L. KNODEL

THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN & NORTHERN IRELAND

TEXTBOOK II

KIEV - 2019

УДК 811.111 81'42 908(075.8)
ББК 81.2-5;26.89(2/8)(4Вел)(7)

Кнодель Л. В.

К53

The United Kingdom of Great Britain & Northern Ireland (Лингвострановедение). Книга II : учебник / Л. В. Кнодель. – Киев : ФОП Кандиба Т. П., 2019. – 247 с.

Великобритания – одно из крупнейших государств Европы, ядерная держава с 1952 года (Договор о нераспространении ядерного оружия, 1968), постоянный член Совета Безопасности ООН, бывшая метрополия Британской империи.

Британский монарх является главой 15 независимых государств и главой Содружества государств. Форма правления – парламентарная монархия. Форма государственного устройства – квази-унитарное государство, где с конца XX века 3 из 4 составляющих стран (Шотландия, Северная Ирландия, Уэльс) обладают правами ограниченной автономии. Столица – город Лондон – один из крупнейших городов Европы и финансово-экономических центров мира.

Официальные языки: английский (де-факто), в Уэльсе – валлийский.

УДК 811.111 81'42 908(075.8)
ББК 81.2-5;26.89(2/8)(4Вел)(7)

© Кнодель Л. В., 2019
© Видавець, ФОП Кандиба Т. П., 2019

CHAPTER VI.
ECONOMICAL OUTLINE OF THE UK
UNIT I. ECONOMIC HISTORY

INTRODUCTION

The economic history of the UK deals with the economic history of England and Great Britain from 1500 to the early 21st century. (For earlier periods see Economy of England in the Middle Ages and Economic history of Scotland).

Economy of England in the Middle Ages

The medieval English saw their economy as comprising three groups – the clergy, who prayed; the knights, who fought; and the peasants, who worked the land.

The economy of England in the Middle Ages, from the Norman invasion in 1066, to the death of Henry VII in 1509, was fundamentally agricultural, though even before the invasion the market economy was important to producers. Norman institutions, including serfdom, were superimposed on an existing system of open fields and mature, well-established towns involved in international trade.

Over the next five centuries the economy would at first grow and then suffer an acute crisis, resulting in significant political and economic change. Despite economic dislocation in urban and extraction economies, including shifts in the holders of wealth and the location of these economies, the economic output of towns and mines developed and intensified over the period. By the end of the period, England had a weak government, by later standards, overseeing an economy dominated by rented farms controlled by gentry, a thriving community of indigenous English merchants and corporations.

The 12th and 13th centuries saw a huge development of the English economy. This was partially driven by the growth in the population from around 1.5 Ma at the time of the creation of the Domesday Book in 1086 to between 4 and 5 Ma in 1300. England remained a primarily agricultural economy, with the rights of major landowners and the duties of serfs increasingly enshrined in English law. More land, much of it at the expense of the royal forests, was brought into production to feed the growing population or to produce wool for export to Europe.

Many hundreds of new towns, some of them planned, sprung up across England, supporting the creation of guilds, charter fairs and other important medieval institutions. The descendants of the Jewish financiers who had first come to England with William the Conqueror played a significant role in the growing economy, along with the new Cistercian and Augustinian religious orders that came to become major players in the wool trade of the north. Mining increased in England, with the silver boom of the 12th century helping to fuel a fast-expanding currency.

Economic growth began to falter by the end of the 13th century, owing to a combination of over-population, land shortages and depleted soils. The loss of life in the Great Famine of 1315-17 shook the English economy severely and population growth ceased; the first outbreak of the Black Death in 1348 then killed around half the English population, with major implications for the post-plague economy. The agricultural sector shrank, with higher wages, lower prices and shrinking profits leading to the final demise of the old demesne system and the advent of the modern farming system of cash rents for lands.The Peasants Revolt of 1381 shook the older feudal order and limited the levels of royal taxation considerably for a century to come. The 15th century saw the growth of the English cloth industry and the establishment of a new class of international English merchant, increasingly based in London & the South-West, prospering at the expense of the shrinking economy of the eastern towns.

These new trading systems brought about the end of many of the international fairs & the rise of the chartered company. Together with improvements in metalworking and shipbuilding, this represents the end of the medieval economy; the beginnings of the early modern period in English economics.

Invasion & the early Norman period (1066-1100)

William the Conqueror invaded England in 1066, defeating the Anglo-Saxon King Harold Godwinson at the Battle of Hastings and placing the country under Norman rule. This campaign was followed by fierce military operations known as the Harrying of the North in 1069-70, extending Norman authority across the north of England. William's system of government was broadly feudal in that the right to possess land was linked to service to the king, but in many other ways the invasion did little to alter the nature of the English economy. Most of the damage done in the invasion was in the north and the west of England, some of it still recorded as "wasteland" in 1086.

Many of the key features of the English agricultural and financial system remained in place in the decades immediately after the conquest

Agriculture & mining

Agriculture formed the bulk of the English economy at the time of the Norman invasion.

20 years after the invasion, 35% of England was covered in arable land, 25% was put to pasture, 15% was covered by woodlands and the remaining 25% was predominantly moorland, fens and heaths. Wheat formed the single most important arable crop, but rye, barley and oats were cultivated extensively. In the more fertile parts of the country, such as the Thames valley, the Midlands and the east of England, legumes and beans were also cultivated. Sheep, cattle, oxen and pigs were kept on English holdings, although most of these breeds were much smaller than modern equivalents and most would have been slaughtered in winter.

Manorial system

In the century prior to the Norman invasion, England's great estates, owned by the king, bishops, monasteries and thegns, had been slowly broken up as a consequence of inheritance, wills, marriage settlements or church purchases. Most of the smaller landowning nobility lived on their properties and managed their own estates. The pre-Norman landscape had seen a trend away from isolated hamlets and towards larger villages engaged in arable cultivation in a band running north-south across England.These new villages had adopted an open field system in which fields were divided into small strips of land, individually owned, with crops rotated between the field each year and the local woodlands and other common lands carefully managed.

Agricultural land on a manor was divided between some fields that the landowner would manage and cultivate directly, called demesne land, the majority of the fields that would be cultivated by local peasants, who would pay rent to the landowner either through agricultural labour on the lord's demesne fields or through cash or produce. Around 6,000 watermills of varying power and efficiency had been built in order to grind flour, freeing up peasant labour for other more productive agricultural tasks. The early English economy was not a subsistence economy and many crops were grown by peasant farmers for sale to the early English towns.

The Normans initially did not significantly alter the operation of the manor or the village economy.

William reassigned large tracts of land amongst the Norman elite, creating vast estates in some areas, particularly along the Welsh border and in Sussex. The biggest change in the years after the invasion was the rapid reduction in the number of slaves being held in England.

In the 10th century slaves had been very numerous, although their number had begun to diminish as a result of economic and religious pressure. Nonetheless, the new Norman aristocracy proved harsh landlords. The wealthier, formerly more independent Anglo-Saxon peasants found themselves rapidly sinking down the economic hierarchy, swelling the numbers of unfree workers, or serfs, forbidden to leave their manor and seek alternative employment. Those Anglo-Saxon nobles who had survived the invasion itself were rapidly assimilated into the Norman elite or economically crushed.

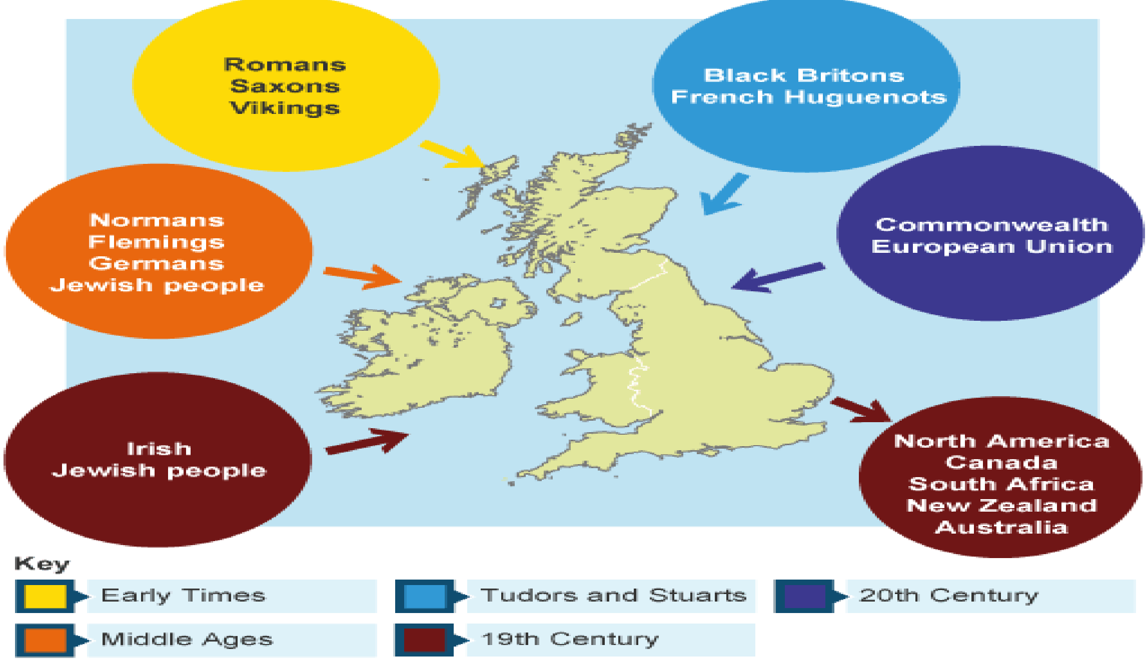
Creation of the forests

The Normans established the royal forests. In Anglo-Saxon times there had been special woods for hunting called "hays", but the Norman forests were much larger and backed by legal mandate.

The new forests were not necessarily heavily wooded but were defined instead by their protection and exploitation by the crown. The Norman forests were subject to special royal jurisdiction; forest law was "harsh and arbitrary, a matter purely for the King's will". Forests were expected to supply the king with hunting grounds, raw materials, goods and money.

Revenue from forest rents and fines came to become extremely significant and forest wood was used for castles and royal ship building. Several forests played a key role in mining, such as the iron mining and working in the Forest of Dean and lead mining in the Forest of High Peak.

Several other groups bound up economically with forests; many monasteries had special rights in particular forests, for example for hunting or tree felling.The royal forests were accompanied by the rapid creation of locally owned parks and chases.



Trade & Manufacturing & Towns

Although primarily rural, England had a number of old, economically important towns in 1066.

A large amount of trade came through the Eastern towns, including London, York, Winchester, Lincoln, Norwich, Ipswich and Thetford. Much of this trade was with France, the Low Countries and Germany, but the North-East of England traded with partners as far away as Sweden. Cloth was already being imported to England before the invasion through the mercery trade.

Some towns, such as York, suffered from Norman sacking during William's northern campaigns.

Other towns saw the widespread demolition of houses to make room for new motte and bailey fortifications, as was the case in Lincoln. The Norman invasion brought significant economic changes with the arrival of the first Jews to English cities. William I brought over wealthy Jews from the Rouen community in Normandy to settle in London, apparently to carry out financial services for the crown. In the years immediately after the invasion, a lot of wealth was drawn out of England in various ways by the Norman rulers and reinvested in Normandy, making William immensely wealthy as an individual ruler.

The minting of coins was decentralised in the Saxon period; every borough was mandated to have a mint and therefore a centre for trading in bullion.

Nonetheless, there was strict royal control over these moneyers, and coin dies could only be made in London. William retained this process and generated a high standard of Norman coins, leading to the use of the term "sterling" as the name for the Norman silver coins.

Governance & Taxation

William I inherited the Anglo-Saxon system in which the king drew his revenues from: a mixture of customs; profits from re-minting coinage; fines; profits from his own demesne lands; and the system of English land-based taxation called the geld. William reaffirmed this system, enforcing collection of the geld through his new system of sheriffs and increasing the taxes on trade. William was famous for commissioning the Domesday Book in 1086, a vast document which attempted to record the economic condition of his new kingdom.

MID-MEDIEVAL GROWTH (1100-1290)

The 12th and 13th centuries were a period of huge economic growth in England.

The population of England rose from around 1.5 Ma in 1086 to around 4 or 5 Ma in 1300, stimulating increased agricultural outputs and the export of raw materials to Europe.

In contrast to the previous two centuries, England was relatively secure from invasion. Except for the years of the Anarchy, most military conflicts either had only localised economic impact or proved only temporarily disruptive. English economic thinking remained conservative, seeing the economy as consisting of three groups: the ordines, those who fought, or the nobility; laboratores, those who worked, in particular the peasantry; and oratores, those who prayed, or the clerics.

Trade and merchants played little part in this model and were frequently vilified at the start of the period, although they were increasingly tolerated towards the end of the 13th century.

Agriculture & Fishing & Mining

Agriculture remained by far the most important part of the English economy during the 12th and 13th centuries. There remained a wide variety in English agriculture, influenced by local geography; in areas where grain could not be grown, other resources were exploited instead.

In the Weald, for example, agriculture centred on grazing animals on the woodland pastures, whilst in the Fens fishing and bird-hunting was supplemented by basket-making and peat-cutting.

In some locations, such as Lincolnshire and Droitwich, salt manufacture was important, including production for the export market. Fishing became an important trade along the English coast, especially in Great Yarmouth and Scarborough, and the herring was a particularly popular catch; salted at the coast, it could then be shipped inland or exported to Europe.

Piracy between competing English fishing fleets was not unknown during the period.

Sheep were the most common farm animal in England during the period, their numbers doubling by the 14th century. Sheep became increasingly widely used for wool, particularly in the Welsh borders, Lincolnshire and the Pennines. Pigs remained popular on holdings because of their ability to scavenge for food. Oxen remained the primary plough animal, with horses used more widely on farms in the south of England towards the end of the 12th century. Rabbits were introduced from France in the 13th century and farmed for their meat in special warrens.

The underlying productivity of English agriculture remained low, despite the increases in food production. Wheat prices fluctuated heavily year to year, depending on local harvests; up to a third of the grain produced in England was potentially for sale, and much of it ended up in the growing towns.

Despite their involvement in the market, even the wealthiest peasants prioritised spending on housing and clothing, with little left for other personal consumption.Records of household belongings show most possessing only "old, worn-out and mended utensils" and tools. The royal forests grew in size for much of the 12th century, before contracting in the late 13th and early 14th centuries.

Henry I extended the size and scope of royal forests, especially in Yorkshire; after the Anarchy of 1135-53, Henry II continued to expand the forests until they comprised around 20% of England.

In 1217 the Charter of the Forest was enacted, in part to mitigate the worst excesses of royal jurisdiction, and established a more structured range of fines and punishments for peasants who illegally hunted or felled trees in the forests. By the end of the century the king had come under increasing pressure to reduce the size of the royal forests, leading to the "Great Perambulation" around 1300; this significantly reduced the extent to the forests, and by 1334 they were only around two-thirds the size they had been in 1250. Royal revenue streams from the shrinking forests diminished considerably in the early 14th century.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

DEVELOPMENT OF ESTATE MANAGEMENT

A painting showing a man in orange clothes playing a pipe and ringing a small bell. He is surrounded by numerous small white sheep, and two trees sit on either side of him. A small village is depicted in the upper left hand corner. Sheep, shown here c. 1250, became increasingly important to English agriculture. The Normans retained and reinforced the manorial system with its division between demesne and peasant lands paid for in agricultural labour. Landowners could profit from the sales of goods from their demesne lands and a local lord could also expect to receive income from fines and local customs, whilst more powerful nobles profited from their own regional courts and rights.

During the 12th century major landowners tended to rent out their demesne lands for money, motivated by static prices for produce and the chaos of the Anarchy between 1135 and 1153.

This practice began to alter in the 1180s and 1190s, spurred by the greater political stability.

In the first years of John's reign, agricultural prices almost doubled, at once increasing the potential profits on the demesne estates and also increasing the cost of living for the landowners themselves.

Landowners now attempted wherever possible to bring their demesne lands back into direct management, creating a system of administrators and officials to run their new system of estates.

New land was brought into cultivation to meet demand for food, including drained marshes and fens, such as Romney Marsh, the Somerset Levels and the Fens; royal forests from the late 12th century onwards; and poorer lands in the north, south-west and in the Welsh Marches.

The first windmills in England began to appear along the south and east coasts in the 12th century, expanding in number in the 13th, adding to the mechanised power available to the manors.

By 1300 it has been estimated that there were more than 10,000 watermills in England, used both for grinding corn and for fulling cloth.[68] Fish ponds were created on most estates to provide freshwater fish for the consumption of the nobility and church; these ponds were extremely expensive to create and maintain. Improved ways of running estates began to be circulated and were popularised in Walter de Henley's famous book Le Dite de Hosebondrie, written around 1280.

In some regions and under some landowners, investment and innovation increased yields significantly through improved ploughing and fertilisers – particularly in Norfolk, where yields eventually equalled later 18th-century levels.

Role of the Church in Agriculture

The Church in England was a major landowner throughout the medieval period and played an important part in the development of agriculture and rural trade in the first two centuries of Norman rule. The Cistercian order first arrived in England in 1128, establishing around 80 new monastic houses over the next few years; the wealthy Augustinians also established themselves and expanded to occupy around 150 houses, all supported by agricultural estates, many of them in the north of England.

By the 13th century these and other orders were acquiring new lands and had become major economic players both as landowners and as middlemen in the expanding wool trade.

In particular, the Cistercians led the development of the grange system. Granges were separate manors, in which the fields were all cultivated by the monastic officials, rather than being divided up between demesne and rented fields, and became known for trialling new agricultural techniques during the period. Elsewhere, many monasteries had significant economic impact on the landscape, such as the monks of Glastonbury, responsible for the draining of the Somerset Levels to create new pasture land.

The military crusading order of the Knights Templar also held extensive property in England, bringing in around £2,200 per annum by the time of their fall. It comprised primarily rural holdings rented out for cash, but also included some urban properties in London. Following the dissolution of the Templar order in France by Philip IV of France, Edward II ordered their properties to be seized and passed to the Hospitaller order in 1313.

But in practice many properties were taken by local landowners and the Hospital was still attempting to reclaim them 25 years later.

The Church was responsible for the system of tithes, a levy of 10% on "all agrarian produce... other natural products gained via labour... wages received by servants and labourers, and to the profits of rural merchants". Tithes gathered in the form of produce could be either consumed by the recipient, or sold on and bartered for other resources. The tithe was relatively onerous for the typical peasant, although in many instances the actual levy fell below the desired 10%. Many clergy moved to the towns as part of the urban growth of the period, and by 1300 around one in twenty city dwellers was a clergyman. One effect of the tithe was to transfer a considerable amount of agriculture wealth into the cities, where it was then spent by these urban clergy. The need to sell tithe produce that could not be consumed by the local clergy also spurred the growth of trade.

Expansion of Mining

Mining did not make up a large part of the English medieval economy, but the 12th and 13th centuries saw an increased demand for metals in the country, thanks to the considerable population growth and building construction, including the great cathedrals and churches. Four metals were mined commercially in England during the period, namely iron, tin, lead and silver; coal was mined from the 13th century onwards, using a variety of refining techniques.

Iron mining occurred in several locations, including the main English centre in the Forest of Dean, as well as in Durham and the Weald. Some iron to meet English demand was also imported from the continent, especially by the late 13th century. By the end of the 12th century, the older method of acquiring iron ore through strip mining was being supplemented by more advanced techniques, including tunnels, trenches and bell-pits. Iron ore was usually locally processed at a bloomery; by the 14th century the first water-powered iron forge in England was built at Chingley.

As a result of the diminishing woodlands and consequent increases in the cost of both wood and charcoal, demand for coal increased in the 12th century and it began to be commercially produced from bell-pits and strip mining. A silver boom occurred in England after the discovery of silver near Carlisle in 1133. Huge quantities of silver were produced from a semicircle of mines reaching across Cumberland, Durham and Northumberland – up to three to four tonnes of silver were mined each year, more than ten times the previous annual production across the whole of Europe. The result was a local economic boom and a major uplift to 12th-century royal finances.Tin mining was centred in Cornwall and Devon, exploiting alluvial deposits and governed by the special Stannary Courts and Parliaments.

Tin formed a valuable export good, initially to Germany and then later in the 14th century to the Low Countries. Lead was usually mined as a by-product of mining for silver, with mines in Yorkshire, Durham and the north, as well as in Devon. Economically fragile, the lead mines usually survived as a result of being subsidised by silver production.

Growth of English Towns

After the end of the Anarchy, the number of small towns in England began to increase sharply.

By 1297, 120 new towns had been established, and in 1350 – by when the expansion had effectively ceased – there were around 500 towns in England. Many of these new towns were centrally planned: Richard I created Portsmouth, John founded Liverpool, and successive monarchs followed with Harwich, Stony Stratford, Dunstable, Royston, Baldock, Wokingham, Maidenhead and Reigate.

The new towns were usually located with access to trade routes in mind, rather than defence, and the streets were laid out to make access to the town's market convenient.

A growing percentage of England's population lived in urban areas; estimates suggest that this rose from around 5.5% in 1086 to up to 10% in 1377.

London held a special status within the English economy. The nobility purchased and consumed many luxury goods and services in the capital, and as early as the 1170s the London markets were providing exotic products such as spices, incense, palm oil, gems, silks, furs and foreign weapons.

London was also an important hub for industrial activity; it had many blacksmiths making a wide range of goods, including decorative ironwork and early clocks.

Pewter-working, using English tin and lead, was widespread in London during the period.

The provincial towns also had a substantial number of trades by the end of the 13th century – a large town like Coventry, for example, contained over three hundred different specialist occupations, and a smaller town such as Durham could support some 60 different professions. The increasing wealth of the nobility and the church was reflected in the widespread building of cathedrals and other prestigious buildings in the larger towns, in turn making use of lead from English mines for roofing.

Land transport remained much more expensive than river or sea transport during the period.

Many towns in this period, including York, Exeter and Lincoln, were linked to the oceans by navigable rivers and could act as seaports, with Bristol's port coming to dominate the lucrative trade in wine with Gascony by the 13th century, but shipbuilding generally remained on a modest scale and economically unimportant to England at this time. Transport remained very costly in comparison to the overall price of products. By the 13th century, groups of common carriers ran carting businesses, and carting brokers existed in London to link traders and carters. These used the four major land routes crossing England: Ermine Street, the Fosse Way, Icknield Street and Watling Street. A large number of bridges were built during the 12th century to improve the trade network.

In the 13th century, England was still primarily supplying raw materials for export to Europe, rather than finished or processed goods. There were some exceptions, such as very high-quality cloths from Stamford and Lincoln, including the famous "Lincoln Scarlet" dyed cloth. Despite royal efforts to encourage it, however, barely any English cloth was being exported by 1347.

Expansion of the Money Supply

There was a gradual reduction in the number of locations allowed to mint coins in England; under Henry II, only 30 boroughs were still able to use their own moneyers, and the tightening of controls continued throughout the 13th century. By the reign of Edward I there were only nine mints outside London and the king created a new official called the Master of the Mint to oversee these and the 30 furnaces operating in London to meet the demand for new coins. The amount of money in circulation hugely increased in this period; before the Norman invasion there had been around £50,000 in circulation as coin, but by 1311 this had risen to more than £1 Ma. At any particular point in time, though, much of this currency might be being stored prior to being used to support military campaigns or to be sent overseas to meet payments, resulting in bursts of temporary deflation as coins ceased to circulate within the English economy. One physical consequence of the growth in the coinage was that coins had to be manufactured in large numbers, being moved in barrels and sacks to be stored in local treasuries.

Rise of the Guilds

The first English guilds emerged during the early 12th century. These guilds were fraternities of craftsmen that set out to manage their local affairs including "prices, workmanship, the welfare of its workers, and the suppression of interlopers and sharp practices". Amongst these early guilds were the "guilds merchants", who ran the local markets in towns and represented the merchant community in discussions with the crown. Other early guilds included the "craft guilds", representing specific trades.

By 1130 there were major weavers' guilds in six English towns, as well as a fullers' guild in Winchester.

Over the following decades more guilds were created, often becoming increasingly involved in both local and national politics, although the guilds merchants were largely replaced by official groups established by new royal charters. The craft guilds required relatively stable markets and a relative equality of income and opportunity amongst their members to function effectively.

By the 14th century these conditions were increasingly uncommon. The first strains were seen in London, where the old guild system began to collapse – more trade was being conducted at a national level, making it hard for craftsmen to both manufacture goods and trade in them, and there were growing disparities in incomes between the richer and poorer craftsmen.

As a result, under Edward III many guilds became companies or livery companies, chartered companies focusing on trade and finance, leaving the guild structures to represent the interests of the smaller, poorer manufacturers.

Merchants & Development of Charter Fairs

The period saw the development of charter fairs in England, which reached their heyday in the 13th century. From the 12th century onwards, many English towns acquired a charter from the Crown allowing them to hold an annual fair, usually serving a regional or local customer base and lasting for two or three days. The practice increased in the next century and over 2,200 charters were issued to markets and fairs by English kings between 1200 and 1270.

Fairs grew in popularity as the international wool trade increased: the fairs allowed English wool producers and ports on the east coast to engage with visiting foreign merchants, circumnavigating those English merchants in London keen to make a profit as middlemen.

At the same time, wealthy magnate consumers in England began to use the new fairs as a way to buy goods like spices, wax, preserved fish and foreign cloth in bulk from the international merchants at the fairs, again bypassing the usual London merchants.

Some fairs grew into major international events, falling into a set sequence during the economic year, with the Stamford fair in Lent, St Ives' in Easter, Boston's in July, Winchester's in September and Northampton's in November, with the many smaller fairs falling in-between. Although not as large as the famous Champagne fairs in France, these English "great fairs" were still huge events; St Ives' Great Fair, drew merchants from Flanders, Brabant, Norway, Germany and France for a four-week event each year, turning the normally small town into "a major commercial emporium".

The structure of the fairs reflected the importance of foreign merchants in the English economy and by 1273 only one-third of the English wool trade was actually controlled by English merchants.

Between 1280 and 1320 the trade was primarily dominated by Italian merchants, but by the early 14th century German merchants had begun to present serious competition to the Italians.

The Germans formed a self-governing alliance of merchants in London called the "Hanse of the Steelyard" – the eventual Hanseatic League – and their role was confirmed under the Great Charter of 1303, which exempted them from paying the customary tolls for foreign merchants. One response to this was the creation of the Company of the Staple, a group of merchants established in English-held Calais in 1314 with royal approval, who were granted a monopoly on wool sales to Europe.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Jewish Contribution to the English Economy

The Jewish community in England continued to provide essential money-lending and banking services that were otherwise banned by the usury laws, and grew in the 12th century by Jewish immigrants fleeing the fighting around Rouen. The Jewish community spread beyond London to eleven major English cities, primarily the major trading hubs in the east of England with functioning mints, all with suitable castles for protection of the often persecuted Jewish minority. By the time of the Anarchy and the reign of Stephen, the communities were flourishing and providing financial loans to the king.

Under Henry II, the Jewish financial community continued to grow richer still. All major towns had Jewish centres, and even smaller towns, such as Windsor, saw visits by travelling Jewish merchants.

Henry II used the Jewish community as "instruments for the collection of money for the Crown", and placed them under royal protection. The Jewish community at York lent extensively to fund the Cistercian order's acquisition of land and prospered considerably. Some Jewish merchants grew extremely wealthy, Aaron of Lincoln so much that upon his death a special royal department had to be established to unpick his financial holdings and affairs.

By the end of Henry's reign the king ceased to borrow from the Jewish community and instead turned to an aggressive campaign of tallage taxation and fines. Financial and anti-Semite violence grew under Richard I. After the massacre of the York community, in which numerous financial records were destroyed, seven towns were nominated to separately store Jewish bonds and money records and this arrangement ultimately evolved into the Exchequer of the Jews.

After an initially peaceful start to John's reign, the king again began to extort money from the Jewish community, imprisoning the wealthier members, including Isaac of Norwich, until a huge, new taillage was paid. During the Baron's War of 1215-17, the Jews were subjected to fresh anti-Semitic attacks.

Henry III restored some order and Jewish money-lending became sufficiently successful again to allow fresh taxation. The Jewish community became poorer towards the end of the century and was finally expelled from England in 1290 by Edward I, being largely replaced by foreign merchants.

Governance & Taxation

During the 12th century the Norman kings attempted to formalise the feudal governance system initially created after the invasion. After the invasion the king had enjoyed a combination of income from his own demesne lands, the Anglo-Saxon geld tax and fines. Successive kings found that they needed additional revenues, especially in order to pay for mercenary forces.

One way of doing this was to exploit the feudal system, and kings adopted the French feudal aid model, a levy of money imposed on feudal subordinates when necessary; another method was to exploit the scutage system, in which feudal military service could be transmuted to a cash payment to the king. Taxation was an option, although the old geld tax was increasingly ineffective due to a growing number of exemptions. Instead, a succession of kings created alternative land taxes, such as the tallage and carucage taxes. These were increasingly unpopular and, along with the feudal charges, were condemned and constrained in the Magna Carta of 1215. As part of the formalisation of the royal finances, Henry I created the Chancellor of the Exchequer, a post which would lead to the maintenance of the Pipe rolls, a set of royal financial records of lasting significance to historians in tracking both royal finances and medieval prices. Royal revenue streams still proved insufficient and from the middle of the 13th century there was a shift away from the earlier land-based tax system towards one based on a mixture of indirect and direct taxation. At the same time, Henry III had introduced the practice of consulting with leading nobles on tax issues, leading to the system whereby the Parliament of England agreed on new taxes when required. In 1275, the "Great and Ancient Custom" began to tax woollen products and hides, with the Great Charter of 1303 imposing additional levies on foreign merchants in England, with the poundage tax introduced in 1347.

In 1340, the discredited tallage tax system was finally abolished by Edward III. Assessing the total impact of changes to royal revenues between 1086 and 1290 is difficult. At best, Edward I was struggling in 1300 to match in real terms the revenues that Henry II had enjoyed in 1100, and considering the growth in the size of the English economy, the king's share of the national income had dropped considerably. In the English towns the burgage tenure for urban properties was established early on in the medieval period, and was based primarily on tenants paying cash rents rather than providing labour services. Further development of a set of taxes that could be raised by the towns included murage for walls, pavage for streets, and pontage, a temporary tax for the repair of bridges.

Combined with the lex mercatoria, which was a set of codes and customary practices governing trading, these provided a reasonable basis for the economic governance of the towns.

The 12th century saw a concerted attempt to curtail the remaining rights of unfree peasant workers and to set out their labour rents more explicitly in the form of the English Common Law.

This process resulted in the Magna Carta explicitly authorising feudal landowners to settle law cases concerning feudal labour and fines through their own manorial courts rather than through the royal courts.These class relationships between lords and unfree peasants had complex economic implications.

Peasant workers resented being unfree, but having continuing access to agricultural land was important. Under those rare circumstances where peasants were offered a choice between freedom but no land, and continued servitude, not all chose freedom and a minority chose to remain in servitude on the land. Lords benefited economically from their control of the manorial courts and dominating the courts made it easier to manipulate land ownership and rights in their own favour when land became in particularly short supply at the end of this period.

Many of the labour duties lords could compel from the local peasant communities became less useful over the period. Duties were fixed by custom, inflexible and understandably resented by the workers involved. As a result, by the end of the 13th century the productivity of such forced labour was significantly lower than that of free labour employed to do the same task. A number of lords responded by seeking to commute the duties of unfree peasants to cash alternatives, with the aim of hiring labour instead. The Great Famine of 1315 began a number of acute crises in the English agrarian economy.

The famine centred on a sequence of harvest failures in 1315, 1316 &1321, combined with an outbreak of murrain, a sickness amongst sheep and oxen in 1319-21 and the fatal ergotism, a fungus amongst the remaining stocks of wheat. Many people died in the ensuing famine, and the peasantry were said to have been forced to eat horses, dogs and cats as well as conducted cannibalism against children, although these last reports are usually considered to be exaggerations.

Poaching and encroachment on the royal forests surged, sometimes on a mass scale. Sheep and cattle numbers fell by up to a half, significantly reducing the availability of wool and meat, and food prices almost doubled, with grain prices particularly inflated. Food prices remained at similar levels for the next decade. Salt prices also increased sharply due to the wet weather.

Various factors exacerbated the crisis. Economic growth had already begun to slow significantly in the years prior to the crisis and the English rural population was increasingly under economic stress, with around half the peasantry estimated to possess insufficient land to provide them with a secure livelihood. Where additional land was being brought into cultivation, or existing land cultivated more intensively, the soil may have become exhausted and useless.

Bad weather also played an important part in the disaster; 1315-16 and 1318 saw torrential rains and an incredibly cold winter, which in combination badly impacted on harvests and stored supplies.

The rains of these years were followed by drought in the 1320s and another fierce winter in 1321, complicating recovery. Disease, independent of the famine, was also high during the period, striking at the wealthier as well as the poorer classes. The commencement of war with France in 1337 only added to the economic difficulties. The Great Famine firmly reversed the population growth of the 12th and 13th centuries and left a domestic economy that was "profoundly shaken, but not destroyed".

BLACK DEATH

The Black Death epidemic arrived in England in 1348, re-occurring in waves during 1360-62, 1368-69, 1375 and more sporadically thereafter. The most immediate economic impact of this disaster was the widespread loss of life, between around 27% mortality amongst the upper classes, to 40-70% amongst the peasantry. Despite the very high loss of life, few settlements were abandoned during the epidemic itself, but many were badly affected or nearly eliminated altogether.[

The medieval authorities did their best to respond in an organised fashion, but the econom ic disruption was immense. Building work ceased and many mining operations paused.

In the short term, efforts were taken by the authorities to control wages and enforce pre-epidemic working conditions. Coming on top of the previous years of famine, however, the longer-term economic implications were profound. In contrast to the previous centuries of rapid growth, the English population would not begin to recover for over a century, despite the many positive reasons for a resurgence.The crisis would dramatically affect English agriculture, wages and prices for the remainder of the medieval period.

Late Medieval Economic Recovery (1350-1509)

The events of the crisis between 1290 & 1348 and the subsequent epidemics produced many challenges for the English economy. In the decades after the disaster, the economic and social issues arising from the Black Death combined with the costs of the Hundred Years War to produce the Peasants Revolt of 1381. Although the revolt was suppressed, it undermined many of the vestiges of the feudal economic order, and the countryside became dominated by estates organised as farms, frequently owned or rented by the new economic class of the gentry.

The English agricultural economy remained depressed throughout the 15th century; growth at this time came from the greatly increased English cloth trade and manufacturing. The economic consequences of this varied considerably from region to region, but generally London, the South & the West prospered at the expense of the Eastern and the older cities. The role of merchants and trade became increasingly seen as important to the country, and usury gradually became more widely accepted, with English economic thinking increasingly influenced by Renaissance humanist theories.

Even before the end of the first outbreak of the Black Death, there were efforts by the authorities to stem the upward pressure on wages and prices, with parliament passing the emergency Ordinance of Labourers in 1349 & the Statute of Labourers in 1351. The efforts to regulate the economy continued as wages and prices rose, putting pressure on the landed classes, and in 1363 parliament attempted unsuccessfully to centrally regulate craft production, trading and retailing. A rising amount of the royal courts' time was involved in enforcing the failing labour legislation – as much as 70% by the 1370s.

Many land owners attempted to vigorously enforce rents payable through agricultural service rather than money through their local manor courts, leading to attempts by many village communities to legally challenge local feudal practices using the Domesday Book as a legal basis for their claims.

