles Darvin

In India the British policies aroused a revolt in **1857**, it was known as the **Indian Mutiny;** and it developed into a national movement against foreign rule. There was much violence on both sides. The British brutally punished the defeated rebels, which caused a feeling of animosity that later grew into the Indian Independence movement of the twentieth century.

Queen Victoria suffered a great personal tragedy in 1861 – Prince Consort Albert died of typhoid – and the Queen went into deep mourning, withdrew from public duties and lived in isolation for a decade. Her last thirty-five years of reign were a period of struggle between the new **Liberal Party** led by W. E. Gladstone and **the Conservatives** who were headed after Palmerston by Benjamin Disraeli.

Disraeli, Victoria's favourite prime minister in her later years, had the inspiration to make her Empress of India by the Titles Bill of 1876. In this cartoon he offers her the imperial diadem in place of the British crown

On the great issues which dominated British politics in the last quarter of the 19th century – the extension of the Parliamentary franchise, the limitation of the Power of the House of Lords, social reform, Home Rule for Ireland

and the new aggressive imperialist policy abroad – Queen Victoria strongly sympathized with Conservatives and disapproved of **Gladstone** and Liberals.

B. Disraeli became Prime Minister in 1868 and first held the office for only nine months, but he managed to establish a very close relationship with the Queen and further developed it during his second term of office (1874-1880). B. Disraeli pleased the Queen greatly by persuading Parliament to agree to grant her the title of Emperess of India.

The contest of Disraeli and Gladstone was in full swing, and the two-party system had been already firmly established.

Jingoism (the word for extreme, flag waving patriotism) was encouraged by B. Disraeli, but it was condemned by his rival, the Liberal Leader, William Gladstone.

The Empire, that Great Britain had gained by the middle of the 19th century, was the result of the greatest power that Britain possessed through its command of trade, finance and manufacturing. The colonies were united by English law and by trade, the forms of governing administration varied. The whole population was growing due to the emigration from the British Isles: throughout the 18th, 19th centuries poor and disadvantaged people sought a new and a better life in the colonies. In 1850 New Zealand became the responsibility of the Crown. The population of Australia was expanding rapidly. There were four self-governing colonies: New South Wales, South of Australia, Victoria and Queensland. By the end of the century the Empire was spreading over the continents of Africa, Asia, North America, South America, Australia. The sun did not set on the Empire. The colonial office became a large and important ministry. Imperialism had become popular with the middle classes. The patriots of jingoism sounded more and more aggressive: Cecil Rhodes (the founder of Rhodesia) spoke about the British as a race superior to their colonials. The actions of the imperialists were no less dishonourable: a chain of "small colonial wars" was caused by the aggression of the British imperialism. But the Anglo-Boer War proved to be an unsuccessful surprise to the British people and the proof of a certain weekness of the Empire (1880-1881, 1899-1902).

There was the Irish Problem: the Irish MP's in Parliament demanded Home Rule for Ireland, and Irish extremists committed terrorist actions. Gladstone supported the idea of Home Rule for Ireland – which meant the restoration of the Parliament, that they had lost by the Union with England in 1801 and the control of the Irish local internal affairs. Gladstone's own Liberal Party voted against the Home Rule Bill. The Liberal Party was split and broken. It's role as one of the two major parties in the country was over. The Liberals were to be replaced by the forthcoming **Labour Party** in the constant struggle against the conservatives.

Due to the Industrial Revolution and the strength of the Empire Great Britain was still the greatest power of the world in the last 30 years of the 19th century. Symbolic of its greatness and the expansion of the Empire were the jubilees of Queen Victoria (1887 and 1897), celebrated with great pageantry and enthusiasm of the crowds.

The nations of the New World and a strengthened Europe were becoming industrial rivals of Britain. The European countries were partitioning the African continent, and Britain succeeded in adding great African possessions to her Empire: Nigeria, Kenya, Uganda, New Zealand and Rhodesia; the Sudan was jointly administered by Britain and Egypt.

The United States since the end of the Civil War (1862-1865) had progressed greatly and rapidly, supplied the free-trade England with its food products and were developing into a great power.

The role of the United Kingdom at the end of the Victorian Era, at the end of the 19th century was highly important, jingoistic (shovinistic) imperialism and the financial strength spread over the world through the export of capital by the banks of the City, strongly influenced the internal development of the country: Anglo-Saxon shovinism and superiority complex in the upper spheres and the trade unionism, emigration to the colonies and Dominions, political parties struggle for power were the consequences.

Meanwhile the conflicts and contradictions among the European countries were bringing the world to the brink of the World War, which was destined to bring about great changes in the British role in the world.

Lecture 11. Constitutional Monarchy. Powers and responsibilities. Public image.

The Bill of Rights (1689) was the first legal step towards constitutional monarchy. This Bill prevented the monarch from making laws without Parliament's approval, guaranteed freedom of speech in Parliament, and forbade the king to interfere with the elections of its members. The Toleration Act (1689) granted religious freedom to various Protestant groups. The Act of Settlement (1691) made sure only a Protestant could inherit the crown, provided elections to the House of Commons, and declared that the new laws and taxes must be approved by Parliament and the monarch. The Triennial Act (1694) obliged the king to summon Parliament at least every three years. The Septennial Act (1715) increased the normal term of Parliament's existence from three to seven years and made it possible for the government in office to support the constituencies on which its power depended. The power of Parliament has grown steadily, while the power of the monarch has weakened. In the eighteenth century Britain was more

democratic than any other European state. The Reform Acts of 1832, 1867 and 1884 gave the vote to large numbers of male citizens (female since 1928).

The reigning monarch is not only head of state but also symbol of the unity of the nation. The monarchy is hereditary, the succession passing automatically to the oldest male child, or in the absence of males, to the oldest female offspring of the monarch. By Act of Parliament, the monarch must be a Protestant. In law the monarch is head of the executive and the judiciary, head of the Church of England, and commander-in-chief of the armed forces. The powers of the monarch are to summon, prorogue (or suspend until the next session) and dissolve Parliament; to give royal assent to legislation passed by Parliament; to appoint government ministers, judges, officers of the armed forces, governors, diplomats and bishops of the Church; to confer honours, such as peerages and knighthoods; to remit sentences passed on convicted criminals; to declare war on or make peace with an enemy power. In practice, with the exception of a few honours she is free to decide herself, the monarch discharges all these functions on the direction of the government.

By being a figurehead and representing the country, the monarch performs certain ceremonial duties, leaving the real government more time to get on with the actual job of running the country. The First World War strengthened the monarchy as the anchor of the nation. The members of the royal family take part in actions and activities of national or humanistic importance. Princess Diana visited AIDS victims in hospitals, attracted attention to the problems of lepers during her oversea tours. Anne, the Princess Royal, is famous for her work for the Save the Children Fund, which earned her the respect of the nation. Prince Charles has energetically made himself very well informed and active on a number of issues: homelessness and housing, inner city decay, small business enterprise among the unemployed, and architecture. The monarchy is also important for the economy of the country, providing tourist attraction. Occasions such as the state opening of Parliament, the Queen's official birthday, royal weddings, the changing of the guard give British people a symbol of continuity, and an outlet for the expression of national pride. According to the national surveys, almost 80 per cent of the population are strongly in favour of the monarchy, and fewer than 10 per cent are opposed to it.

Lecture 12. Houses of Parliament

The two Houses of Parliament, the Lords and the Commons, share the same building, the Palace of Westminster. The life of Parliament is divided into periods called 'sessions. At the end of every session Parliament is

‘prorogued’; this means that all business, which has not been completed, is abandoned, and Parliament cannot meet again until it is formally summoned by the Queen. Every new session begins with a clean slate. A session normally lasts for about a year, from late October of one year to about the same date of the next year, though if a general election is held in the spring or summer the normal rhythm of the sessions is interrupted. Parliamentary holidays are: four weeks at Christmas, two each at Easter and Whitsun (Pentecost), and about eleven weeks in the summer (from the beginning of August until the middle of October).

The House of Commons is the dynamic power of the British Parliament. The Commons hold their seats during the life of a Parliament, normally 5 years. They can be elected ether at a general election, or at by-election held when a vacancy occurs in the House. Each parliamentary session begins with the ‘State Opening of Parliament’, a ceremonial occasion, beginning with the royal carriage procession from Buckingham Palace to the Palace of Westminster. The ceremony of opening the Parliament reminds MPs of their special status and of their ‘togetherness’. Approaching the House of Commons, ‘Black Rod’, a servant of the Queen, knocks on the door and demands that the MPs let the Queen come in and tell them what ‘her’ government is going to do in the coming year.

The Speaker is the chief officer of the House of Commons. There is no requirement for the Speaker when elected to be a member of the governing party, but once appointed, he or she is supposed to give up all party politics. The Speaker has two main functions: representing the House in its relations with the Crown, the House of Lords and other authorities and presiding over the House and enforcing the observance of all rules which govern its conduct. The Speaker chairs and controls discussion in the House, decides which MP is going to speak next and makes sure that the rules of procedure are followed. The Speaker also has a number of duties concerning the functions of the House and is in control of the Commons part of the Palace of Westminster and its precincts.

The Question Hour at the beginning of each day’s sitting is the most widely known and admired procedural device of the House of Commons. Two features of this procedure are mainly responsible for its usefulness and success: the use made of the supplementary question and the shortness of all the questions and answers. From thirty to fifty questions and up to a hundred supplementary are asked and answered during the hour each day. Questions must be handed in writing at least 48 hours ahead, to allow ministers and their departmental staff time to prepare an answer.

Traditionally, MPs were not supposed to be specialist politicians. They were ordinary citizens giving some of their time to representing the people. They were not paid until 1911, because sometimes they come from different

walks of life. Even now, British MPs do not get paid very much in comparison with many of their European counterparts. MPs spend most of their time at small group meetings, or talking with colleagues or people who have come from their constituencies, or in the library, or in their offices answering letters or doing other paperwork, or away from Westminster altogether. Weekends are not free either. The MPs are expected to visit their constituencies, where they must make themselves available and accessible for local matters, complaints and attendance at formal functions. It is an extremely busy life that leaves little time for pursuing another career. It does not leave MPs much time for their families either. Politicians have a higher rate of divorce than the (already high) national average.

Parliament has other things to do as well as pass bills. The Government can not legally spend any money without the permission of the House of Commons. The House of Commons still keeps in close contact with taxation.

The House of Lords used to have and has got now no elected members and no fixed numbers. This House had existed long before the House of Commons and the basis of its membership changed very little in 900 years

Throughout history there had been two main categories of members of the house: those who succeeded to hereditary peerages, and thus hold their seats by right of succession. Those who have been created as peers (or bishops); that is, those on whom peerages, with the right to sit in the House of Lords, have been conferred by the Crown on the advice of the Prime Minister in office at the time of the conferment.

About two-thirds have inherited their peerages from their fathers or earlier ancestors in direct line of descent, and are described as 'peers by succession'. Since 1958 nearly all new peerages have been non-hereditary. About twenty new peerages have been given each year (with big variations), nearly half of them to ex-ministers or other people who have been members of the House of Commons, the others to academics, doctors, trade union officials, businessmen and people with other types of experience. Most, but not all, have been aged over fifty and have been quite prominent in their various professions. In the pre-reform House of Lords most work was done by people who have been given peerages, rather than by those who have inherited them.

Despite being a chamber very conservative in nature, the House of Lords faced several successful reforms in the 20th century. These reforms focused on changes either to its powers or to its membership. The Parliament Acts, reforming this chamber, formally restricted the power of the House of Lords. It has no powers at all with 'money bills'; bills enabling the Government to spend money or collect taxes go directly to the Queen for her formal approval after passing the Commons. Any other bill must pass both Houses, and if the Lords fail to agree to it in a form acceptable to the

Commons by the end of a session of Parliament, the Commons may approve it again in the next session and send it to the Queen for her approval. As the new session begins a few days after the end of the previous one, the Lords can in practice delay the enactment of a bill by a few months.

One of the oldest functions of the House of Lords is judicial, though now this is ancillary to its essential role. In fact the House of Lords has become a vigorous and useful element in the political system, particularly in the 1980s, with a Conservative government in office.

The modern House of Lords is a forum for public discussion. Because its members do not depend on party politics for their position, it is sometimes able to bring important matters that the Commons has been ignoring into the open. The debates in the House of Lords are part of the general process of discussion in the nation as a whole, and may stimulate government action. More important still, it is argued, the Lords is a check on a government that, through its control of the Commons, could possibly become too dictatorial.

As a body representing the people as a whole the working House of Lords is in some ways better than the House of Commons in which mutually hostile men of the Conservative and Labour Parties are more predominant than the nation as a whole.

Prime Ministers can give knighthoods (more rarely peerages) to backbench MPs who have served the party long and well. Some honours are wholly non-political. A few (including peerages) are given on the proposal of the Leader of the Opposition, who then expect hard work for the party in the House of Lords in return. Most importantly, the power of choosing people to be honoured is extremely useful to the Prime Minister and Government, and to the whole hierarchy of administration.

Most of its time the House spends on the detailed consideration of the Government bills. Important bills go to the Lords after passing the Commons; some uncontroversial bills go through the Lords before the Commons, so as to balance the timetables of the two Houses during a session of Parliament. With each bill brought from the Commons the Lords debate the principles on second reading but normally agree without any formal vote. Their main work is to approve or reject proposals to amend bills, after discussions that include statements of the Government's wishes, made by a minister from the front bench.

Whatever the party in power, the House makes most decisions without voting, according to the Government's advice, but votes ('divisions') have become much more frequent now.

The administration is vested by the Lord Chancellor as the Head of the House and a number of office holders. These include ministers, government Whips, the Leader and Chief Whip of the main opposition party, and two Chairmen of Committees. These office holders together with the Law Lords

receive salaries. All other members are unpaid, but they are entitled to reimbursement of their expenses, within maximum limits for each day of attendance. The Clerk of the Parliaments is head of the administration. The Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod has ceremonial and royal duties and is charge of security, access and domestic matters.

The House of Commons

The House of Commons is the lower house of the Parliament of the United Kingdom, which also comprises (включает) the Sovereign and the House of Lords (the upper house). Both Commons and Lords meet in the Palace of Westminster. The Commons is a democratically elected body, consisting of 646 members, who are known as "Members of Parliament" or MPs. Members are elected. The House of Commons was originally far less powerful than the House of Lords, but today its legislative powers exceed those of the Lords. The Speaker is the chief officer of the House of Commons. This office has been held continuously since 1377. For hundreds of years, it was the Speaker's job to communicate the decisions of the Commons to the King (that is where the title 'Speaker' comes from). The speaker has two main functions: representing the House in its relations with the Crown, the House of Lords and other authorities and presiding (председательствовать) over the House and enforcing (осуществлять) the observance (соблюдение) of all rules. In fact, the Speaker is, officially, the second most important 'commoner' (non-aristocrat) in the kingdom after the Prime Minister.

The Leader of the House (appointed by the government) agrees with the Prime Minister the general business, including debates, which they want. The Government determines the order in which the business will be taken, after consultation with the Opposition. Twenty opposition days each session allow the Opposition to choose the subject for debate.

When Parliament is sitting the House meets at 2.30 pm on Monday, Tuesday and Thursday, and at 9.30 am on Wednesday and Friday. The proceedings open with Prayers read by the Speaker's Chaplain. After Prayers the Speaker takes the Chair and members of the public can enter the galleries. Visitors are described, in the language of Parliament, as 'strangers'. It is usually possible to get a seat in the Strangers' Gallery of the House of Lords at any time, but it is not so easy to get into the House of Commons Gallery, particularly in the summer, when London is full of tourists.

After any private business (or if there is none - immediately after Prayers) Question time begins and continues until 3.30 pm.

Members and elections

Since 1948, each Member of Parliament represents a single constituency (избирательный округ). There remains a technical distinction between county (графский) constituencies and borough (городской) constituencies, but the only effect of this difference is the amount of money candidates are allowed to spend during campaigns. The boundaries of the constituencies are determined by four permanent and independent Boundary Commissions, one each for England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. The Commissions conduct general reviews of electoral boundaries once every 8 to 12 years, as well as a number of interim reviews. In drawing boundaries, they are required to take into account local government boundaries, but may deviate from this requirement in order to prevent great disparities in the populations of the various constituencies. The proposals of the Boundary Commissions are subject to parliamentary approval, but may not be amended. After the next general review of constituencies, the Boundary Commissions will be absorbed into the Electoral Commission, which was established in 2000. Currently the United Kingdom is divided into 646 constituencies, with 529 in England, 40 in Wales, 59 in Scotland, and 18 in Northern Ireland.

The date of a General Election is the choice of the Prime Minister, but traditionally, it tends to be a Thursday. Each candidate must submit nomination papers signed by ten registered voters from the constituency, and pay a deposit of £500, which is refunded only if the candidate wins at least five per cent of the vote. Minors, Members of the House of Lords, prisoners, and insane persons are not qualified to become Members of the House of Commons. In order to vote, one must be a resident of the United Kingdom as well as a citizen of the United Kingdom, of a British overseas territory, of the Republic of Ireland, or of a member of the Commonwealth of Nations. British citizens living abroad are allowed to vote for 15 years after moving from the United Kingdom. No person may vote in more than one constituency. Once elected, Members of Parliament normally continue to serve until the next dissolution of Parliament. If a Member, however, dies or ceases to be qualified, his or her seat falls vacant.

The term "Member of Parliament" is normally used only to refer to Members of the House of Commons, even though the House of Lords is also a part of Parliament. Members of the House of Commons may use the post-nominal letters "MP". The annual salary of each Member is currently £59,095. Traditionally, MPs were not supposed to be specialist politicians. They were ordinary citizens giving some of their time to representing the people. Ideally, they came from all walks of life, bringing their experience of the everyday world into Parliament with them. This is why MPs were not even paid until 1911. Evidently, this meant that only rich people could afford to be MPs. But many MPs need to have outside earnings, through journalism,

work in the law courts or business, to enable them to live at the standard they expect. Moreover, by European standards, British MPs have incredibly poor facilities. Most MPs have to share an office and a secretary with two or more other MPs.