With the wages of the lower classes still rising, the government also attempted to regulate demand and consumption by reinstating the sumptuary laws in 1363. These laws banned the lower classes from consuming certain products or wearing high-status clothes, and reflected the significance of the consumption of high-quality breads, ales and fabrics as a way of signifying social class in the late medieval period. The 1370s saw the government facing difficulties in funding the war with France.

The impact of the Hundred Years War on the English economy as a whole remains uncertain; one suggestion is that the high taxation required to pay for the conflict "shrunk and depleted" the English economy, whilst others have argued for a more modest or even neutral economic impact for the war. The English government clearly found it difficult to pay for its army and from 1377 turned to a new system of poll taxes, aiming to spread the costs of taxation across the entirety of English society.

Peasants' Revolt of 1381

One result of the economic and political tensions was the Peasants' Revolt of 1381, in which widespread rural discontent was followed by an invasion of London involving thousands of rebels.

The rebels had many demands, including the effective end of the feudal institution of serfdom and a cap on the levels of rural rents. The ensuing violence took the political classes by surprise and the revolt was not fully put down until the autumn; up to 7,000 rebels were executed in the aftermath.

As a result of the revolt, parliament retreated from the poll tax and instead focused on a system of indirect taxes centring on foreign trade, drawing 80% of tax revenues from the exports of wool.

Parliament continued to collect direct tax levies at historically high levels up until 1422, although they reduced them in later years. As a result, successive monarchs found that their tax revenues were uncertain, and Henry VI enjoyed less than half the annual tax revenue of the late 14th century.

England's monarchs became increasingly dependent on borrowing and forced loans to meet the gap between taxes and expenditure and even then faced later rebellions over levels of taxation, including the Yorkshire rebellion of 1489 and the Cornish rebellion of 1497 during the reign of Henry VII. The agricultural sector of the English economy, still by far the largest, was transformed by the Black Death. With the shortage of manpower after the Black Death, wages for agricultural labourers rapidly increased and continued to then grow steadily throughout the 15th century.

As their incomes increased, labourers' living conditions and diet improved steadily. A trend for labourers to eat less barley and more wheat and rye, and to replace bread in their diet with more meat, had been apparent since before the Black Death, but intensified during this later period.

Nonetheless, England's much smaller population needed less food and the demand for agricultural products fell. The position of the larger landowners became increasingly difficult.

Revenues from demesne lands were diminishing as demand remained low and wage costs increased; nobles were also finding it more difficult to raise revenue from their local courts, fines and privileges in the years after the Peasants Revolt of 1381. Despite attempts to increase money rents, by the end of the 14th century the rents paid from peasant lands were also declining, with revenues falling as much as 55% between the 1380s and 1420s.

Noble and church landowners responded in various ways. They began to invest significantly less in agriculture and land was increasingly taken out of production altogether.

In some cases entire settlements were abandoned, and nearly 1,500 villages were lost during this period. Landowners also abandoned the system of direct management of their demesne lands, which had begun back in the 1180s, and turned instead to "farming" out large blocks of land for fixed money rents. Initially, livestock and land were rented out together under "stock and lease" contracts, but this was found to be increasingly impractical and contracts for farms became centred purely on land. Many of the rights to church parish tithes were also "farmed" out in exchange for fixed rents.

This process was encouraged by the trend for tithe revenues being increasing "appropriated" by central church authorities, rather than being used to support local clergy: around 39% of parish tithes had been centralised in this way by 1535.

As the major estates transformed, a new economic grouping, the gentry, became evident, many of them benefiting from the opportunities of the farming system. Land distribution remained heavily unequal; estimates suggest that the English nobility owned 20% of English lands, the Church and Crown 33%, the gentry 25%, and the remainder was owned by peasant farmers.

Agriculture itself continued to innovate; the loss of many English oxen to the murrain sickness in the crisis increased the number of horses used to plough fields in the 14th century, a significant improvement on older methods. The royal forests continued to diminish in size and decline in economic importance in the years after the Black Death. Royal enforcement of forest rights and laws became harder after 1348 and certainly after 1381.

By the 15th century the royal forests were a "shadow of their former selves" in size and economic significance. In contrast, the English fishing industry continued to grow, and by the 15th century domestic merchants and financiers owned fleets of up to a hundred fishing vessels operating from key ports. Herring remained a key fishing catch, although as demand for herring declined with rising prosperity, the fleets began to focus instead on cod and other deep-sea fish from the Icelandic waters.

Despite being critical to the fishing industry, salt production in England diminished in the 15th century due to competition from French producers. The use of expensive freshwater fish ponds on estates began to decline during this period, as more of the gentry and nobility opted to purchase freshwater fish from commercial river fisheries. Mining generally performed well at the end of the medieval period, helped by buoyant demand for manufactured and luxury goods. Cornish tin production plunged during the Black Death itself, leading to a doubling of prices.Tin exports also collapsed catastrophically, but picked up again over the next few years.

By the turn of the 16th century, the available alluvial tin deposits in Cornwall and Devon had begun to decline, leading to the commencement of bell and surface mining to support the tin boom that had occurred in the late 15th century. Lead mining increased, and output almost doubled between 1300 & 1500. Wood and charcoal became cheaper once again after the Black Death; coal production declined as a result, remaining depressed for the rest of the period – nonetheless, some coal production was occurring in all the major English coalfields by the 16th century.

Iron production continued to increase; the Weald in the South-East began to make increased use of water-power; overtook the Forest of Dean in the 15th century as England's main iron-producing region. The first blast furnace in England, a major technical step forward in metal smelting, was created in 1496 in Newbridge in the Weald. The percemtage of England's population living in towns continued to grow but in absolute terms English towns shrunk significantly as a consequence of the Black Death, especially in the formerly prosperous east. The importance of England's Eastern ports declined over the period, as trade from London and the South-West increased in relative significance.

Increasingly elaborate road networks were built across England, some involving the construction of up to thirty bridges to cross rivers and other obstacles. Nonetheless, it remained cheaper to move goods by water, and consequently timber was brought to London from as far away as the Baltic, and stone from Caen brought over the Channel to the South of England. Shipbuilding, particular in the South-West, became a major industry for the first time and investment in trading ships such as cogs was probably the single biggest form of late medieval investment in England.

Cloth manufactured in England increasingly dominated European markets during the 15th and early 16th centuries. England exported almost no cloth at all in 1347, but by 1400 around 40,000 cloths[nb a year were being exported – the trade reached its first peak in 1447 when exports reached 60,000. Trade fell slightly during the serious depression of the mid-15th century, but picked up again and reached 130,000 cloths a year by the 1540s.The centres of weaving in England shifted westwards towards the Stour Valley, the West Riding, the Cotswolds and Exeter, away from the former weaving centres in York, Coventry and Norwich.

The wool and cloth trade was primarily now being run by English merchants themselves rather than by foreigners. Increasingly, the trade was passing through London and the ports of the South-West. By the 1360s, 66-75% of the export trade was in English hands and by the 15th century this had risen to 80%; London managed around 50% of these exports in 1400, and as much as 83% of wool and cloth exports by 1540. The growth in the numbers of chartered trading companies in London, such as the Worshipful Company of Drapers or the Company of Merchant Adventurers of London, continued, and English producers began to provide credit to European buyers, rather than the other way around.

Usury grew during the period, and few cases were prosecuted by the authorities.There were some reversals. The attempts of English merchants to break through the Hanseatic league directly into the Baltic markets failed in the domestic political chaos of the Wars of the Roses in the 1460s & 1470s.

The wine trade with Gascony fell by half during the war with France, and the eventual loss of the province brought an end to the English domination of the business and temporary disruption to Bristol's prosperity until wines began to be imported through the city a few years later.

Indeed, the disruption to both the Baltic and the Gascon trade contributed to a sharp reduction in the consumption of furs and wine by the English gentry and nobility during the 15th century.

There were advances in manufacturing, especially in the South and West. Despite some French attacks, the war created much coastal prosperity thanks to the huge expenditure on shipbuilding during the war, and the South-West also became a centre for English piracy against foreign vessels.

Metalworking continued to grow, and in particular pewter working, which generated exports second only to cloth. By the 15th century pewter working in London was a large industry, with a hundred pewter workers recorded in London alone, and pewter working had also spread from the capital to eleven major cities across England. London goldsmithing remained significant but saw relatively little growth, with around 150 goldsmiths working in London during the period. Iron-working continued to expand and in 1509 the first cast-iron cannon was made in England. This was reflected in the rapid growth in the number of iron-working guilds, from three in 1300 to fourteen by 1422.

The result was a substantial influx of money that in turn encouraged the import of manufactured luxury goods; by 1391 shipments from abroad routinely included "ivory, mirrors, paxes, armour, paper…, painted clothes, spectacles, tin images, razors, calamine, treacle, sugar-candy, marking irons, patens…, ox-horns and quantities of wainscot". Imported spices now formed a part of almost all noble and gentry diets, with the quantities being consumed varying according to the wealth of the household.

The English government was also importing large quantities of raw materials, including copper, for manufacturing weapons. Many major landowners tended to focus their efforts on maintaining a single major castle or house rather than the dozens a century before, but these were usually decorated much more luxurious than previously. Major merchants' dwellings were more lavish than in previous years.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	**A c t i v i t y**			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

DECLINE OF THE FAIR SYSTEM

Towards the end of the 14th century, the position of fairs began to decline. The larger merchants, particularly in London, began to establish direct links with the larger landowners such as the nobility and the church; rather than the landowner buying from a chartered fair, they would buy directly from the merchant. Meanwhile, the growth of the indigenous England merchant class in the major cities, especially London, gradually crowded out the foreign merchants upon whom the great chartered fairs had largely depended.

The crown's control over trade in the towns, especially the emerging newer towns towards the end of the 15th century that lacked central civic government, was increasingly weaker, making chartered status less relevant as more trade occurred from private properties and took place all year around.

Nonetheless, the great fairs remained of importance well into the 15th century, as illustrated by their role in exchanging money, regional commerce and in providing choice for individual consumers.

The first studies into the medieval economy of England began in the 1880s, principally around the work of English jurist and historian Frederic Maitland. This scholarship, drawing extensively on documents such as the Domesday Book and the Magna Carta, became known as the "Whiggish" view of economic history, focusing on law and government.

Late Victorian writers argued that change in the English medieval economy stemmed primarily from the towns and cities, leading to a progressive and universalist interpretation of development over the period, focusing on trade and commerce. Influenced by the evolution of Norman laws, Maitland argued that there was a clear discontinuity between the Anglo-Saxon and Norman economic systems.

In the 1930s the Whiggish view of the English economy was challenged by a group of scholars at the University of Cambridge, led by Eileen Power. Power and her colleagues widened the focus of study from legal and government documents to include "agrarian, archaeological, demographic, settlement, landscape and urban" evidence. This was combined with a neo-positivist and econometric leaning that was at odds with the older Victorian tradition in the subject.

Power died in 1940, but Michael Postan, who had previously been her student but later became her husband, brought their work forward, and it came to dominate the post-war field.

Postan argued that demography was the principal driving force in the medieval English economy.

In a distinctly Malthusian fashion, Postan proposed that the English agrarian economy saw little technical development during the period and by the early 14th century was unable to support the growing population, leading to inevitable famines and economic depression as the population came back into balance with land resources. Postan began the trend towards stressing continuities between the pre- and post-invasion economies, aided by fresh evidence emerging from the use of archaeological techniques to understand the medieval economy from the 1950s onwards.

This school of thought agreed that the agrarian economy was central to medieval England, but argued that agrarian issues had less to do with demography than with the mode of production and feudal class relations. In this model the English economy entered the crisis of the early 14th century because of the struggles between landlords and peasant for resources and excessive extraction of rents by the nobility. Similar issues underpinned the Peasants Revolt of 1381 and later tax rebellions.

Historians such as Frank Stenton developed the "honour" as a unit of economic analysis and a focus for understanding feudal relations in peasant communities; Rodney Hilton developed the idea of the rise of the gentry as a key feature for understanding the late medieval period.

After becoming one of the most prosperous economic regions in Europe between 1600 and 1700, Britain led the industrial revolution and dominated the European and world economy during the 19th century. It was the major innovator in machinery such as steam engines (for pumps, factories, railway locomotives, steamships), textile equipment, and tool-making. It invented the railway system and built much of the equipment used by other nations.

As well it was a leader in international and domestic banking, entrepreneurship, and trade. It built a global British Empire.

After 1840 it abandoned mercantilism and practised "free trade," with no tariffs or quotas or restrictions. The powerful Royal Navy protected its global holdings, while its legal system provided a system for resolving disputes inexpensively. Between 1870 and 1900, economic output per head of population in Britain and Ireland rose by 500 %, generating a significant rise in living standards.

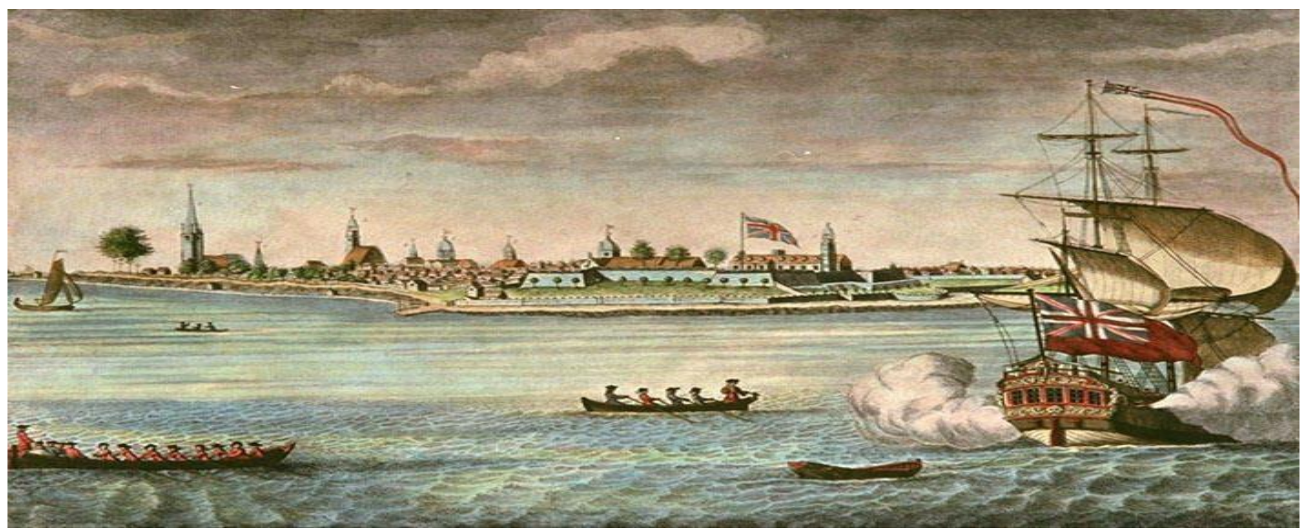
However, from the late 19th century onwards Britain experienced a relative economic decline as other nations such as the USA and Germany caught up. In 1870, Britain's output per head was the second highest in the world after Australia. By 1914, it was fourth highest. In 1950, British output per head was still 30 % ahead of the six founder members of the EEC, but within 50 years it had been overtaken by many European and several Asian countries.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				



TUDOR COAT OF ARMS

During the 1500-1700 period many fundamental economic changes occurred, which paved the way to the industrial revolution. Especially after 1600, the North Sea region took over the role of the leading economic centre of Europe from the Mediterranean, which prior to this date, particularly in northern Italy, had been the most highly developed part of Europe.

Great Britain, together with the Low Countries, profited more in the long run from the expansion of trade in the Atlantic and Asia than the pioneers of this trade, Spain and Portugal, fundamentally because of the success of the mainly privately owned enterprises in these two Northern countries in contrast to the arguably less successful state-owned economic systems in Iberia.

Following the Black Death in the mid 14th century, and the agricultural depression of the late 15th century, the population began to increase. The export of woollen products resulted in an economic upturn with products exported to mainland Europe. Henry VII negotiated the favourable Intercursus Magnus treaty in 1496. The high wages and abundance of available land seen in the late 15th century and early 16th century were temporary. When the population recovered low wages and a land shortage returned. Historians in the early 20th century characterized the economic in terms of general decline, manorial reorganization, and agricultural contraction. Later historians dropped those themes and stressed the transitions between medieval forms and Tudor progress.

Various inflationary pressures existed; some were due to an influx of New World gold and a rising population. Inflation had a negative effect on the real wealth of most families. It set the stage for social upheaval with the gap between the rich and poor widening. This was a period of significant change for the majority of the rural population, with manorial lords beginning the process of enclosure.

John Leland left rich descriptions of the local economies he witnessed during his travels 1531 to 1560. He described markets, ports, industries, buildings and transport links. He showed some small towns were expanding, through new commercial and industrial opportunities, especially cloth manufacture.

He found other towns in decline, and suggested that investment by entrepreneurs and benefactors had enabled some small towns to prosper. Taxation was a negative factor in economic growth, since it was imposed, not on consumption, but on capital investments.

Especially within the British empire, exports started to increase heavily in this period. Mostly privately owned companies traded with the colonies in the West indies, Northern America and India.

The Company of Merchant Adventurers of London brought together London's leading overseas merchants in a regulated company in the early 15th century, in the nature of a guild. Its members' main business was the export of cloth, especially white (undyed) woolen broadcloth.

This enabled them to import a large range of foreign goods. Woolen cloth was the chief export and most important employer after agriculture.

The golden era of the Wiltshire woolen industry was in the reign of Henry VIII. In the medieval period, raw wool had been exported, but now England had an industry, based on its 11 Ma sheep.

London and towns purchased wool from dealers, and send it to rural households where family labour turned it into cloth. They washed the wool, carded it and spun it into thread, which was then turned into cloth on a loom. Export merchants, known as Merchant Adventurers, exported woolens into the Netherlands and Germany, as well as other lands. The arrival of Huguenots from France brought in new skills that expanded the industry.

Government intervention proved a disaster in the early 17th century. A new company convinced Parliament to transfer to them the monopoly held by the old, well-established Company of Merchant Adventurers. Arguing that the export of unfinished cloth was much less profitable than the export of the finished product, the new company got Parliament to ban the export of unfinished cloth. There was massive dislocation marketplace, as large unsold quantities built up, prices fell, and unemployment rose. Worst of all, the Dutch retaliated and refused to import any finished cloth from England.

Exports fell by a third. Quickly the ban was lifted, and the Merchant Adventurers got its monopoly back. However, the trade losses became permanent.

Trade and industry flourished in the 16th century, making England more prosperous and improving the standard of living of the upper and middle classes. However, the lower classes did not benefit much and did not always have enough food. As the English population was fed by its own agricultural produce, a series of bad harvests in the 1590s caused widespread distress.

In the 17th century the food supply improved. England had no food crises from 1650 to 1725, a period when France was unusually vulnerable to famines. Historians point out that oat and barley prices in England did not always increase following a failure of the wheat crop, but did do in France.

A woodcut from circa 1536 depicting a vagrant being punished in the streets in Tudor England.

About one-third of the population lived in poverty, with the wealthy expected to give alms to assist the impotent poor. Tudor law was harsh on the able-bodied poor i.e., those unable to find work.

Those who left their parishes in order to locate work were termed vagabonds and could be subjected to punishments, including whipping and putting at the stocks.The 18th century was prosperous as entrepreneurs extended the range of their business around the globe. By the 1720s Britain was one of the most prosperous countries in the world, and Daniel Defoe boasted: we are the most "diligent nation in the world. Vast trade, rich manufactures, mighty wealth, universal correspondence, happy success have been constant companions of England, and given us the title of an industrious people."

While the other major powers were primarily motivated toward territorial gains, and protection of their dynasties (the Habsburg and Bourbon dynasties, Prussia's House of Hohenzollern), Britain had a different set of primary interests. Its main diplomatic goal (protecting the homeland from invasion) was building a worldwide trading network for its merchants, manufacturers, shippers and financiers.

This required a hegemonic Royal Navy so powerful that no rival could sweep its ships from the world's trading routes, or invade the British Isles. The London government enhanced the private sector by incorporating numerous privately financed London-based companies for establishing trading posts and opening import-export businesses across the world. Each was given a monopoly of trade to the specified geographical region.

The first enterprise was the Muscovy Company set up in 1555 to trade with Russia. Other prominent enterprises included he East India Company, and the Hudson's Bay Company in Canada.

The Company of Royal Adventurers Trading to Africa had been set up in 1662 to trade in gold, ivory and slaves in Africa; it was reestablished as the Royal African Company in 1672 and focused on the slave trade. British involvement in the each of the four major wars, 1740 to 1783, paid off handsomely in terms of trade. Even the loss of the 13 colonies was made up by a very favorable trading relationship with the new USA of America. British gained dominance in the trade with India, and largely dominated the highly lucrative slave, sugar, and commercial trades originating in West Africa and the West Indies.

Other powers set up similar monopolies on a much smaller scale; only the Netherlands emphasized trade as much as England. Most of the companies earned good profits, and enormous personal fortunes were created in India. However, there was one major fiasco that caused heavy losses. The South Sea Bubble was a business enterprise that exploded in scandal.

The South Sea Company was a private business corporation supposedly set up much like the other trading companies, with a focus on South America. Its actual purpose was to renegotiate previous high-interest government loans amounting to £31 Ma through market manipulation and speculation. It issued stock four times in 1720 that reached about 8,000 investors.

The Bubble collapsed overnight, ruining many speculators. Investigations showed bribes had reached into high places – even to the king. His chief minister Robert Walpole managed to wind it down with minimal political and economic damage, although some losers fled to exile or committed suicide.

Exercise 1. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

THE AGE OF MERCANTILISM

The basis of the British Empire was founded in the age of mercantilism, an economic theory that stressed maximizing the trade inside the empire, and trying to weaken rival empires.

The 18th century British Empire was based upon the preceding English overseas possessions, which began to take shape in the late 16th and early 17th century, with the English settlement of islands of the West Indies such as Trinidad and Tobago, the Bahamas, the Leeward Islands, Barbados, Jamaica, and Bermuda, and of Virginia, one of the Thirteen Colonies which in 1776 became the USA, as well as of the Maritime provinces of what is now Canada.

The sugar plantation islands of the Caribbean, where slavery became the basis of the economy, comprised England's most lucrative colonies. The American colonies also utilized slave labour in the farming of tobacco, indigo, and rice in the south. England, and later Great Britain's, American empire was slowly expanded by war and colonization. Victory over the French during the Seven Years' War gave Great Britain control over what is now eastern Canada.

Mercantilism was the basic policy imposed by Britain on its colonies. Mercantilism meant that the government and the merchants became partners with the goal of increasing political power and private wealth, to the exclusion of other empires. The government protected its merchants – and kept others out – by trade barriers, regulations, and subsidies to domestic industries in order to maximize exports from and minimize imports to the realm. The government had to fight smuggling – which became a favorite American technique in the 18th century to circumvent the restrictions on trading with the French, Spanish or Dutch.

The goal of mercantilism was to run trade surpluses, so that gold and silver would pour into London. The government took its share through duties and taxes, with the remainder going to merchants in Britain. The government spent much of its revenue on a superb Royal Navy, which not only protected the British colonies but threatened the colonies of the other empires, and sometimes seized them.

Thus the British Navy captured New Amsterdam (New York) in 1664. The colonies were captive markets for British industry, and the goal was to enrich the mother country.

Besides woollens, cotton, silk and linen cloth manufacturing became important after 1600, as did coal and iron. In 1709, Abraham Darby I established a coke-fired blast furnace to produce cast iron, replacing charcoal, although continuing to use blast furnaces. The ensuing availability of inexpensive iron was one of the factors leading to the Industrial Revolution. Toward the end of the 18th century, cast iron began to replace wrought iron for certain purposes, because it was cheaper. Carbon content in iron was not implicated as the reason for the differences in properties of wrought iron, cast iron, and steel until the 18th century.

In a period loosely dated from the 1770s to the 1820s, Britain experienced an accelerated process of economic change that transformed a largely agrarian economy into the world's first industrial economy. This phenomenon is known as the "industrial revolution", since the changes were far-reaching and permanent throughout many areas of Britain, especially in the developing cities.

Economic, institutional, and social changes were fundamental to the emergence of the industrial revolution. Whereas absolutism remained the normal form of governance through most parts of Europe, in the UK a fundamental power balance was created after the revolutions of 1640 and 1688. The new institutional setup ensured property rights and political safety and thereby supported the emergence of an economically prosperous middle class. Another factor is the change in marriage patterns through this period. Marrying later allowed young people to acquire more education, thereby building up more human capital in the population. These changes enhanced the relatively developed labour and financial markets, paving the way for the industrial revolution starting in the mid-18th century.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

INDUSTRIAL EXPANSION IN SCOTLAND & WALES

From about 1790 textiles became the most important industry in the west of Scotland, especially the spinning and weaving of cotton, which flourished until in 1861 the American Civil War cut off the supplies of raw cotton. The industry never recovered, but by that time Scotland had developed heavy industries based on its coal and iron resources.

The invention of the hot blast for smelting iron (1828) revolutionised the Scottish iron industry.

As a result, Scotland became a centre for engineering, shipbuilding and the production of locomotives. Toward the end of the 19th century, steel production largely replaced iron production.

Coal mining continued to grow into the 20th century, producing the fuel to heat homes, factories and drive steam engines locomotives and steamships.

By 1914 there were 1,000,000 coal miners in Scotland. The stereotype emerged early on of Scottish colliers as brutish, non-religious and socially isolated serfs; that was an exaggeration, for their life style resembled the miners everywhere, with a strong emphasis on masculinity, equalitarianism, group solidarity, and support for radical labour movements.

Britain was the world leader in the construction of railways, and their use to expand trade and coal supplies. The first successful locomotive-powered line in Scotland, between Monkland and Kirkintilloch, opened in 1831. Not only was good passenger service established by the late 1840s, but an excellent network of freight lines reduce the cost of shipping coal, and made products manufactured in Scotland competitive throughout Britain. For example, railways opened the London market to Scottish beef and milk. They enabled the Aberdeen Angus to become a cattle breed of worldwide reputation.

By 1900 Scotland had 3500 miles of railway; their main economic contribution was moving supplies in and product out for heavy industry, especially coal-mining. Scotland was already one of the most urbanised societies in Europe by 1800. The industrial belt ran across the country from southwest to northeast; by 1900 the four industrialised counties of Lanarkshire, Renfrewshire, Dunbartonshire, and Ayrshire contained 44 % of the population.

Glasgow became one of the largest cities in the world, and known as "the Second City of the Empire" after London. Shipbuilding on Clydeside (the river Clyde through Glasgow and other points) began when the first small yards were opened in 1712 at the Scott family's shipyard at Greenock. After 1860 the Clydeside shipyards specialised in steamships made of iron (after 1870, made of steel), which rapidly replaced the wooden sailing vessels of both the merchant fleets and the battle fleets of the world. It became the world's pre-eminent shipbuilding centre. Clydebuilt became an industry benchmark of quality, and the river's shipyards were given contracts for warships.

Public Health & Welfare

The industrial developments, while they brought work and wealth, were so rapid that housing, town-planning, and provision for public health did not keep pace with them; for a time living conditions in some of the towns and cities were notoriously bad, with overcrowding, high infant mortality, and growing rates of tuberculosis. The companies attracted rural workers, as well as immigrants from Catholic Ireland, by inexpensive company housing that was a dramatic move upward from the inner-city slums. This paternalistic policy led many owners to endorse government sponsored housing programs as well as self-help projects among the respectable working class.

Despite these changes the highlands remained very poor and traditional, with few connections to the uplift of the Scottish Enlightenment and little role in the Industrial Revolution.

A handful of powerful families, typified by the dukes of Argyll, Atholl, Buccleuch, Sutherland, owned the best lands and controlled local political, legal and economic affairs. Particularly after the end of the boom created by the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars (1790-1815), these landlords needed cash to maintain their position in London society, and had less need of soldiers.

They turned to money rents, displaced farmers to raise sheep; downplayed the traditional patriarchal relationship that had historically sustained the clans.

This was exacerbated after the repeal of the Corn Laws in mid-century, when Britain adopted a free trade policy, and grain imports from America undermined the profitability of crop production.

The Irish potato famine of the 1840s was caused by a plant disease that reached the Highlands in 1846, where 150,000 people faced disaster because their food supply was largely potatoes (with a little herring, oatmeal and milk). They were rescued by an effective emergency relief system that stands in dramatic contrast to the failures of relief in Ireland.

Market crash 1873

Rural Life

The unequal concentration of land ownership remained an emotional subject and eventually became a cornerstone of liberal radicalism. The politically powerless poor crofters embraced the popularly oriented, fervently evangelical Presbyterian revival after 1800, and the breakaway "Free Church" after 1843. This evangelical movement was led by lay preachers who themselves came from the lower strata, and whose preaching was implicitly critical of the established order.

This energised the crofters and separated them from the landlords, preparing them for their successful and violent challenge to the landlords in the 1880s through the Highland Land League.

Violence began on the Isle of Skye when Highland landlords cleared their lands for sheep and deer parks. It was quieted when the government stepped in passing the Crofters' Holdings (Scotland) Act, 1886 to reduce rents, guarantee fixity of tenure; break up large estates to provide crofts for the homeless. In 1885 three Independent Crofter candidates were elected to Parliament, leading to explicit security for the Scottish smallholders; the legal right to bequeath tenancies to descendants; and creating a Crofting Commission. The Crofters as a political movement faded away by 1892, and the Liberal Party gained most of their votes. Scotland's transformation into a rich leader of modern industry came suddenly and unexpectedly. The population grew steadily in the 19th century, from 1,608,000 in the census of 1801 to 2,889,000 in 1851 and 4,472,000 in 1901.

The economy, long based on agriculture, began to industrialize after 1790. At first the leading industry, based in the west, was the spinning and weaving of cotton. In 1861 the American Civil War suddenly cut off the supplies of raw cotton and the industry never recovered. Thanks to its many entrepreneurs and engineers, its large stock of easily mined coal, Scotland became a world centre for engineering, shipbuilding, locomotive construction, with steel replacing iron after 1870.

Migration

The population of Scotland grew steadily in the 19th century, from 1,608,000 in the census of 1801 to 2,889,000 in 1851 and 4,472,000 in 1901. Even with the development of industry there were insufficient good jobs; as a result, during the period 1841-1931, about 2 mln Scots migrated to North America and Australia, and another 750,000 Scots relocated to England.

Scotland lost a much higher proportion of its population than England and Wales, reaching perhaps as much as 30.2 % of its natural increase from the 1850s onwards. This not only limited Scotland's population increase, but meant that almost every family lost members due to emigration and, because more of the migrants were young males, it skewed the sex and age ratios of the country.

Scots-born migrants that played a leading role in the foundation and development of the USA included cleric & revolutionary John Witherspoon, sailor John Paul Jones, industrialist and philanthropist Andrew Carnegie and scientist and inventor Alexander Graham Bell.

In Canada they included soldier and governor of Quebec James Murray, Prime Minister John A. Macdonald and politician and social reformer Tommy Douglas. For Australia they included soldier and governor Lachlan Macquarie, governor and scientist Thomas Brisbane and Prime Minister Andrew Fisher. For New Zealand they included politician Peter Fraser and outlaw James Mckenzie.

By the 21st century, there would be about as many people who were Scottish Canadians and Scottish Americans as the 5 mln remaining in Scotland.

Economic Boom & Stagnation

A boom was created by the First World War, with the shipbuilding industry expanding by a third, but a serious depression hit the economy by 1922.The most skilled craftsmen were especially hard hit, because there were few alternative uses for their specialised skills. The main social indicators such as poor health, bad housing, and long-term mass unemployment, pointed to terminal social and economic stagnation at best, or even a downward spiral. The heavy dependence on obsolescent heavy industry and mining was a central problem, and no one offered workable solutions.

The despair reflected what Finlay (1994) describes as a widespread sense of hopelessness that prepared local business and political leaders to accept a new orthodoxy of centralised government economic planning when it arrived during the World War II. A few industries did grow, such as chemicals and whisky, which developed a global market for premium "Scotch". In general the Scottish economy stagnated leading to growing unemployment and political agitation among industrial workers.

After World War II, Scotland's economic situation became progressively worse due to overseas competition, inefficient industry, and industrial disputes. This only began to change in the 1970s, partly due to the discovery and development of North Sea oil and gas and partly as Scotland moved towards a more service-based economy. The discovery of the giant Forties oilfield in October 1970 signalled that Scotland was about to become a major oil producing nation, a view confirmed when Shell Expro discovered the giant Brent oilfield in the northern North Sea east of Shetland in 1971.

Oil production started from the Argyll field (now Ardmore) in June 1975, followed by Forties in November of that year.[309] Deindustrialisation took place rapidly in the 1970s and 1980s, as most of the traditional industries drastically shrank or were completely closed down. A new service-oriented economy emerged to replace traditional heavy industries. This included a resurgent financial services industry and the electronics manufacturing of Silicon Glen.

1900-1914

The modern history of Wales starts in the 19th century when South Wales became heavily industrialised with ironworks; this, along with the spread of coal mining to the Cynon and Rhondda valleys from the 1840s, led to an increase in population. The social effects of industrialisation resulted in armed uprisings against the mainly English owners. Socialism developed in South Wales in the latter part of the century, accompanied by the increasing politicisation of religious Nonconformism.

The first Labour MP, Keir Hardie, was elected as junior member for the Welsh constituency of Merthyr Tydfil and Aberdare in 1900. The first decade of the 20th century was the period of the coal boom in South Wales, when population growth exceeded 20 %.[85] Demographic changes affected the language frontier; the proportion of Welsh speakers in the Rhondda valley fell from 64 % in 1901 to 55 % ten years later, and similar trends were evident elsewhere in South Wales.

The coal industry steadily declined after 1945. By the early 1990s there was only one deep pit still working in Wales. There was a similar catastrophic decline in the steel industry (the steel crisis), and the Welsh economy, like that of other developed societies, became increasingly based on the expanding service sector.

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Great Britain provided the legal and cultural foundations that enabled entrepreneurs to pioneer the industrial revolution. Starting in the later part of the 18th century, there began a transition in parts of Great Britain's previously manual labour and draft-animal-based economy towards machine-based manufacturing. It started with the mechanisation of the textile industries, the development of iron-making techniques and the increased use of refined coal.

Trade expansion was enabled by the introduction of canals, improved roads and railways.

Factories pulled thousands from low productivity work in agriculture to high productivity urban jobs. The introduction of steam power fuelled primarily by coal, wider utilisation of water wheels and powered machinery (mainly in textile manufacturing) underpinned the dramatic increases in production capacity. The development of all-metal machine tools in the first two decades of the 19th century facilitated the manufacture of more production machines for manufacturing in other industries.

The effects spread throughout Western Europe and North America during the 19th century, eventually affecting most of the world, a process that continues as industrialisation.

According to Max Weber, the foundations of this process of change can be traced back to the Puritan Ethic of the Puritans of the 17th century. This produced modern personalities attuned to innovation and committed to a work ethic, inspiring landed and merchant elites alive to the benefits of modernization, and a system of agriculture able to produce increasingly cheap food supplies. To this must be added the influence of religious nonconformity, which increased literacy and inculcated a "Protestant work ethic" amongst skilled artisans.

A long run of good harvests, starting in the first half of the 18th century, resulted in an increase in disposable income and a consequent rising demand for manufactured goods, particularly textiles.

The invention of the flying shuttle by John Kay enabled wider cloth to be woven faster, but also created a demand for yarn that could not be fulfilled. Thus, the major technological advances associated with the industrial revolution were concerned with spinning. James Hargreaves created the Spinning Jenny, a device that could perform the work of a number of spinning wheels.

However, while this invention could be operated by hand, the water frame, invented by Richard Arkwright, could be powered by a water wheel. Indeed, Arkwright is credited with the widespread introduction of the factory system in Britain, and is the first example of the successful mill owner and industrialist in British history. The water frame was, however, soon supplanted by the spinning mule (a cross between a water frame and a jenny) invented by Samuel Crompton.

Mules were later constructed in iron by Messrs. Horrocks of Stockport. As they were water powered, the first mills were constructed in rural locations by streams or rivers. Workers villages were created around them, such as New Lanark Mills in Scotland. These spinning mills resulted in the decline of the domestic system, in which spinning with old slow equipment was undertaken in rural cottages.

The steam engine was invented and became a power supply that soon surpassed waterfalls and horsepower. The first practicable steam engine was invented by Thomas Newcomen; was used for pumping water out of mines. A much more powerful steam engine was invented by James Watt; it had a reciprocating engine capable of powering machinery.

The first steam-driven textile mills began to appear in the last quarter of the 18th century, and this transformed the industrial revolution into an urban phenomenon, greatly contributing to the appearance and rapid growth of industrial towns. The progress of the textile trade soon outstripped the original supplies of raw materials. By the turn of the 19th century, imported American cotton had replaced wool in the North West of England, though wool remained the chief textile in Yorkshire. Textiles have been identified as the catalyst in technological change in this period. The application of steam power stimulated the demand for coal. The demand for machinery and rails stimulated the iron industry; and the demand for transportation to move raw material in.

Finished products out stimulated the growth of the canal system, (after 1830) the railway system. Such an unprecedented degree of economic growth was not sustained by domestic demand alone. The application of technology and the factory system created such levels of mass production and cost efficiency that enabled British manufacturers to export inexpensive cloth and other items worldwide. Walt Rostow has posited the 1790s as the "take-off" period for the industrial revolution.

This means that a process previously responding to domestic and other external stimuli began to feed upon itself, and became an unstoppable and irreversible process of sustained industrial and technological expansion. In the late 18th century and early 19th century a series of technological advances led to the Industrial Revolution. Britain's position as the world's pre-eminent trader helped fund research and experimentation. The nation had some of the world's greatest reserves of coal, the main fuel of the new revolution. It was fuelled by a rejection of mercantilism in favour of the predominance of Adam Smith's capitalism. The fight against Mercantilism was led by a number of liberal thinkers, such as Richard Cobden, Joseph Hume, Francis Place and John Roebuck.

Some have stressed the importance of natural or financial resources that Britain received from its many overseas colonies or that profits from the British slave trade between Africa and the Caribbean helped fuel industrial investment. It has been pointed out, however, that slave trade and the West Indian plantations provided less than 5% of the British national income during the years of the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution saw a rapid transformation in the British economy and society. Previously, large industries had to be near forests or rivers for power. The use of coal-fuelled engines allowed them to be placed in large urban centres. These new factories proved far more efficient at producing goods than the cottage industry of a previous era. These manufactured goods were sold around the world, and raw materials and luxury goods were imported to Britain.

During the Industrial Revolution the empire became less important and less well-regarded.

The British defeat in the American War of Independence (1775-1783) deprived it of its largest and most developed colonies. This loss brought a realisation that colonies were not particularly economically beneficial to the home economy. It was realised that the costs of occupation of colonies often exceeded the financial return to the taxpayer. In other words, formal empire afforded no great economic benefit when trade would continue whether the overseas political entities were nominally sovereign or not.

The American Revolution helped demonstrate this by showing that Britain could still control trade with the colonies without having to pay for their defence and governance. Capitalism encouraged the British to grant their colonies self-government, starting with Canada, which became unified and largely independent in 1867, and Australia, which followed suit in 1901.

Critical to British success in confronting Napoleon was its superior economic situation. It was able to mobilize the nation's industrial and financial resources and apply them to defeating France.

With a population of 16 Ma Britain was barely half the size of France with 30 Ma. In terms of soldiers, the French numerical advantage was offset by British subsidies that paid for a large proportion of the Austrian and Russian soldiers, peaking at about 450,000 in 1813.

Most important, the British national output remained strong. Textiles and iron grew sharply. Iron production expanded as demand for cannon and munitions was insatiable. Agricultural prices soared – it was a golden age for agriculture even as food shortages appeared here and there. There were riots in Cornwall, Devon; Somerset during the food shortages of 1800-01. Mobs forced merchants to hand over their stocks, as the food was distributed to the hungry by popular committees.

Wells concludes that the disturbances indicate deep social grievances that extended far beyond the immediate food shortages. Overall, crop production grew 50% between 1795 and 1815.

The system of smuggling finished products into the continent undermined French efforts to ruin the British economy by cutting off markets. The well-organized business sector channelled products into what the military needed. Not only did British cloth provide for British uniforms, it clothed the allies as well and indeed the French soldiers too.

Britain used its economic power to expand the Royal Navy, doubling the number of frigates and increasing the number of large ships of the line by 50%, while increasing the roster of sailors from 15,000 to 133,000 in 8 years after the war began in 1793.

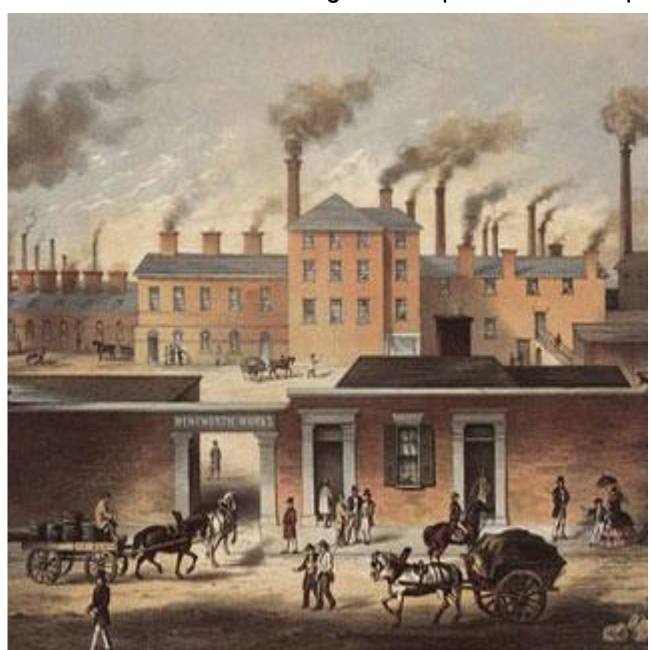
France, meanwhile, saw its navy shrink by more than half.

The British budget in 1814 reached £66 Ma, including £10 Ma for the Navy, £40 Ma for the Army, £10 Ma for the Allies, and £38 Ma as interest on the national debt. The national debt soared to £679 Ma, more than double the GDP. It was willingly supported by hundreds of thousands of investors and tax payers, despite the higher taxes on land and a new income tax. The whole cost of the war came to £831 Ma. By contrast the French financial system was inadequate and Napoleon's forces had to rely in part on requisitions from conquered lands. O'Brien examines the long-term economic impact of the wars, 1793-1815, and finds them generally favourable, except for damage to the working class.

The economy was not damaged by the diversion of manpower to the army and navy; in terms of destruction and enforced transfer of national wealth, Britain came out ahead.

British control of the oceans proved optimal in creating a liberal free-trade global economy, and helped Britain gain the lion's share of the world's carrying trade and financial support services.

The effects were positive for agriculture and most industries, apart from construction. The rate of capital formation was slowed somewhat and national income perhaps would have grown even faster without war. The most negative impact was a drop in living standards for the urban working classes.



19TH CENTURY - FREE TRADE

After 1840 Britain abandoned mercantilism and committed its economy to free trade, with few barriers or tariffs. This was most evident in the repeal in 1846 of the Corn Laws, which had imposed stiff tariffs on imported grain. The end of these laws opened the British market to unfettered competition, grain prices fell, and food became more plentiful.

From 1815 to 1870 Britain reaped the benefits of being the world's first modern, industrialised nation. It described itself as 'the workshop of the world', meaning that its finished goods were produced so efficiently and cheaply that they could often undersell comparable, locally manufactured goods in almost any other market. If political conditions in a particular overseas market were stable enough, Britain could dominate its economy through free trade alone without having to resort to formal rule or mercantilism. Britain was even supplying half the needs in manufactured goods of such nations as Germany, France, Belgium, and the USA.

By 1820, 30% of Britain's exports went to its Empire, rising slowly to 35% by 1910. Apart from coal and iron, most raw materials had to be imported so that, in the 1830s, the main imports were (in order): raw cotton (the American South), sugar (from the West Indies), wool, silk, tea (China), timber (Canada), wine, flax, hides and tallow. By 1900, Britain's global share soared to 22.8% of total imports. By 1922, its global share soared to 14.9% of total exports and 28.8% of manufactured exports.

Historians agree that in the 1840s, Britain adopted a free-trade policy, meaning open markets and no tariffs throughout the empire. The debate among historians involves what the implications of free trade actually were. "The Imperialism of Free Trade" is a highly influential 1952 article by John Gallagher and Ronald Robinson. They argued that the New Imperialism of the 1880s", especially the Scramble for Africa, was a continuation of a long-term policy in which informal empire, based on the principles of free trade, was favoured over formal imperial control.

The British invented the modern railway system and exported it to the world. They emerged from Britain's elaborate system of canals & roadways, which both used horses to haul coal for the new steam engines installed in textile factories. Britain furthermore had the engineers and entrepreneurs needed to create and finance a railway system. In 1815, George Stephenson invented the modern steam locomotive, launching a technological race: bigger, more powerful locomotives using higher and higher steam pressures. Stephenson's key innovation came when he integrated all the components of a railways system in 1825 by opening the Stockton and Darlington line.

It demonstrated it was commercially feasible to have a system of usable length. London poured money into railway building – a veritable bubble, but one with permanent value.

Thomas Brassey brought British railway engineering to the world, with construction crews that in the 1840s employed 75,000 men across Europe. Every nation copied the British model.

Brassey expanded throughout the British Empire and Latin America. His companies invented and improved thousands of mechanical devices, and developed the science of civil engineering to build roadways, tunnels and bridges. The telegraph, although invented and developed separately, proved essential for the internal communications of the railways because it allowed slower trains to pull over as express trains raced through. Telegraphs made it possible to use a single track for two-way traffic, and to locate where repairs were needed. Britain had a superior financial system based in London that funded both the railways in Britain and also in many other parts of the world, including the USA, up until 1914.

The boom years were 1836 and 1845-47, when Parliament authorized 8,000 miles of railways with a projected future total of £200 Ma; that about equalled one year of Britain's GDP. Once a charter was obtained, there was little government regulation, as laissez faire and private ownership had become accepted practices. Isambard Kingdom Brunel (1806-1859) designed the first major railway, the Great Western, built originally in the 1830s to cover the 100 mi from London to Bristol. Even more important was the highly controversial George Hudson.

He became Britain's "railway king" by merging numerous short lines. Since there was no government agency supervising the railways, Hudson set up a system that all the lines adopted called the Railway Clearing House. It made interconnections easy for people and freight by standardizing routines for transferring freight and people between companies, and loaning out freight cars.

By 1849 Hudson controlled nearly 30% of Britain's trackage. Hudson did away with accountants and manipulated funds – paying large dividends out of capital because profits were quite low, but no one knew that until his system collapsed and the railway bubble of the late 1840s burst.

By 1850 Britain had a well integrated, well engineered system that provided fast, on-time, inexpensive movement of freight and people to every city and most rural districts. Freight rates had plunged to a penny a ton mile for coal.

The system directly or indirectly employed tens of thousands of engineers, conductors, mechanics, repairmen, accountants, station agents and managers, bringing a new level of business sophistication that could be applied to many other industries, and helping many small and large businesses to expand their role in the industrial revolution. Thus railways had a tremendous impact on industrialization.

By lowering transportation costs, they reduced costs for all industries moving supplies and finished goods, and they increased demand for the production of all the inputs needed for the railway system itself. The system kept growing; by 1880, there were 13,500 locomotives, which each carried 97,800 passengers a year, or 31,500 tons of freight.

During the First Industrial Revolution, the industrialist replaced the merchant as the dominant figure in the capitalist system. In the later decades of the 19th century, when the ultimate control and direction of large industry came into the hands of financiers, industrial capitalism gave way to financial capitalism and the corporation. The establishment of behemoth industrial empires, whose assets were controlled and managed by men divorced from production, was a dominant feature of this third phase.

New products and services were also introduced which greatly increased international trade. Improvements in steam engine design and the wide availability of cheap iron (after 1870 steel) meant that slow, sailing ships could be replaced with steamships, such as Brunel's SS Great Western.

Electricity and chemical industries became important although Britain lagged behind the U.S. and Germany. Amalgamation of industrial cartels into larger corporations, mergers and alliances of separate firms, and technological advancement (particularly the increased use of electric power and internal combustion engines fuelled by gasoline) were mixed blessings for British business during the late Victorian era. The ensuing development of more intricate and efficient machines along with mass production techniques greatly expanded output and lowered production costs.

As a result, production often exceeded domestic demand. Among the new conditions, more markedly evident in Britain, the forerunner of Europe's industrial states, were the long-term effects of the severe Long Depression of 1873-1896, which had followed 15 years of great economic instability.

Businesses in practically every industry suffered from lengthy periods of low – and falling – profit rates and price deflation after 1873.

By the 1870s, financial houses in London had achieved an unprecedented level of control over industry. This contributed to increasing concerns among policy-makers over the protection of British investments overseas – those in the securities of foreign governments and in foreign-government-backed development activities, such as railways. Although it had been official British policy to support such investments, with the large expansion of these investments in the 1860s, and the economic and political instability of many areas of investment (Egypt), calls upon the government for methodical protection became increasingly pronounced in the years leading up to the Crystal Palace Speech.

At the end of the Victorian era, the service sector (banking, insurance and shipping, for example) began to gain prominence at the expense of manufacturing. During the late 18th century the UK experienced stronger increases in the service sector than in the industrial sector.

Industry grew by only 2 %, whereas the service sector employment increased by 9 %. Foreign trade tripled in volume between 1870 and 1914; most of the activity occurred with other industrialised countries. Britain ranked as the world's largest trading nation in 1860, but by 1913 it had lost ground to both the USA and Germany: British and German exports in that year each totalled $2.3 bn, and those of the USA exceeded $2.4 bn. As foreign trade increased, so in proportion did the amount of it going outside the Continent. In 1840, £7.7 Ma of its export and £9.2 Ma of its import trade was done outside Europe; in 1880 the figures were £38.4 Ma and £73 Ma. Europe's economic contacts with the wider world were multiplying, much as Britain's had been doing for years.

In many cases, colonial control followed private investment, particularly in raw materials and agriculture. Intercontinental trade between North and South constituted a higher proportion of global trade in this era than in the late 20th century period of globalisation.

London strengthened its position as the world's financial capital, the export of capital was a major base of the British economy 1880 to 1913, the "golden era" of international finance.

Investment was especially heavy in the independent nations of Latin America, which were eager for infrastructure improvements such as railways built by the British, ports, and telegraph and telephone systems. British merchants dominated trade in the region. Not all the investments paid off; the mines in the Sudan, for example, lost money. By 1913 Britain's overseas assets totaled about four bn pounds. Britain persisted in its free trade policy even as its major rivals, the U.S. and Germany, turned to high tariffs (as did Canada). American heavy industry grew faster than Britain, and by the 1890s was crowding British machinery and other products out of the world market.

New business practices in the areas of management and accounting made possible the more efficient operation of large companies. For example, in steel, coal, and iron companies 19th-century accountants utilized sophisticated, fully integrated accounting systems to calculate output, yields, and costs to satisfy management information requirements. South Durham Steel and Iron, was a large horizontally integrated company that operated mines, mills, and shipyards. Its management used traditional accounting methods with the goal of minimizing production costs, and thus raising its profitability.

By contrast one of its competitors, Cargo Fleet Iron introduced mass production milling techniques through the construction of modern plants.

Cargo Fleet set high production goals and developed an innovative but complicated accounting system to measure and report all costs throughout the production process. However, problems in obtaining coal supplies and the failure to meet the firm's production goals forced Cargo Fleet to drop its aggressive system and return to the sort of approach South Durham Steel was using.

The American "invasion" of the British home market demanded a response. Tariffs, although increasingly under consideration, were not imposed until the 1930s.

Therefore, British businessmen were obliged to lose their market or else rethink and modernize their operations. The boot and shoe industry faced increasing imports of American footwear; Americans took over the market for shoe machinery. British companies realized they had to meet the competition so they re-examine their traditional methods of work, labour utilization, and industrial relations, and to rethink how to market footwear in terms of the demand for fashion.

After the loss of the American colonies in 1776, Britain built a "Second British Empire", based in colonies in India, Asia, Australia, Canada. The crown jewel was India, where in the 1750s a private British company, with its own army, the East India Company (or "John Company"), took control of parts of India. The 19th century saw Company rule extended across India after expelling the Dutch, French and Portuguese. By the 1830s the Company was a government and had given up most of its business in India, but it was still privately owned. Following the Indian Rebellion of 1857 the government closed down the Company and took control of British India and the Company's Presidency Armies.

Free trade (with no tariffs & few trade barriers) was introduced in the 1840s.

Protected by the overwhelming power of the Royal Navy, the economic empire included very close economic ties with independent nations in Latin America. The informal economic empire has been called "The Imperialism of Free Trade." Numerous independent entrepreneurs expanded the Empire, such as Stamford Raffles of the East India Company who founded the port of Singapore in 1819. Businessmen eager to sell Indian opium in the vast China market led to the Opium War (1839-1842) and the establishment of British colonies at Hong Kong.

One adventurer, James Brooke, set himself up as the Rajah of the Kingdom of Sarawak in North Borneo in 1842; his realm joined the Empire in 1888. Cecil Rhodes set up an economic empire of diamonds in South Africa that proved highly profitable. There were great riches in gold as well but this venture led to expensive wars with the Dutch settlers known as Boers.

The possessions of the East India Company in India, under the direct rule of the Crown from 1857 – known as British India – was the centrepiece of the Empire, and because of an efficient taxation system it paid its own administrative expenses as well as the cost of the large British Indian Army.

In terms of trade, however, India turned only a small profit for British business.

There was pride and glory in the Empire, as the talented young Britons vied for positions in the Indian Civil Service and for similar overseas career opportunities. The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 was a vital economic and military link. To protect the canal, Britain expanded further, taking control of Egypt, the Sudan, Uganda, Kenya, Cyprus, Palestine, Aden, and British Somaliland. None were especially profitable until the discovery of oil in the Middle East after 1920. Some military action was involved, and from time to time there was a risk of conflict with other imperial powers seeking the same territory, as in the Fashoda Incident of 1898. All the incidents were resolved peacefully.

Cain and Hopkins argue that the phases of expansion abroad were closely linked with the development of the domestic economy. Therefore, the shifting balance of social and political forces under imperialism and the varying intensity of Britain's economic and political rivalry with other powers need to be understood with reference to domestic policies. Gentlemen capitalists, representing Britain's landed gentry and London's service sectors and financial institutions, largely shaped and controlled Britain's imperial enterprises in the 19th and early 20th centuries. Industrial leaders played a lesser role and found themselves dependent on the gentlemen capitalists.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

The 20th Century Economical Development

By 1900, the USA and Germany had developed large-scale industries; Britain's comparative economic advantage had lessened. London did remain the financial and entrepreneurial capital of the world, until challenged by New York after 1918.

The Edwardian era (1901-1910) stands out as a time of peace and plenty. There were no severe depressions and prosperity was widespread. Britain's growth rate, manufacturing output, and GDP (but not per capita) fell behind its rivals the USA, and Germany. Nevertheless, the nation still led the world in trade, finance and shipping, and had strong bases in manufacturing and mining.

The industrial sector was slow to adjust to global changes, and there was a striking preference for leisure over entrepreneurship among the elite. However major achievements should be underlined.

The City was the financial centre of the world – far more efficient and wide-ranging than New York, Paris or Berlin. Britain had built up a vast reserve of overseas credits in its formal Empire, as well as in its informal empire in Latin America and other nations. It had huge financial holdings in the USA, especially in railways. These assets proved vital in paying for supplies in the first years of the World War. The amenities, especially in urban life, were accumulating – prosperity was highly visible.

The working classes were beginning to protest politically for a greater voice in government, but the level of industrial unrest on economic issues was not high until about 1908.

The First World War saw a decline of economic production, with a major reallocation to munitions. It forced Britain to use up its financial reserves and borrow large sums from the U.S.

Shipments of American raw materials and food allowed Britain to feed itself and its army while maintaining her productivity. The financing was generally successful, as the City's strong financial position minimized the damaging effects of inflation, as opposed to much worse conditions in Germany. Overall consumer consumption declined 18% from 1914 to 1919. Trade unions were encouraged as membership grew from 4.1 Ma in 1914 to 6.5 Ma in 1918, peaking at 8.3 Ma in 1920 before relapsing to 5.4 Ma in 1923. In Scotland, the shipbuilding industry expanded by a third. Women were available and many entered munitions factories and took other home front jobs vacated by men.

Postwar Stagnation

The human and material losses of the World War in Britain were enormous. They included 745,000 servicemen killed and 24,000 civilians, with 1.7 Ma wounded. The total of lost shipping came to 7.9 Ma tons, and £7,500 Ma in financial costs to the Empire. Germany owed bns in reparations, but Britain in turn owed the U.S. bns in loan repayments.

With the end of war orders, a serious depression hit the economy by 1921-22. Factors explaining the economic depression are on one hand the return to prewar gold standard at parity or upcoming structural problems to the northern industrial core of the UK. Indeed, even if Britain was far better off compared to the badly battered Continent, economic stagnation lasted the whole decade.

The most skilled craftsmen were especially hard hit, because there were few alternative uses for their specialised skills. In depressed areas the main social indicators such as poor health, bad housing, and long-term mass unemployment, pointed to terminal social and economic stagnation at best, or even a downward spiral. The heavy dependence on obsolescent heavy industry and mining was a central problem, and no one offered workable solutions.

The despair reflected what Finlay (1994) describes as a widespread sense of hopelessness that prepared local business and political leaders to accept a new orthodoxy of centralised government economic planning when it arrived during the Second World War. In 1919 Britain reduced the working hours in major industries to a 48-hour week for industrial workers. Historians have debated whether this move depressed labour productivity and contributed to the slump. Scott and Spadavecchia argue that productivity was in some ways enhanced, especially through higher hourly productivity.

Britain did not suffer in its exports because most other nations also reduced working hours.

Looking at coal, cotton, and iron and steel, they find that Britain did not suffer any significant relative productivity loss in these industries. By 1921, more than 3 Ma Britons were unemployed as a result of the postwar economic downturn. While the economy was recovering by 1922-3, the UK found itself struggling again by 1926, the general strike of that year doing it no favours. Growth for the remainder of the decade became erratic, with brief periods of stagnation constantly interrupting growth.

Industrial relations briefly improved, but then came the Wall Street stock market crash in October 1929, which sparked the worldwide Great Depression. Unemployment had stood at less than 1.8 Ma at the end of 1930, but by the end of 1931 it had risen sharply to more than 2.6 Ma.

By January 1933, more than 3 Ma Britons were unemployed, accounting for more than 20% of the workforce – with unemployment topping 50% in some parts of the country, particularly in South Wales and the north-east of England. The rest of the 1930s saw a moderate economic recovery stimulated by private housing. The rate of unemployment fell to 10% in 1938 – half of the level five years previously.

From 1800 to 1870 Britain produced more than half of the world's pig iron, and was in the lead in devising ways to make steel. In 1880 Britain produced 1.3 Ma tons of steel, and in 1893 3 Ma tons; by 1914 output was 8 Ma tons. Germany caught up in 1893 and produced 14 Ma tons in 1914. After 1900 the U.S. dominated global steel production, while the British industry languished.

Britain's steel industry brought in academic experts, such as Professor Oliver Arnold to analyse and make recommendations for improvements in productivity. The industry made significant technical advances in terms of vanadium, phospho-magnetic steels and other specialized high-strength alloys, using the electric furnace and other innovations, the devising of new techniques over the smoke issue.

The industry trained a cadre of experts that made large firms scientifically self-sustaining.

Politics became a central issue for the coal miners, whose organization was facilitated by their location in remote one-industry villages. The Miners' Federation of Great Britain formed in 1888, and counted 600,000 members in 1908. Much of the "old left" of Labour politics can trace its origins to coal-mining areas.

General Strike of 1926

Taxes rose sharply during the war and never returned to their old levels. A rich man paid 8 % of his income in taxes before the war, and about a third afterwards. Much of the money went for the dole, the weekly unemployment benefits. About 5% of the national income every year was transferred from the rich to the poor. Taylor argues most people "were enjoying a richer life than any previously known in the history of the world: longer holidays, shorter hours, higher real wages".

The British economy was lackluster in the 1920s, with sharp declines and high unemployment in heavy industry and coal, especially in Scotland and Wales. Exports of coal and steel fell in half by 1939 and the business community was slow to adopt the new labour and management principles coming from the US, such as Fordism, consumer credit, eliminating surplus capacity, designing a more structured management, and using greater economies of scale. For over a century the shipping industry had dominated world trade, but it remained in the doldrums despite various stimulus efforts by the government. With the very sharp decline in world trade after 1929, its condition became critical.

Chancellor of the Exchequer Winston Churchill put Britain back on the gold standard in 1925, which many economists blame for the mediocre performance of the economy. Others point to a variety of factors, including the inflationary effects of the World War and supply-side shocks caused by reduced working hours after the war. In April 1926 the owners locked out the miners because they had rejected the owners' demands for longer hours and reduced pay in the face of falling prices caused by demand as oil started to replace coal. The general strike was led by the TUC for the benefit of coal miners, but it failed. It was a 9-day nationwide walkout of one Ma railwaymen, transport workers, printers, dockers, ironworkers & steelworkers supporting the 1.5 Ma coal miners who had been locked out.

The government had provided a nine-month subsidy in 1925 but that was not enough to turn around a sick industry. The TUC hope was the government would intervene to reorganize and rationalize the industry; raise the subsidy. The Conservative government had stockpiled supplies and essential services continued with middle class volunteers.

All three major parties opposed the strike. The general strike itself was largely non-violent, but the miners' lockout continued and there was violence in Scotland. It was the only general strike in British history and TUC leaders such as Ernest Bevin considered it a mistake. Most historians treat it as a singular event with few long-term consequences, but Martin Pugh says it accelerated the movement of working-class voters to the Labour Party, which led to future gains.

The Trade Disputes & Trade Unions Act 1927 made general strikes illegal and ended the automatic payment of union members to the Labour Party. That act was largely repealed in 1946.

Coal continued as a sick industry as the best seams were used up and it became more and more difficult to mine the rest. The Labour government in 1947 nationalized coal into the National Coal Board, giving miners access to control of the mines via their control of the government.

By the late 1920s, economic performance had stabilised, but the overall situation was disappointing, for Britain had fallen behind the USA as the leading industrial power.

There remained a strong economic divide between the north and south of England during this period, with the south of England and the Midlands fairly prosperous by the Thirties, while parts of south Wales and the industrial north of England became known as "distressed areas" due to particularly high rates of unemployment and poverty. Despite this, the standard of living continued to improve as local councils built new houses to let to families rehoused from outdated slums, with up to date facilities including indoor toilets, bathrooms and electric lighting now being included in the new properties. The private sector enjoyed a housebuilding boom during the 1930s.

1920's "Consumer Boom"

In spite of the serious problems that plagued heavy industry, the 1920s marked an era of unprecedented growth for the British consumer industry, until then a minor player in the national economy. While not creating a fully-fledged "consumer culture" as in the USA during the same decade, it had an important effect over British society, primarily on the middle classes which gained access to commodities previously reserved for the upper crust, primarily automobiles, ownership rising tenfold during the interwar period (from around 500,000 in 1919 to approximately over 3 Ma in 1929 and 5 Ma in 1939). Sales of electric appliances boomed thanks to the rise of consumer-oriented credit and loans.

Higher wages and shorter working hours also led to the rise of recreation: Gramophone records, radio (or "the wireless" as it was referred), magazines and cinema became part of everyday life much like sports, primarily football and cricket.

Tourism grew rapidly in the interwar years because of the rapidly rising number of motorized middle-class and lower-middle-class holidaymakers, as well as an influx of American tourists. Seaside resorts like Blackpool, Brighton and Skegness were particularly popular.

However, those tourist sites that catered to the very wealthy (holidaying abroad) or were located in depressed areas, all experienced a decline in profits, especially during the Great Depression.

Electricity, gas, plumbing and telephone services became common as well during the decade, even in some working class households. However, those living in the most remote and poorest parts of Britain saw little change in their living standards, with many Britons still living in terraced homes with outdoor toilets as late as the 1960s.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 3. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

1929-1939: The Great Depression

In 1929, the Wall St Crash affected Britain in 1930, resulting in it leaving the Gold Standard.

Whereas Britain had championed the concept of the free market when it was ascendant in the world economy, it gradually withdrew to adopting Tariff Reform as a measure of protectionism. By the early 1930s, the depression again signalled the economic problems the British economy faced.

Unemployment soared during this period; from just over 10% in 1929 to more than 20% (or more than 3 Ma of the workforce) by early 1933. However, it had fallen to 13.9% by the start of 1936.

While heavy industry sank to new lows, the consumer industry recovered by 1934 to the point production increased 32% between 1933 and 1937. In political terms, the economic problems found expression in the rise of radical movements who promised solutions which conventional political parties were no longer able to provide. In Britain this was seen with the rise of the Communist Party of Great Britain (CPGB) and the Fascists under Oswald Mosley. However, their political strength was limited and unlike in the rest of Europe, the conventional political parties in the UK never saw real danger.

A National Government was formed in 1931, with the Conservatives returning to power in 1935 after six years of the first Labour-led government under Ramsay Macdonald.

World War II

In the Second World War, 1939-45, Britain had a highly successful record of mobilizing the home front for the war effort, in terms of mobilizing the greatest proportion of potential workers, maximizing output, assigning the right skills to the right task, and maintaining the morale and spirit of the people. Much of this success was due to the systematic planned mobilization of women, as workers, soldiers; housewives, enforced after December 1941 by conscription. The women supported the war effort, and made the rationing of consumer goods a success.

Industrial production was reoriented toward munitions, and output soared. In steel, for example, the Materials Committee of the government tried to balance the needs of civilian departments and the War Department, but strategic considerations received precedence over any other need. Highest priority went to aircraft production as the RAF was under continuous heavy German pressure.

The government decided to concentrate on only five types of aircraft in order to optimize output. They received extraordinary priority. Covering the supply of materials and equipment and even made it possible to divert from other types the necessary parts, equipment, materials and manufacturing resources. Labour was moved from other aircraft work to factories engaged on the specified types. Cost was not an object. The delivery of new fighters rose from 256 in April to 467 in September 1940 – more than enough to cover the losses – and Fighter Command emerged triumphantly from the Battle of Britain in October with more aircraft than it had possessed at the beginning. Starting in 1941 the U.S. provided munitions through Lend lease that totalled $15.5 bn.

After war broke out between Britain and Germany in September 1939, Britain imposed exchange controls. The British Government used its gold reserves and dollar reserves to pay for munitions, oil, raw materials and machinery, mostly from the U.S.

By the third quarter of 1940 the volume of British exports was down 37% compared to 1935. Although the British Government had committed itself to nearly $10,000 Ma of orders from America, Britain's gold and dollar reserves were near exhaustion. The Roosevelt Administration was committed to large-scale economic support of Britain and in early 1941 enacted Lend-Lease, whereby America would give Britain supplies totalling $31.4 bn which never had to be repaid.

Although Britain achieved ultimate victory in the war, the economic costs were enormous. Six years of prolonged warfare and heavy losses of merchant shipping meant that Britain had lost two-thirds of her pre-war export trade by 1945.The loss of her export markets also caused a serious shortage of US dollars, which were crucial to servicing Britain's war debt and maintaining imports from the USA.

Most of Britain's gold and currency reserves were depleted and the Government had been forced to sell off the bulk of British overseas assets to fund the war effort. When Lend Lease was terminated by the USA in August 1945, Britain was unable to pay for the import of essential supplies from America. Although the US agreed to cancel $20 Ma in Lend Lease debt, the UK was forced to obtain a $3.75 bn loan from the USA at 2% interest in December 1945. The US/UK trade imbalance was perilously high, forcing the extension of rationing to lessen the imbalance and preserve precious US dollars for the servicing of loan repayments.

In the 1945 general election, just after the end of the war in Europe, the Labour Party led by Clement Attlee was elected with a landslide majority, introducing sweeping reforms of the British economy.

Taxes were increased, industries were nationalised, and a welfare state with national health, pensions, and social security was created. Most rations were lifted during 1950, with a few of them remaining until 1954. The next 15 years saw some of the most rapid growth Britain had ever experienced, recovering from the devastation of the World War II and then expanding rapidly past the previous size of the economy. The economy went from strength to strength particularly after the Conservatives returned to government in 1951, still led by wartime leader Sir Winston Churchill until he retired to make way for Anthony Eden just before his party's re-election in 1955.

However, the Suez crisis of 1956 weakened the government's reputation and Britain's global standing, and prompted Eden to resign in early 1957 to be replaced by Harold Macmillan.

By 1959, tax cuts had helped boost living standards and allow for a strong economy and low unemployment, with October 1959 seeing the Tories win their third consecutive general election with a greatly increased majority, which sparked public and media doubt regarding Labour's chances of future election success. Labour leader Hugh Gaitskell then drew a new economic plan for the party, heavily based on the success of the centralised industries of France and West Germany, by the 1960s the latter's economy surpassing the UK for the first time since 1915 as Europe's largest economy.

Harold Wilson and Anthony Wedgwood Benn further developed the idea, becoming the backbone of the party's manifesto for the 1964 election.

Britain's economy remained strong with low unemployment into the 1960s, but towards the end of the decade this growth began to slow and unemployment was rising again. Harold Wilson, the Labour leader who had ended 13 years of Conservative rule with a narrow victory in 1964 before increasing his majority in 1966, was surprisingly voted out of power in 1970.

The new Conservative government was led by Edward Heath. During the 1970s Britain suffered a long running period of relative economic malaise, dogged by rising unemployment, frequent strikes and severe inflation, with neither the Conservative government of 1970-1974 (led by Edward Heath) nor the Labour government which succeeded it (led by Harold Wilson and from 1976 James Callaghan) being able to halt the country's economic decline. Inflation exceeded 20% twice during the 1970s and was rarely below 10%.

Unemployment exceeded 1 Ma by 1972 and had risen even higher by the time the end of the decade was in sight, passing the 1.5 Ma mark in 1978. The winter of 1978/79 brought a series of public sector strikes known as the Winter of Discontent, leading to the collapse of Callaghan's Labour government in March 1979. This led to the election of Margaret Thatcher, who had succeeded Edward Heath as Conservative leader in 1975. She cut back on the government's role in the economy and weakened the power of the trade unions. The final two decades of the 20th century saw an increase in service-providers and a drop in manufacturing and heavy industry, combined with privatisation of some sections of the economy. This change has led some to describe this as a 'Third Industrial Revolution', though this term is not widely used.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

1945-1951: Age of Austerity

As the war ended and American Lend Lease suddenly and unexpectedly ended, the Treasury was near bankruptcy and Labour's new programmes would be expensive. The economy did not reach pre-war levels until the 1950s. The immediate post-war years were called the Age of Austerity.

The war almost bankrupted Britain, while the country maintained a global empire in an attempt to remain a global power. For instance, it operated a large air force and a conscript army.