The ideal of the talented amateur does not, of course, reflect modern reality. Politics in Britain has become professional. Most MPs are full-time politicians, and do another job, if at all, only part-time. The average modern MP spends more time at work than any professional in the country. From Monday to Thursday, the Commons never 'rises' (finishes work of the day) before 22.30, and sometimes it continues sitting for several hours longer. Occasionally, it debates through most of the night.

MPs spend most of their time at small group meetings, or talking with colleagues or people who have come from their constituencies, or in the library, or in their offices answering letters or doing other paperwork, or away from Westminster altogether. Weekends are not free either. The MPs are expected to visit their constituencies, where they must make themselves available and accessible for local matters, complaints and attendance at formal functions. It is an extremely busy life that leaves little time for pursuing another career. It does not leave MPs much time for their families either.

The House of Commons spends about 1,500 hours a year in session. During any year almost every aspect of the nation's business is dealt with in debate. A typical full-day debate lasts about five to six hours, with opening and closing speeches by ministers and shadow ministers.

The House of Commons has six administrative and executive departments. The Clerk's Department advises the Speaker and MPs (including ministers) on the practice and procedure of the House. The Department of the Sergeant-at-Arms deals with order and security in the precincts of the House, ceremonial and communications, and with accommodation matters. The Department of the Library provides MPs with every kind of oral and written information that they may need in connection with their parliamentary duties, including books and documents. The library maintains sophisticated indexing systems and press cutting services. The Public Information Office of the House of Commons is administered by the Department of the Library. The Department of the Official Report is responsible for reporting all the sittings of the House and its standing committees, and producing the Official Report. The Administration Department provides certain common services and coordination for all departments in the administrative fields of finance, establishment and general staffing matters. The Refreshment Department makes available eating and drinking facilities to members and staff of the House, whenever the House is sitting, no matter how late that might be. The six administrative departments

of the House are under the supervision of the House of Commons Commission, composed of MPs, and chaired by the Speaker.

Although it does not elect the Prime Minister, the position of the parties in the House of Commons is of overriding importance. By convention the Prime Minister is answerable to, and must maintain the support of, the House of Commons. Thus, whenever the office of Prime Minister falls vacant, the Sovereign appoints the person most likely to command the support of the House—normally the leader of the largest party in the Commons.

Lecture 13. The House of Lords

The House of Lords used to have and has got now no elected members and no fixed numbers. This House had existed long before the House of Commons and the basis of its membership changed very little in 900 years. Members of the House of Lords (known as peers) consist of Lords Spiritual (senior bishops) and Lords Temporal (lay peers). Law Lords (senior judges) also sit as Lords Temporal.

Throughout history there had been two main categories of members of the house:

1. Those who succeeded to hereditary peerages, and thus hold their seats by right of succession;
2. Those who have been created as peers (or bishops).

Apart from the bishops of the Church of England, who hold seats until they retire, all its members are lords who hold peerages.

About two-thirds have inherited their peerages from their fathers and are described as ‘peers by succession’. Since 1958 nearly all new peerages have been non-hereditary. About twenty new peerages have been given each year (with big variations), nearly half of them to ex-ministers or other people who have been members of the House of Commons, the others to academics, doctors, trade union officials, businessmen and people with other types of experience.

Only about 200 Lords attended nearly every day, another 100 at least half the days of sitting and 300 between a tenth and half the days. At most times there were more women present than in the House of Commons.

The House of Lords faced several successful reforms in the 20th century. These reforms focused on changes either to its powers or to its membership.

In 1922 the Liberal government proposed heavy taxes on the rich. The House of Lords rejected the proposal. This rejection went against a long-standing tradition that the House of Commons had control of financial matters. Two rationalizations were made by statute around 1960. Until 1958

there was a rule, based only on custom, that if a new peerage was given to man, it must be inherited by his eldest son and then by his eldest son, and so on indefinitely. The Life Peerages Act of 1958 made it lawful to give peerages for the lifetime of their holders only, without inheritance, to women as well as men. A second modernization was the introduction of payment of allowances paid to peers for each day's attendance at the House, together with their expenses including travel. A peer who attends every day gets much less than an MP. Another change was a law of 1963 making it possible for a peer to renounce (отказаться) his peerage and so become eligible for election to the House of Commons.

The partially reformed House of Lords met for the first time in November 1999. The removal of most of the hereditary peers has cut the size of the chamber by almost half, from 1330 peers in the unreformed house to 699 in March 2000. As a result, the House is much more politically balanced, the Labour and the Conservative having broadly similar numbers of members. Liberal Democrat peers, crossbenchers (независимый член парламента) and other hold the balance of power in the chamber. A new House of Lords is playing a more active role. There was traditionally a large number of Conservative peers in the Lords but in the current body of the House of Lords 178 were once MPs (Conservatives 80, Labour 60, Liberal Democrats 22, Cross-benchers 11, other 5).

There are now about 400 'created' peers. About fifty are women. In 2003 the longest serving Lord was the Earl Jellicoe, who held the title of the Father of the House (he was born 4.4.1918 and he took his seat in 1939). The youngest Lord is the Lord Freyberg (born 15.12.1970). The average age of all members of the House of Lords was 67. In year 2003 there were 113 female peers (109 Life and 4 elected Hereditary). The Baroness Strange of Knokin was the first female hereditary peer who took her seat in 1963.

Powers: It has no powers at all with 'money bills'. Any bill must pass both Houses, and if the Lords fail to agree to it in a form acceptable to the Commons by the end of a session of Parliament, the Commons may approve it again in the next session and send it to the Queen for her approval. The only surviving discretionary power of the House of Lords is to veto an attempt by the Commons to prolong its own life beyond its five-year term.

One of the oldest functions of the House of Lords is judicial, though now this is ancillary (добавочный) to its essential role. Its work as the highest and final Court of Appeal is now done in a fairly small room of the Palace of Westminster, where the court consists of five of the senior judges to whom peerages have been given. The ten Lords of Appeal in Ordinary are also full members for life of the House of Lords as a legislative body, so both the active and retired judicial lords may sit, speak and vote. Public role: In fact the House of Lords has become a vigorous (решительный) and useful

element in the political system, particularly in the 1980s, with a Conservative government in office.

It is often said that the House of Lords is at its best in its debates, without vote, on topics of general interest, at least once a week. The modern House of Lords is a forum for public discussion. Because its members do not depend on party politics for their position, it is sometimes able to bring important matters that the Commons has been ignoring into the open. More importantly, it is the place where proposals for new laws are discussed. The debates in the House of Lords are part of the general process of discussion in the nation as a whole, and may stimulate government action. More important still, it is argued, the Lords is a check on a government that, through its control of the Commons, could possibly become too dictatorial.

As a body representing the people as a whole the working House of Lords is in some ways better than the House of Commons in which mutually (взаимно) hostile men of the Conservative and Labour Parties.

Seating arrangements: The arrangement of the seats in the Lord chamber is similar to that in the Commons. Long, straight blocks of benches face each other with Government supporters on one side and the Opposition parties on the other. The bishops' bench is on the Government side. But at one end of the chamber, unlike the Commons, there are 'cross-benches' for non-party peers. The Lord Chancellor (the Speaker of the House of Lords) or his deputy sits on the Woolsack (a sort of pouffe below the Sovereign's throne), but does nothing to impose order, and does not even call on people to speak, since the Lords themselves control the proceedings and maintain order. The present-day Speaker is Lord Williams of Mostyn (since July 2001). The House of Lords has also had a female leader – Baroness Young (Conservative) who chaired the House from September 1981 till May 1983.

The Government front bench is occupied by peers who hold office, with the peer concerned with the current business at the Dispatch Box. Most big departments are represented by junior ministers, as their chiefs are in the Commons and cannot be in the Lords chamber except as silent spectators. Five peers hold office as Lords in Waiting and take part as government spokesmen instructed by civil servants. The Government Chief Whip is Captain of the Honourable Corps of Gentlemen-at-Arms, assisted by the Captain of the Queen's Bodyguard of the Yeomen of the Guard, though both these offices are sometimes held by women. As with so many other things, ancient offices, now archaic, have been adapted to a modern function.

How is the work in the House of Lords organized: The normal Monday to Thursday sittings begin with questions to the Government. Most of its time the House spends on the detailed consideration of the Government bills. Important bills go to the Lords after passing the Commons; some uncontroversial bills go through the Lords before the Commons. Their main

work is to approve or reject proposals to amend bills, after discussions that include statements of the Government's wishes, made by a minister from the front bench.

Whatever the party in power, the House makes most decisions without voting, according to the Government's advice, but votes ('divisions') have become much more frequent now.

The administration is vested by the Lord Chancellor as the Head of the House and a number of office holders. These include ministers, government Whips, the Leader and Chief Whip of the main opposition party, and two Chairmen of Committees. These office holders together with the Law Lords receive salaries. All other members are unpaid. The Clerk of the Parliaments is head of the administration. The Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod has ceremonial and royal duties and is charge of security, access and domestic matters.