Without Lend Lease, bankruptcy loomed. The government secured a low-interest $3.75 bn loan from the USA in December 1945. Rebuilding necessitated fiscal austerity in order to maximise export earnings, while Britain's colonies and other client states were required to keep their reserves in pounds as "sterling balances". Additional $3.2 bn – which did not have to be repaid – came from the American Marshall Plan in 1948-52. However, the Plan did require Britain to modernise its business practices and remove trade barriers. Britain was an enthusiastic supporter of the Marshall Plan, used it as a lever to more directly promote European unity. Britain was an enthusiastic cofounder of the NATO military alliance against the Soviets, which was formed in 1949.

Rationing, especially of food, continued in the post-war years as the government tried to control demand and normalise the economy. Anxieties were heightened when the country suffered one of the worst winters on record in 1946-47: the coal and railway systems failed, factories closed, and a large proportion of the population suffered due to the cold.

Wartime rationing continued, and was for the first time extended to bread in order to feed the German civilians in the British sector of occupied Germany. During the war, the government had banned ice cream and rationed sweets, such as chocolates and confections; all sweets were rationed until 1954. Most people grumbled, but for the poorest, rationing was beneficial, because their rationed diet was of greater nutritional value than their pre-war diet.

Housewives organised to oppose the austerity. The Conservatives gained support by attacking socialism, austerity, rationing and economic controls and returned to power in 1951.

Morale was boosted by the marriage of Princess Elizabeth to Philip Mountbatten in 1947, the 1948 Summer Olympics were held in London. Reconstruction had begun in London, but no funding was available for new facilities. After World War II, the British economy had again lost huge amounts of absolute wealth. Its economy was driven entirely for the needs of war and took some time to be reorganised for peaceful production.

Britain's economic position was relatively strong compared to its devastated European neighbors – in 1947 British exports were equivalent in value to the combined exports of France, Western Germany, Italy, Norway, Denmark, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg.

Anticipating the end of the conflict, the USA had negotiated throughout the war to liberalise post-war trade and the international flow of capital in order to break into markets which had previously been closed to it, including the British Empire's Pound Sterling bloc. This was to be realised through the Atlantic Charter of 1941, through the establishment of the Bretton Woods system in 1944, and through the new economic power that the US was able to exert due to the weakened British economy.

Immediately after the war in the Pacific had ended, the U.S. halted free Lend-Lease, but did give the UK a long-term low-interest loan of $ 4.33 bn. The winter of 1946-1947 proved to be very harsh, with curtailed production and shortages of coal, which again affected the economy so that by August 1947, when convertibility was due to begin, the economy was not as strong as it needed to be.

When the Labour Government enacted convertibility, there was a run on Sterling, meaning that Sterling was being traded in for dollars, seen as the new, more powerful and stable currency in the world. This damaged the British economy and within weeks it was stopped. By 1949, the British pound was over valued and had to be devalued.The major economic priority of post-war Britain was to raise exports and balance the UK's dollar deficit.

This required the extension of rationing, as British goods and produce were requisitioned for export markets. Unlike Continental European countries, where rationing was abandoned within a few years of the wars' end, Britain actually tightened rationing restrictions and didn't fully abandon them until 1954. The U.S. began Marshall Plan grants that pumped $3.3 bn into the economy and forced businessmen to modernize their approach to management. Marshall Aid, however, failed to have the desired effect of modernizing industry and stimulating the economy, because 97% of the funds were used to service British debt repayments. This left the nation at a comparative disadvantage to rivals like France and West Germany, who were able to invest the money directly into industry and infrastructure, creating more competitive, efficient economies in the long-term.

The post-war consensus is a historians' model of political agreement from 1945 to 1979, when newly elected Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher rejected and reversed it. The concept claims there was a widespread consensus that covered support for a coherent package of policies that were developed in the 1930s, promised during the Second World War, and enacted under Attlee.

The policies dealt with a mixed economy, Keynesianism, and a broad welfare state. In recent years the validity of the interpretation has been debated by historians.

The historians' model of the post-war consensus was most fully developed by Paul Addison.

The basic argument is that in the 1930s Liberal Party intellectuals led by John Maynard Keynes and William Beveridge developed a series of plans that became especially attractive as the wartime government promised a much better post-war Britain and saw the need to engage every sector of society. The coalition government during the war, headed by Churchill and Attlee, signed off on a series of white papers that promised Britain a much-improved welfare state. After the war.

The promises included the National Health Service, and expansion of education, housing, and a number of welfare programmes. It did not include the nationalisation of all industries, which was a Labour Party design. The Labour Party did not challenge the system of elite public schools. They became part of the consensus, as did comprehensive schools. Nor did Labour challenge the primacy of Oxford and Cambridge. However, the consensus did call for building many new universities to dramatically broaden educational base of society. Conservatives did not challenge the socialised medicine of the National Health Service; indeed, they boasted they could do better job of running it.

In foreign policy, the consensus called for an anti-Communist Cold War policy, decolonisation, close ties to NATO, the USA, and the Commonwealth, and slowly emerging ties to the European Community. The model states that from 1945 until the arrival of Thatcher in 1979, there was a broad multi-partisan national consensus on social & economic policy, especially regarding the welfare state, nationalised health services, educational reform, a mixed economy, government regulation, Keynesian macroeconomic policiesl; full employment.

Apart from the question of nationalisation of some industries, these policies were broadly accepted by the three major parties, as well as by industry, the financial community and the labour movement.

Until the 1980s, historians generally agreed on the existence and importance of the consensus. Some historians such as Ralph Miliband expressed disappointment that the consensus was a modest or even conservative package that blocked a fully socialised society. Historian Angus Calder complained bitterly that the post-war reforms were an inadequate reward for the wartime sacrifices, and a cynical betrayal of the people's hope for a more just post-war society. In recent years, there has been a historiographical debate on whether such a consensus ever existed.

Exercise 1. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**

NATIONALISATION

Martin Francis argues there was Labour Party consensus by 1945, both on the National Executive Committee and at party conferences, on a definition of socialism that stressed moral as well as material improvement. The Attlee government was committed to rebuilding British society as an ethical commonwealth, using public ownership and controls to abolish extremes of wealth and poverty.

Labour's ideology contrasted sharply with the contemporary Conservative Party's defence of individualism, allowing people to keep much of the wealth they had created, inherited privileges and income inequality.

Attlee's government nationalised major industries and utilities. It developed and implemented the "cradle to grave" welfare state conceived by liberal economist William Beveridge. The creation of Britain's publicly funded National Health Service under health minister Aneurin Bevan remains Labour's proudest achievement. However, the Labour Party had developed no detailed plans nationalization plans.

Improvising, they started with the Bank of England, civil aviation, coal and Cable and Wireless.

Then came railways, canals, road haulage and trucking, electricity, and gas. Finally came iron and steel, which was a special case because it was a manufacturing industry. Altogether, about one fifth of the economy was taken over. Labour dropped the notion of nationalising farms.

Overall nationalisation went smoothly, with two exceptions. Nationalising hospitals was strongly opposed by practising physicians. Compromises allowed them also to have a private practice, and the great majority decided to work with the National Health Service.

Much more controversial was the nationalisation of the iron and steel industry — unlike coal, it was profitable and highly efficient. Industry owners and executives, the business community as a whole and the Conservative Party as a whole opposed nationalisation. The House of Lords was opposed, but the Parliament Act 1949 reduced its power to delay legislation to just one year.

Finally, in 1951, iron and steel were nationalised, but then Labour lost its majority.

The Conservatives in 1955 returned them to private ownership.

Herbert Morrison, who as Lord President of the Council chaired the Committee on the Socialisation of Industries, developed the procedure used. He followed the model that was already in place of setting up public corporations such as the BBC in broadcasting (1927).

The owners of corporate stock were given government bonds, and the government took full ownership of each affected company, consolidating it into a national monopoly. The managers remained the same, only now they became civil servants working for the government. For the Labour Party leadership, nationalisation was a way to consolidate economic planning. It was not designed to modernise old industries, make them efficient, or transform their organisational structure.

There was no money for modernisation, although the Marshall Plan, operated separately by American planners, did force many British businesses to adopt modern managerial techniques. Old line British Marxists were fervent believers in dialectical materialism and in fighting against capitalism and for workers' control, trade unionism, nationalisation of industry and centralized planning. They were now disappointed, as the nationalised industries seemed identical to the old private corporations, and national planning was made virtually impossible by the government's financial constraints.

At Oxford a "New Left" started to emerge that rejected old-line approaches. Socialism was in place, but it did not seem to make a major difference. Rank-and-file workers had long been motivated to support Labour by tales of the mistreatment of workers by supervisors and management.

The supervisors and the managers were the same people as before, with much the same power over the workplace. There was no worker control of industry. The unions resisted government efforts to set wages. By the time of the general elections in 1950 and 1951, Labour seldom boasted about its nationalisations. Instead, Conservatives decried the inefficiency and mismanagement, and promised to reverse the treatment of steel and trucking.

Labour Weaknesses

Labour struggled to maintain its support. Realising the unpopularity of rationing, in 1948-49 the government ended the rationing of potatoes, bread, shoes, clothing and jam, and increased the petrol ration for summer drivers. However, meat was still rationed, and in very short supply, at high prices.

Militant socialist Aneurin Bevan, the Minister of Health, said at a party rally in 1948, "no amount of cajolery... can eradicate from my heart a deep burning hatred for the Tory Party.... They are lower than vermin." Bevan, a coal miner's son, had gone too far in a land that took pride in self-restraint, and he never lived down the remark. Labour narrowly won the 1950 general election with a majority of five seats. Defence became one of the divisive issues for Labour itself, especially defence spending, which reached 14% of GDP in 1951 during the Korean War. These costs strained public finances.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, Hugh Gaitskell, introduced prescription charges for NHS dentures and spectacles, leading Bevan, along with Harold Wilson (President of the Board of Trade) to resign. A decade of turmoil ensued in the Party, much to the advantage of the Conservatives who won again and again by ever-larger majorities.

David Kynaston argues that conservative parliamentarians who always worked through constitutional parliamentary channels led the Labour Party under Attlee; they saw no need for large demonstrations, boycotts or symbolic strikes. The result was a solid expansion and coordination of the welfare system, most notably the concentrated and centralised NHS.

Private sector nationalisation focused on older, declining industries, most notably coal mining. Labour kept promising systematic economic planning, but never established adequate mechanisms.

Much of the planning was forced upon them by the Marshall Plan, which insisted on a modernisation of business procedures and government regulations. The Keynesian model accepted by Labour emphasised that planning could be handled indirectly through national spending and tax policies.

The Labour Governments of 1945-1951 enacted a political programme rooted in collectivism including the nationalisation of industries and state direction of the economy.

Both wars had demonstrated the possible benefits of greater state involvement.

This underlined the future direction of the post-war economy, and was supported in the main by the Conservatives. However, the initial hopes for nationalisation were not fulfilled and more nuanced understandings of economic management emerged, such as state direction, rather than state ownership.

Throughout though, the basis remained the same: applying the economic theories of Keynes and continued state involvement.

The concept of nationalizing the coal mines had been accepted in principle by owners and miners alike before the elections of 1945. The owners were paid £165,000,000. The government set up the National Coal Board to manage the coal mines; and it loaned it £150,000,000 to modernize the system. The general condition of the coal industry had been unsatisfactory for many years, with poor productivity. In 1945 there were 28% more workers in the coal mines than in 1890, but the annual output was only 8% greater. Young people avoided the pits; between 1931 and 1945 the percentage of miners more than 40 years old rose from 35% to 43%, and 24,000 over 65 years old.

The number of surface workers decreased between 1938 and 1945 by only 3,200, but in that same time the number of underground workers declined by 69,600, substantially altering the balance of labour in the mines. That accidents, breakdowns, and repairs in the mines were nearly twice as costly in terms of production in 1945 as they had been in 1939 was probably a by-product of the war.

Output in 1946 averaged 3,300,000 tons weekly. By summer 1946 it was clear that the country was facing a coal shortage for the upcoming winter with stock piles of 5 Ma tons too low.

Nationalization exposed both a lack of preparation for public ownership and a failure to stabilize the industry in advance of the change. Lacking were any significant incentives to maintain or increase coal production to meet demand.

The loss of the Empire and the material losses incurred through two world wars had affected the basis of Britain's economy. First, its traditional markets were changing as Commonwealth countries made bilateral trade arrangements with local or regional powers. Second, the initial gains Britain made in the world economy were in relative decline as those countries whose infrastructure was seriously damaged by war repaired these and reclaimed a stake in world markets.

Third, the British economy changed structure shifting towards a service sector economy from its manufacturing and industrial origins leaving some regions economically depressed. Finally, part of consensus politics meant support of the Welfare State and of a world role for Britain; both of these needed funding through taxes and needed a buoyant economy in order to provide the taxes.

The postwar period witnessed significant improvements in housing conditions. In 1960, 14% of British households had no inside toilet, while in 1967 22% of all homes had no basic hot water supply.

By the 1990s, most homes had these amenities together with central heating, which was a luxury just two decades before. From 1996/7 to 2006/7, real median household income increased by 20% while real mean household incomes increased by 23%. There has also been a shift towards a service-based economy in the years following the end of the Second World War, with 11% of working people employed in manufacturing in 2006, compared with 25% in 1971.

Cold War

Britain faced severe financial constraints, lacking cash for needed imports. It responded by reducing its international entanglements as in Greece, and by sharing the hardships of an "age of austerity." Early fears that the US would veto nationalisation or welfare policies proved groundless.

Under Attlee foreign policy was the domain of Ernest Bevin, who looked for innovative ways to bring Western Europe together in a military alliance. One early attempt was the Dunkirk Treaty with France in 1947. Bevin's commitment to the West European security system made him eager to sign the Treaty of Brussels in 1948. It drew Britain, France, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg into an arrangement for collective security, opening the way for the formation of NATO in 1949.

NATO was primarily aimed as a defensive measure against Soviet expansion, while helping bring its members closer together and enabled them to modernise their forces along parallel lines, also encouraging arms purchases from Britain.

Bevin began the process of dismantling the British Empire when it granted independence to India and Pakistan in 1947, followed by Burma (Myanmar) and Ceylon (Sri Lanka) in 1948.

In January 1947, the government decided to proceed with the development of Britain's nuclear weapons programme, primarily to enhance Britain's security and its status as a superpower. A handful of top elected officials made the decision in secret, ignoring the rest of the cabinet, in order to forestall the Labour Party's pacifist and anti-nuclear wing.

Prosperity of the 1950s

The 1950s and 1960s experienced continued modernisation of the economy. Representative was the construction of the first motorways. Britain maintained and increased its financial role in the world economy, and used the English language to promote its educational system to students from around the globe. With relatively low unemployment during this period, the standard of living continued to rise, with new private and council housing developments increasing and the number of slum properties diminishing. During the period, unemployment in Britain averaged only 2%.

As prosperity returned after the war, Britons became more family-centred. Leisure activities became more accessible to more people. Holiday camps, which had first opened in the 1930s, became popular holiday destinations in the 1950s – and people increasingly had the ability to pursue personal hobbies.

The BBC's early television service was given a major boost in 1953 with the coronation of Elizabeth II, attracting a worldwide audience of 20 mln, plus 10 mln more by radio.

Many middle-class people bought televisions to view the event. In 1950 just 1% owned television sets; by 1965 25% did, and many more were rented.

As austerity receded after 1950 and consumer demand kept growing, the Labour Party hurt itself by shunning consumerism as the antithesis of the socialism it demanded. Chain stores and shopping centres increasingly replaced small neighbourhood shops.

Cars were becoming a significant part of British life, with city-centre congestion and ribbon developments springing up along major roads. These problems led to the idea of a green belt to protect the countryside, which was at risk from development of new housing units.

The post-war period witnessed a dramatic rise in the average standard of living, with a 40% rise in average real wages from 1950 to 1965. Workers in traditionally poorly paid semi-skilled and unskilled occupations saw a particularly marked improvement in their wages and living standards.

Consumption became more equal, especially as the landed gentry was pressed to pay its taxes and had to reduce its level of consumption. The rise in wages spurred consumer spending to increase by about 20% during the period, while economic growth continued at about 3%. The last food rations were ended in 1954, along with hire-purchase controls. Because of these changes, large numbers of the working classes were able to participate in the consumer market for the first time.

The number one major purchase was a washing machine. Ownership jumped from 18 % in 1955 to 29 % in 1958 and 60 % in 1966.

Various fringe benefits became more common. In 1955, 96% of manual labourers were entitled to two weeks' holiday with pay, compared with 61% in 1951. By the end of the 1950s, Britain had become one of the world's most affluent countries, and by the early 60s, most Britons enjoyed a level of prosperity that had previously been the privilege of only a small minority. For the first time in decades, the young and unattached had spare cash for leisure, clothes and even luxuries.

In 1959, Queen Magazine declared, "Britain has launched into an age of unparalleled lavish living." Average wages were high while jobs were plentiful, and people saw their personal prosperity climb even higher. Prime Minister Harold Macmillan claimed that "the luxuries of the rich have become the necessities of the poor." As summed up by R. J. Unstead, opportunities in life, if not equal, were distributed much more fairly than ever before and the weekly wage earner, in particular, had gained standards of living that would have been almost unbelievable in the 20s.

Labour historian Martin Pugh stated: Keynesian economic management enabled British workers to enjoy a golden age of full employment, which, combined with a more relaxed attitude towards working mothers, led to the spread of the two-income family. Inflation was around 4 %, money wages rose from an average of £8 a week in 1951 to £15 a week by 1961, home-ownership spread from 35 % in 1939 to 47 % by 1966, and the relaxation of credit controls boosted the demand for consumer goods.

By 1963, 82% of all private households had a television, 72% a vacuum cleaner, 45% a washing machine, and 30% a refrigerator. John Burnett notes that ownership had spread down the social scale so that the gap between consumption by professional and manual workers had considerably narrowed. The provision of household amenities steadily improved in the late decades of the century.

From 1971 to 1983, households having the sole use of a fixed bath or shower rose from 88% to 97%, and those with an internal WC from 87% to 97%.

In addition, the number of households with central heating almost doubled during that same period, from 34% to 64%. By 1983, 94% of all households had a refrigerator, 81% a colour television, 80% a washing machine, 57% a deep freezer, and 28% a tumble-drier. Britain's wish to join the Common Market (as the European Economic Community was known in Britain) was first expressed in July 1961 by the Macmillan government. It was vetoed in 1963 by French President Charles de Gaulle.

After initially hesitating over the issue, Harold Wilson's Labour Government lodged the UK's second application (in May 1967) to join the European Community, as it was now called. Like the first, though, it was vetoed by de Gaulle.

Prosperity returned in the 1950s, reaching the middle class largely, the working class across Britain. London remained a world centre of finance & culture, but the nation was no longer a superpower.

In foreign policy, Britain promoted the Commonwealth (economic sphere) and the Atlantic Alliance (military sphere). In domestic policy, a Post-war consensus saw the leadership of the Labour and Conservative parties largely agreed on Keynesian policies, with support for trades unions, regulation of business, and nationalisation of many older industries.

The discovery of North Sea oil eased some financial pressures, but the 1970s saw slow growth, higher unemployment, and escalating labour strife. Deindustrialisation or the loss of heavy industry, especially coal mining, shipbuilding and manufacturing, grew worse after 1970 as Britain's economy shifted to services. London and the southeast-maintained prosperity as London became the leading financial centre in Europe and played a major world role.

Representative was the construction of the first motorways.

Britain maintained and increased its financial role in the world economy, used the English language to promote its educational system to students from around the globe. Unemployment was relatively low during this period, and the standard of living continued to rise, with more new private and council housing developments and the number of slum properties diminishing.

Churchill and the Conservatives were back in power following the 1951 elections, but they largely continued the welfare state policies as set out by the Labour Party in the late 1940s. During the "golden age" of the 1950s and 1960s, unemployment in Britain averaged only 2%.

As prosperity returned, Britons became more family centred. Leisure activities became more accessible to more people after the war. Holiday camps, which had first opened in the 1930s, became popular holiday destinations in the 1950s – and people increasingly had the money to pursue their personal hobbies. From a European perspective, however, Britain was not keeping pace.

Between 1950 and 1970, it was overtaken by most of the countries of the European Common Market in terms of the number of telephones, refrigerators, television sets, cars, and washing machines per 100 of the population. Education grew, but not as fast as in rival nations.

By the early 1980s, some 80% to 90% of school leavers in France and West Germany received vocational training, compared with 40% in the UK. By the mid-1980s, over 80% of pupils in the USA and West Germany and over 90% in Japan stayed in education until the age of eighteen, compared with barely 33% of British pupils. In 1987, only 35% of 16- to 18-year-olds were in full-time education or training, compared with 80% in the USA, 77% in Japan, 69% in France, and 49% in the UK.

1960-1979: the 60s & 70s

Deindustrialization meant the closure of many operations in mining, heavy industry and manufacturing, with the resulting loss of high paid working-class jobs. A certain amount of turnover had always taken place, with older businesses shutting down and new ones opening up. However, the post-1973 scene was different, with a worldwide energy crisis, and an influx of low-cost manufactured goods from Asia.

Coal mining slowly collapsed, and finally disappeared in the 21st century.

The railways were decrepit, more textile mills closed than opened, steel employment fell sharply, and the automobile industry practically disappeared, apart from some luxury production. There was a range of popular response. Some nostalgically invoked a glorious industrial past or the bygone British Empire to cope with their newfound personal economic insecurity. Others looked to the EU for help.

Some turned to exclusionary Englishness as the solution to current grievances. by the 21st century, grievances accumulated enough to have a political impact.

The UK Independence Party (Ukip), based in working-class towns, gained an increasing share of the vote while warning against the dangers of immigration. The political reverberations came to a head in the unexpected popular vote in favor of Brexit in 2016.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

STAGNATION IN THE ECONOMY IN THE UK

As negative factors coalesced during the 1960s, the slogan used by Prime Minister Harold Macmillan "our people have never had it so good" seemed increasingly hollow. The Conservative Government presided over a "stop-go" economy as it tried to prevent inflation spiralling out of control without snuffing out economic growth. Growth continued to struggle, at about only half the rate of that of Germany or France at the same time. However, industry had remained strong in nearly 20 years following the end of the war, extensive housebuilding and construction of new commercial developments and public buildings also helped unemployment stay low throughout this time.

In comparing economic prosperity (using gross national product per person), the British record was one of steady downward slippage from seventh place in the world in 1950, to 12th in 1965, to 20th in 1975. Labour politician Richard Crossman, after visiting prosperous Canada, returned to England with a: sense of restriction, yes, even of decline, the old country always teetering on the edge of a crisis, trying to keep up appearances, with no confident vision of the future.

Economists provided four overlapping explanations. The "early start" theory said that Britain's rivals were doing so well because they were still moving large numbers of farm workers into more lucrative employment, which Britain had done in the 19th century.

A second theory emphasized the "rejuvenation by defeat," whereby Germany and Japan had been forced to reequip, rethink and restructure their economic basic. The third approach emphasized the drag of "Imperial distractions", saying that responsibilities to its large empire handicapped the home economy, especially through defense spending, and economic aid. Finally, the theory of "institutional failure" stressed the negative roles of discontinuity, unpredictability, and class envy. The last theory blamed trade unions, public schools, and universities perpetuating an elitist anti-industrial attitude.

In 1976, UK wages were amongst the lowest in Western Europe, being half of West German rates and two-thirds of Italian rates. In addition, while educational opportunities for working-class people had widened significantly since the end of the Second World War, a number of developed countries came to overtake Britain in some educational indicators.

By the early 1980s, some 80% to 90% of school leavers in France and West Germany received vocational training, compared with 40% in the UK.

By the mid-1980s, over 80% of pupils in the USA and West Germany and over 90% in Japan stayed in education until the age of eighteen, compared with barely 33% of British pupils.

In 1987, only 35% of 16- to 18-year-olds were in full-time education or training, compared with 80% in the USA, 77% in Japan, 69% in France, and 49% in the UK. There remained gaps between manual and non-manual workers in areas such as fringe benefits and wage levels. In April 1978, for instance, male full-time manual workers aged 21 and above averaged a gross weekly wage of £80.70, while the equivalent for male white collar workers stood at £100.70.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 4. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 5. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

Exercise 6. Analyze the level of unemployment.

The growth of the service and new manufacturing industries was not enough to prevent a high level of unemployment in the 1980s. After more than twenty years in which the unemployment rate was between 1 - 2 %, there was a big increase after 1974, to 6 % when Mrs. Thatcher became Prime Minister in 1979. The rate then doubled in the next five years, and was around 12 % in 1984-86. It then fell slowly, to 6 % in 1990, though it then began to rise again.

At most times about a third of the people registered as unemployed have been without jobs for a year or more; and at least a quarter of those currently working have recently been unemployed at some time. Most people have less job security than in the past. There have always been big differences in the rates of unemployment in the various regions of the country.

The areas with the highest unemployment are those, which have been most dependent on the older manufacturing industries. However, there are big differences within the regions too, with, for example, an unemployment rate five times greater in central parts of London and Manchester than in their more prosperous outer suburbs.

Nevertheless, the recession, which began in 1990, brought a change. Although the Southeast's population, for the first time, had decreased, unemployment grew more quickly there than in the North. All through this period of high unemployment, the British addiction to overtime working has survived.

The standard working week in industry is thirty-nine hours, but so much overtime is worked, at extra pay, that the average actual working week for full-time employees is more than forty-two hours, well above the European average. Although there are now about 11 mln women in the labour force (7 mln in the 1950s), unemployment has consistently been at a lower rate among women than among men. One probable explanation for this difference is that women work mainly in the growing service industries.

The working age employment rate is 73.3% – down 0.8% on the last quarter and down 1.5% on the last year. Earnings growth over the year to April (including bonuses) was 0.8%. Commenting on the rate of unemployment among 18-24 year-olds (16.6%), TUC General Secretary Brendan Barber said: "Economists may argue about whether we are now out of recession and into recovery, but in the real world of Britain's workplaces people are still losing their jobs and finding it harder and harder to get new ones. "Unemployment is now at its highest level since Autumn 1996 and it will take years, not months, to recover. If we are to avoid the 10 % unemployment rates of the 1980s and 1990s it is imperative the Government continues to invest in tackling unemployment".

"Youth unemployment is now at its highest rate for 15 years. And it will get far worse when mlns of fresh school leavers and graduates start looking for work in the coming weeks." "Unemployment leaves a permanent scar on young people's lives and Government must do all it can to stop joblessness blighting another generation's lives. The Government's job guarantee should soon start to help young people who lost their jobs at the start of the recession – it's exactly the right priority.

But people leaving school or college this summer will need help with training and advice long before the 12 months that they will have to wait for the jobs guarantee."

LABOUR RESPONDS

1970s Economic Crises

In comparing economic prosperity (using gross national product per person), the British record was one of steady downward slippage from seventh place in 1950, to 12th in 1965, to 20th in 1975.

Labour politician Richard Crossman, after visiting prosperous Canada, returned to England with a sense of restriction, yes, even of decline, the old country always teetering on the edge of a crisis, trying to keep up appearances, with no confident vision of the future.

Economists provided four overlapping explanations. The "early start" theory said that Britain's rivals were doing so well because they were still moving large numbers of farm workers into more lucrative employment, which Britain had done in the 19th century.

A second theory emphasised the "rejuvenation by defeat", whereby Germany and Japan had been forced to re-equip, rethink and restructure their economies. The third approach emphasised the drag of "imperial distractions", saying that responsibilities to its large empire handicapped the home economy, especially through defence spending, and economic aid. Finally, the theory of "institutional failure" stressed the negative roles of discontinuity, unpredictability, and class envy. The last theory blamed trade unions, public schools, and universities for perpetuating an elitist anti-industrial attitude.

In the 1970s, the exuberance and the radicalism of the 1960s ebbed. Instead, a mounting series of economic crises, including many trade union strikes, pushed the British economy further and further behind European and world growth.

The result was a major political crisis and a Winter of Discontent in the winter of 1978-79, when widespread strikes by public sector trade unions seriously inconvenienced and angered the public.

Historians Alan Sked and Chris Cook summarise the consensus of historians regarding Labour in power in the 1970s: If Wilson's record as prime minister was soon felt to have been one of failure, that sense of failure was powerfully reinforced by Callaghan's term as premier.

The Labour party under James Callaghan (prime minister 1976-79) contested the May 1979 general election as unemployment passed the one-mln mark and unions became more aggressive.

The Conservatives used a highly effective poster created by advertisers Saatchi and Saatchi, showing a dole queue snaking into the distance, carrying the caption "Labour isn't working".

Voters gave Conservatives 43.9% of the vote and 339 seats to Labour's 269, for an overall majority of 43 seats. Labour was weakened by the steady long-term decline in the proportion of manual workers in the electorate. Twice as many manual workers normally voted Labour as voted Conservative, but they now constituted only 56% of the electorate. When Harold Wilson won narrowly for Labour in 1964, they had accounted for 63%. Furthermore, they were beginning to turn against the trade unions – alienated, perhaps, by the difficulties of the winter of 1978-9. In contrast, Tory policies stressed wider home ownership, which Labour refused to match. Thatcher did best in districts where the economy was relatively strong and was weaker where it was contracting.

Labour, it seemed, was incapable of positive achievements. It was unable to control inflation, unable to control the unions, unable to solve the Irish problem, unable to solve the Rhodesian question, unable to secure its proposals for Welsh and Scottish devolution, unable to reach a popular modus vivendi with the Common Market, unable even to maintain itself in power until it could go to the country and the date of its own choosing. It was little wonder, therefore, that Mrs. Thatcher resoundingly defeated it in 1979. Bright spots included large deposits of oil that were found in the North Sea, allowing.

Britain to become a major oil exporter to Europe in the era of the 1970s energy crisis. It was unable to control inflation, unable to control the unions, unable to solve the Irish problem, unable to solve the Rhodesian question, unable to secure its proposals for Welsh and Scottish devolution, unable to reach a popular modus vivendi with the Common Market, unable even to maintain itself in power until it could go to the country & the date of its own choosing.

The Labour Party under Harold Wilson from 1964-1970 was unable to provide a solution either, eventually was forced to devalue the pound again in 1967.

Economist Nicholas Crafts attributes Britain's relatively low growth in this period to a combination of a lack of competition in some sectors of the economy, especially in the nationalised industries; poor industrial relations and insufficient vocational training. He writes that this was a period of government failure caused by poor understanding of economic theory, short-termism and a failure to confront interest groups. Both political parties had come to the conclusion that Britain needed to enter the European Economic Community (EEC) in order to revive its economy. This decision came after establishing a European Free Trade Association (EFTA) with other, non EEC countries since this provided little economic stimulus to Britain's economy. Levels of trade with the Commonwealth halved in the period 1945-1965 to around 25% while trade with the EEC had doubled during the same period.

Charles de Gaulle vetoed a British attempt at membership in 1963 and again in 1967.

The general election in June 1970 saw the Conservatives, now led by Edward Heath, achieve a surprise return to government after the opinion polls had suggested a third successive Labour victory. Unemployment was still low by this stage, standing at 3% nationally. It was Heath who took the country into the EEC, in 1973. However, with the decline of Britain's economy during the 1960s, the trade unions began to strike, leading to a complete breakdown with both the Labour Government of Harold Wilson and later with the Conservative Government of Edward Heath (1970-1974).

In the early 1970s, the British economy suffered even more as strike action by trade unions, plus the effects of the 1973 oil crisis, led to a three-day week in 1973-74. However, despite a brief period of calm negotiated by the recently re-elected Labour Government of 1974 known as the Social Contract, a breakdown with the unions occurred again in 1978, leading to the Winter of Discontent, and eventually leading to the end of the Labour Government, then being led by James Callaghan, who had succeeded Wilson in 1976. The extreme industrial strife along with rising inflation and unemployment led Britain to be nicknamed as the "sick man of Europe".

Unemployment had risen during this difficult period for the British economy; unemployment reached 1.5 Ma in 1978 – nearly triple the figure of a decade earlier, with the national rate exceeding 5% for the first time in the postwar era. It had not fallen below 1 Ma since 1975, and has remained above this level ever since, rarely dropping below 1.5 Ma. In the 1970s, oil was found in the North Sea, off the coast of Scotland, although its contribution to the UK economy was minimised by the need to pay for rising national debt and for welfare payments to the growing number of unemployed people.

1979-1990: the Thatcher Era

The election of Margaret Thatcher in 1979 marked the end of the post-war consensus and a new approach to economic policy, including privatisation and deregulation, reform of industrial relations, and tax changes. Competition policy was emphasised instead of industrial policy; consequent deindustrialisation and structural unemployment was more or less accepted. Thatcher's battles with the unions culminated in the Miners' Strike of 1984. The Government applied monetarist policies to reduce inflation, and reduced public spending. Deflationary measures were implemented against the backdrop of the recession of 1980/81. As a result, unemployment passed 2 Ma in the autumn of 1980, 2.5 Ma the following spring.

By January 1982, unemployment had reached 3 Ma for the first time since the early 1930s, though this time the figure accounted for a lesser percentage of the workforce than the early 1930s figures, now standing at around 12.5% rather than in excess of 20%.

In areas hit particularly hard by the loss of industry, unemployment was much higher; coming close to 20% in Northern Ireland and exceeding 15% in many parts of Wales, Scotland and northern England. The peak of unemployment actually came some two years after the recession ended and growth had been re-established, when in April 1984 unemployment stood at just under 3.3 Ma.

According to Eric Hobsbawm, Thatcher oversaw an "industrial holocaust", which saw Britain's industrial capacity decrease by fully one quarter during the years 1980-84.

Major state-controlled firms were privatised, including British Aerospace (1981), British Telecom (1984), British Leyland (1984), Rolls-Royce (1987), and British Steel Corporation (1988).

The electricity, gas and English water industries were split up and sold off. Exchange controls, in operation since the war, were abolished in 1979.

British net assets abroad rose approximately ninefold from £12 bn at the end of 1979 to nearly £110 bn at the end of 1986, a record post-war level and second only to Japan. Privatisation of nationalised industries increased share ownership in Britain: the proportion of the adult population owning shares went up from 7% in 1979 to 25% in 1989. The Single European Act (SEA), signed by Margaret Thatcher, allowed for the free movement of goods within the European Union area. The ostensible benefit of this was to give the spur of competition to the British economy, and increase its ultimate efficiency.

The early 1980s recession saw unemployment rise above three Ma, but the subsequent recovery, which saw annual growth of over 4 % in the late 1980s, led to contemporary claims of a British "economic miracle". There is significant controversy as to whether Thatcherism was the reason for the boom in Britain in the 1980s; North Sea oil has been identified as the major factor in the increases in economic growth in the mid and late 1980s. However, many of the economic policies put in place by the Thatcher governments have been kept since, and even the Labour Party which had once been so opposed to the policies had by the late 1990s, on its return to government after nearly 20 years in opposition, dropped all opposition to them.

Indeed, the Labour Party of the 1980s had taken a shift to the left after the election of Michael Foot as leader in 1980, leading to a split in the party to form the centrist Social Democratic Party, which formed an alliance with the Liberals and contested two general elections, with disappointing results, before merging in 1988 to form the Liberal Democrats.

The Conservatives were re-elected in 1983 and again in 1987, with a majority of more than 100 seats both times. By the end of 1986, Britain was in the first stages of an economic boom, which saw unemployment fall below 3 Ma and reach a 10-year low of 1.6 Ma by December 1989.

However, the rate of economic growth slowed down in 1989, with inflation approaching 10% and fears of an imminent recession being rife in the national media. Interest rates were increased by the government in an attempt to control inflation.