State honours, including peerages, are awarded twice a year, on January 1 and on the Queen's official birthday in June. More than 100 men are made Knights (for life) each year, and there are about 3,000 Knights now living. They are called Sir – (first name) – surname. Sir Geoffrey Howe, who was Foreign Secretary from 1983 to 1989, may be called 'Sir Geoffrey' or plain 'Howe', but not 'Sir Howe'. The female equivalent is 'Dame', but Knights outnumber Dames by more than ten to one. These titles bring no special privileges and are not hereditary.

Prime Ministers can give knighthoods (рыцарское звание) (more rarely peerages) to MPs who have served the party long and well. Some people with the title 'Lord' are not peers and not members of the House of Lords. In Scotland all judged of the higher courts are Lords (but not peers) and in England and Wales the judges of the Court of Appeal (below the House of Lords) have the judicial title Lord Justice. The sons and daughters of some hereditary peers of the higher ranks have the 'courtesy' title Lord or Lady.

British Government. The Cabinet. Local Authorities

Unless the government is a coalition – the last of these was formed during the war years 1939-45 – governments today are drawn solely (отдельно) from one political party. But this has not always been so. During the nineteenth century leading politicians were far freer to follow their own convictions or ambitions rather than party discipline.

How is the government formed? Following a general election, the Queen invites the leader of the majority (or largest, in the absence of an overall majority) party represented in the Commons, to form a government on her behalf. The PM chooses a committee of ministers called the Cabinet.

This is made up of a selection of senior MPs from the House of Commons, but infrequently members of the House of Lords are appointed. The modern government is arranged in about fifteen departments. Because of the enormous increase in government business, all senior government ministers have junior ministers (Ministers of State or Parliamentary Under-Secretaries) to help with the workload. They are all subject to the rules of collective responsibility and must not disagree publicly with government policy. Altogether there are about fifty ministers of these lower ranks; about forty of them are MPs of the government's party, chosen by the Prime Minister for promotion from the 'back-benchers' of the House of Commons to join the government on the front bench. About ten are members of the House of Lords. The two oldest government departments – The Foreign and Commonwealth Office and the Ministry of Defence are located in Whitehall – the street running from Trafalgar Square to the Houses of Parliament. The term 'Whitehall' is often used to refer to the government as a whole. The phrase, 'the opinion in Whitehall…' refers not only to the opinions of government ministers but also, and perhaps more so, to the opinions of senior civil servants.

What is the Cabinet? Most governments consist of about one hundred ministers, but the essential core (центр) is the Cabinet, the sixteen to twenty-four senior ministers invited by the Prime Minister to belong to it. Each member of the Cabinet is a minister responsible for a government department. Although they are commonly described collectively as 'ministers', nearly all the heads of departments have the official title of 'Secretary of State'. For example, the 'Foreign Secretary'; the one in charge of law and order inside the country is the 'Home Secretary'. Their departments are called the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and the Home Office respectively. The Cabinet meets once a week in Number 10 Downing Street, a rather ordinary-looking house that also contains the Prime Minister's personal office. He or she lives on the top floor. Number 10 is not really as small as it looks: there are big extensions (удлинение) behind the house. The cabinet office helps deal with the complicated machinery of government. It runs a busy communication network, keeping ministers in touch with each other.

What is a 'Shadow Cabinet'? The Government is matched, or shadowed, by the Opposition. The Leader of the Opposition is paid a special state salary, and appoints MPs and a few peers of his party to a 'shadow cabinet', as well as others as shadow ministers below the equivalent of cabinet rank. The main task of the shadow ministers is to criticize the Government.

What is the Privy Council (тайный совет)? The Cabinet is in fact the politically active section of a much bigger and older institution, the Privy

Council. In the eighteenth century, the Privy Council was a body of a hundred or more people, who officially ran the government and were directly responsible to the monarch (but not to each other). The cabinet started as an informal grouping of important ministers and officials of the royal household and had no formal recognition. Over the years, the cabinet gradually took over effective power. In the twentieth century the cabinet has itself become more and more 'official' and publicly recognized. It has also grown in size. It is thought that it is here, and in cabinet committees, that much of the real decision-making takes place. The Privy Council now has about 400 members and is a merely ceremonial organization with no power. It still has some formal function: any meeting consists of the Queen and any three members of the Council. There is no discussion: just signing of prepared documents. When the Queen goes on a foreign tour another member of the royal family is appointed temporarily as her deputy in case an Order-in-Council is needed while she is away.

Prime Minister must give strong leadership, he or she must allow for each minister to exercise responsibility within their field and should encourage collective decision-making on controversial issues, particularly ones beyond the responsibility of one ministry. All ministers except the PM are kept busy looking after their government departments. They don't have time to think about and discuss government policy as a whole. But the PM does, and cabinet committees usually report directly to him or her, not to the cabinet as a whole. Moreover, the cabinet office is directly under the PM's control and works in the same building. As a result, the PM knows more about what is going on than the other ministers do. 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 or she also has informal meetings with one or two ministers alone.

Lecture 14. Prime Minister's position is strengthened by television.

The local divisions in Britain: The country is divided in counties, boroughs and parishes. Counties are the oldest divisions of the country in England and Wales. Most of them existed before the Norman Conquest, although a few have been 'invented' this century (e.g. Humberside). Some counties represent the centres of local government; others have no function in government but are still used for other purposes. Originally counties were called 'shires', and many of them have this word in their names (e.g. Hertfordshire, Hampshire, Leicestershire). From the early Middle Ages, as some villages grew into towns, the Crown gave them 'charters of incorporation' as 'boroughs' or 'cities', with their own mayors and councils. From the late nineteenth century successive changes have been imposed by

Parliament. Some old boroughs have been expanded, some, absorbed by others, have ceased to exist as units of administration, and some have survived little change. These days, the name is used for local government purposes only in London, but many towns still proudly describe themselves as Royal Boroughs.

Within the counties the oldest units are the parishes. These are the local communities or villages, which became established in the Middle Ages, each centred on a local church. Until 1888 they had been important units of administration. Today although they elect parish councils, they have almost no powers of their own. The name ‘parish’ is still used in the organization of the main Christian churches in England.

The structure of local government: There are now two types of structure. One, created in 1974 and changes in 1986, applies to Greater London and the six largest urban areas, which are sometimes called conurbations (большой город с пригородами), the other applies to all the rest of England, with most of its area and three-fifths of its population, and to the whole of Wales. Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own systems, which are not quite the same as that of England and Wales, though the differences are only superficial.

London and the conurbations

Greater London, with nearly seven million people, consists of thirty-two ‘London boroughs’ and the City of London. Most of these boroughs have between 150,000 and 300,000 people. The best known of these is the City of Westminster. A Greater London County was created in 1965. The six main city areas in the midlands and north of England have local systems similar to London’s. These areas, around Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, Sheffield, Leeds and Newcastle upon Tyne, have between one and three million people each. They became metropolitan counties in 1974, but these new counties lost their councils and all their functions in 1986. Now each county’s area consists of boroughs, one of which is the central city, the others being based on the surrounding satellite towns, each expanded so as to include the areas between (which are now mainly built-up). The borough councils run all the local services except police, public transport and a few others that have joint agencies.

Shire counties

England outside London and conurbations consists of thirty-nine ‘shire’ counties. Each county is divided into ‘districts’ (typically about seven per county). Most towns with more than 80,000 people within these counties have become districts. Some districts are called by the names of their biggest

towns, others have newly-invented names chosen by their councils, often after prolonged argument.

In 1974 Wales was reorganized more thoroughly than England. Twelve of the counties with small population were merged into five, all with new Welsh names; the thirteenth, Glamorgan in the industrial south, with half the Welsh population, was divided into three. Some old counties became districts of the new merged counties; other districts were new creations, among them Ogwr, Dwyfor and Glyndwr. In mainland Scotland there are nine regions, divided into fifty-three districts, and three all-purpose authorities for the island groups, Orkney, Shetland and the Western Isles. In Northern Ireland much is administered by area boards, but local services are provided by twenty-six district councils.

Functions: The following grid (схема) shows the organization of local government and names its responsibilities:

Central Government

Cities and large towns in England and Wales	The rest of England and Wales and all of Scotland
36 Metropolitan Districts	10 Regions (Scotland)
32 London Boroughs	47 Counties (England and Wales)
Responsible for:	Responsible for:
* collection of council tax	* collection of council tax
* planning	* planning
* roads and traffic	* roads and safety
* housing	* disposal of rubbish
* building regulations	* education
* safety in public places	* social services
* collection of rubbish	* libraries

* disposal of rubbish
* education
* social services
* libraries
* leisure and recreation

Districts

Responsible for:

In these areas some services, such as transport, the police force and the fire brigade, are run by special authorities, some of whose members are councillors.

* police force
* fire brigade
* housing
* local planning
* collection of rubbish
* leisure and recreation
* safety in public places

Parishes (England)

Communities (Scotland and Wales)

How do the central and local government co-operate: All local authorities derive their existence and their powers and functions from Parliament and the central government. Parliament can take powers away or add to them, and even abolish any particular authority.

The head of a local council: Every local council has its presiding officer, chosen by the whole council for one year only. In metropolitan and London boroughs the presiding officer has the title Mayor or Lord Mayor, in other districts, and in counties, the presiding officer is called ‘chairman’. A mayor or lord mayor is surrounded by some colourful ceremonial as the town’s first citizen. In a big city there may be an official residence, a grand car, and (for use a few times a year) an even grander but less comfortable carriage pulled by four horses and accompanied by outriders and buglers. Ordinary mayors have ceremonial duties too, and in these functions the role of the mayoress still survives – the mayor’s wife or a daughter, sister, niece or friend of a mayor who is a woman or unmarried man.

In districts that are not ‘boroughs’ or ‘cities’, and in counties, the chairman of the council usually has a similar status but less ceremonial.

Mayors and chairmen are chosen each year by vote of the whole council, but often there is no need for a vote because the choice has been agreed in advance through private discussion between the parties. How do local councils work? All local councils work through committees. Each council has a committee for each of the main sections of its work; for example the general management of the schools in a county or a metropolitan district is under the control of the education committee of the county or district council. Some of the committees consist only of members of the council (with the parties represented in the same proportion as in the whole council), and some of them have in addition a few co-opted members The local authorities appoint their own staff. At the middle and higher levels of the local government service the local government officers are usually ready to move from one place to another, and it is often necessary to move in order to get promotion. The appointment of the local council's staff is supposed to have nothing to do with politics. The chairman of a committee has to work closely with the departmental chiefs and senior officers. Individual problems and matters of detail tend to be settled by the officers, though members of the public who are aggrieved can try to get their ward councillors to intervene. Officers' decisions, like those of civil servants, have to agree with the main policies laid down by their committees. The real influence of the officers, as distinct from the elected councillors, varies greatly from one council or department to another.

How are local councils financed? Local councils are allowed to collect one kind of tax. This is a tax based on property. The property tax used to be called 'rates' and was paid only by those who owned property. Its amount varied according to the size and location of the property. All other kinds of taxes are collected by central government. The system of both central and local finance for local government is rather complicated and controversial. Central government normally seeks to supply the extra funds, and to offset the differences in wealth and in service requirements between different areas.

Lecture 15. Political Parties. Electoral system.

Political parties first appeared in Britain at the end of the 17th century. The Conservative and Liberal Parties are the oldest and until the end of the 19th century they were the only parties elected to the House of Commons. The main British political groupings are the Conservative and Labour Parties and the Party of Liberal Democrats. The Conservative Party is the present ruling party, the Labour Party—the opposition to the Conservative—and the party of Liberal Democrats is called 'conservatively oriented'. The Social Democratic Party was formed in 1981 and made an alliance (союз) with the Liberal Party in 1988.

There are also some other parties: the Scottish National and Welsh Nationalist[7] Parties, the Communist Party of Britain and the Communist Party of Great Britain.

Because of the electoral method in use, only two major parties obtain (получают) seats in the House of Commons. People belonging to smaller political parties join one of the larger parties and work from within to make their influence felt. The exception to this are members of the Scottish National(1934) and Welsh Nationalist Parties(1925), who, because their votes are concentrated in specific geographical areas, can manage to win seats although their total support is relatively small.

The Conservative Party

The Conservative Party, often called the Tory Party, is one of those, which can trace its roots back to this early period. Today the Tory Party is that of big business, industry, commerce and landowners. Most of the money needed to run the party comes from large firms and companies. The party represents those who believe in private enterprise as opposed to state-owned undertakings. There is some division within the party itself: the more aristocratic wing and the lower-middle-class group. The Tories are a mixture of the rich and privileged—the monopolists and landowners. The Conservative Party is the most powerful and is often called a party of business directors.

The word 'tory' means an Irish highwayman and was applied to the conservatives by their opponents but later they adopted the name to describe themselves. The Tories opposed the ideas of the French Revolution, Parliamentary Reform and the development of Trade Unionism. They represent colonial policy. In home policy they opposed the tendencies of the Labour Party to nationalize gas, electricity, coal and the railways. Today the Conservative Party can broadly be described as the party of the middle and upper classes.

The Liberal Party

The Conservative Party and the Liberal Party are more than three hundred years old. The Tories called the Liberals 'Whigs'. A 'whig' was a Scottish preacher (проповедник) who could go on for 4 or 5 hours at a time preaching moralising sermons (наставленгия). In the middle of the 19th century the Liberal Party represented the trading and manufacturing classes. Its slogan (лозунг) at that time was 'Civil and Religious Liberty'. William Gladstone headed the first administration (1868—74) and for long periods the Liberals had a Parliamentary majority. During the second half of the 19th century many working people looked at the Liberal Party as an alternative to the Conservatives and their policy.

At the end of the 19th century and in the first two decades of the 20th century with the rise of the Labour Party, the Liberals lost the support of working-class voters. In 1988 the Liberal Party made an alliance with Social Democrats and the Party of Liberal Democrats was formed.

The Labour Party, formed in 1900, was the one which drew away working people's support. It was founded by the Trades Unions, the main aim was to win working class representation in Parliament. When the Labour Government was first elected in 1945 it showed a considerable change in policy from the Tories.

Since 1924 the Labour Party has been in and out of power five times with the Conservatives forming the government for the rest of the time. The social system has remained unchanged. As a result of divisions within the Labour Party its right-wing members broke away in 1981 to form a new organization, the Social Democratic Party. The latter fought the 1983 and 1987 elections in an alliance with the Liberals, but only a small number of their MPs were elected.

The Party of Social and Liberal Democrats formed in 1988 from the Liberal Party and the Social Democrats is a British political party of the centre. It is the third largest party, but it is quite small.

After 1945 further minority parties were born, such as extremely reactionary, anti-immigrant National Front, and the conservationist Ecology Party.

Electoral system

Parliamentary elections must be held every five years, but the Prime Minister can decide on the exact date within those five years. The minimum voting age is 18, and the voting is taken by secret ballot (тайное голосование).

Britain is divided into 651 parliamentary constituencies. Each constituency is a geographical area: the voters who live in the area select one person to serve as a member of the House of Commons. The simple majority system of voting is used in parliamentary elections. This means that the candidate with the largest number of votes in each constituency is elected, although he or she may not necessarily have received more than half the votes cast. Voting is by secret ballot. The following people may vote: all British citizens over the age of 18; citizens of other Commonwealth countries and the Irish Republic who are resident in Britain. British citizens living abroad may vote. Members of the House of Lords, foreigners, mentally ill people in hospitals, prisoners and convicted people may not vote. The election campaign lasts about three weeks. The election is divided on a simple majority – the candidate with most votes wins. An MP who wins by a small number of votes may have more votes against him than for him. Many people think that it is unfair because the wishes of those who voted for the unsuccessful candidates are not represented at all. The British parliamentary system depends on political parties. The political parties choose candidates in elections. The party which wins the majority of seats forms the Government and its leader usually becomes Prime Minister. The Prime Minister chooses

about 20 MPs from his or her party to become the Cabinet of Ministers. Each minister is responsible for a particular area of the government. The second largest party becomes the official opposition with its own leader and 'Shadow cabinet'. Leader of the Opposition is a recognized post in the House of Commons. The official title of the Opposition is Her or His Majesty's Loyal Opposition.

State education

The educational system of Great Britain has developed for over a hundred years. It is a complicated system with wide variations between one part of the country and another. Three partners are responsible for the education service: central government - the Department of Education and Science (DES), local education authorities (LEAs), and schools themselves. The administrative functions of education in each area are in the hands of a Chief Education Officer who is assisted by a deputy and other education officials.

In 1988 the National Curriculum was introduced, which means that there is now greater government control over what is taught in schools. The aim was to provide a more balanced education. The new curriculum places greater emphasis on the more practical aspects of education. The education reform of 1988 also gave all secondary as well as larger primary schools responsibility for managing the major part of their budgets, including costs of stuff. Schools received the right to withdraw from local education authority control if they wished.

The great majority of children (about 9 million) attend Britain's 30,500 state schools. No tuitions fees are payable in any of them. In most primary and secondary state schools boys and girls are taught together. State schools are almost all day schools, holding classes between Mondays and Fridays. The school year normally begins in early September and continues into the following July. The year is divided into three terms of about 13 weeks each.

Compulsory education begins at the age of 5 in England, Wales and Scot land, and 4 in Northern Ireland. All pupils must stay at school until the age of 16. About 9 per cent of pupils in state schools remain at school voluntarily until the age of 18. Education within the state school system comprises either two stages primary and secondary, or three - first schools, middle schools and upper schools.

NURSERY EDUCATION. Education for the under-fives, mainly from 3 to 5, is not compulsory and can be provided in nursery schools and nursery classes attached to primary schools. They give little formal education. The children spend most of their time in some sort of play activity.