As Prime Minister, she implemented policies focused on economic liberalism, using populism, and pragmatism, known as Thatcherism. Thatcher introduced a series of political and economic initiatives intended to reverse high unemployment and Britain's struggles in the wake of the Winter of Discontent and an ongoing recession. Her political philosophy and economic policies emphasised deregulation (particularly of the financial sector), flexible labour markets, the privatisation of state-owned companies and reducing the power and influence of trade unions.

Due to recession and high unemployment, Thatcher's popularity during her first years in office waned until the beginning of 1982, a few months before the Falklands War. The afterglow of her victory in that war produced a resounding victory at the polls. She won re-election in 1983.

Privatisation was an enduring legacy of Thatcherism; it was accepted by the later Labour administration of Tony Blair. Her policy was to privatise nationalised corporations (telephone & aerospace firms). She sold public housing to tenants, all on favourable terms.

The policy developed an important electoral dimension during the second Thatcher government (1983-90). It involved more than denationalisation: wider share ownership was the second plank of the policy. Thatcher advocated an "enterprise society" in Britain, especially in widespread share-ownership, personal ownership of council houses, marginalization of trade unions and expansion of private health care. These policies transformed many aspects of British society.

Thatcher was re-elected for a third term in 1987. During this period, her support for a Community Charge (popularly referred to as "poll tax") was widely unpopular and others did not share her negative views on the European Community in her Cabinet. She lost support from Conservative MPs and resigned as Prime Minister and party leader in November 1990.Thatcher's deregulation of the economy ended the post-war consensus about the planned economy. She was elected at a time of crises between the Labour Party and the trade unions, and a strong trend of higher unemployment and deindustrialisation. She liberalised stock markets and privatized state-owned enterprises. Inflation fell and trade union power was reduced.

The National Union of Mineworkers had long been one of the strongest trade unions. Its strikes had toppled governments in the 1970s. Thatcher drew the line and defeated it in the bitterly fought miners' strike of 1984-1985. The basic problem was that the easy coal had all been mined and what was left was very expensive. The miners, however, were fighting not just for high wages but for a way of life that had to continue had to be subsidised by other workers. The Union split. In the end almost all the mines were shut down. Britain turned to its vast reserves of North Sea gas and oil, which brought in substantial tax and export revenues, to fuel a new economic boom.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Analyze a year of jobs market recession.

"The horrible human impact of the first full year of the jobs recession is now known. In all 0.4 mln fewer people are in employment. The toll on the private sector has been horrendous – almost 0.7 mln jobs have been lost. The public sector by contrast has added more than 0.25 mln jobs (a 5% increase) – although as the CIPD warned earlier this week the public sector is likely to shed 0.35 mln jobs in the next five years.

"The burden of net job loss has fallen entirely on full-time employees. The total level of self-employment and part-time employment is broadly unchanged from a year ago.

It has generally been a 'man-cession'. The redundancy rate for men has more than doubled.

The number of men in work has fallen by 2%, the number of women in work by 0.6%.

The number of men unemployed has increased by 45%, the number of women unemployed by a quarter. This pattern is mainly explained by the relative buoyancy of part-time employment and the growth in public sector employment, types of employment in which women are strongly represented.

"Young people aged under-25 have fared far worse than the over-50s, though the latter have seen relatively larger increases in unemployment because they have fewer education, training or employment options if they do lose their jobs. Migrants have also prospered relative to non-migrants.

The number of UK born people in work has fallen by 1.8% during the course of the jobs recession so far, while the number of non-UK born people in work has increased by 3.5%.

"The manufacturing sector has shed 0.2 mln jobs – a 6.7% decrease. The other big job shedding sectors are distribution, hotels and restaurants, finance and business services.

These sectors each shed 2.8% of their workers. While this was, a recession triggered in the finance sector, as in most previous recessions it is the real economy, and manufacturing in particular, that has suffered most. The amount of job losses in manufacturing is also noteworthy because this is the sector, which has shown the greatest effort on the part of employers and workers to seek alternatives to redundancy, such as pay freezes, pay cuts and short-time working. Without such welcome action the impact of the recession on UK manufacturing employment might have been far greater still."

"Manufacturing workers have also experienced the fastest rate of decline in the rate of growth of average earnings since the recession began. Excluding bonuses, manufacturing pay-packets were increasing by an annual rate of just 1% in the year to April – much less than the 2.9% gained by those in private sector services and 3.5% in the public sector."

Exercise 4. Describe the overall labour market situation and outlook.

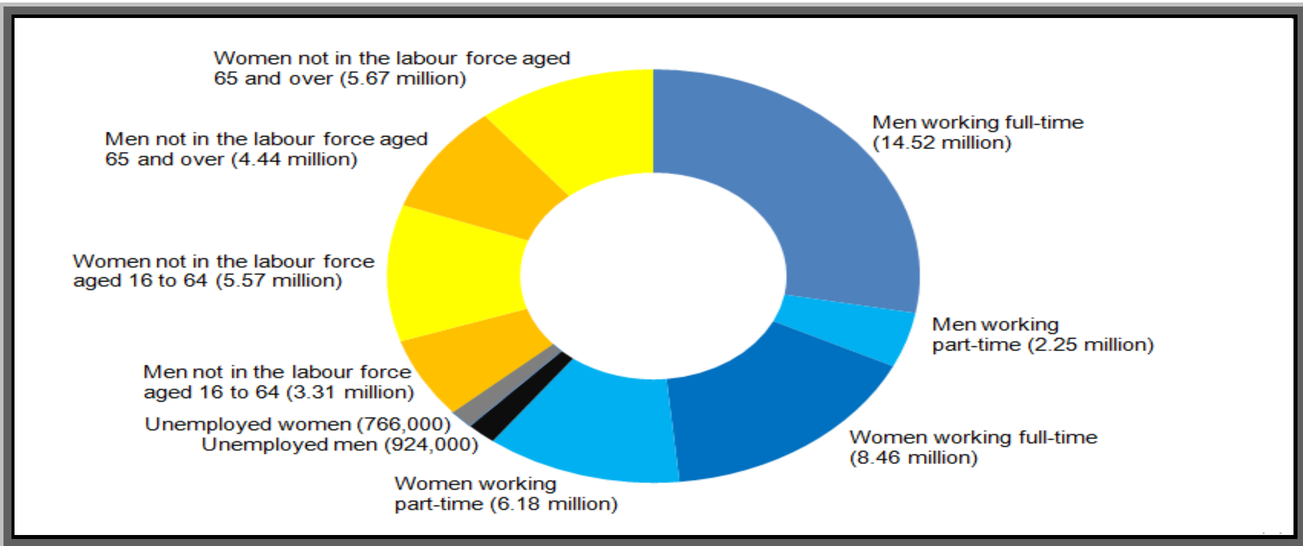
"Anyone looking for green shoots of recovery in today's jobs figures will have little to grasp at.

The recorded quarterly fall in employment and rise in unemployment still ranks amongst the worst seen in the post-war era. Vacancies are drying up at a rapid rate and redundancies go on rising.

The grim news thus continues, though this is not unexpected given the dire state of the economy at the turn of the year." "There is little in today's figures to suggest that unemployment will not rise above 3 mln next year. The one glimmer of hope is the claimant unemployment count. Not only is the count increasing much more slowly than might be expected but remarkably the number of people flowing onto the count actually fell in May. If indicative of underlying economic factors – rather than the result of the way in which benefits are administered or a reduced propensity for unemployed people to sign on at Jobcentres – these claimant figures are amazingly good given what we know about the state of the jobs market, though too puzzling to yet be seen as a genuine "green shoot".

Exercise 5. Analyze the information and make a chart about it.

№	**What**	**When**	**Score**
1.			



1990-1997: The Major Years

After the economic boom of the 1980s, a brief but severe recession occurred between 1990 and 1992 following the economic chaos of Black Wednesday under the government of Conservative John Major, who had succeeded Thatcher in 1990. However, the rest of the 1990s saw the beginning of a period of continuous economic growth that lasted over 16 years and was greatly expanded under Blair's New Labour government following his landslide election victory in 1997, with a rejuvenated party abandoning its commitment to policies including nuclear disarmament and nationalisation of key industries, and no reversal of the Thatcher-led union reforms.

In November 1990, Margaret Thatcher stood down from the office of Prime Minister after losing first the confidence and then the support in Parliament of the Conservative Party's MPs, which she needed in order to continue. John Major was elected her successor. The government's popularity was also falling following the introduction of poll tax earlier that year, while unemployment was also starting to increase again as another recession loomed. Opinion polls were suggesting that the next general election could be won by Labour, led by Neil Kinnock since the resignation of Michael Foot in 1983.

Despite several major economies showing quarterly detraction during 1989, the British economy continued to grow well into 1990, with the first quarterly detraction taking place in the third quarter of the year, by which time unemployment was starting to creep upwards again after four years of falling.

The beginning of another recession was confirmed in January 1991. Interest rates had been increased between 1988 and 1990 to control inflation, which topped 10% in 1990 but was below 3% by the end of 1992. Economic growth was not re-established until early 1993, but the Conservative government which had been in power continuously since 1979 managed to achieve re-election in April 1992, fending off a strong challenge from Neil Kinnock and Labour, although with a significantly reduced majority. The early 1990s recession was officially the longest in Britain since the Great Depression some 60 years earlier, though the fall in output was not as sharp as that of the downturn of the Great Depression or even that of the early 1980s recession.

It had started during 1990 and the end of the recession was not officially declared until April 1993, by which time nearly 3 Ma people were unemployed.

The British pound was tied to EU exchange rates, using the Deutsche Mark as a basis, as part of the Exchange Rate Mechanism (ERM); however, this resulted in disaster for Britain. The restrictions imposed by the ERM put pressure on the pound, leading to a run on the currency. Black Wednesday in September 1992 ended British membership of the ERM. It damaged the credibility of the Conservative's reputation for economic competence, and contributed to the end of the 18 years of consecutive Conservative government in 1997. The party had long been divided over European issues and many of these rifts within the party had still not been mended by 1997.

Despite the downfall of the Conservative government, it had seen a strong economic recovery in which unemployment had fallen by more than 1 Ma since the end of 1992 to 1.7 Ma by the time of their election defeat just over four years later. Inflation also remained low, with the ERM exit in 1992 being followed by a gradual decrease in interest rates during the years that followed.

1997 to 2001: New Labour

From May 1997, Tony Blair's newly elected Labour government stuck with the Conservatives' spending plans. The Chancellor, Gordon Brown, gained a reputation by some as the "prudent Chancellor" and helped to inspire renewed confidence in Labour's ability to manage the economy following the economic failures of earlier Labour governments. One of the first acts that the new Labour government embarked on was to give the power to set interest rates to the Bank of England, effectively ending the use of interest rates as a political tool. Control of the banks was given to the Financial Services Agency. Labour introduced the minimum wage to the UK.

It has been raised every year since its introduction in April 1999. The Blair government introduced a number of strategies to cut unemployment, including an expansion of the public sector. Unemployment was constantly below 1.5 Ma during the first half of the 2000s – a level not seen since the late 1970s, although the government never succeeded in getting unemployment back into the six figure tallies which were seen for most of the 30 years after the end of World War II.

Blair was anxious to escape from the Labour party's reputation for "tax-and-spend" domestic policies; he wanted instead to establish a reputation for fiscal prudence. He had undertaken in general terms to modernise the welfare state, but he had avoided undertaking to reduce poverty, achieve full employment, or reverse the increase in inequality that had occurred during the Thatcher administration.

Once in office, however, his government launched a package of social policies designed to reduce unemployment and poverty. The commitment to modernise the welfare state was tackled by the introduction of "welfare to work" programmes to motivate the unemployed to return to work instead of drawing benefit. Poverty reduction programmes were targeted at specific groups, including children and the elderly, and took the form of what were termed "New Deals". There were new tax credit allowances for low-income and single-parent families with children, and "Sure Start" progammes for under-fours in deprived areas. A "National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal" was launched in 2001 with the objective of ensuring that "within 10 to 20 years no-one should be seriously disadvantaged by where they live"; a "Social Exclusion Unit" was set up, and annual progress reports concerning the reduction of poverty and social exclusion were commissioned.

Deindustrialization

After 1960 British industries were troubled. The railways were decrepit, more textile mills closed than opened, steel employment fell sharply and the automobile industry practically disappeared, apart from some luxury models. Deindustrialization meant the closure of many operations in mining, heavy industry and manufacturing, with the resulting loss of high paid working-class jobs. A certain amount of turnover had always taken place, with newer businesses replacing older ones.

However, the 1970s were different, with a worldwide energy crisis and a dramatic influx of low-cost manufactured goods from Asia leading to more closures and fewer openings. Major sectors were hit hard between 1966 & 1982, with a 60 % decline in textiles, 53 % in metal manufacture, 43 % in mining, 38 % in construction, and 35 % in vehicles. Coal mining quickly collapsed and practically disappeared in the 21st century. The consumption of coal – mostly for electricity – plunged from 157 mln tonnes in 1970 to 37 mln tonnes in 2015, nearly all of it imported. Coal mining jobs fell from a peak of 1,191,000 in 1920 to 695,000 in 1956, 247,000 in 1976, 44, 000 in 1993 to 2,000 in 2015.

In the 1970s, manufacturing accounted for 25 % of the economy. Total employment in manufacturing fell from 7.1 mln in 1979 to 4.5 mln in 1992 and only 2.7 mln in 2016, when it accounted for 10% of the economy. In Scotland, deindustrialization took place rapidly in the 1970s and 1980s, as most of the traditional industries drastically shrank or completely closed.

A new service-oriented economy emerged to replace them. Scotland's shipyards in 1954 built 12% of the world's tonnage, falling to 1 % in 1968. North Sea oil created a major new industry after 1970, and some older firms successfully took advantage of the opportunity. John Brown & Company's shipyard at Clydebank transformed itself from a traditional shipbuilding business to a factor in the high technology offshore oil and gas drilling industry. As noted by Martin Pugh, Keynesian economic management enabled British workers to enjoy a golden age of full employment which, combined with a more relaxed attitude towards working mothers, led to the spread of the two-income family. Inflation was around 4%, money wages rose from an average of £8 a week in 1951 to £15 a week by 1961, home-ownership spread from 35% in 1939 to 47% by 1966, and the relaxation of credit controls boosted the demand for consumer goods. By 1963, 82% of all private households had a television, 72% a vacuum cleaner, 45% a washing machine, and 30% a refrigerator. In addition, as noted by J. Burnett.

What was equally striking was that ownership of such things had spread down the social scale and the gap between professional and manual workers had considerably narrowed.

A study of a slum area in Leeds (due for demolition) found that 74% of the households had a TV, 41% a vacuum, and 38% a washing machine. In another slum area, St Mary's in Oldham (where in 1970 few of the houses had fixed baths or a hot water supply and half shared outside toilets), 67% of the houses were rated as comfortably furnished and a further 24% furnished luxuriously, with smart modern furniture, deep pile carpeting, and decorations.

The provision of household amenities steadily improved during the second half of the twentieth century. From 1971 to 1983, households having the sole use of a fixed bath or shower rose from 88% to 97%, and those with an internal WC from 87% to 97%.

In addition, the number of households with central heating almost doubled during that same period, from 34% to 64%. By 1983, 94% of all households had a refrigerator, 81% a colour television, 80% a washing machine, 57% a deep freezer, and 28% a tumble-drier.

Between 1950 & 1970, Britain was overtaken by most of the countries of the European Common Market in terms of the number of telephones, refrigerators, television sets, cars, washing machines per 100 of the population (Britain remained high in terms of bathrooms and lavatories per 100 people).

Although the British standard of living was increasing, the standard of living in other countries increased faster. According to a 1968 study by Anthony Sampson, British workers: "In ten years, from having had a much higher standard of living than the continent, they have slipped right back. Taking the national income per head (a rough yardstick), the British by 1967 had sunk to eighth place among OECD countries, with an annual income of $1,910 compared with $2,010 for Germany, $2,060 for France and $2,480 for Switzerland: and Britain's falling position already shows itself in the lower proportion of new cars and new houses (still leading with TV sets & washing machines)."

The economy in the late 20th century

After the relative prosperity of the 1950s and 1960s, the UK experienced extreme industrial strife and stagflation through the 1970s following a global economic downturn; Labour had returned to government in 1964 under Harold Wilson to end 13 years of Conservative rule. The Conservatives were restored to government in 1970 under Edward Heath, who failed to halt the country's economic decline and was ousted in 1974 as Labour returned to power under Harold Wilson.

The economic crisis deepened following Wilson's return and things fared little better under his successor James Callaghan. A strict modernisation of its economy began under the controversial Conservative leader Margaret Thatcher following her election as prime minister in 1979, which saw a time of record unemployment as deindustrialisation saw the end of much of the country's manufacturing industries but also a time of economic boom as stock markets became liberalised and State-owned industries became privatised. Her rise to power was seen as the symbolic end of the time in which the British economy had become the "sick man" of western Europe.

Inflation fell during this period and trade union power was reduced. However, the miners' strike of 1984-1985 sparked the end of most of the UK's coal mining. The exploitation of North Sea gas and oil brought in substantial tax and export revenues to aid the new economic boom. This was also the time that the IRA took the issue of Northern Ireland to Great Britain, maintaining a prolonged bombing campaign on the British mainland. After the economic boom of the 1980s a brief but severe recession occurred between 1990 and 1992 following the economic chaos of Black Wednesday under government of John Major, who had succeeded Margaret Thatcher in 1990. However the rest of the 1990s saw the beginning of a period of continuous economic growth that lasted over 16 years.

It was greatly expanded under the New Labour government of Tony Blair following his landslide election victory in 1997, with a rejuvenated party having abandoned its commitment to policies including nuclear disarmament & nationalisation of key industries, no reversal of the Thatcher-led union reforms.

From 1964 up until 1996, income per head had doubled, while ownership of various household goods had significantly increased. By 1996, two-thirds of households owned cars, 82% had central heating, most people owned a VCR, and one in five houses had a home computer.

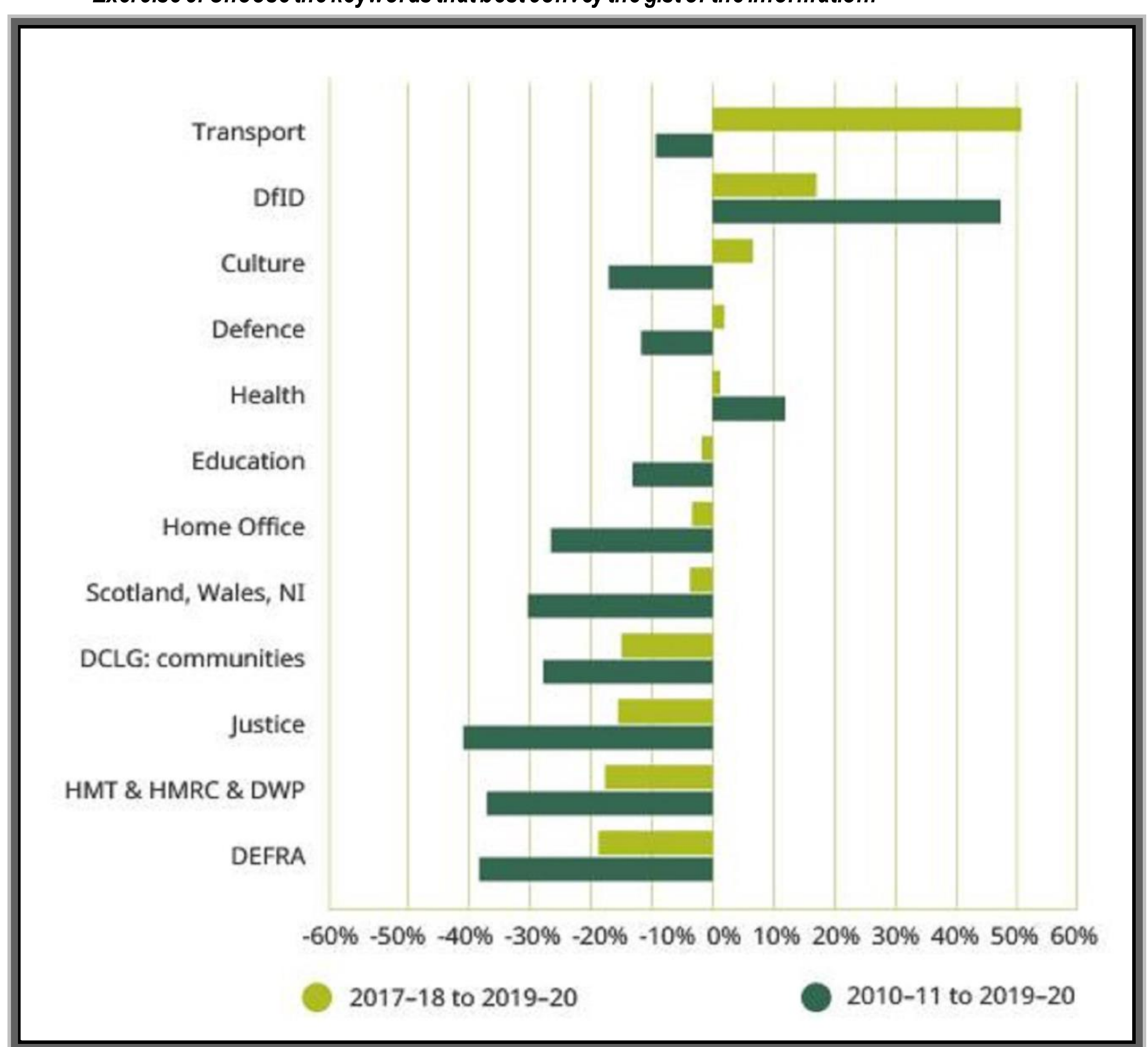
In 1971, 9% of households had no access to a shower or bathroom, compared with only 1% in 1990; largely due to demolition or modernisation of older properties which lacked such facilities. In 1971, only 35% had central heating, while 78% enjoyed this amenity in 1990.

By 1990, 93% of households had colour television, 87% had telephones, 86% had washing machines, 80% had deep-freezers, 60% had video-recorders, and 47% had microwave ovens. Holiday entitlements had also become more generous. In 1990, nine out of ten full-time manual workers were entitled to more than four weeks of paid holiday a year, while twenty years previously only two-thirds had been allowed three weeks or more.

Exercise 1. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

Exercise 2. Read the text & pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 3. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.



Real terms UK departmental budget changes, 2010–11 to 2019–20.

Popular response varied. Some nostalgically invoked a glorious industrial past or the bygone British Empire to cope with their newfound personal economic insecurity. Others looked to the EU for help. Some turned to exclusionary Englishness as the solution to current grievances.

By the 21st century, enough grievances had accumulated to have a political impact.

The UK Independence Party (UKIP), based in white working-class towns, increased its vote share while warning against the dangers of immigration. The political reverberations came to a head in the shocking and unexpected popular vote in favour of leaving the EU in 2016.

In the Labour Party's second term in office, beginning in 2001, when it achieved another landslide victory, the party increased taxes and borrowing. The government wanted the money to increase spending on public services, notably the National Health Service, which they claimed was suffering from chronic under-funding. The economy shifted from manufacturing, which had been declining since the 1960s and grew on the back of the services and finance sectors, while the public sector continued to expand.

The country was also at war with first Afghanistan, invading in 2001 and then Iraq, in 2003 – which proved controversial with the British public.

Spending on both reached several bn pounds a year and the government's popularity began to slide, although it did manage to win a third general election under Blair in 2005 with a reduced majority. Blair stepped down two years later after a decade as prime minister to be succeeded by the former chancellor Gordon Brown, the change of leader coming at a time when Labour was starting to lag behind the Conservatives (led by David Cameron) in the opinion polls.

By this stage, unemployment had increased slightly to 1.6 Ma although the economy continued to grow, the UK was continuing to lose large numbers of manufacturing jobs due to companies encountering financial problems or switching production overseas to save labour costs. This was particularly evident in the car industry, with General Motors (Vauxhall) and Ford having significantly cut back on UK operations, while Peugeot (the French carmaker who had bought the former Rootes Group and Chrysler Europe operations in the late 1970s) had completely withdrawn from Britain.

These closures resulted in thousands of job losses, although the biggest single blow to the car industry came in 2005 when MG Rover went into liquidation; more than 6,000 jobs were lost at the carmaker alone and some 20,000 more were lost in associated supply industries and dealerships, not to mention the business failures and job cuts which befell businesses that had relied largely on trade from the carmaker's employees. This was the largest collapse of any European carmaker in modern times. Growth rates were consistently between 1.6% and 3% from 2000 to early 2008.

Inflation though relativity steady at around 2%, did rise in the approach to the financial crash.

The Bank of England's control of interest rates was a major factor in the stability of the British economy over that period. The pound continued to fluctuate reaching a low against the dollar in 2001 (to a rate of $1.37 per £1), but rising again to a rate of approximately $2 per £1 in 2007.

Against the Euro, the pound was steady at a rate of approximately €1.45 per £1. Since then, the effects of the Credit crunch have led to a slowdown of the economy.

At the start of November 2008, the pound was worth around €1.26; by the end of the year, it had almost approached parity, dropping at one point below €1.02 and ending the year at €1.04.

The UK entered a recession in Q2 of 2008, according to the UK Office for National Statistics (ONS) and exited it in Q4 of 2009. The revised ONS figures of November 2009 showed that the UK had suffered six consecutive quarters of contraction. On 23 January 2009, Government figures from the Office for National Statistics showed that the UK was officially in recession for the first time since 1991. It entered a recession in the final quarter of 2008, accompanied by rising unemployment which increased from 5.2% in May 2008 to 7.6% in May 2009. The unemployment rate among 18- to 24-year-olds has risen from 11.9% to 17.3%.

Though initially Britain lagged behind other major economies including Germany, France, Japan, and the US which all returned to growth in the second quarter of 2009, the country eventually returned to growth in the last quarter of 2009. On 26 January 2010, it was confirmed that the UK had left its recession, the last major economy in the world to do so.

In the 3 months to February 2010 the UK economy grew yet again by 0.4%. In Q2 of 2010 the economy grew by 1.2% the fastest rate of growth in 9 years. In Q3 of 2010 figures released showed the UK economy grew by 0.8%; this was the fastest Q3 growth in 10 years.

On 5 March 2009, the Bank of England announced that they would pump £200 bn of new capital into the British economy, through a process known as quantitative easing. This is the first time in the UK's history that this measure has been used, although the Bank's Governor Mervyn King suggested it was not an experiment. The process will see the BoE creating new money for itself, which it will then use to purchase assets such as government bonds, bank loans, or mortgages.

Despite the misconception that quantitative easing involves printing money, the BoE are unlikely to do this and instead the money will be created electronically and thus not actually enter the cash circulation system. The initial amount to be created through this method will be £75 bn, although former Chancellor of the Exchequer Alistair Darling had given permission for up to £150 bn to be created if necessary. It is thought the process is likely to occur over a period of three months with results only likely in the long term. The BoE has stated that the decision has been taken to prevent the rate of inflation falling below the 2 % target rate. Mervyn King, the Governor of the BoE, suggested there were no other monetary options left as interest rates had already been cut to their lowest level ever of 0.5% and it was unlikely they would be cut further.

As of the end of November 2009, the economy had shrunk by 4.9%, making the 2008–2009 recession the longest since records began. In December 2009, the Office for National Statistics revised figures for the third quarter of 2009 showed that the economy shrank by 0.2%, compared to a 0.6% fall the previous quarter. It has been suggested that the UK initially lagged behind its European neighbours because the UK entered the 2008 recession later. However, German GDP fell 4.7% year on year compared to the UK's 5.1%, and Germany has now posted a second quarterly gain in GDP.

Commentators suggest that the UK suffered a slightly longer recession than other large European countries as a result of government policy dating back to the policies of the Thatcher government of 1979, in which UK governments have moved away from supporting manufacturing and focused on the financial sector. The OECD predicts that the UK will grow 1.6% in 2010.

It has been argued that heavy government borrowing over the past cycle has led to a severe structural deficit, reminiscent of previous crises, which will inevitably exacerbate the situation and place the UK economy in an unfavourable position compared to its OECD partners as attempts are made to stimulate recovery, other OECD nations having allowed greater room for manoeuvre thanks to contrasting policies of relatively tighter fiscal control prior to the global downturn.

In May 2009 the European Commission (EC) stated: "The UK economy is now clearly experiencing one of its worst recessions in recent history." The EC expected GDP to decline 3.8 % in 2009 and projected that growth will remain negative for the first three quarters of 2009. It predicted two quarters of "virtual stagnation" in late 2009 and early 2010, followed by a gradual return to "slight positive growth by late 2010". UK manufacturers' body, the EEF, appealed for more cash from the government: "Without an extension of support for business investment in the pre-Budget statement next month, it will be difficult to see where the momentum for growth will come from."

The downturn in the economy during 2008 and 2009 saw the popularity of the Labour government slump, and opinion polls all showed the Conservatives in the lead during this time, although by early 2010 the gap between the parties was narrow enough to suggest that the imminent general election would result in a hung parliament – as happened in May 2010.

The 2010 Coalition Government

The UK General Election of 6 May 2010 resulted in the first hung parliament since 1974, with the Conservative Party winning the largest number of seats, but falling short of the 326 seats required for an overall majority. Following this, the Conservatives and the Liberal Democrats agreed to form the first coalition government for the UK since the end of the Second World War, with David Cameron becoming Prime Minister and Nick Clegg Deputy Prime Minister.

Under the coalition government, British military aircraft participated in the UN-mandated intervention in the 2011 Libyan civil war, flying a total of 3,000 air sorties against forces loyal to the Libyan dictator Muammar Gaddafi between March and October 2011.

2011 saw England suffer unprecedented rioting in its major cities in early August, killing five people and causing over £200 mln worth of property damage.

In late October 2011, the prime ministers of the Commonwealth realms voted to grant gender equality in the royal succession, ending the male-preference primogeniture that was mandated by the Act of Settlement 1701. The amendment, once enacted, will also end the ban on the monarch marrying a Catholic. The Conservatives had the largest number of seats in the election, 20 short of a majority, and formed a government in coalition with the Liberal Democrats.

The new government was faced with having to make deep public spending cuts over the following years in order to tackle the high level of national debt which had mounted up during Labour's response to the recession, which meant that unemployment remained high and the economy struggled to re-establish growth, although a marked improvement finally occurred in 2013 when economic growth and falling unemployment were sustained.

From 1964 up until 1996, income per head doubled, while ownership of various household goods significantly increased. By 1996, two-thirds of households owned cars, 82% had central heating, most people owned a VCR, and one in five houses had a home computer.

In 1971, 9% of households had no access to a shower or bathroom, compared with only 1% in 1990; largely due to demolition or modernisation of older properties that lacked such facilities. In 1971, only 35% had central heating, while 78% enjoyed this amenity in 1990. By 1990, 93% of households had colour television, 87% had telephones, 86% had washing machines, 80% had deep-freezers, 60% had video-recorders and 47% had microwave ovens. Holiday entitlements became more generous. In 1990, nine out of ten full-time manual workers were entitled to more than four weeks of paid holiday a year, while twenty years previously only two-thirds had been allowed three weeks or more. The post-war period witnessed significant improvements in housing conditions.

In 1960, 14% of British households had no inside toilet, while in 1967 22% of all homes had no basic hot water supply. By the Nineties, however almost all homes had these amenities together with central heating, which had been a luxury just two decades earlier.

House prices tripled in the 20 years between 1995 and 2015. Growth was almost continuous during the period, save for a two-year period of decline around 2008 because of the banking crisis.

The gap between income and house prices has changed in the last 20 years such that even in the most affordable regions of England and Wales buyers have to spend six times their income. It was most marked in London, where in 2013 the £300,000, median house price costs 12 times the median London income of £24,600.

War in Afghanistan & Iraq & Terrorist Attacks

In the 2001 General Election, the Labour Party won a second successive victory, though voter turnout dropped to the lowest level for more than 80 years. Later that year, the September 11th attacks in the USA led to American President George W. Bush launching the War on Terror, beginning with the invasion of Afghanistan aided by British troops in October 2001.

Thereafter, with the US focus shifting to Iraq, Tony Blair convinced the Labour and Conservative MPs to vote in favour of supporting the 2003 invasion of Iraq, despite huge anti-war marches held in London and Glasgow. Forty-six thousand British troops, one-third of the total strength of the Army's land forces, were deployed to assist with the invasion of Iraq and thereafter British armed forces were responsible for security in southern Iraq. All British forces were withdrawn in 2010.

Long-term Economic Factors

While economic historians concentrate on statistical parameters, cultural historians added to the list of factors to explain Britain's long-term relative economic decline.

According to Peter Hennessy, these include:

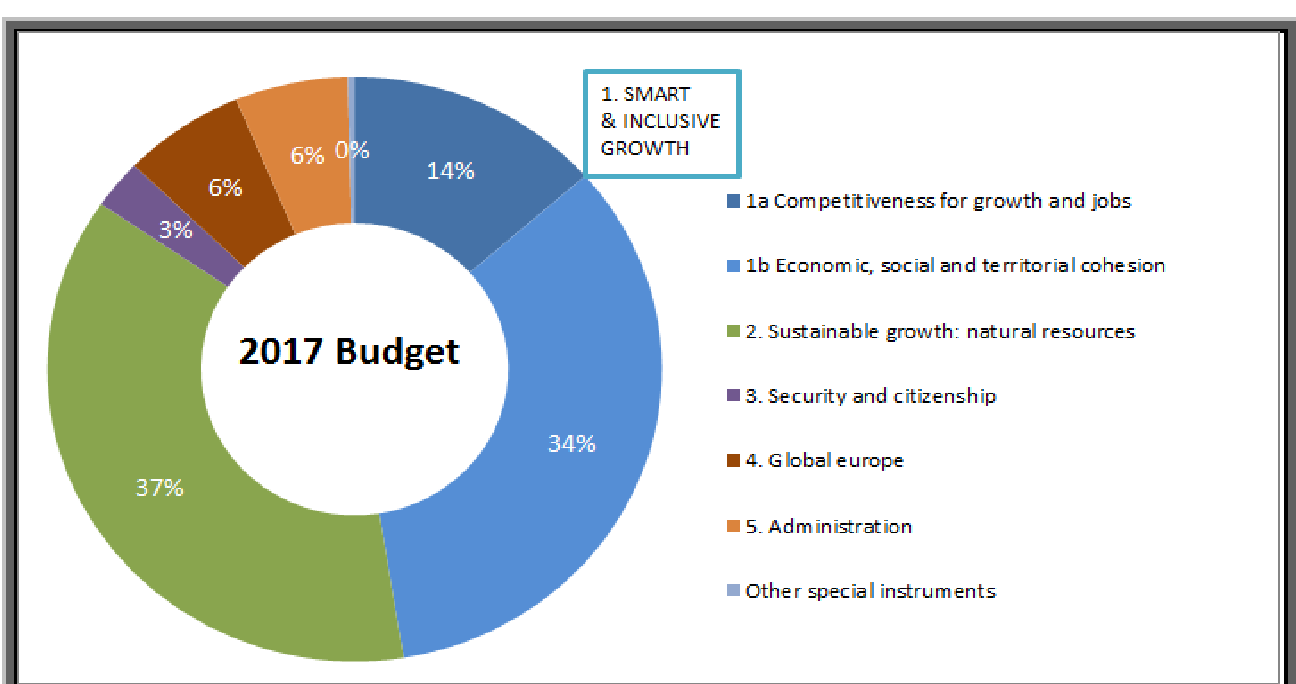
- Excessive trade union power.
- Too much nationalisation.
- Insufficient entrepreneurship.
- Too many wars, both hot and cold.
- The distraction of imperialism.
- A feeble political class.
- A weak civil service.
- An enduring aristocratic tradition disparaged management.
- Weak vocational education at all levels.
- Social class rigidities inference with progress.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				



BUSINESS HISTORIOGRAPHY

Business History in Britain emerged in the 1950s following the publication of a series of influential company histories and the establishment of the journal Business History in 1958 at the University of Liverpool. These early studies were conducted by primarily by economic historians interested in the role of leading firms in the development of the wider industry, therefore went beyond mere corporate histories. For economic historians, the loss of British competitive advantage after 1870 could at least in part be explained by entrepreneurial failure, prompting further business history research into individual industry and corporate cases.