PRIMARY EDUCATION. The primary school usually takes children

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

SECONDARY EDUCATION. Secondary education is compulsory up to the age of 16, and pupils may stay on at school voluntarily until they are until 18. Secondary schools are much larger than primary schools and most children (over 80 per cent) go to comprehensive schools. Comprehensive schools admit children of all abilities and provide a wide range of secondary education for all or most of the children in a district.

In some areas children moving from state primary to secondary education are still selected for certain types of school according to their current level of academic attainment. These are grammar and secondary modern schools, to which children are allowed at the age of 11 on the basis of their abilities. Some local education authorities run technical schools (11-18). They provide it general academic education, but place particular emphasis on technical subjects. There are specials schools adapted for the physically and mentally handicapped children. The compulsory period of schooling here is from 5 to 16. Specials schools are normally maintained by state, but a large proportion of special boarding schools are private and fee-charging

The principal examinations taken by secondary school pupils at the age of 16 are those leading to the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). The chief examinations at the age of 18 are leading to the General Certificate of Education Advanced level (GCE A-level). It enables sixth-formers to widen their subject areas and move to higher education.

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

Lecture 16. Private education

A further 600,000 go to 2,500 private schools, often referred to as the "independent sector" where the parents have to pay for their children. Most

independent schools for younger children are also mixed, while the majority of private secondary schools are single-sex.

NURSERY EDUCATION. Education for the under-fives, mainly from 3 to 5, is not compulsory and can be provided in nursery schools and nursery classes attached to primary schools. They give little formal education. The children spend most of their time in some sort of play activity, as far as possible of an educational kind. In any case, there are not enough of them to take all children of that age group. A large proportion of children at this beginning stage is in the private sector where fees are payable.

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

All independent schools have to register with the Department of Education and Science and are subject to inspection by Her Majesty's Inspectorate, which is absolutely independent. About 2,300 private schools provide primary and secondary education. Around 550 most privileged and expensive independent schools are commonly known as public schools.

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

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

Though limited in number (about 500) the public schools are the largest and the most important of the independent (private) schools. They accept pupils at about 12 or 13 years of age usually on the basis of a strict selection. They are fee-paying and very expensive, their standards for entries are very high. Most of them are boys' boarding schools, although some are day schools

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

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

Lecture 17. The Further Education system in the UK

The UK Further Education system is often misunderstood. It provides a range of opportunities for students of all ages to participate in a range of educational (academic) or vocational (professional) courses, many of which are closely linked to the needs and requirements of industry and commerce.

Many courses are designed to enable the students to develop a range of skills to enhance their individual opportunities in the ‘job market’ or can be used as ‘currency’ to access Higher Education programmes.

Further Education courses are available in the college sector, which may be either state sector or independent sector. The independent sector only provides for approximately 5% of the total and is often restrictive in its provision.

Centres of Further Education can be known by a number of different titles and no two colleges are alike, although many offer very similar courses.

There are Colleges of Further Education, Colleges of Technology, Technical Colleges, Colleges of Arts and Technology, Tertiary Colleges, and, for immediate post 16 education, Sixth Form Colleges.

The range of study programmes available in the Further Education sector is very large, at one end of the scale. It provides opportunities for students to learn English, develop study skills and improve communication skills.

At the other end of the scale many colleges offer either full 1st degree

programmes or substantial elements of 1st degree programmes, through their links with the Higher Education and University sector.

International students continuing their studies in the UK have reached their levels of academic attainment using different pathways and models of education.

The differences in their educational experience and understanding of courses available in the UK means that for many, some form of Further Education programme is both necessary and appropriate.

Many international students cannot, for example, satisfy the entry requirements of universities because they lack the necessary study skills, qualifications, levels of English proficiency, or the knowledge required for specialist courses.

Further education colleges are well placed to service the above needs of students in a number of different ways. They provide the following:

Courses in English

Courses in English are available to students at all levels, from general English courses through to specialised professional programmes for overseas teachers of English.

GCSE and 'A' level programmes

There is a wide portfolio of GCSE courses which aim to add to, or improve, qualifications gained at school. 'A' levels are the most popular form of entry to Higher Education.

They give a wide range of choice and are acceptable at all levels of HE by UK institutions and others worldwide. The 'A' level programme is demanding and often found to be difficult for students for whom English is not their first language. These programmes run over one, one and a half, or two years.

Foundation and Access programmes to Higher Education programmes

These satisfy the university entry criteria in the following areas of study: science, engineering, humanities and medicine. Usually lasting one year, they combine study skills, communication and language application with the main areas of study.

Many Further Education and Sixth Form colleges provide Foundation and Access courses affiliated to specific UK universities and degree courses, making entry to an undergraduate programme easier.

Many universities have their own Foundation programme, designed specifically for a range of degree programmes at their own particular university and will have a special emphasis.

GNVQ Foundation, Intermediate and Advanced programmes
General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs) provide an alternative to academic ('A' level) qualifications for students, who can then go to a university, or go directly into a specific job area.

Popular areas include:

- Art and Design
- Business
- Health and Social Care
- Leisure and Tourism
- Manufacturing
- Built Environment
- Hospitality and Catering
- Science
- Engineering
- Information Technology

GNVQs offer a broad-based vocational education at three levels:

- Foundation (equivalent to four GCSEs grades D-E or NVQ level 1)
- Intermediate (equivalent to four GCSEs grades A-C or BTEC First of NVQ level 2)
- Advanced (equivalent to two 'A' levels, BTEC National or NVQ level 3)

All levels prepare you for a range of jobs and further study. Advanced level can lead to Higher Education and can be studied alongside 'A' levels and 'AS' levels (academic qualifications).

NVQ Programmes at all levels

NVQs are awarded by UK professional bodies in the same way as GNVQs. They are not as broad-based as GNVQs, but as specifically work-related. Students are assessed by their performance in the work place.

Most colleges offer NVQs if competence can be assessed in a simulated work environment on site in the college, such as for office-related subjects, hairdressing and beauty therapy, catering and hotel operations, and engineering.

National Diploma Programmes

These are for students who are committed to a particular discipline, eg Electronics, Information Technology. These courses are designed to develop a range of skills as well as providing the underpinning knowledge in the specificarea.

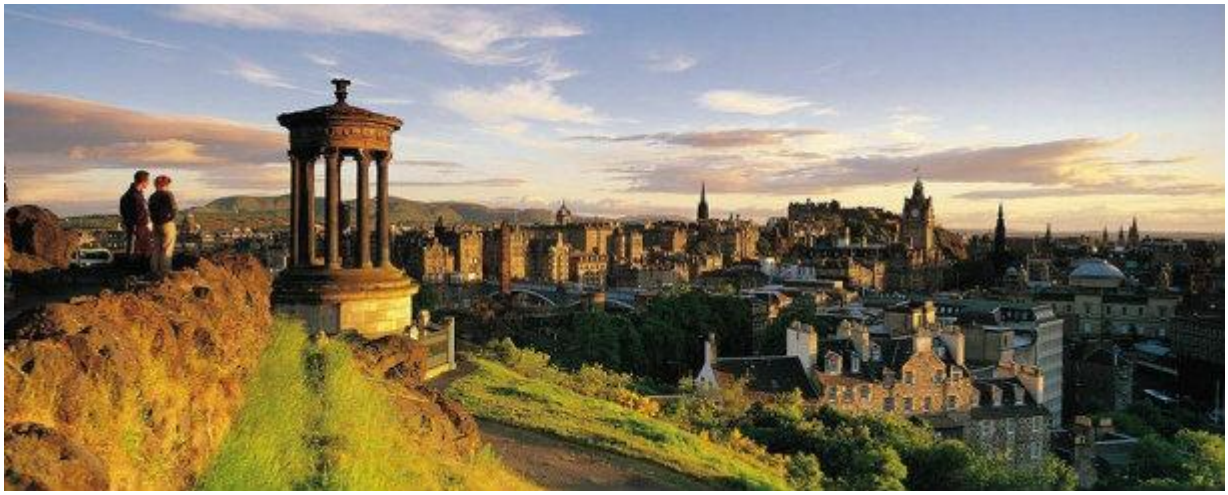
Higher National Diploma Programmes

These are more vocationally based courses and offer more gradual progress into Higher Education.

Students on this progression of study can continue accessing the educational support facilities/mechanisms which were available during the Foundation programme.

Successful students at this level can gain enhanced or guaranteed entry onto an undergraduate programme.

Lecture 18. Education in England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales



In the UK, there are different education systems for England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales.

- In England, legislative responsibility for education lies with the UK Parliament at Westminster.

- For Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, responsibility for education law and guidance has been devolved to the Scottish Parliament and the Welsh and Northern Irish Assemblies.

In general, these four systems are very similar and offer many of the same courses and qualifications, but there are some differences.