The Lancashire cotton textile industry, which had been the leading take-off sector in the industrial revolution, but which was slow to invest in subsequent technical developments, became an important topic of debate on this subject. William Lazonick for example argued that cotton textile entrepreneurs in Britain failed to develop larger integrated plants on the American model; a conclusion similar to Chandler's synthesis of a number of comparative case studies. Studies of British business leaders have emphasized how they fit into the class structure, especially their relationship to the aristocracy, and the desire to use their wealth to purchase landed estates, and hereditary titles.

The economy of the UK is highly developed and market-oriented. It is the 5th-largest national economy in the world measured by nominal gross domestic product (GDP), 9th-largest measured by purchasing power parity (PPP), and 19th-largest measured by GDP per capita, comprising 3.5% of world GDP. In 2016, the UK was the 10th-largest goods exporter in the world and the 5th-largest goods importer. It had the 2nd-largest inward foreign direct investment, and the 3rd-largest outward foreign direct investment. The UK is one of the most globalised economies; it is composed of the economies of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

The service sector dominates the UK economy, contributing around 80% of GDP; the financial services industry is particularly important, and London is the world's largest financial centre.

Britain's aerospace industry is the 2nd-largest national aerospace industry. Its pharmaceutical industry, the 10th-largest in the world, plays an important role in the economy.

Of the world's 500 largest companies, 26 are headquartered in the UK. The economy is boosted by North Sea oil and gas production; its reserves were estimated at 2.8 bn barrels in 2016, although it has been a net importer of oil since 2005. There are significant regional variations in prosperity, with South East England and North East Scotland being the richest areas per capita.

The size of London's economy makes it one of the largest cities by GDP in Europe.

In the 18th century the UK was the 1st country to industrialise, and during the 19th century it had a dominant role in the global economy, accounting for 9.1% of the world's GDP in 1870.

From the late 19th century the Second Industrial Revolution was taking place rapidly in the USA and the German Empire; this presented an increasing economic challenge for the UK. The costs of fighting World War I & II further weakened the UK's relative position. In the 21st century, however, it remains a global power and has an influential role in the world economy.

Government involvement in the British economy is primarily exercised by Her Majesty's Treasury, headed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the Department for Business, Energy and Industrial Strategy. Since 1979 management of the economy has followed a broadly laissez-faire approach.

The Bank of England is the UK's central bank and since 1997 its Monetary Policy Committee has been responsible for setting interest rates, quantitative easing, and forward guidance.

The currency of the UK is the pound sterling, which is the world's 3rd-largest reserve currency after the USA dollar and the euro, and is one of the ten most-valued currencies in the world.

The UK is a member of the Commonwealth, the European Union, the G7, the G20, the International Monetary Fund, the Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe, the World Bank, the World Trade Organisation, Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank and the United Nations.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF ECONOMICAL SUCCESS

The UK recorded weaker growth than many other European nations in the 1970s; even after the recession, the economy was blighted by rising unemployment and double-digit inflation, which exceeded 20% more than once and was rarely below 10% after 1973.

In 1976, the UK was forced to apply for a loan of £2.3 bn from the International Monetary Fund.

Denis Healey, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, was required to implement public spending cuts and other economic reforms in order to secure the loan, and for a while the British economy improved, with growth of 4.3% in early 1979. However, following the Winter of Discontent, when the UK was hit by numerous public sector strikes, the government of James Callaghan lost a vote of no confidence in March 1979. This triggered the general election on 3 May 1979 which resulted in Margaret Thatcher's Conservative Party forming a new government.

A new period of neo-liberal economics began with this election. During the 1980s, many state-owned industries and utilities were privatised, taxes cut, trade union reforms passed and markets deregulated. GDP fell by 5.9% initially, but growth subsequently returned and rose to an annual rate of 5% at its peak in 1988, one of the highest rates of any country in Europe.

Unemployment rates in the UK from 1881 until 2017. In the 1980s, unemployment reached levels not seen in the UK since the Great Depression of the 1930s. Thatcher's modernisation of the economy was far from trouble-free; her battle with inflation, which in 1980 had risen to 21.9%, resulted in a substantial increase in unemployment from 5.3% in 1979 to over 10.4% by the start of 1982, peaking at nearly 11.9% in 1984 – a level not seen in Britain since the Great Depression.

The rise in unemployment coincided with the early 1980s global recession, after which UK GDP did not reach its pre-recession rate until 1983. In spite of this, Thatcher was re-elected in June 1983 with a landslide majority. Inflation had fallen to 3.7%, while interest rates were relatively high at 9.56%. The increase in unemployment was largely due to the government's economic policy which resulted in the closure of outdated factories and coal pits. Manufacturing in England and Wales declined from around 38% of jobs in 1961 to around 22% in 1981. This trend continued for most of the 1980s, with newer industries and the service sector enjoying significant growth. Many jobs were also lost as manufacturing became more efficient and fewer people were required to work in the sector.

Unemployment had fallen below 3 Ma by the time of Thatcher's third successive election victory in June 1987; and by the end of 1989 it was down to 1.6 Ma.

Britain's economy slid into another global recession in late 1990; it shrank by a total of 6% from peak to trough, and unemployment increased from around 6.9% in spring 1990 to nearly 10.7% by the end of 1993. However, inflation dropped from 10.9% in 1990 to 1.3% three years later.

The subsequent economic recovery was extremely strong, and unlike after the early 1980s recession, the recovery saw a rapid and substantial fall in unemployment, which was down to 7.2% by 1997, although the popularity of the Conservative government had failed to improve with the economic upturn. The government won a 4th successive election in 1992 under John Major, who had succeeded Thatcher in November 1990, but soon afterwards came Black Wednesday, which damaged the Conservative government's reputation for economic competence. From that stage onwards, the Labour Party was ascendant in the opinion polls, particularly in the immediate aftermath of Tony Blair's election as party leader in July 1994 after the sudden death of his predecessor John Smith.

Despite two recessions, wages grew consistently by around 2% per year in real terms from 1980 until 1997, and continued to grow until 2008. In May 1997, Labour, led by Tony Blair, won the general election by a landslide after 18 years of Conservative government, and inherited a strong economy with low inflation, falling unemployment, and a current account surplus. Four days after the election, Gordon Brown, the new Chancellor of the Exchequer, gave the Bank of England the freedom to control monetary policy, which until then had been directed by the government.

During Blair's 10 years in office there were 40 successive quarters of economic growth, lasting until the second quarter of 2008. GDP growth, which had briefly reached 4% per year in the early 1990s, gently declining thereafter, was relatively anaemic compared to prior decades, such as the 6.5% per year peak in the early 1970s, although growth was smoother and more consistent.

Annual growth rates averaged 2.68% between 1992 & 2007, with the finance sector accounting for a greater part than previously. The period saw one of the highest GDP growth rates of any developed economy and the strongest of any European nation. At the same time, household debt rose from £420 bn in 1994 to £1 trillion in 2004 and £1.46 trillion in 2008 – more than the entire GDP of the UK.

The UK was particularly vulnerable to the crisis because its financial sector was the most highly leveraged of any major economy. Beginning with the collapse of Northern Rock, which was taken into public ownership in February 2008, other banks had to be partly nationalised.

The UK had been one of the strongest economies in terms of inflation, interest rates and unemployment, all of which remained lower until the 2008-09 recession.

In 2011, total debt (national, household, financial, business debts) stood at 497% of GDP in the UK, compared to 492% in Japan, 341% in France, 289% in the USA, 284% in Germany, and 274% in Canada. As the world's most indebted country, spending and investment in the UK were held back after the recession, creating economic malaise. The decade following the Great Recession was characterised by extremes. In 2015, employment was at its highest since records began, GDP growth had become the fastest in the Group of Seven (G7) and Europe, but workforce productivity was the worst since the 1820s, with any growth attributed to a fall in working hours. Jobs had been lost in the highly efficient manufacturing sector and gained in the less productive service sector.

A rise in unsecured household debt added to questions over the sustainability of the economic recovery in 2016. The Bank of England insisted there was no cause for alarm, despite having said two years earlier that the recovery was "neither balanced nor sustainable". It was still very unbalanced, with consumption accounting for 100% of growth in that year.

Households ran an unprecedented deficit of 3% of GDP. Unemployment continued to fall, resulting in a 42-year low of 4.4% in June 2017, but real earnings fell. Following the UK's decision to leave the European Union, the Bank of England cut interest rates to a new historic low of 0.25% for just over a year to bolster confidence in the economy. It bought government and corporate bonds, taking the amount of quantitative easing since the start of the Great Recession to £435 bn.

Government involvement in the economy is primarily exercised by HM Treasury, headed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer. In recent years, the UK economy has been managed in accordance with principles of market liberalisation and low taxation and regulation.

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.

Taxation in the UK may involve payments to at least two different levels of government: local government and central government (HM Revenue & Customs). Local government is financed by grants from central government funds, business rates, council tax, and, increasingly, fees and charges such as those from on-street parking. Central government revenues are mainly from income tax, national insurance contributions, value added tax, corporation tax and fuel duty.

Agriculture in the UK is intensive, highly mechanised, and efficient by European standards, producing about 60% of food needs, with less than 1.6% of the labour force (535,000 workers).

It contributes around 0.6% of British national value added. Around two-thirds of the production is devoted to livestock, one-third to arable crops. Agriculture is subsidised by the European Union's Common Agricultural Policy. The largest construction project in the UK is Crossrail.

Due to open in 2018, it will be a new railway line running east to west through London and into the surrounding countryside with a branch to Heathrow Airport.

The main feature of the project is construction of 42 km (26 mi) of new tunnels connecting stations in central London. It is Europe's biggest construction project with a £15 bn projected cost.

A Rolls-Royce Trent 900 aircraft jet engine, seen here on an Airbus A380

In the 1970s, manufacturing accounted for 25 % of the economy. Total employment in manufacturing fell from 7.1 Ma in 1979 to 4.5 Ma in 1992 and only 2.7 Ma in 2016, when it accounted for 10% of the economy. The aerospace industry of the UK is the 2nd- or 3rd-largest aerospace industry in the world, depending upon the method of measurement. The industry employs around 113,000 people directly and around 276,000 indirectly and has an annual turnover of around £20 bn. British companies with a major presence in the industry include BAE Systems (the world's second-largest defence contractor) & Rolls-Royce (the world's 2nd-largest aircraft engine maker). Foreign aerospace companies active in the UK include EADS and its Airbus subsidiary, which employs over 13,000 people in the UK.

The pharmaceutical industry employs around 67,000 people in the UK. UK trade balance in crude oil and petroleum from 1890 until 2015. 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.

The UK is rich in a number of natural resources including coal, tin, limestone, iron ore, salt, clay, chalk, gypsum, lead and silica. The service sector is the dominant sector of the UK economy, and contributes around 80.2% of GDP as of 2016.

The creative industries accounted for 7% of gross value added (GVA) in 2015 and grew at an average of 6% per annum between 1997 and 2015. Key areas include London and the North West of England, which are the two largest creative industry clusters in Europe.

According to the British Fashion Council, the fashion industry's contribution to the UK economy in 2014 is £26 bn. The UK is home to the world's largest advertising company, WPP.

The UK financial services industry added gross value of £116,363 Ma to the UK economy in 2016. The UK's exports of financial and business services make a significant positive contribution towards the country's balance of payments.

London is a major centre for international business and commerce and is one of the three "command centres" of the global economy (alongside New York City & Tokyo).

There are over 500 banks with offices in London, and it is the leading international centre for banking, insurance, Eurobonds, foreign exchange trading and energy futures. London's financial services industry is primarily based in the City of London and Canary Wharf.

The City houses the London Stock Exchange, the London International Financial Futures and Options Exchange, the London Metal Exchange, Lloyds of London, and the Bank of England.

Canary Wharf began development in the 1980s and is now home to major financial institutions such as Barclays Bank, Citigroup and HSBC, as well as the UK Financial Services Authority.

London is a major centre for other business and professional services, and 4 of the 6 largest law firms in the world are headquartered there.

Several other major UK cities have large financial sectors and related services. Edinburgh has one of the largest financial centres in Europe and is home to the headquarters of the Royal Bank of Scotland Group and Standard Life. Leeds is now the UK's largest centre for business and financial services outside London, and the largest centre for legal services in the UK after London.

According to a series of research papers and reports published in the mid-2010s, Britain's financial firms provide sophisticated methods to launder bns of pounds annually, including money from the proceeds of corruption around the world as well as the world's drug trade, thus making the City a global hub for illicit finance. According to a Deutsche Bank study published in March 2015, Britain was attracting circa £1 bn of capital inflows a month not recorded by official statistics

Up to 40 % are probably originating from Russia, which implies misreporting by financial institutions, sophisticated tax avoidance, and the UK's "safe-haven" reputation.

Intercontinental Hotels Group (IHG), headquartered in Denham, Buckinghamshire, is currently the world's largest hotelier, owning and operating hotel brands such as Intercontinental Holiday Inn and Crowne Plaza. The international arm of Hilton Hotels, the world's 5th largest hotelier, used to be owned by Ladbrokes Plc, was headquartered in Watford, Hertfordshire. It was sold to Hilton Hotels Group of the USA in December 2005.

The UK property market boomed for the seven years up to 2008, and in some areas property trebled in value over that period. The increase in property prices had a number of causes: low interest rates, credit growth, economic growth, rapid growth in buy-to-let property investment, foreign property investment in London and planning restrictions on the supply of new housing. In England and Wales between 1997 and 2016, average house prices increased by 259%, while earnings increased by 68%.

An average home cost 3.6 times annual earnings in 1997 compared to 7.6 in 2016.

Tourism is very important to the British economy. With over 32.6 Ma tourists arriving in 2016, the UK is ranked as the 8th major tourist destination in the world. London is the 2nd most visited city in the world with 17.4 Ma visitors in 2016, behind first-placed Hong Kong (27.8 Ma visitors).

Transport modal share from 1952 to 2015, showing the initial rise in car use, which peaked in 1994 and declined gently as rail use increased.

The UK has a radial road network of 46,904 km (29,145 mi) of main roads, with a motorway network of 3,497 km (2,173 mi). There are a further 213,750 km (132,818 mi) of paved roads.

The railway infrastructure company Network Rail owns and operates the majority of the 16,116 km (10,014 mi) railway lines in Great Britain.

The Highways Agency is the executive agency responsible for trunk roads and motorways in England apart from the privately owned and operated M6 Toll. The Department for Transport states that traffic congestion is one of the most serious transport problems and that it could cost England an extra £22 bn in wasted time by 2025 if left unchecked.

Now the three largest airports were London Heathrow Airport (65.6 Ma passengers), Gatwick Airport (31.5 Ma passengers) and London Stansted Airport (18.9 Ma passengers).

London Heathrow Airport, located 24 km (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. London's 6 commercial airports form the world's largest city airport system measured by passenger traffic.

London is the world capital for foreign exchange trading, with a global market share of nearly 41% in 2016 of the daily $5.3 trillion global turnover. The currency of the UK is the pound sterling, represented by the symbol £. The Bank of England is the central bank, responsible for issuing currency. 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 the issue.

The strength of the UK economy varies from country to country and from region to region. Excluding the effects of North Sea oil and gas, England has the highest gross value added (GVA) and Wales the lowest of the UK's constituent countries.

The UK is a developed country with social welfare infrastructure, thus discussions surrounding poverty tend to use a relatively high minimum income compared to developing countries. According to the OECD, the UK is in the lower half of developed country rankings for poverty rates, doing better than Italy and the US but less well than France, Austria, Hungary, Slovakia and the Nordic countries.

The economic damage done by the Great Recession weakened Labour and facilitated a Conservative comeback. Prime Minister David Cameron (2010-2016) sought to rebrand the Conservatives, embracing an increasingly socially liberal position. The 2010 general election led to Cameron becoming PM as the head of a coalition government with the much smaller party of Liberal Democrats.

His premiership was marked by the ongoing negative economic effects of the late-2000s worldwide financial crisis.

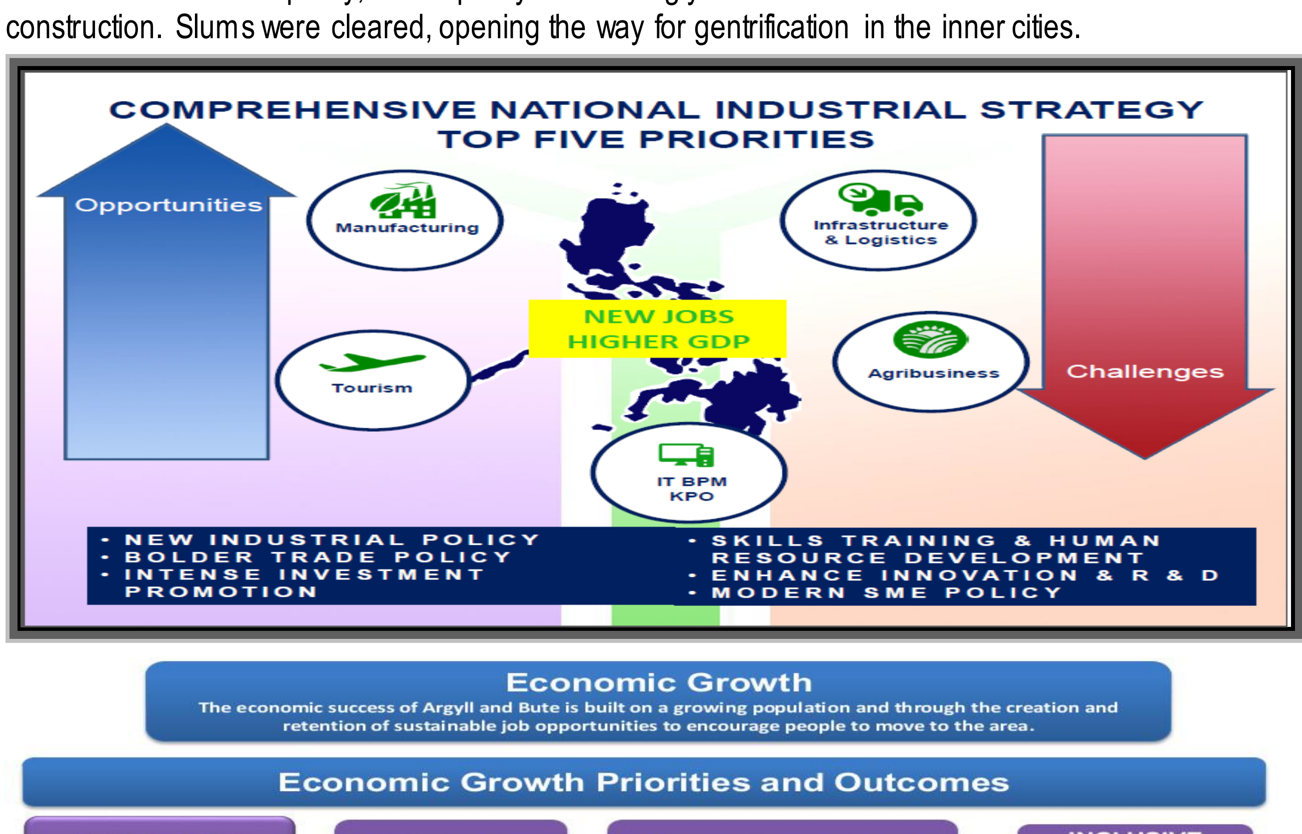
He faced a large deficit in government finances that he sought to reduce through austerity measures. His administration introduced large-scale changes to welfare, immigration policy, education, and healthcare. His government privatised the Royal Mail and some other state assets, and legalised same-sex marriage. He won an easy re-election in 2015 with 330 seats in Commons against 296.

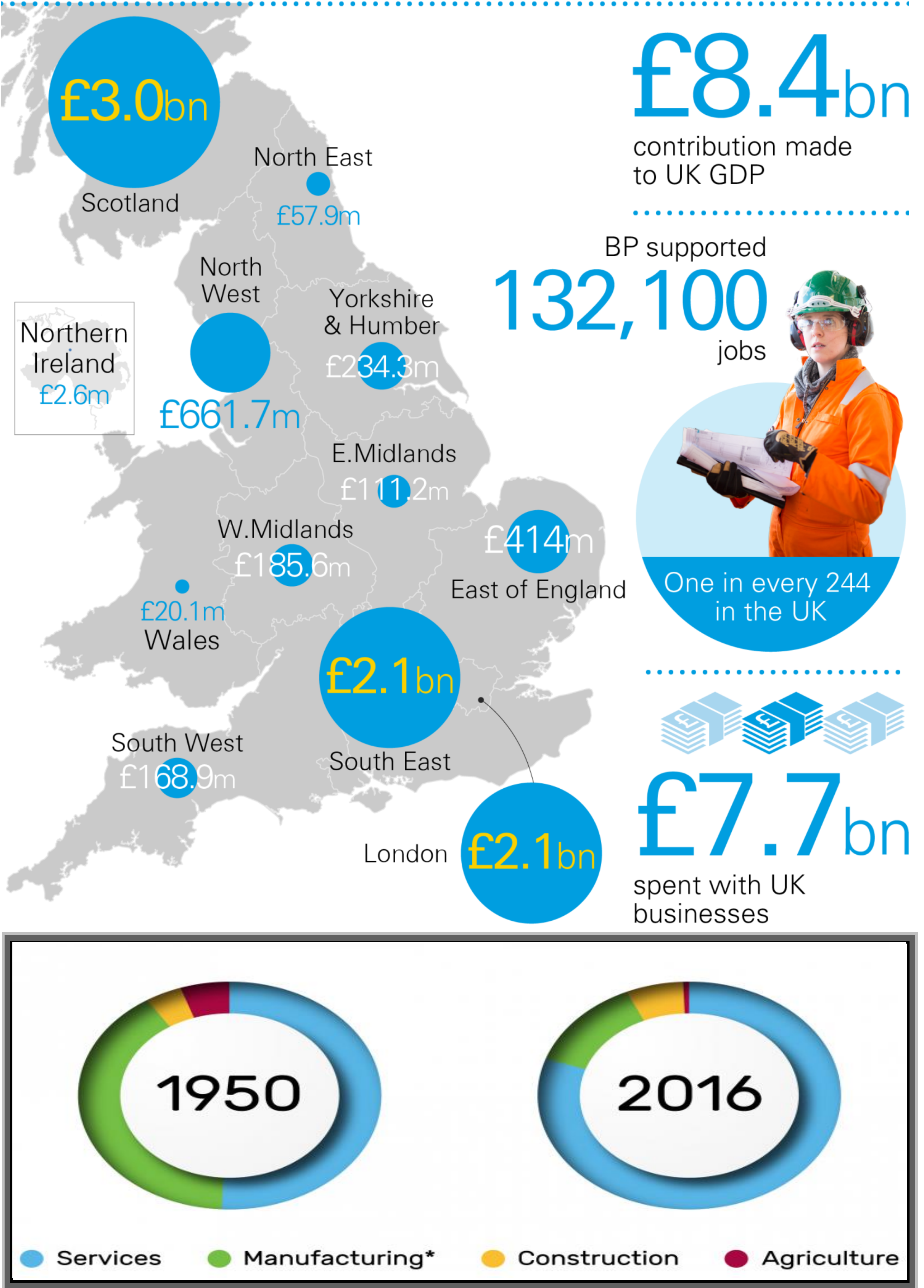
Housing

Housing was a critical shortage. Air raids had destroyed 0.5 mln housing units; upgrades and repairs on undamaged units had been postponed. Three quarters of a mln new dwellings were needed. The government aimed for 300,000 annually, compared to the maximum pre-war rate of 350,000. However, shortages of construction workers, materials, and money limited progress.

Not counting 150,000 temporary prefabricated units, the shortage reached 1.5 mln units by 1951. Legislation kept rents down, but did not lead to an increase in the number of new homes.

The ambitious New Towns project did not provide enough units. The Conservatives made housing a high priority and oversaw 2.5 mln new units, two thirds of them through local councils. Haste made for dubious quality, and policy increasingly shifted toward renovation rather than new construction. Slums were cleared, opening the way for gentrification in the inner cities.




BP's economic impact extends across the UK
£3.0bn
Scotland
North East
£57.9m
North
West
£661.7m
Northern
Ireland
£2.6m
Yorkshire
& Humber
£234.3m
E.Midlands
£111.2m
W.Midlands
£185.6m
£414m
East of England
£20.1m
Wales
£2.1bn
South East
South West
£168.9m
London
£2.1bn
£8.4bn
contribution made
to UK GDP
BP supported
132,100
jobs
One in every 244
in the UK
£7.7bn
spent with UK
businesses
1950
2016
Services
Manufacturing*
Construction
Agriculture

MAIN INDUSTRIES IN THE ECONOMY OF THE UK

The UK is Europe's third largest economy and is set to become the continent's largest by 2030, but who are the major economic players in this country? Take a look at some interesting facts about the UK's top 10 industries.

Finance & Banking

There are currently more than 2 mln people working in the finance and banking industries all over the UK – that's 7 % of the country's total working population. According to the latest data, the country has nearly 40,000 businesses that specialise in financial services, and a further 37,000 provide accountancy services. Outside of London, the UK's main financial centres are in Edinburgh, Leeds, Manchester, and Birmingham. Currently, this sector accounts for 7.5 % of the country's GDP.

Information Technology

As of February 2014, the information communications technology sector was worth £58 bn. Nearly every major industry relies on technology in order to function, so the importance of the technology sector cannot be underestimated. Along with creative and digital industries, the IT sector accounts for 4.5 % of the UK's gross value added, and employs over 1 mln people or 3.7 % of the country's active population. As the knowledge-based economy becomes a reality, it is expected that nearly half of the UK's GDP will come from this sector within the next decade.

Construction

According to an article published by The Guardian, the construction industry currently accounts for 6 % (£90 bn) of the UK's total GDP. The Department for Business Innovation and Skills reports that in 2013, 2.93 mln people were employed in the 280,000 construction businesses that exists in the country. This means that construction-related employment accounts for nearly 10 % of the UK's working population.

Oil & Gas

This burgeoning sector is set to increase in size and revenues over the next two decades. Nearly 450,000 people are employed in this industry, especially in Scotland, where 45 % of the total number of jobs in this sector are located. During 2013, oil and gas revenues amounted to £11 bn, and this figure is set to increase to £200 bn over the next two decades.

Moreover, a recent PricewaterhouseCoopers survey estimated that in the next 10 years, a further 120,000 employees will be needed in the oil and gas sector.

Healthcare

According to the Office for National Statistics, the healthcare industry yields nearly £107 mln a year in gross value added. Overall, more than 4 mln people work in healthcare-related positions throughout the country, which means that 12 % of the working population in involved in this sector. As increased demand puts pressure on public health services, private healthcare firms are expected to expand and become a crucial economic player. Currently, this sector generates annual revenues of over £2 bn.

Wholesale & Retail

This sector has experienced moderate growth since 2007, and currently generates sales for the value of £1.2 bn a year (12 % of the country's GVA). More than 4 mln people work in over half a mln outlets across the UK. Approximately 35 % of all jobs in this industry are in sales and customer service positions. It is expected that by 2020, a further 1.9 mln jobs will be available in this industry.

Government

The public sector employs 5.4 mln people. The most important industry sub-sectors are healthcare (NHS), education, and public administration.

Manufacturing

The UK has a strong manufacturing tradition that goes back to the origins of the Industrial Revolution. Prior to 2009, the manufacturing sector was the UK's third largest, generating revenues that accounted for 11.7 % of the country's total GDP and employing 8 % of the working population.

Despite the pressures brought about by the recession, this sector has managed to stay alive, as it is estimated that it currently accounts for 10 % of the UK's GDP thanks to its accelerated output and employment rates. The most important manufacturing sub-sectors are food and beverages, metal products, publishing and printing, equipment and machinery, chemicals, and pharmaceuticals.

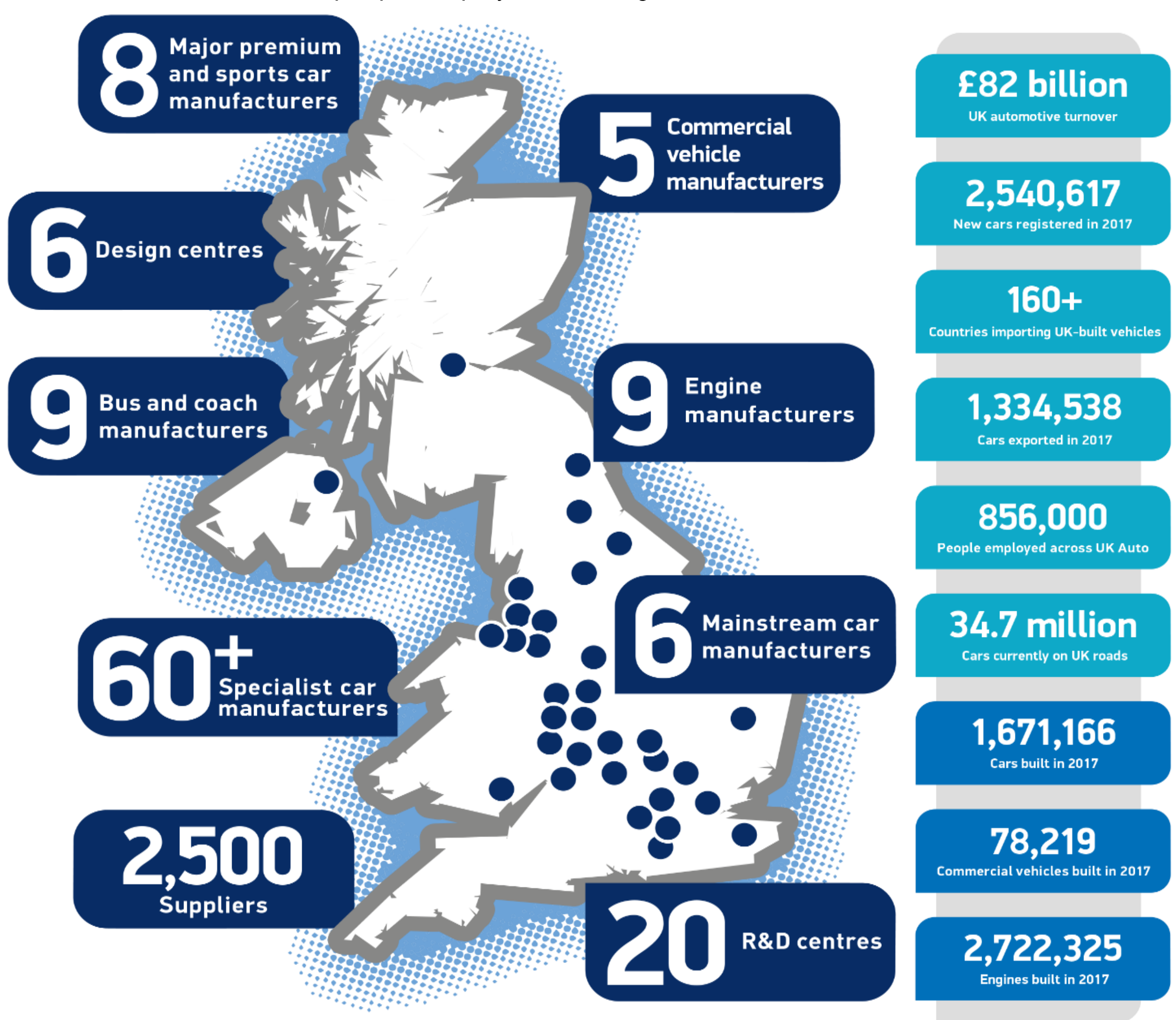
Transportation & Logistics

This growing industry sector employs approximately 1.5 mln people in roles that range from air transport to courier services. In 2011, there were nearly 85,000 established logistics businesses.

Although the number of companies in this sector has been declining since the onset of the recession, a recent survey revealed that more than half of respondents anticipated significant growth within the next few years.

Education

This sector is one of the country's top three main sources of employment. British universities alone contribute over £73 bn to the UK's economy and employ more than 375,000 people. All in all, there are more than 757,000 people employed in the higher education sector.



UK automobile industry

CREATIVE INDUSTRIES IN THE UK

The creative industries refers to a range of economic activities which are concerned with the generation or exploitation of knowledge and information. They may variously be referred to as the cultural industries or the creative economy; most recently they have been denominated as the Orange Economy in Latin America and the Caribbean.

Howkins' creative economy comprises advertising, architecture, art, crafts, design, fashion, film, music, performing arts, publishing, R&D, software, toys and games, TV and radio, & video games.

Some scholars consider that education industry, including public and private services, is forming a part of creative industry. There remain, therefore, different definitions of the sector.

The creative industries have been seen to become increasingly important to economic well-being, proponents suggesting that "human creativityis the ultimate economic resource", and that "the industries of the 21st century will depend increasingly on the generation of knowledge through creativity and innovation". Various commentators have provided varying suggestions on what activities to include in the concept of "creative industries", and the name itself has become a contested issue – with significant differences and overlap between the terms "creative industries", "cultural industries" and "creative economy". Lash and Urry suggest that each of the creative industries has an "irreducible core" concerned with "the exchange of finance for rights in intellectual property".

This echoes the UK Government Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) definition which describes the creative industries as: "those industries which have their origin in individual creativity, skill and talent and which have a potential for wealth and job creation through the generation and exploitation of intellectual property". As of 2015 the DCMS definition recognizes nine *creative sectors*, namely:

- Advertising and marketing.
- Architecture.
- Crafts.
- Design: product, graphic and fashion design.
- film, TV, video, radio and photography.
- IT, software and computer services.
- Publishing.
- Museums, galleries and libraries.
- Music, performing and visual arts.

To this list John Howkins would add toys and games, also including the much broader area of research and development in science and technology. It has been argued that gastronomy belongs in such a list. The various fields of engineering do not appear on this list, that emerged from the DCMS reports. This was due, probably, to the fact that engineers occupy relevant positions in "non-cultural" corporations, performing activities of project, management, operation, maintenance, risk analysis and supervision, among others. However, historically and presently, several tasks of engineers can be regarded as highly creative, inventive and innovative. The contribution of engineering is represented by new products, processes and services. Hesmondhalgh reduces the list to what he terms "the core cultural industries" of advertising and marketing, broadcasting, film, internet, musicindustries, print, electronic publishing, video and computer games. His definition only includes those industries that create "texts"' or "cultural artefacts" and which engage in some form of industrial reproduction. The DCMS list has proven influential, and many other nations have formally adopted it. It has been criticised. It has been argued that the division into sectors obscures a divide between lifestyle business, non-profits, larger businesses, between those who receive state subsidies (film) and those who do not (computer games).

The inclusion of the antiques trade often comes into question, since it does not generally involve production (except of reproductions and fakes).

The inclusion of all computer services has been questioned. Some areas, such as Hong Kong, have preferred to shape their policy around a tighter focus on copyright ownership in the value chain.

They adopt the WIPO's classifications, which divide up the creative industries according to who owns the copyrights at various stages during the production and distribution of creative content.

The DCMS classifies enterprises and occupations as creative according to what the enterprise primarily produces, and what the worker primarily does.

Thus, a company which produces records would be classified as belonging to the music industrial sector, and a worker who plays piano would be classified as a musician. The primary purpose of this is to quantify – it can be used to count the number of firms, and the number of workers, creatively employed in any given location, and hence to identify places with particularly high concentrations of creative activities. It leads to some complications which are not immediately obvious. For example, a security guard working for a music company would be classified as a creative employee, although not as creatively occupied. The total number of creative employees is then calculated as the sum of.

All workers employed in creative industries, whether or not creatively occupied (all musicians, security guards, cleaners, accountants, managers, working for a record company). All workers that are creatively occupied, and are not employed in creative industries (a piano teacher in a school).

This includes people whose second job is creative; somebody who does weekend gigs, writes books, or produces artwork in their spare time. According to Caves, creative industries are characterized by seven economic properties:

Nobody knows principle: Demand uncertainty exists because the consumers' reaction to a product are neither known beforehand, nor easily understood afterward.

Art for art's sake: Workers care about originality, technical professional skill, harmony, etc. of creative goods and are willing to settle for lower wages than offered by 'humdrum' jobs.

Motley crew principle: For relatively complex creative products (films), the production requires diversely skilled inputs. Each skilled input must be present and perform at some minimum level to produce a valuable outcome.

Infinite variety: Products are differentiated by quality and uniqueness; each product is a distinct combination of inputs leading to infinite variety options (works of creative writing, whether poetry, novel, screenplays or otherwise).

A list/B list: Skills are vertically differentiated. Artists are ranked on their skills, originality, and proficiency in creative processes and/or products. Small differences in skills and talent may yield huge differences in (financial) success.

Time flies: When coordinating complex projects with diversely skilled inputs, time is of the essence.

Ars longa: Some creative products have durability aspects that invoke copyright protection, allowing a creator or performer to collect rents.

The properties described by Caves have been criticized for being too rigid. Not all creative workers are purely driven by "art for art's sake". The "ars longa" property holds for certain noncreative products (licensed products). The "time flies" property also holds for large construction projects.

Creative industries are therefore not unique, but they score generally higher on these properties relative to non-creative industries. There is often a question about the boundaries between creative industries and the similar term of **cultural industries**. Cultural industries are best described as an adjunct-sector of the creative industries. Cultural industries include ones that focus on cultural tourism and heritage, museums, libraries, sports, outdoor activities, and a variety of "way of life" activities that arguably range from local pet shows to a host of hobbyist concerns.

Thus cultural industries are more concerned about delivering other kinds of value – including cultural wealth and social wealth – rather than primarily providing monetary value.

Exercise 1. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

The Creative Class & Diversity

Globally, Creative Industries excluding software and general scientific research and development are said to have accounted for around 4% of the world's economic output in 1999, which is the last year for which comprehensive figures are currently available.

Estimates of the output corresponding to scientific Research and Development suggest that an additional 4-9% might be attributable to the sector if its definition is extended to include such activities, though the figures vary significantly between different countries.

In the UK the creative industries make a far more significant contribution to output than hospitality or utilities and deliver four times the output due to agriculture fisheries and foresty.

In terms of employment and depending on the definition of activities included, the sector is a major employer of between 4-6% of the UK's working population, though this is still significantly less than employment due to traditional areas of work such as retail and manufacturing.

Within the creative industries sector and again taking the UK, the three largest sub-sectors are design, publishing, and televisionand radio. Together these account for around 75% of revenues and 50% of employment. Creative Industries should be treated with caution.

The creative industries in Europe make a significant contribution to the EU economy, creating about 3% of EU GDP – corresponding to an annual market value of €500 bn – and employing about 6 mln people. In addition, the sector plays a crucial role in fostering innovation, in particular for devices and networks. The EU records the second highest TV viewing figures globally, producing more films than any other region in the world. In that respect, the newly proposed "Creative Europe" programme will help preserve cultural heritage while increasing the circulation of creative works inside and outside the EU. A more entrepreneurial culture will have to take hold with a more positive attitude towards risk-taking, and a capacity to innovate anticipating future trends. Creativity plays an important role in human resource management as artists and creative professionals can think laterally.

Moreover, new jobs requiring new skills created in the post-crisis economy should be supported by labour mobility to ensure that people are employed wherever their skills are needed.

PROFESSIONAL SERVICES

The Professional Services Group comprises a global team of advisors who work with clients in the professional services industries (accounting, consulting, & engineering firms), on their real estate portfolio strategies. By tracking trends in relevant industries and researching data, we help our clients to stay ahead of the curve so that they maintain a flexible, efficient real estate portfolio aligned with the strategic direction of their business. Professional Services' Real Estate Challenges Include:

▪ personnel strategy has a higher than average stake when making real estate decisions revenue streams become a priority as the business environment grows more competitive and cheaper locations are considered;

▪ the sector leads the way in workplace strategy & the adoption of innovation & efficiency measures;

▪ the downsizing of real estate portfolios due to economic pressures, the need for competitive pricing of services, new market entrants & continuous changes in the regulatory environment;

▪ the offshoring vs. onshoring debate.

The professional services sector faces many challenges, including the ability to service clients face-to-face across a wide geographical spread. A high turnover rate and frequent contract-led work means that properties are often underutilised or carry excessive surplus.

In addition, the recent downturn experienced across the industry has led many to look at cost reduction initiatives and more flexible ways of achieving their financial goals.

By understanding the business and industry and the afore mentioned key challenges, they can help you to structure a portfolio that makes efficient use of space and reduces costs. They use a combination of state of the art technology and clear communication channels to ensure that they are adding the most value and producing the greatest cost savings for your business.

Their combined team of professionals include surveyors, accountants, project managers and business consultants whose skills are suited to meet your varied and complex requirements across the globe. They help through the following services:

Business Consulting

From real estate due diligence for merger and acquisition activity, to location analysis and portfolio optimisation programmes, our focus is on helping you improve business performance and operational productivity whilst reducing risk.

Occupier Strategy

They help you optimise the value of your property while considering the impact on your firm's balance sheet, from lease versus. Buy options analysis to support strategic decision making, through to innovative disposition strategies.

Global Lease Administration

Implementing everything from global lease administration, lease abstraction and database management to help minimize the associated risks of managing your corporate portfolio, we provide you with the detailed business data you need to properly and intelligently develop your corporate strategy,

Transaction Management

By undertaking the "intelligent client" role when managing transactions, our agents and brokers can advise and facilitate smoother and more cost effective transactions, whether it be a full property search and relocation or simply a lease renewal.

Brokerage & Research

Our transaction professionals are active in every major market and asset class worldwide, supported by their worldwide research they provide unrivalled market intelligence uncovering hidden opportunities for clients and delivering local solutions.

Programme & Project Management

They integrate design, construction and infrastructure expertise into the transaction, informing the site selection process and then managing construction to optimize timing and expense delivering real estate projects on time, within budget, and to the agreed specification.

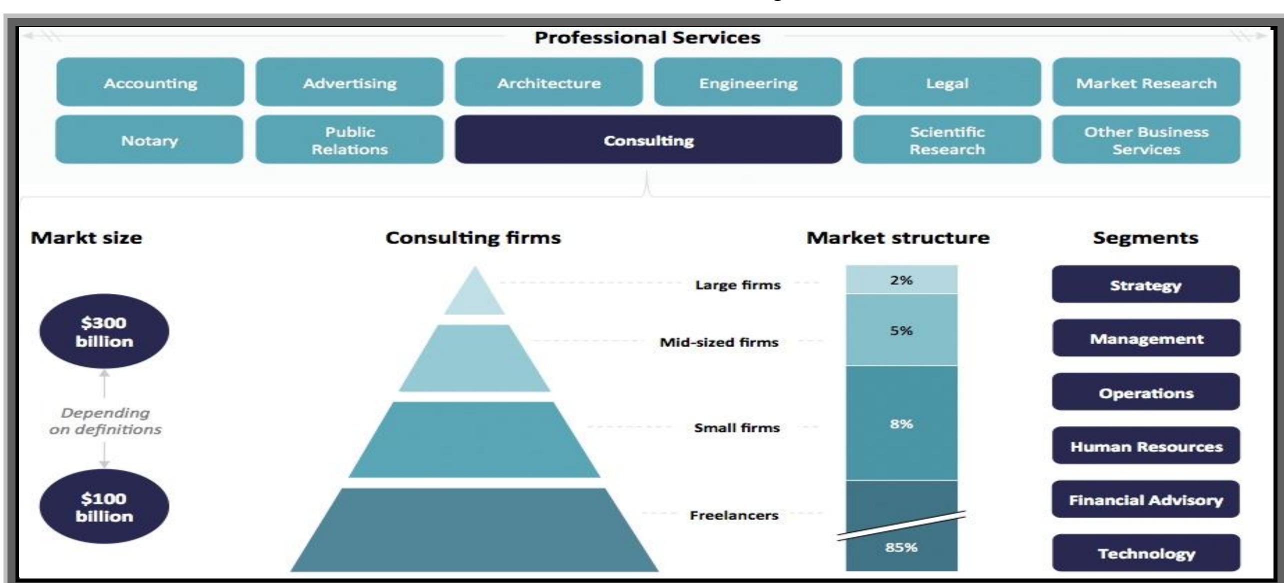
Facilities & Property Management

They think and act like owners/occupiers to maximize asset value by improving operations, attracting and retaining tenants, reducing operating costs, minimizing expenses and maximizing income.

Valuation & Lease Advisory

Cushman & Wakefield has one of the largest fully integrated real estate valuation & consulting teams in the world. We act as the foremost valuation advisor to corporations, institutional investors, and lenders on critical debt and equity investment decisions.

The Professional Services Group maintain partnerships with organizations dedicated to the advancement of the professional services industry, including leading research-based companies, academic institutions, and government agencies. Their professional services clients benefit from an experienced research team, including a team of expert sector specialists in local markets across Europe, the Middle East, and the globe who regularly publish sector specific research papers. We are strengthened by the international network of 15,000 professionals including researchers, strategists, business modellers, accountants, business consultants and agents in 253 offices across 60 countries.



GREAT BRITAIN AFTER BREXIT

As Brexit negotiations reach a climax, how is Britain's economy doing? Both remainers and leavers acknowledge that since the nation voted to leave the EU two years ago the data have been disappointing but not disastrous. Now, however, uncertainty over the outcome has reached new highs.

Prime Minister Theresa May's talks with the EU in the next few weeks could make the difference between a relatively smooth departure from the bloc and a no-deal exit.

The doubts have eaten away at business confidence and investment. But consumers were happy to spend freely in the hot weather over the summer and there are only tentative indications that they are now reining back as the nights draw in. This balancing act is likely to continue until either Mrs May strikes a Brexit deal with Brussels and shepherds it through parliament – alternatively, negotiations fail.

Philip Hammond, UK chancellor, argues that a good outcome could yield a "deal dividend" and an upgrade to economic and public finance forecasts. No deal would bring further downgrades. These six charts – including indicators on spending, saving and stock market indices – show how the UK economy is faring with less than six months to go until Britain's departure from the bloc.

The ***economic effects of Brexit*** were a major area of debate during the Referendum on UK membership of the European Union, and the debate continues after the Leave vote. There is a broad consensus among economists and in the economic literature that Brexit will likely reduce the UK's real per-capita income level. Supporters of remaining, including the UK treasury, argued that being in the EU has a strong positive effect on trade and as a result the UK's trade would be worse off if it left the EU. Supporters of withdrawal from the EU have argued that the cessation of net contributions to the EU would allow for some cuts to taxes or increase in government spending.

Supporters of withdrawal argued that ending net contributions to the EU would allow for tax cuts or government spending increases. On the basis of Treasury figures, in 2014 the UK's *gross* national contribution was £18.8 bn, about 1% of GDP, or £350 mln a week.

Because the UK receives (per capita) less EU spending than other member states, a rebate was negotiated; net of this rebate, the contribution was £14.4 bn, approximately 0.8% of GDP, or £275 mln a week. If EU spending in Britain is also taken into account, the average *net*contribution for the next five years is estimated at about £8 bn a year, which is about 0.4% of national income, or £150 mln per week. The Institute for Fiscal Studies noted that the majority of forecasts of the impact of Brexit on the UK economy indicated that the government would have less money to spend even if it no longer had to pay into the EU. According to economist Paul Krugman, Brexiteers' assertions that leaving the single market and customs union might increase UK exports to the rest of the world are wrong. He considers the costs of Brexit might be around 2 % of GDP.

Effect on Trade & Economy

Most economists, including the UK Treasury, argue that being in the EU has a strong positive effect on trade and as a result the UK's trade would be worse off if it left the EU. Surveys of leading economists show overwhelming agreement that Brexit will likely reduce the UK's real per-capita income level. A 2017 survey of existing academic literature found "the research literature displays a broad consensus that in the long run Brexit will make the UK poorer because it will create new barriers to trade, foreign direct investment, and immigration.

However, there is substantial uncertainty over how large the effect will be, with plausible estimates of the cost ranging between 1% & 10 % of the UK's income per capita." These estimates differ depending on whether the UK stays in the European Single Market (for instance, by joining the EEA), makes a free trade agreement with the EU, or reverts to the trade rules that govern relations between all World Trade Organization members.

Prior to the referendum, the UK treasury estimated: leaving the EU w'll be bad for the trade.

On 10 August the Institute for Fiscal Studies published a report funded by the Economic and Social Research Council which warned that Britain faced some very difficult choices as it couldn't retain the benefits of full EU membership whilst restricting EU migration. The IFS claimed the cost of reduced economic growth would cost the UK around £70 bn, more than the £8 bn savings in membership fees. It did not expect new trade deals to make up the difference.

On 5 January 2017, Andy Haldane, the Chief Economist and the Executive Director of Monetary Analysis and Statistics at the Bank of England, said that the BoE's own forecast predicting an immediate economic downturn due to the referendum result was inaccurate and noted strong market performance immediately after the referendum, although some have pointed to prices rising faster than wages. Haldane said the forecast was only inaccurate in its near-term assessment, and that over time, Brexit would harm economic growth. London School of Economics economist Thomas Sampson notes that it is hard to assess the impact that the transition process to Brexit will have.

A report by the London School of Economics suggests that food prices, notably prices of dairy products could rise and food supplies could become less secure if Britain leaves the EU under WTO trading arrangements. Hospitals currently rely heavily on foods imported from the EU to provide a nutritious diet for patients. There is concern how healthy diets will be maintained in schools, prisons and care homes as well as hospitals if the UK leaves the EU without an agreement.

Foreign Direct Investments

European experts from the World Pensions Council (WPC) and the University of Bath have argued that, beyond short-lived market volatility, the long term economic prospects of Britain remain high, notably in terms of country attractiveness and foreign direct investment (FDI): "Country risk experts we spoke to are confident the UK's economy will remain robust in the event of an exit from the EU. "The economic attractiveness of Britain will not go down and a trade war with London is in no one's interest", says M Nicolas Firzli. Bruce Morley suggests that the long-term benefits to the UK of leaving the Union, such as less regulation and more control over Britain's trade policy, could outweigh the short-term uncertainty observed in the [country risk] scores."

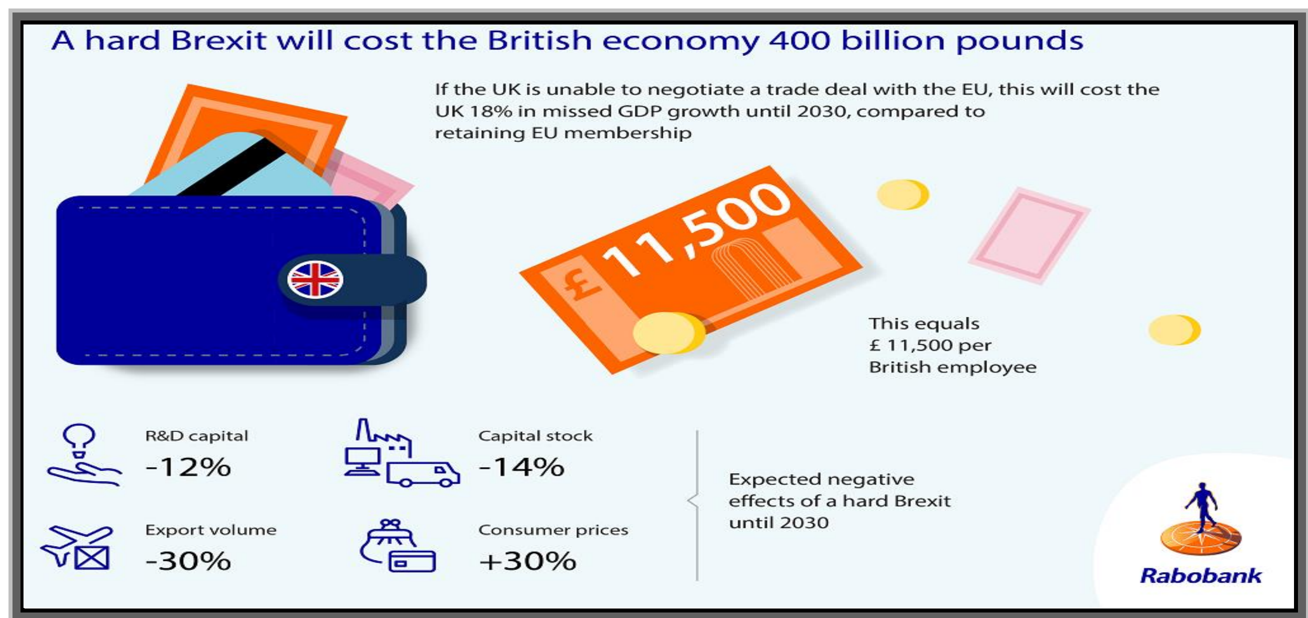
The mooted importance of the UK's membership of the EU as a lure for FDI has long been stressed by supporters of the UK's continued involvement in the EU. In this view, foreign firms see the UK as a gateway to other EU markets, with the UK economy benefiting from its resulting attractiveness as a location for activity. The UK is certainly a major recipient of FDI.

On 27 June, Chancellor of the Exchequer George Osborne attempted to reassure financial markets that the UK economy was not in serious trouble. This came after media reports that a survey by the Institute of Directors suggested that two-thirds of businesses believed that the outcome of the referendum would produce negative results as well as falls in the value of sterling and the FTSE 100.

Some British businesses had predicted that investment cuts, hiring freezes and redundancies would be necessary to cope with the results of the referendum. Osborne indicated that Britain was facing the future "from a position of strength" and there was no current need for an emergency Budget.

"No-one should doubt our resolve to maintain the fiscal stability we have delivered for this country .... And to companies, large and small, I would say this: the British economy is fundamentally strong, highly competitive and we are open for business." It was expected that the weaker pound would also benefit aerospace and defence firms, pharmaceutical companies, and professional services companies; the share prices of these companies were boosted after the EU referendum.

Research by the Centre for European Reform suggests the UK economy is 2.5% smaller than it would have been if Remain had won the referendum. Public finances fell by £ 26bn a year. This amounts to £500m a week and is growing. An estimate suggested Britain's economy is 2.1% smaller than it would have been after the first quarter of 2018.


A hard Brexit will cost the British economy 400 billion pounds
If the UK is unable to negotiate a trade deal with the EU, this will cost the UK 18% in missed GDP growth until 2030, compared to retaining EU membership
£ 11,500
This equals £ 11,500 per British employee
R&D capital
-12%
Capital stock
-14%
Export volume
-30%
Consumer prices
+30%
Expected negative effects of a hard Brexit until 2030
Rabobank

Risks on the Horizon
Trump
Brexit
Advanced economy stagnation
Weak global trade
China hard landing
Opportunities for Growth
Oil price
US fiscal boom
India surging ahead
Stronger growth in China

UNIT II. SOCIAL ACTIVITES IN GREAT BRITAIN

INTRODUCTION

British culture has its roots in the UK's rich history, the people and the four countries – England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland – that it's made up of each with their own unique traditions and customs. British culture and social norms are very unique.

One of the most important things to know before going to any country is what their cultural and social norms are. As an international student from another country, you may be clueless. This article introduces you to everything you need to know about the British culture.

Things you need to know about the British people

The British are punctual. Being late is odd and, in some cases, considered to be rude. If you're going to be late to something, contact those involved as soon as you know you will be late.

It is less rude to be late to a dinner party at someone's home than it is to be late to a public meeting (such as dinner at a restaurant).

Never jump lines, known as "queues" in UK. In some countries jumping the queue may be acceptable, but in UK, people may not be very happy with you and will definitely let you know how unhappy they are about the situation. Standing patiently in the queue is a normal part of British culture.

In the UK, it's acceptable to keep one arm's length between yourself & those you are speaking with. Any closer is assumed to be aggressive and can be uncomfortable for those native to UK.

Please, thank you, & sorry are normal parts of everyday conversations and interactions.

Some people are simply baffled by how polite British people are. As an international student, you may not be used to this, but you will probably get used to it quickly after your arrival!

When greeting a good friend or family member in UK, you do not simply shake their hand.Many times, especially if one of the people that are greeting or being greeted is female, you will frequently give and/or receive a small kiss on the cheek. If you are not a close friend or family member, then the physical touch is perceived as odd or uncomfortable (you may shake hands, but often a smile and a bow of the head is acceptable enough).

The British have a high amount of respect for older adults and the disabled. If you are on public transportation, you are expected to give up your seat if someone who is disabled or older comes onto the tram (or whatever vehicle you are in) and there is no other seat. If an older adult or someone who is disabled seems to be struggling with something, you are also expected to ask the person if they need your assistance. British people rarely use superlatives & are not nimated when they speak. They value privacy over everything else, so be careful what you ask because you could be prying without meaning to. British people often avoid extended eye contact. They find it uncomfortable and intimidating. If you are invited to the home of a native British person, it is normal to bring along a gift, such as chocolate, wine, or flowers to say thank you. If you go to a pub with your friends, it is common practice to buy a round of drinks for those who you came with. The person who has invited you to dinner is typically the one who pays. Do not argue about whose responsibility it is, rather, invite them out to dinner at some point and pay for them to reciprocate.

These little cultural differences will be a regular part of adapting to life in UK, and so it's important to learn them before you even arrive. You want to make sure that you don't offend anyone as you're getting used to life in UK. If you don't do these things naturally, the British will definitely know that you're from out of town. This knowledge will help you get better adjusted to British norms before you start enjoying the rest of student life while attending university in UK.

There are no strict etiquette rules that you have to stick to when in the UK. It is advisable, however, to demonstrate decent manners and respect to the local culture and traditions.

The first, and most important step, is to be aware of the clearly distinct nations which form the UK. The UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland consists of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. The citizens of any of these countries may be referred to as "British".

This term is the safest to use when not certain of a person's heritage. When certain of heritage, you are free to call the different residents as follows: English, Scot, Welsh or Irish. While the four countries share many customs, each has its own set of traditions and history.

Greetings & Meetings

When first meeting a Brit, he or she may seem reserved and cold, but that is just an impression.

In reality, they are very friendly and helpful to foreigners. A handshake is the common form of greeting, but try to avoid prolonged eye contact, as it may make people feel ill at ease.

Use last names and appropriate titles until specifically invited to use first names. It is proper to shake hands with everyone to whom you are introduced, both men & women; the appropriate response to an introduction is "Pleased to meet you".

Time & Punctuality

British people are very strict when it comes to punctuality. In Britain people make a great effort to arrive on time, so it is considered impolite to be late, even with by few minutes. If you are delayed, be sure to inform the person you are meeting. Here are some situations when you are obliged to be on time, as well as some situations when it is advisable:

- For formal dinners, lunches, or appointments you always come at the exact time appointed.
- For public meetings, plays, concerts, movies, sporting events, classes, church services, and weddings, it's best to arrive a few minutes early.
- You can arrive any time during the hours specified for teas, receptions and cocktail parties.

The British often use expressions such as "drop in anytime" and "come see me soon".

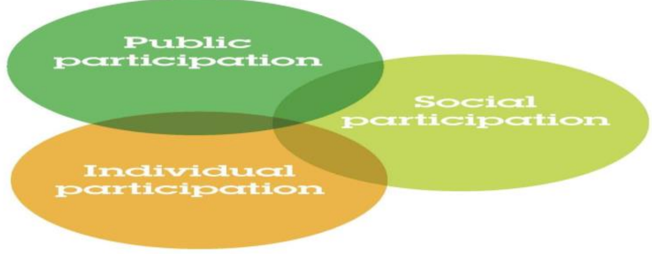
However, do not take these literally. To be on the safe side, always telephone before visiting someone at home. If you receive a written invitation to an event that says "RSVP", you should respond to the sender as soon as possible, whether you are going to attend or not.

Body Language & Dress Code

British people are not very keen on displaying affection in public. Hugging, kissing and touching are usually reserved for family members and very close friends. You should also avoid talking loudly in public or going to extremes with hand gestures during the course of communication. The British like a certain amount of personal space. Do not stand too close to another person or put your arm around someone's shoulder. When it comes to clothes, there are no limits and restrictions on how to dress.

Just make sure that you respect the general rules when in formal situations. Observation will reveal that people in larger cities dress more formally, especially in London. Men and women wear wools and tweeds for casual occasions. Slacks, sweaters and jackets are appropriate for men and women.

Do not wear a blazer to work -- it is country or weekend wear. On formal occasions, always select an outfit that fits the dress code. When attending a holiday dinner or cultural event, such as a concert or theatre performance, it is best to dress formally.



TRADITIONAS &CUSTOMS

Every nation and every country has its own customs and traditions. In Britian traditions play more importaint part in the life of the people than in some other countries. Englishmen are proud of their traditions and carefully keep them up. It has been the law for about three hundred years that all the theatres are closed on Sundays no letters are delivered only a few Sunday papers are publshed.

To this day English families prefer cotage houses with gardens to flats in a modern house with central heeting. English people like gardens. Sometimes the garden in front of the house is a little square covered with cement painted green (in imitation of grass) and a box of flowers.

Traditions in England have been around for centuries. British traditions are famous worldwide.

When one thinks of Britain, you imagine people drinking tea, wearing bowler hats and gorging on fish and chips. Sports, food and music, are tightly knit traditions in Britain.

In English houses the fire-place has always been the centre of interest in a room. For many months of the year people like to sit round the fire and watch the dancing flames. Fire places are decorated with woodworks, there is a painting or a mirror over it. Above the fire there is usually a shelf with a clock and some photographs. Holydays are especially rich in old traditions and are different in cotland, Wales and England. Christmas is a great english national holyday and in Scotland it is not kept at all exeept by clerks in banks, all the shops and factories are working.

But 6 days later on the New Year's Eve the Scots begin to enjoy themselves. People invite their friends to their houses and sit the old year out and the new year in. In England on new Year's Eve a lot of people go to Trafalgar Square, at midnight, they all cross their arms join hands and sing.

People have parties too, they drink toarts to the New Year Children are happy to have presents.

Four times a year the offices and banks in Britain are closed on Monday. These public holidays are known as Bank Holidays. The British like to spend holidays out of the town in the open air. They go to the sea-side or to amusements parks. Londoners often visit the Zoo, outside London they take their families to Hamsted Heath a large natural park too. There is usually a big fair with many different amusements for children merry-go-round, swings puppet shows, bright baloons.

One must speak about such holidays ass All Fools Day, Hallowe'en Bonfire Night, St. Valentines Day and such tradition as Eisteddfod (a festival of which culture).

There are only six public holidays a year in Great Britain, that is days on which people need not go in to work. They are: Christmas Day, Boxing Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, Spring Bank Holiday and Late Summer Bank Holiday. In Scotland, the New Year's Day is also a public holiday.

Most of these holidays are of religious origin, though it would be right to say that for the greater part of the population they have long lost their religious significance and are simply days on which people relax, eat, drink and make merry. All the public holidays, except Christmas Day and Boxing Day observed on December 25th and 26th respectively, are movable, that is they do not fall on the same day each year. Good Friday and Easter Monday depend on Easter Sunday which falls on the first Sunday after a full moon on or after March 21st.

The Spring Bank Holiday falls on the last Monday of May or on the first Monday of June, while the Late Summer Bank Holiday comes on the last Monday in August or on the first Monday in September, depending on which of the Mondays is nearer to June 1st and September 1st respectively.

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

Exercise 1. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

Exercise 2. Read the text & pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 3. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

January	**June**
1st New Year's Day	Trooping the Colours
5th Twefth Night	Wimbledon Tennis Tournament
February	**July**
1st Candlemas Day	Swan Upping
14th Valentine's Day	**August**
March	Notting Hill Carnival
1st St David's Day (Wales National Day)	**September**
17th St. Patrick's Day (Ireland's Special Day)	Harvest Festival
March/April	**October**
Shrove Tuesday	31st Halloween
Lent	**November**
Mothering Sunday	5th Bonfire Night
Maundy Thursday	11th Remembrance Day
Easter	30th St Andrew's Day (Scotland's National Day)
April	**December**
1st April Fool's Day	Advent
23rd St George's Day (England's National Day)	25th Christmas
May	26th Boxing Day
1st May Day	

CUSTOMS IN GREAT BRITAIN

Festivals

Integral part of traditions and customs of British are numerous festivals, which are led on all country. The Most known Flowers Festival in the world takes place in Chelsea (practically within London) in May. The most grandiose and solemn holiday of the country – Birthday of the Queen, passes in London in the middle of June. In Edinburgh, every summer (in August) passes the International festival of music and the drama "Fringe". The enchanting musical Glastonbury Festival passes among Welsh hills in June. Grandiose "The Caribbean carnival" is carried out to Notting Hill (London) at the end of August. The annual Festival of the international music is conducted in July in the small town Llangollen (Wales). On all country everyday, surely pass any competitions on the most various sports.

Fireplaces

Englishmen have traditions not only in political, but in social life. London , the capital of England , is traditionally divided into three parts: the West End , the East end, and the City.

The City is a historical, financial and business center of London. The East End is the district inhabited by the workers, and the West End is a fashionable shopping and entertaining center.

English people like to spend their free time in numerous pubs where they can have a glass of beer and talk about different things with their friends. The English are traditional about their meals.

They eat eggs and bacon with toasts for breakfast, pudding or apple pie for dessert. Every English family has five o'clock tea.

A typical feature of an English house is a fireplace, even when there is central heating in the house. English people like domestic animals. Every family has a pet: a dog, a cat or a bird. Politeness is a characteristic feature of Englishmen. They often say "Thank you", "Sorry", "Beg your pardon".

Tradition in England is notorious the three pillars on which rests the earth. To some aspects of the life of the English people are treated with special reverence. Construction of own house and garden is the most common passion for the English. All my free time they have to improve and further decoration of dwelling (about the same is the case with the car) and kindergarten under the Windows of the living room. Traditional is also the love of animals. The British love them passionately, almost in every house hold Pets. It seems that they love animals more than their own children, forgiving beasts such tricks, for which the children have been properly punished.

In English homes, the fireplace has always been, until recent times, the natural centre of interest in a room. People may like to sit at a window on a summer day, but for many months of the year they prefer to sit round the fire and watch the dancing flames.

In the Middle Ages the fireplaces in the halls of large castles were very wide. Only wood was burnt, and large logs were carted in from the forests, and supported as they burnt, on metal bars. Such wide fireplaces may still be seen in old inns, and in some of them there are even seats inside the fireplace. Elizabethan fireplaces often had carved stone or woodwork over the fireplace, reaching to the ceiling. There were sometimes columns on each side of the fireplace.

In the 18th century, space was often provided over the fireplace for a painting or mirror.

When coal fires became common, fireplaces became much smaller. Grates were used to hold the coal. Above the fireplace there was usually a shelf on which there was often a clock, and perhaps framed photographs.

Dancing is popular, and the numerous large and opulent-looking public dance-halls are an important element in the folklore and courtship procedures of all but the upper and middle classes. They manage to survive against the competition of the more modern, smaller, noisier discotheques.

They are strictly places for dancing, with good floors and good bands, but often no tables for people to sit at when they are not actually dancing, only rows of chairs round the walls.

They are visited mainly by young unmarried people. Girls tend to go in groups of two or three, friends from the same street or the same or officece, relying much on each other's support as they go in; the young men sometimes go in groups too, but often alone.

All the girls tend to congregate together between dances, and the young men similarly. At the beginning of each dance a man chooses a girl from the mass, and will ask the same girl to dance with him again if he finds her company agreeable, but the girl may refuse. Most of the dancers go home as they come – but not quite at all. If a couple like one another the young man may offer an invitation to go to a cinema on some future night, and this invitation may be succeeded by others. After several pre-arranged meetings a couple may regard themselves as "going steady" together though for a long time they will meet only in public places, and an invitation home implies great admiration. Young people are thoroughly emancipated, and find it easy enough to meet each other.

It is a tradition observed by England. Clocks are moved back one hour and takes place one week ahead of daylight savings time in America.

Afternoon Tea

They identified two main traditions of the UK. They are Afternoon tea, Race Boats and Advent. Afternoon tea. In my opinion, the main tradition of the British, was, is and will be an afternoon tea.

It consists of several stages, coming in strict sequence. First of all you are offered to choose the type of tea. You choose what you like, and this is served on the table in the form of tea leaves in the tea-pot, to which relies teapot with boiling water.

Having it all on your table, you give the tea brew for a few minutes, and then pour. If you've invited someone to tea, you will play the role of owner and are obliged to take care of the guest.

The tea is offered in the first place: "You pour?".

Put the first for a Cup of tea-strainer that tea does not get into the Cup. Then pour in her tea. After that, remove the strainer and put in a special bowl, pre-brush in her tea. If you tea is strong too much you can dilute it with hot water. Tea British drink "black", as well as with milk and one or two pieces of sugar; however, never drink tea with cream.

The tea may submit the sandwiches, which should take his hands. After tea with sandwiches offer co – little sweet bread with raisins. The absorption of this product is too complicated ritual.

You must take on his plate a little butter and jam, and it should be taken with the region, which is closer to you. You then need to co-cut in half and spread with butter or jam, only the plot, which are going to bite. Spread the bread cannot be! Hereinafter smudge the velocity of butter and jam need to as his 'absorption'. The end of the tea ceremony – liqueur-glass of sherry. Since the tea party certainly gets everyone who came to England, it is useful to remember its basic features.

By the way, if the sign of a special location you are invited to a house, in the day of the visit should be send by messenger flowers, chocolate and wine masters of the house.

Race Boats

The most famous – the traditional "Race Boats" universities of Oxford and Cambridge held in London on the river. The river is in the end of March. The big winner of the national Cup on Stillcheesy (very old and honorable equestrian competitions in the world) is held in Aintree on the first Saturday of April, the national football championship reaches its climax at London's Wembley stadium (up to 2001) in may, the most prestigious tennis competition of the planet are in Wimbledon at the end of June, the Royal Regatta starts in Hanly-he-Thames in June; at the end of July was a real yachting extravaganza – Week KAUs-Weekend on the island of Isle of Wight.

Costumes & Clothes

Many British costumes and uniforms have a long history. One is the uniform of the Beefeaters at the Tower of London. This came first from France. Another is the uniform of the Horse Guards at Horse Guards' Parade, not far from Buckingham Palace. Thousands of visitors take photographs of the Horse Guards, but the Guards never move or smile. In fact some visitors think the Guards aren't real. And that brings us to...Britannia. She wears traditional clothes, too. But she's not a real person.

She is symbol of Britain. Lots of ordinary clothes have a long tradition. The famous bowler hat, for example. A man called Beaulieu made the first one in 1850. The very cold winters in the Crimea in the war of 1853-56 gave us the names of the cardigan and the balaclava. Lord Cardigan led the Light Brigade at the Battle of Balaclava (1854).

A "cardigan" is now a warm woollen short coat with buttons, and a "balaclava" is a woollen hat.