In the Your study options section, we have summarised general information about UK education, and pointed out some of the main differences between the four systems.
If you would like more detailed information about each national education system, please visit the relevant government website for England, Northern Ireland and Wales. For university-level education in Scotland, visit the Study in Scotland website, or for general information about other types of education in Scotland, visit the government website for Scotland. For information on further and higher education in Northern Ireland visit www.delni.gov.uk.
1 EDUCATION SYSTEM IN THE UK Across the UK there are five stages of education: early years, primary, secondary, Further Education (FE) and Higher Education (HE). Education is compulsory for all children between the ages of 5 (4 in Northern Ireland) and 16. FE is not compulsory and covers non-advanced education which can be taken at further (including tertiary) education colleges and HE institutions (HEIs). The fifth stage, HE, is study beyond GCE A levels and their equivalent which, for most full-time students, takes place in universities and other HEIs and colleges. Early Years Education In England since September 2010, all three and four year olds are entitled to 15 hours of free nursery education for 38 weeks of the year. Early Years education takes place in a variety of settings including state nursery schools, nursery classes and reception classes within primary schools, as well as settings outside the state sector such as voluntary pre-schools, privately run nurseries or childminders. In recent years there has been a major expansion of Early Years education and childcare. The Education Act 2002 extended the National Curriculum for England to include the Foundation Stage which was first introduced in September 2000, and covered children's education from the age of 3 to the end of the reception year, when children are aged 5. The Early Years Foundation Stage (EYFS) came into force in September 2008, and is a single regulatory and quality framework for the provision of learning, development and care for children in all registered early years settings between birth and the academic year in which they turn 5. The EYFS Profile (EYFSP) is the statutory assessment of each child's development and learning achievements at the end of the academic year in which they turn 5. In Wales, children are entitled to a free part-time place the term following a child's third birthday until they enter statutory education. These places can be in a maintained school or a non-maintained setting such as a voluntary playgroup, private nursery or childminder which is approved

to provide education. The Foundation Phase is a holistic developmental curriculum for 3 to 7-year-olds based on the needs of the individual child to meet their stage of development. Statutory rollout of the Foundation Phase framework started in September 2008 and the process was completed in the 2011/12 school year. In Scotland, education typically starts with pre-school. Local authorities have a duty to secure a part-time funded place for every child starting from the beginning of the school term after the child's third birthday. Pre-school education can be provided by local authority centres, or private and voluntary providers under a partnership arrangement. In Scotland, early years education is called ante-pre-school education for those who are start receiving their pre-school education in the academic year after their 3rd birthday until the end of that academic year (note: depending on when the child turned 3 years of age, some children may only receive part of an academic year's worth of ante-pre-school education (e.g. 1 term), whereas other children may receive an entire academic year of pre-school education). All children are entitled to receive a full academic year's worth of pre-school education in the academic year before they are eligible to, and expected to, start primary school. The commitment in the Northern Ireland Executive's Programme for Government is to 'ensure that at least one year of pre-school education is available to every family that wants it.' Funded pre-school places are available in statutory nursery schools and units and in those voluntary and private settings participating in the Pre-School Education Expansion Programme (PSEEP). Places in the voluntary/private sector 2 are part-time whilst, in the statutory nursery sector, both full-time and part-time places are available. Pre-school education is designed for children in the year immediately before they enter Primary 1. Taking into account the starting age for compulsory education in Northern Ireland this means children are aged between 3 years 2 months and 4 years 2 months in the September in which they enter their final pre-school year. The Programme incorporates a number of features designed to promote high quality pre-school education provision in all settings including a curriculum which is common to all those involved in pre-school education Primary The primary stage covers three age ranges: nursery (under 5), infant (5 to 7 or 8) (Key Stage 1) and junior (up to 11 or 12) (Key Stage 2) but in Scotland and Northern Ireland there is generally no distinction between infant and junior schools. In Wales, although the types of school are the same, the Foundation Phase has brought together what was previously known as the Early Years (from 3 to 5-year-olds) and Key Stage 1 (from 5 to 7-year-olds) of the National Curriculum to create one phase of education for children aged between three and seven. In England, primary schools generally cater for 4-11 year olds. Some primary schools may have a nursery or a children's centre attached to cater for younger children. Most public sector primary schools take both boys and girls in mixed classes. It is

usual to transfer straight to secondary school at age 11 (in England, Wales and Northern Ireland) or 12 (in Scotland), but in England some children make the transition via middle schools catering for various age ranges between 8 and 14. Depending on their individual age ranges middle schools are classified as either primary or secondary. The major goals of primary education are achieving basic literacy and numeracy amongst all pupils, as well as establishing foundations in science, mathematics and other subjects. Children in England and Northern Ireland are assessed at the end of Key Stage 1 and Key Stage 2. In Wales, all learners in their final year of Foundation Phase and Key Stage 2 must be assessed through teacher assessments. Secondary In England, public provision of secondary education in an area may consist of a combination of different types of school, the pattern reflecting historical circumstance and the policy adopted by the local authority. Comprehensive schools largely admit pupils without reference to ability or aptitude and cater for all the children in a neighbourhood, but in some areas they co-exist with other types of schools, for example grammar schools. Academies, operating in England, are publicly funded independent schools. Academies benefit from greater freedoms to help innovate and raise standards. These include freedom from local authority control, the ability to set their own pay and conditions for staff, freedom around the delivery of the curriculum and the ability to change the lengths of terms and school days. The Academies Programme was first introduced in March 2000 with the objective of replacing poorly performing schools. Academies were established and driven by external sponsors, to achieve a transformation in education performance. The Academies Programme was expanded through legislation in the Academies Act 2010. This enables all maintained primary, secondary and special schools to apply to become an Academy. The early focus is on schools rated outstanding by Ofsted and the first of these new academies opened in September 2010. These schools do not have a sponsor but instead are expected to work with underperforming schools to help raise standards. In Wales, secondary schools take pupils at 11 years old until statutory school age and beyond. 3 Education authority secondary schools in Scotland are comprehensive in character and offer six years of secondary education; however, in remote areas there are several two-year and four-year secondary schools. In Northern Ireland, post-primary education consists of 5 compulsory years and two further years if students wish to remain in school to pursue post GCSE / Level 2 courses to Level 3. Ministerial policy is that transfer should be on the basis of nonacademic criteria, however legally post primary schools can still admit pupils based on academic performance. At the end of this stage of education, pupils are normally entered for a range of external examinations. Most frequently, these are GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and

Standard Grades in Scotland, although a range of other qualifications are available. In Scotland pupils study for the National Qualifications (NQ) Standard grade (a two-year course leading to examinations at the end of the fourth year of secondary schooling) and NQ Higher grade, which requires at least a further year of secondary schooling. From 1999/00 additional new NQ were introduced in Scotland to allow greater flexibility and choice in the Scottish examination system. NQ include Intermediate 1 & 2 designed primarily for candidates in the fifth and sixth year of secondary schooling, however these are used in some schools as an alternative to Standard Grades. Further Education Further education may be used in a general sense to cover all non-advanced courses taken after the period of compulsory education. It is post-compulsory education (in addition to that received at secondary school), that is distinct from the education offered in universities (higher education). It may be at any level from basic skills training to higher vocational education such as City and Guilds or Foundation Degree. A distinction is usually made between FE and higher education (HE). HE is education at a higher level than secondary school. This is usually provided in distinct institutions such as universities. FE in the United Kingdom therefore includes education for people over 16, usually excluding universities. It is primarily taught in FE colleges, work-based learning, and adult and community learning institutions. This includes post-16 courses similar to those taught at schools and sub-degree courses similar to those taught at higher education (HE) colleges (which also teach degree-level courses) and at some universities. Colleges in England that are regarded as part of the FE sector include General FE (GFE) and tertiary colleges, Sixth form colleges, Specialist colleges (mainly colleges of agriculture and horticulture and colleges of drama and dance) and Adult education institutes. In addition, FE courses may be offered in the school sector, both in sixth form (16-19) schools, or, more commonly, sixth forms within secondary schools. In England, further education is often seen as forming one part of a wider learning and skills sector, alongside workplace education, prison education, and other types of non-school, non-university education and training. Since June 2009, the sector is overseen by the new Department for Business, Innovation and Skills, although some parts (such as education and training for 14-19 year olds) fall within the remit of the Department for Education. 4 Higher Education Higher education is defined as courses that are of a standard that is higher than GCE A level, the Higher Grade of the SCE/National Qualification, GNVQ/NVQ level 3 or the Edexcel (formerly BTEC) or SQA National Certificate/Diploma. There are three main levels of HE course: (i) Postgraduate courses leading to higher degrees, diplomas and certificates (including Doctorate, Masters (research and taught), Postgraduate diplomas and certificates as well as postgraduate certificates of education (PGCE) and professional qualifications) which usually require a

first degree as entry qualification. (ii) Undergraduate courses which include first degrees (honours and ordinary), first degrees with qualified teacher status, enhanced first degrees, first degrees obtained concurrently with a diploma, and intercalated first degrees (where first degree students, usually in medicine, dentistry or veterinary medicine, interrupt their studies to complete a one-year course of advanced studies in a related topic). (iii) Other undergraduate courses which include all other higher education courses, for example SVQ or NVQ: Level 5, Diploma (HNC/D level for diploma and degree holders), HND (or equivalent), HNC (or equivalent) and SVQ or NVQ: Level 4 and Diplomas in HE. As a result of the Further and Higher Education Act 1992, former polytechnics and some other HEIs were designated as universities in 1992/93. Students normally attend HE courses at HEIs, but some attend at FE colleges.

Lecture 19. List of English Speaking Countries

Antigua
Australia
Bahamas
Bahrain
Bangladesh
Barbados
Barbuda
Belize
Bermuda
Botswana
Canada (except Quebec)
Commonwealth Caribbean
Dominica
Fiji
Ghana
Grand Cayman Islands
Grenada
Guyana
Irish Republic
Jamaica
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Malawi
New Zealand
Nigeria
Papua New Guinea
Sierra Leone
Singapore
South Africa (If Afrikaans is not native language)
St. Kitts & Nevis
St. Lucia
St. Vincent & Grenadines
Swaziland
Tanzania
Tobago
Trinidad
Uganda
United Kingdom
United States
Virgin Islands
Zambia
Zimbabwe

This is a list of countries for which English may be a native language.

However, it is quite possible that individuals from countries on this list may *not* be native speakers of English. If you are considering a graduate student for a teaching assistantship that involves the direct instruction of undergraduate students, they need to be certified in oral English proficiency by the OEPT, TOEFL iBT, or IELTS, unless they 1) are natives of the countries listed above *and* 2) grew up speaking English in their home.

Majority English-speaking countries

Additional major English-speaking countries can also be found in the Caribbean and Pacific. Former American and British colonies include Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Belau, Belize, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Dominica, Federation of Micronesia, Grenada, Guam, Guyana, Jamaica, Johnston, Montserrat, Northern Marianas, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent & Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago, Turks and Caicos Islands, and the United States Virgin Islands. Though these islands are small, they are culturally and linguistically tied to the UK or USA. A number of countries use English as an official language as a unifying force despite the influence of major local languages in countries such as Botswana, Fiji, Ghana, Kenya, India, Hong Kong, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Malaysia, Malta, Mauritius, Nigeria, Pakistan, Philippines, Rwanda, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Samoa, Singapore, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Tanzania, Tonga, Uganda, Zimbabwe and Zambia. English may also be a widely-used unofficial language, as is the case in Bangladesh.

Australia

Australia (/əˈstreɪljə/), officially the **Commonwealth of Australia**, is a country in the Southern Hemisphere comprising the mainland of the Australian continent, the island of Tasmania, and numerous smaller islands in the Indian and Pacific Oceans. It is the world's sixth-largest country by total area. Neighbouring countries include Indonesia, East Timor, and Papua New Guinea to the north; the Solomon Islands, Vanuatu, and New Caledonia to the north-east; and New Zealand to the south-east.

For at least 40,000 years before European settlement in the late 18th century, Australia was inhabited by indigenous Australians, who belonged to one or more of roughly 250 language groups.[14][15] After discovery by Dutch explorers in 1606, Australia's eastern half was claimed by Great Britain in 1770 and initially settled through penal transportation to the colony of New

South Wales from 26 January 1788. The population grew steadily in subsequent decades; the continent was explored and an additional five self-governing Crown Colonies were established.

On 1 January 1901, the six colonies federated, forming the Commonwealth of Australia. Since Federation, Australia has maintained a stable liberal democratic political system which functions as a federal parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy. The federation comprises six states and several territories. The population of 22.7 million is heavily concentrated in the Eastern states and is highly urbanised.

A highly developed country, Australia is the world's thirteenth largest economy and has the world's seventh-highest per capita income. Australia's military expenditure is the world's twelfth largest. With the second-highest human development index globally, Australia ranks highly in many international comparisons of national performance, such as quality of life, health, education, economic freedom, and the protection of civil liberties and political rights. Australia is a member of the G20, OECD, WTO, APEC, UN, Commonwealth of Nations, ANZUS, and the Pacific Islands Forum.

Republic of Ireland

Ireland (/ˈaɪərlənd/ or /ˈɑrlənd/; Irish: *Éire*, described as the **Republic of Ireland** (Irish: *Poblacht na hÉireann*), a state in Europe occupying approximately five-sixths of the island of Ireland, which was partitioned in 1921. It shares its only land border with Northern Ireland, a part of the United Kingdom on the north-east of the island. The state is otherwise surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean, with the Celtic Sea to the south, St George's Channel to the south east, and the Irish Sea to the east.

In 1801, the kingdoms of Ireland and Great Britain merged to form the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The majority of the island seceded the United Kingdom in 1922 following a guerrilla war. The Anglo-Irish Treaty concluded this war and established the Irish Free State as a self-governing dominion within the British Commonwealth. Northern Ireland chose to remain as part of the United Kingdom. The independent state increased in sovereignty through the 1931 Statute of Westminster and the abdication crisis of 1936. A new constitution introduced in 1937 declared it a sovereign state named *Ireland* (*Éire*). The Republic of Ireland Act proclaimed Ireland a republic in 1949 by removing the remaining duties of the monarch. Ireland consequently withdrew from the British Commonwealth.

While it ranks among the wealthiest countries in the world today in terms of GDP, Ireland was one of the most impoverished countries in Europe while it was a part of the United Kingdom and for decades following independence. Economic protectionism was dismantled in the late 1950s and Ireland joined the European Economic Community in 1973. Economic liberalism from the late 1980s onwards resulted in rapid economic expansion, particularly from 1995 to 2007, which became known as the Celtic Tiger period. An unprecedented financial crisis beginning in 2008 ended this era of rapid economic growth.

Today, Ireland is a constitutional republic governed as a parliamentary democracy with an elected president serving as head of state. It is a "very highly developed" country with the fifth highest Human Development Index. The country is highly ranked for press freedom, economic freedom and democracy and political freedom. Ireland is a member of the European Union, the Council of Europe, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, the World Trade Organisation and the United Nations.

New Zealand

New Zealand (**Aotearoa** in Māori) is an island country in the south-western Pacific Ocean comprising two main landmasses (the North Island and the South Island) and numerous smaller islands. The country is situated some 1,500 kilometres (900 mi) east of Australia across the Tasman Sea, and roughly 1,000 kilometres (600 mi) south of the Pacific island nations of New Caledonia, Fiji, and Tonga. Due to its remoteness, it was one of the last lands to be settled by humans. During its long isolation New Zealand developed a distinctive fauna dominated by birds, many of which became extinct after the arrival of humans and introduced mammals. With a mild maritime climate, the land was mostly covered in forest. The country's varied topography and its sharp mountain peaks owe much to the uplift of land and volcanic eruptions caused by the Pacific and Indo-Australian Plates clashing underfoot.

Polynesians settled New Zealand in 1250–1300 AD and developed a distinctive Māori culture, and Europeans first made contact in 1642 AD. The introduction of potatoes and muskets triggered upheaval among Māori early during the 19th century, which led to the inter-tribal Musket Wars. In 1840 the British and Māori signed a treaty making New Zealand a colony of the British Empire. Immigrant numbers increased sharply and conflicts escalated into the New Zealand Wars, which resulted in much Māori land being confiscated in the mid North Island. Economic depressions were followed by periods of political reform, with women gaining the vote during the 1890s,

and a welfare state being established from the 1930s. After World War II, New Zealand joined Australia and the United States in the ANZUS security treaty, although the United States later suspended the treaty after New Zealand banned nuclear weapons. New Zealanders enjoyed one of the highest standards of living in the world in the 1950s, but the 1970s saw a deep recession, worsened by oil shocks and the United Kingdom's entry into the European Economic Community. The country underwent major economic changes during the 1980s, which transformed it from a protectionist to a liberalised free-trade economy. Markets for New Zealand's agricultural exports have diversified greatly since the 1970s, with once-dominant exports of wool being overtaken by dairy products, meat, and recently wine.

The majority of New Zealand's population is of European descent; the indigenous Māori are the largest minority, followed by Asians and non-Māori Polynesians. English, Māori and New Zealand Sign Language are the official languages, with English predominant. Much of New Zealand's culture is derived from Māori and early British settlers. Early European art was dominated by landscapes and to a lesser extent portraits of Māori. A recent resurgence of Māori culture has seen their traditional arts of carving, weaving and tattooing become more mainstream. Many artists now combine Māori and Western techniques to create unique art forms. The country's culture has also been broadened by globalisation and increased immigration from the Pacific Islands and Asia. New Zealand's diverse landscape provides many opportunities for outdoor pursuits and has provided the backdrop for a number of big budget movies.

New Zealand is organised into 11 regional councils and 67 territorial authorities for local government purposes; these have less autonomy than the country's long defunct provinces did. Nationally, executive political power is exercised by the Cabinet, led by the Prime Minister. Queen Elizabeth II is the country's head of state and is represented by a Governor-General. The Queen's Realm of New Zealand also includes Tokelau (a dependent territory); the Cook Islands and Niue (self-governing but in free association); and the Ross Dependency, New Zealand's territorial claim in Antarctica. New Zealand is a member of the Pacific Islands Forum, Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation, United Nations, Commonwealth of Nations, and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.