Another British soldier, Wellington, gave his name to a pair of boots. They have a shorter name today - "Wellies" raced on the river Thames and the Oxford boat won. That started a tradition. Now, every Spring, the University Boat Race goes from Putney to Mort lake on the Thames. That's 6.7 kilometres. The Cambridge rowers wear light blue shirts and the Oxford rowers wear dark blue.

There are eight men in each boat. There's also a "cox". The cox controls the boat. Traditionally coxes are men, but Susan Brown became the first woman cox in 1981. She was the cox for Oxford and they won. As for the clothing, *the UK's wearing trends are closely similar to fashion trends in western societies*. At the same time, their sentiments for their typical clothing elements are highly expressed in their daily dressing styles.

Across the UK there are many variations depending on several factors. Young people, mainly follow the most actual global fashion trends. *Their clothing contains Jeans, T-shirts, jackets, and sneakers.* Those who work in an office usually wear on elegant business suits.

Elders' clothing styles, mostly contain British traditional garments. A typical element of their clothing *is the tweed jacket*. Although this jacket has almost identical shape and design of a suit jacket it is meant to be less formal and keep you warm without needing to match it with trousers.

In the UK the weather is pretty unpredictable. Depending on the weather Brits choose to dress differently. When there's winter weather they usually wear heavy overcoats or anoraks, while when it rains Britons wear raincoats and umbrellas. The same clothing styles are found all across the UK. *Scotland is mainly known for its famous national attire, the kilt*. This type is an everyday clothing and often is regarded as the highlands dress regarding the Scottish land where the Kilt has originated.

The main element of this outfit, as the name suggests, is the kilt and other garments are belt and buckle, Jacobite shirt, kilt hose and kilt pin. Nowadays there are many variations of the same Scottish national dress because people added different accessories depending on their choice.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 3. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

Exercise 4. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

PUBLIC HOLIDAYS

New Year

Of the Customs of the inhabitants of the UK are as anxious as to traditions. In Scotland it is believed that the first person who comes into the house after the New Year, significantly affect the financial condition. Depending on the region, good luck brings the fair-haired or dark-haired stranger.

In England, luck brings man who brought into the house of a piece of coal and a glass of clean water. In the UK, a wide distribution has a habit of "Intake New Year". In Hertfordshire custom intake of the New year lies in the fact that when the clock begins to chime 12, open the rear door of the house, to let the Old year, and with the last stroke of the clock open the front door, letting in the New year.

The first day of the New Year for the British – line between the recent past and the mysterious future. With this day was associated takes a lot of popular beliefs and superstitions. Rain in the morning of the New Year foretells the bad, the disastrous year. Tried to define what will be the harvest, the outline of the clouds. Scots in the New Year's Evening, wondering about the fate of the family.

To do this, on the evening before bedtime covered the burning peat ash, and in the morning to see in it a sign resembling the imprint of a human foot: if the toe of the trace is turned to the door, consequently, the number of family members in this year will decrease, if the door will increase.

No fingerprints on the ashes, there will be any changes.

In England the New Year is not as widely or as enthusiastically observed as Christmas. Some people ignore it completely and go to bed at the same time as usual on New Year's Eve. Many others, however, do celebration it in one way or another, the type of celebration varying very much according to the local custom, family traditions and personal taste. The most common type of celebration is a New Year party, either a family party or one arranged by a group of young people. This usually begins at about eight o'clock and goes on until the early hours of the morning.

There is a lot of drinking, mainly beer, wine, gin and whisky; sometimes the hosts make a big bowl of punch which consists of wine, spirits, fruit juice and water in varying proportions.

There is usually a buffer of cold meat, pies, sandwiches, savouries, cakes and biscuits.

At midnight the wireless is turned on, so that everyone can hear the chimes of Big Ben, and on the hour a toast is drunk to the New Year. Then the party goes on.

Another popular way of celebrating the New Year is to go to a New Year's dance. Most hotels and dance halls hold a special dance on New Year's Eve. The hall is decorated, there are several different bands and the atmosphere is very gay.

The most famous celebration is in London round the statue of Eros in Piccadilly Circus where crowds gather and sing and welcome the New Year. Those who have no desire or no opportunity to celebrate the New Year themselves can sit and watch other people celebrating on television. It is an indication of the relative unimportance of the New Year in England that the television producers seem unable to find any traditional English festivities for their programmers and usually show Scottish ones.

January 1st, New Year's Day, is not a public holiday, unfortunately for those who like to celebrate most of the night. Some people send New Year cards and give presents but this is not a widespread custom. This is the traditional time for making "New Year resolutions", to give up smoking, or to get up earlier. However, these are generally more talked about than put into practice.

On New Year's Day the "New Year Honours List" is published in the newspapers; i.e. a list of those who are to be given honours of various types – knighthoods, etc. In London crowds usually gather round the statue of Eros in Piccadilly Circus and welcome the New Year. There are some traditions on New Year's Day. One of them is the old First Footing. The first man to come into the house is very important. The Englishman believes that he brings luck. This man (not a woman) must be healthy, young, pretty looking. He brings presents-bread, a piece of coal or a coin. On the New Year's Day families watch the old year out and the New Year in.

In Scotland the New Year's Day is a public holiday. Some people ignore it completely and go to bed at the same time as usual on New Year's Eve.

Many others, however, do celebrate it in one way or another, the type of celebration varying very much according to the local custom, family tradition and personal taste.

The most common type of celebration is a New Year party, either a family party or one arranged by a group of young people. This usually begins at about eight o'clock and goes on until the early hours of the morning. There is a lot of drinking, mainly beer, wine, gin and whisky; sometimes the hosts make a big bowl of punch which consists of wine, spirits, fruit juice and water in varying proportions.

There is usually a buffet supper of cold meat, pies, sandwiches, savories, cakes and biscuits.

At midnight the wireless is turned on, so that everyone can hear the chimes of Big Ben, and on the hour a toast is drunk to the New Year. Then the party goes on.

Hogmanay is a Scottish name for New Year's Eve, and is a time for merrymaking, the giving of presents and the observance of the old custom of First – Footing. One of the most interesting of Scottish Hogmanay celebrations is the Flambeaux Procession at Comrie, Perthshire.

It can be traced back to the time of the ancient Druids. There is a procession of townsfolk in fancy dress carrying large torches. They are led by pipers. When the procession has completed its tour, the flambeaux (torches) are thrown into a pile. Everyone dances around the blaze until the torches have burned out.

The Night of Hogmanay

Nowhere else in Britain is the arrival of the New Year celebrated so wholeheartedly as in Scotland.Throughout Scotland, the preparations for greeting the New Year start with a minor "spring-cleaning". Brass and silver must be glittering and fresh linen must be put on the beds. No routine work may be left unfinished; stockings must be darned, tears mended, clocks wound up, musical instruments tuned, and pictures hung straight. In addition, all outstanding bills are paid, overdue letters written and borrowed books returned. At least, that is the idea!

Most important of all, there must be plenty of good things to eat. Innumerable homes "reek of celestial grocery" – plum puddings and currant buns, spices and cordials, apples and lemons, tangerines and toffee. In mansion and farmhouse, in suburban villa and city tenement, the table is spread with festive fare. Essential to Hogmanay are "cakes and kebbuck" (oatcakes & cheese), shortbread, and either black bun or currant loaf. There are flanked with bottles of wine and the "mountain dew" that is the poetic name for whisky. In the cities and burghs, the New Year receives a communal welcome, the traditional gathering-place being the Mercat Cross, the hub and symbol of the old burgh life.

In Edinburgh, however, the crowd has slid a few yards down the hill from the Mercat Cross to the Tron Kirk – being lured thither, no doubt, by the four-faced clock in the tower. As the night advances, Princes Street becomes as thronged as it normally is at noon, and there is growing excitement in the air. Towards midnight, all steps turn to the Tron Kirk, where a lively, swaying crowd awaits "the Chaplin o' the Twal" (the striking of 12 o'clock). As the hands of the clock in the tower approach the hour, a hush falls on the waiting throng, the atmosphere grows tense, and then suddenly there comes a roar from a myriad throats. The bells forth, the sirens scream – the New Year is born!

Many families prefer to bring in the New Year at home, with music or dancing, cards or talk.

As the evening advances, the fire is piled high – for the brighter the fire, the better the luck.

The members of the household seat themselves round the hearth, and when the hands of the clock approach the hour, the head of the house rises, goes to the main door, opens it wide, and holds it thus until the last stroke of midnight has died away. Then he shuts it quietly and returns to the family circle. He has let the Old Year out and the New Year in. Now greetings and small gifts are exchanged, glasses are filled – and already the First-Footers are at the door. The First-Footer, on crossing the threshold, greets the family with "A gude New Year to ane and a'!" or simply "A Happy New Year!"

And pours out a glass from the flask he carries. This must be drunk to the dregs by the head of the house, who, in turn, pours out a glass for each of his visitors. The glass handed to the First-Footer himself must be drunk to the dregs. A popular toast is: "Your good health!" The First-Footers must take something to eat as well as to drink, and after an exchange of greetings they go off again on their rounds.

1st Saturday in January

Apple Howling or Wassailing is an ancient custom in which the evil spirits are driven out and the good spirits are encouraged to produce a good apple crop for the following year's cider.

2nd Saturday in January

Firle Wassail, East Sussex. Hunters Moon Morris Men. Torch procession, bonfire, food, haystack stage, dance floor.

12th Night is the night before 12fth Day. "The evening of the 5th of January, preceding 12th Day, the eve of the Epiphany, formerly the last day of the Christmas festivities and observed as a time of merrymaking". 12th Night (5th January) is when all Christmas Decorations should be removed so as not to bring bad luck upon the home. If decorations are not removed on 12th Night, they should stay up all year.

Why is it bad luck to leave the decorations up after 12th Night?

Long ago it was thought that leaving the decorations up would cause a disaster.

People believed that tree-spirits lived in the greenery (holy, ivy) they decorated their houses with. The greenery was brought into the house to provide a safe haven for the tree-spirits during the harsh midwinter days. Once this period was over it was necessary to return the greenery back outside to release the tree-spirits into the countryside once again.

Failure to do this would mean that vegetation would not be able to start growing again (spring would not return), leading to an agricultural disaster. It was thought that, if you left the greenery in the house, the tree-spirits would cause mischief in the house until they were released.

Today people still feel uneasy about leaving the Christmas decorations up after 12th Night. Despite decorations now being made of foil or paper, and even though the tree-spirits are long forgotten, the superstition still survives. Until the 19th century, people would keep decorations of holly, ivy, box, yew, lauren and mistletoe up until February 2nd, Candlemas Day, the end of the Christmas season, 40 days after the birth of Jesus. The Three Wise Men are not included in the nativity scene until January 6, Three King's Day. The nativity scene is traditionally not taken down until 2nd February, Candlemas. In the reign of Victoria decorations came down on 12th Night and generally were burnt.

St. Valentine's Day – February 14

It's here again, the day when boys and girls, sweethearts and lovers, husbands and wives, friends and neighbours; even the office staff will exchange greetings of affections, undying love or satirical comment. The quick, slick, modern way to do it is with a Valentine card. There are all kinds, to suit all tastes, the lush satin cushions, boxed and be-ribboned, the entwined hearts, gold arrows, roses, cupids, doggerel rhymes, sick sentiment and sickly sentimentality – it's all there. The publishers made sure it was there, as Mr. Punch complained, "there weeks in advance!" In his magazine, Punch, as long ago as 1880 he pointed out that no sooner was the avalanche of Christmas cards swept away than the publishers began to fill the shops with their novel valentines, full of "Hearts and Darts, Loves and Doves and Floating Fays and Flowers". It must have been one of these cards, which Charles Dickens describes in Pickwick Papers. It was "a highly coloured representation of a couple of human hearts skewered together with an arrow, cooking before a cheerful fire" and "superintending the cooking" was a "highly indelicate young gentleman in a pair of wings and nothing else". In the last century, sweet-hearts of both sexes would spend hours fashioning a homemade card or present.

The results of some of those painstaking efforts are still preserved in museums.

Lace, ribbon, wild flowers, coloured paper, feathers and shells, all were brought into use. If the aspiring (or perspiring) lover had difficulty in thinking up a message or rhyme there was help at hand.

He could dip into the quiver of Love or St. Valentine's Sentimental Writer, these books giving varied selections to suit everyone's choice. Sam Weller, of Pick wick Papers fame, took an hour and a half to write his "Valentine", with much blotting and crossing out and warnings from his father not to descend to poetry. The first Valentine of all was a bishop, a Christian martyr, who before the Romans put him to death sent a note of friendship to his jailer's blind daughter.

The Christian Church took for his saint's day February 14; the date of an old pagan festival when young Roman maidens threw decorated love missives into an urn to be drawn out by their boy friends.

A French writer who described how the guests of both sexes drew lots for partners by writing down names on pieces of paper noted this idea of lottery in 17th century England. "It is all the rage", he wrote. But apparently to bring the game into a family and friendly atmosphere one could withdraw from the situation by paying a forfeit, usually a pair of gloves. One of the older versions of a well-known rhyme gives the same picture: "The rose is red, the violets are blue, The honey's sweet and so are you. Thou art my love and I am thine. I drew thee to my Valentine.The lot was cast and then I drew And fortune said it should be you." Comic valentines are traditional.

The habit of sending gifts is dying out, which must be disappointing for the manufacturers, who nevertheless still hopefully dish out presents for Valentine's Day in an attempt to cash in and the demand for valentines is increasing. According to one manufacturer, an estimated 30 mln cards will have been sent by January, 14 – and not all cheap stuff, either. "Our cards cost from 6d to 15s 6d", he says, but "ardent youngsters" want to pay more. "They can pay more. I saw a red satin heart-shaped cushion enthroning a "pearl" necklace and earrings for 25s." Another, in velvet bordered with gold lace, topped with a gilt leaf brooch, was 21s (if anyone buys them … well, it must be love!).

There are all kinds: The sick joke – reclining lady on the front, and inside she will "kick you in the ear". The satirical – "You are charming, witty, intelligent", and "if you believe all this you must be …" – inside the card you find an animated cuckoo clock. The take-off of the sentimental – "Here's the key to my heart … use it before I change the lock". The attempts to send a serious message without being too sickly, ending with variations of "mine" and "thine" and "Valentine".

So in the 20th century, when there are no longer any bars to communication between the sexes, the love missives of an older, slower time, edged carefully over the counters by the publishers and shopkeepers, still surge through the letter boxes.

Pancake Day

If America is famous for its Mardi Gras, England is known for ***Shrove Tuesday***. Shrove Tuesday takes place before the start of Lent and is celebrated by Christians across the country by making pancakes. Pancakes are similar to crepes in England accompanied by golden syrup, sugar or lemon. Pancake Day is the popular name for Shrove Tuesday, the day preceding the first day of Lent.

In medieval times the day was characterized by merrymaking and feasting, a relic of which is the eating of pancakes. Whatever religious significance Shrove Tuesday may have possessed in the olden days, it certainly has none now. A Morning Star correspondent who went to a cross-section of the people he knew to ask what they knew about Shrove Tuesday received these answers: "It's the day when I say to my wife: "Why don't we make pancakes?" and she says, "No, not this Tuesday!

Anyway, we can make them any time". "It is a religious festival the significance of which escapes me.

What I do remember is that it is Pancake Day and we as children used to brag about how many pancakes we had eaten." "It's pancake day and also the day of the student rags. Pancakes – luscious, beautiful pancakes. I never know the date – bears some relationship to some holy day."

The origin of the festival is rather obscure, as is the origin of the custom of pancake eating.

Elfrica Viport, in her book on Christian Festivals, suggests that since the ingredients of the pancakes were all forbidden by the Church during Lent then they just had to be used up the day before.

Nancy Price in a book called Pagan's Progress suggests that the pancake was a "thin flat cake eaten to stay the pangs of hunger before going to be shriven" (to confession).

In his Seasonal Feasts and Festivals E. O. James links up Shrove Tuesday with the Mardi Gras (Fat Tuesday) festivals or warmer countries. These jollifications were an integral element of seasonal ritual for the purpose of promoting fertility and conquering the malign forces of evil, especially at the approach of spring. The most consistent form of celebration in the old days was the all-over-town ball game or tug-of-war in which everyone let rip before the traditional feast, tearing here and tearing there, struggling to get the ball or rope into their part of the town. It seems that several dozen towns kept up these ball games until only a few years ago.

E. O. James in his book records instances where the Shrove Tuesday celebrations became pitched battles between citizens led by the local church authorities. Today the only custom that is consistently observed throughout Britain is pancake eating, though here and there other customs still seem to survive. Among the latter, Pancake Races, the Pancake Greaze custom and Ashbourne's Shrovetide Football are the best known. Shrovetide is the time of Student Rags.

St. David's Day

On the 1st of March each year one can see people walking around London with leeks pinned to their coats. A leek is the national emblem of Wales. The many Welsh people who live in London – or in other cities outside Wales – like to show their solidarity on their national day.

The day is actually called Saint David's Day, after a sixth century abbot who became patron saint of Wales. David is the nearest English equivalent to the saint's name, Dawi.

The saint was known traditionally as "the Waterman", which perhaps means that he and his monks were teetotallers. A teetotaller is someone who drinks no kind of alcohol, but it does not mean that he drinks only tea, as many people seem to think. In spite of the leeks mentioned earlier, Saint David's emblem is not that, but a dove. No one, not even the Welsh, can explain why they took leek to symbolize their country, but perhaps it was just as well. After all, they can't pin a dove to their coat!

Mothering Sunday (Mothers' Day)

Mothers' Day is traditionally observed on the fourth Sunday in Lent (the Church season of penitence beginning on Ash Wednesday, the day of which varies from year to year).

This is usually in March. The day used to be known as Mothering Sunday and dates from the time when many girls worked away from home as domestic servants in big households, where their hours of work were often very long Mothering Sunday was established as a holyday for these girls and gave them an opportunity of going home to see their parents, especially their mother. They used to take presents with them, often given to them by the lady of the house. When the labour situation changed and everyone was entitled to regular time off, this custom remained, although the day is now often called "Mothers' Day". People visit their mothers if possible and give them flowers and small presents.

If they cannot go they send a "Mothers' Day card", or they may send one in any case.

The family try to see that the mother has as little work to do as possible, sometimes the husband or children take her breakfast in bed and they often help with the meals and the washing up.

It is considered to be mother's day off.

St. Patrick's Day

It is not a national holiday. It's an Irish religious holiday. St. Patrick is the patron of Ireland. Irish and Irish Americans celebrate the day. On the day they decorate their houses and streets with green shamrocks and wear something green. In large cities long parades march through the streets. Those who aren't Irish themselves also wear green neckties and hair ribbons and take part in the celebration.

Ester

During the Easter Holidays the attention of the progressive people in Great Britain and indeed throughout the world is riveted first and foremost on the Easter Peace Marches, which took place for the first time in 1958 and have since become traditional. The people who participate in these marches come from different sections of society. Alongside workers and students march university professors, doctors, scientists, and engineers. More often than not the columns are joined by progressive people from abroad. The character of the marches has changed over the years.

The high-point was reached in the early sixties; this was followed by a lapse in enthusiasm when attendance fell off during the middle and late sixties. More recent years have seen a rise in the number of people attending the annual Easter March, as global problems have begun to affect the conscience of a broader section of the English population.

London greets the spring, and its early visitors, with a truly spectacular Easter Parade in Battersea Park on Easter Sunday each year. It is sponsored by the London Tourist Board and is usually planned around a central theme related to the history and attractions of London. The great procession, or parade, begins at 3 p. m., but it isadvisable to find a vantage-point well before that hour.

The parade consists of a great many interesting and decorated floats, entered by various organizations in and outside the metropolis. Some of the finest bands in the country take part in the parade. At the rear of the parade is usually the very beautiful Jersey float, created from thousands of lovely spring blooms and bearing the Easter Princess and her attendants. It is an afternoon to remember.

April Fools' Day

April Fools' Day or All Fools' Day, named from the custom of playing practical jokes or sending friends on fools' errands, on April 1st. Its timing seems related to the vernal equinox, when nature fools mankind with sudden changes from showers to sunshine. It is a season when all people, even the most dignified, are given an excuse to play the fool. In April comes the cuckoo, emblem of simpletons; hence in Scotland the victim is called "cuckoo" or "gowk", as in the verse: On the first day of April, Hunt the gowk another mile. Hunting the gowk was a fruitless errand; so was hunting for hen's teeth, for a square circle or for stirrup oil, the last-named proving to be several strokes from a leather strap.

May Day in Great Britain

As May 1st is not a public holiday in Great Britain, May Day celebrations are traditionally held on the Sunday following it, unless, of course, the 1st of May falls on a Sunday.

On May Sunday workers march through the streets and hold meetings to voice their own demands and the demands of other progressive forces of the country. The issues involved may include demands for higher wages and better working conditions, protests against rising unemployment, demands for a change in the Government's policy, etc.

May Spring Festival

The 1st of May has to some extent retained its old significance – that of a pagan spring festival. In ancient times it used to be celebrated with garlands and flowers, dancing and games on the village green. A Maypole was erected – a tall pole wreathed with flowers, to which in later times ribbons were attached and held by the dancers. The girls put on their best summer frocks, plaited flowers in their hair and round their waists and eagerly awaited the crowning of the May Queen. The most beautiful girl was crowned with a garland of flowers. After this great event Bere was dancing, often Morris dancing, with the dancers dressed in fancy costume, usually representing characters in the Robin Hood legend. May-Day games and sports were followed by refreshments in the open. This festival was disliked by the Puritans and suppressed during the Commonwealth, 1649-60. After the Restoration it was revived but has gradually almost died out. However, the Queen of May is still chosen in most counties. In many villages school Maypoles are erected around which the children dance.

The famous ceremony of the meeting of the 1st of May still survives at Oxford, in Magdalen College. At 6 o'clock in the morning the college choir gathers in the upper gallery of the college tower to greet the coming of the new day with song.

During the month of June, a day is set aside as the Queen' s official birthday. This is usually the second Saturday in June. On this day there takes place on Horse Guards' Parade in Whitehall the magnificent spectacle of **Trooping the Colour**, which begins at about 11.15 a. m. (unless rain intervenes, when the ceremony is usually postponed until conditions are suitable).

This is pageantry of rare splendour, with the Queen riding side-saddle on a highly trained horse. The colours of one of the five regiments of Foot Guards are trooped before the Sovereign.

As she rides on to Horse Guards' parade the massed array of the Brigade of Guards, dressed in ceremonial uniforms, await her inspection. For 20 min the whole parade stands rigidly to attention while being inspected by the Queen. Then comes the Trooping ceremony itself, to be followed by the famous March Past of the Guards to the music of massed bands, at which the Queen takes the Salute.

The precision drill of the regiments is notable. The ceremony ends with the Queen returning to Buckingham Palace at the head of her Guards. The Escort to the Colour, chosen normally in strict rotation, then mounts guard at the Palace.

Midsummer's Day

Midsummer's Day, June 24th, is the longest day of the year. On that day you can see a very old custom at Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, England. Stonehenge is one of Europe's biggest stone circles.

A lot of the stones are ten or twelve metres high. It's very old. The earliest part of Stonehenge is nearly 5,000 years old. But what was Stonehenge? A holy place? A market? Or was it a kind of calendar? We think the Druids used it for a calendar. The Druids were the priests in Britain 2,000 years ago. They used the sun and the stones at Stonehenge to know the start of months and seasons.

There are Druids in Britain today, too. And every June 24th a lot of them go to Stonehenge. On that morning the sun shines on one famous stone – the Heel stone. For the Druids this is a very important moment in the year. But for a lot of British people it's just a strange old custom.

Late Summer Bank Holiday

On Bank Holiday the townsfolk usually flock into the country and to the coast. If the weather is fine many families take a picnic-lunch or tea with them and enjoy their meal in the open.

Seaside towns near London, such as Southend, are invaded by thousands of trippers who come in cars and coaches, trains, motor cycles and bicycles. Great amusement parks like Southend Kursaal do a roaring trade with their scenic railways, shooting galleries, water-shoots, Crazy Houses, Hunted Houses and so on. Trippers will wear comic paper hats with slogans such as "Kiss Me Quick", and they will eat and drink the weirdest mixture of stuff you can imagine, sea food like cockles, mussels, whelks, shrimps and fried fish and chips, candy floss, beer, tea, soft, drinks, everything you can imagine.

Bank Holiday is an occasion for big sports meetings at places like the White City Stadium, mainly all kinds of athletics. There are horse race meetings all over the country, and most traditional of all, there are large fairs with swings, roundabouts, coconut shies, a Punch and Judy show, hoop-la stalls and every kind of side-show including, in recent years, bingo.

These fairs are pitched on open spaces of common land, and the most famous of them is the huge one on Hampstead Heath near London. It is at Hampstead Heath you will see the Pearly Kings, those Cockney costers (street traders), who wear suits or frocks with thousands of tiny pearl buttons stitched all over them, also over their caps and hats, in case of their Queens. They hold horse and cart parades in which prizes are given for the smartest turn out. Horses and carts are gaily decorated.

Many Londoners will visit Whipsnade Zoo. There is also much boating activity on the Thames, regattas at Henley and on other rivers, and the English climate being what it is, it invariably rains.

August Bank Holiday would not be a real holiday for tens of thousands of Londoners without the Fair on Hampstead Heath! Those who know London will know were to find the Heath – that vast stretch of open woodland which sprawls across two hills, bounded by Golders Green and Highgate to the west and east, and by Hampstead itself and Ken Wood to the south and north.

The site of the fair ground is near to Hampstead Heath station. From that station to the grou nd runs a broad road which is blocked with a solid, almostimmovable mass of humanity on those days when the fair is open. The walk is not more than a quarter of a mile, but it takes an average of half-an hour to cover it when the crowd is at its thickest. But being on that road is comfortable compared with what it is like inside the fair ground itself. Here there are, hundreds of stalls arranged in broad avenues inside a huge square bounded by the caravans of the show people and the lorries containing the generating plants which provide the stalls with their electricity.

The noise is deafening. Mechanical bands and the cries of the "barkers" (the showmen who stand outside the booths and by the stalls shouting to the crowds to come and try their luck are equalled by the laughter of the visitors and the din of machinery. The visitors themselves are looking for fun, and they find it in full measure. There are fortune-tellers and rifle-ranges and “bumping cars”, there are bowling alleys and dart boards and coconut shies. There is something for everybody.

For the lucky ones, or for those with more skill than most, there are prizes – table lamps and clocks and a hundred and one other things of value.

A visit to the fair at Happy Hampstead is something not easily forgotten. It is noisy, it is exhausting – but it is as exhilarating an experience as any in the world. "Ladies and gentlemen – the Proms!" Amongst music-lovers in Britain the period between July and September 21 is a time of excitement, of anticipation, of great enthusiasm. Every night at 7 o'clock (Sunday excepted) a vast audience assembled at the Royal Albert Hall rises for the playing and singing of the National Anthem. A few minutes later, when seats have been resumed, the first work of the evening begins.

But even if seats are not to be obtained, the important parts of the concerts can be heard – and are heard – by a very great number of people, because the BBC broadcasts certain principal works every night throughout the season. The audience reached by this means is estimated to total several mlns in Britain alone, and that total is probably equalled by the number of listeners abroad.

The reason why such a great audience is attracted is that the Proms present every year a large repertoire of classical works under the best conductors and with the best artists. A season provides an anthology of masterpieces. The Proms started in 1895 when Sir Henry Wood formed the Queen’s Hall Orchestra. The purpose of the venture was to provide classical music to as many people who cared to come at a price all could afford to pay, those of lesser means being charged comparatively little – one shilling – to enter the Promenade, where standing was the rule.

The coming of the last war ended two Proms’ traditions. The first was that in 1939 it was no longer possible to perform to London audiences – the whole organization was evacuated to Bristol.

The second was that the Proms couldn’t return to the Queen’s Hall after the war was over – the Queen’s Hall had become a casualty of the air-raids (in 1941), and was gutted.

Halloween

Halloween means "holy evening" and takes place on October 31st. Although it is a much more important festival in the USA than in Britain, it is celebrated by many people in the UK.

It is particularly connected with witches and ghosts. At parties people dress up in strange costumes and pretend they are witches. They cut horrible faces in potatoes and other vegetables and put a candle inside, which shines through their eyes. People play different games such as trying to eat an apple from a bucket of water without using their hands. In recent years children dressed in white sheets knock on doors at Halloween and ask if you would like a "trick" or "treat". If you give them something nice, a "treat", they go away.

However, if you don't, they play a "trick" on you, such as making a lot of noise or spilling flour on your front doorstep.

Poppy or Remembrance Day

Remembrance Day pays homage to the men and women who died during World War I and World War II. It is a commemoration held in November with people wearing red poppies.

Guy Fawkes Night (Bonfire Night) – November 5

Guy Fawkes Night is one of the most popular festivals in Great Britain. It commemorates the discovery of the so-called Gunpowder Plot, which failed when he attempted to destroy the House of Parliament, is widely celebrated throughout the country.

Gunpowder Plot. Conspiracy to destroy the English Houses of Parliament and King James I when the latter opened Parliament on Nov. 5, 1605. Engineered by a group of Roman Catholics as a protest against anti-Papist measures. In May 1604 the conspirators rented a house adjoining the House of Lords, from which they dug a tunnel to a vault below that house, where they stored 36 barrels of gunpowder.

These night traditions celebrated famously in East Sussex, and Lewes commemorates this fail by having firework displays, bonfires, torch-lit processions and pagan rituals.

It was planned that when king and parliament were destroyed the Roman Catholics should attempt to seize power. Preparations for the plot had been completed when, on October 26, one of the conspirators wrote to a kinsman, Lord Monteagle, warning him to stay away from the House of Lords.

On November 4 a search was made of the parliament vaults, and the gunpowder was found, together with Guy Fawkes (1570-1606). Fawkes had been commissioned to set off the explosion. Arrested and tortured he revealed the names of the conspirators, some of whom were killed resisting arrest. Fawkes was hanged. Detection of the plot led to increased repression of English Roman Catholics. The Plot is still commemorated by an official ceremonial search of the vaults before the annual opening of Parliament, by the burning of Fawkes's effigy and the explosion of fireworks every Nov. 5.

St. Andrew's Day

In some areas, such as Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Hertfordshire, and Northamptonshire, St. Andrew was regarded as the patron saint of lace-makers and his day was thus kept as a holiday, or "tendering feast", by many in that trade. Thomas Sternberg, describing customs in mid-19th-century Northampton shire, claims that St. Andrew's Day Old Style (11 December) was a major festival day "in many out of the way villages" of the country: "… the day is one of unbridled license – a kind of carnival; village scholars bar out the master, the lace schools are deserted, and drinking and feasting prevail to a riotous extent.

Towards evening the villagers walk about and masquerade, the women wearing men's dress and the men wearing femaleattire, visiting one another's cottages and drinking hot Elderberry wine, the chief beverage of the season …". In Leighton Buzzard, Bedfordshire, a future of the day was the making and eating of Tandry Wigs. A strange belief reported Wright and Lones dedicate that wherever lilies of the valley grow wild the parish church is usually to St Andrew.

Advent

Advent is the preparation for Christmas (1-24 of December) One of the main traditions of the preparatory weeks – wreaths with candles. These wreaths are doing to the first Sunday, and consist of 5 candles – four red and one white. The tradition came from Catholicism and distributed in all of Europe. Every Sunday lit the new red candle. They are lit up in a time when the family gets together for prayer. A white candle lit in the evening before Christmas as a symbol of the fact that in the world Christ will come and light up the darkness. The Scots-there is a long-standing tradition, celebrated their day on Christmas evening. It is called *Yule log*. This custom is connected with the ancient Scandinavian holiday burning. The Vikings were burned huge log, so that the sun shone brighter.

In Scotland, the celebration has become popular because it is part of the Scottish Islands for a long time been under the reign of the Vikings and their cultural influence. Now instead of the log burned thick candle.

Christmas

Christmas Day is observed on the 25th of December. In Britain this day was a festival long before the conversion to Christianity. The English historian the Venerable Bede relates that "the ancient peoples of Angli began the year on the 25th of December. The very night was called in their tongue modranecht, that is "mother's night". Thus it is not surprising that many social customs connected with the celebration of Christmas go back to pagan times, as, for instance, the giving of presents. Indeed, in 1644 the English puritans forbade the keeping of Christmas by Act of Parliament, on the grounds that it was a heathen festival. At the Restoration Charles II revived the feast.

The season is lovely, and since Thanksgiving is not an occasion for celebration in England, Christmas comes early for the British people. Nativity plays and carols are traditional along with City centres everywhere decorated with Christmas trees. The most famous Christmas tree can be found lit in all its glory at Trafalgar Square in London. Santa Claus is called Father Christmas and will appear in the night, on Christmas Eve. Traditional food left for Father Christmas includes mince pies and sherry or brandy. Christmas lunch or dinner served on Christmas Day consists of roast turkey, baked potatoes, carrots, parsnip, mini sausages, Brussels sprouts and Yorkshire pudding. Christmas crackers are another tradition with each guest or family member receiving one.

Though religion in Britain has been steadily losing ground and Christmas has practically no religious significance for the majority of the population of modern Britain, it is still the most widely celebrated festival in all its parts except Scotland. The reason for this is clear. With its numerous, often rather quaint social customs, it is undoubtedly the most colourful holiday of the year, and, moreover one that has always been, even in the days when most people were practising Christian, a time for eating, drinking and making merry.

However, despite the popularity of Christmas, quite a number of English people dislike this festival, and even those who seem to celebrate it wholeheartedly, have certain reservations about it.

The main reason for this is that Christmas has become the most commercialized festival of the year. The customs and traditions connected with Christmas, giving presents and having a real spree once a year, made it an easy prey to the retailers, who, using modern methods of advertising, force the customer to buy what he neither wants nor, often, can reasonably afford.

It is not only children and members of the family that exchange presents nowadays. Advertising has widened this circle to include not only friends and distant relations, but also people you work with.

An average English family sends dozens and dozens of Christmas cards, and gives and receive almost as many often practically useless presents. For people who are well off this entails no hardship, but it is no small burden for families with small budgets.

Thus, saving up for Christmas often starts months before the festival, and Christmas clubs have become a national institution among the working class and lower-middle class. These are generally run by shopkeepers and publicans over a period of about eight weeks or longer.

Into these the housewives pay each week a certain amount of money for their Christmas birdand joint, their Christmas groceries and so on, the husband as a rule paying into the club run by the local pub, for the drinks. As much of this spending is forced upon people and often means that a family has to do without things they really need, it inevitably leads to resentment towards the festival.

The Night of the Candles

On Christmas all the Windows of rural houses are covered in Great Britain candles, therefore, among the local residents Christmas evening is called "the night of the candles".

In England nowadays, in the Christmas evening, instead of the traditional Christmas logs burn fat Christmas candle. Many of these candles lit in the night and in private homes since the Middle Ages the old rites voltage began to use the Church in order to give people more vivid impressions of the biblical stories. Thus, appeared the "mysteries" – dramatic performances such religious scenes, as the Annunciation, visit the infant Jesus by the three wise men of the East.

The participants of the dramatic versions of biblical stories were usually masked or with closed handkerchief person, as the executors of the ancient pagan rites. From the conception of this kind in the British was especially prevalent dramatic game-pantomime of St. George and the dragon, widely known in many other countries.

The masquerades for Christmas there is evidence already of XIV- XV centuries. So, one of the sources reported that, in 1377, was arranged a Christmas pantomime at the Scottish Royal court for the amusement of the little Prince Richard.

In Wales, candles in the Christmas decorated not only private houses in rural areas, and rural churches and chapels. Candles for the decorations of the Church were made, and the priest gave the inhabitants of the parish. In many villages, shortly before the holiday of women staged a competition for the best decoration of the Christmas candles. These ornaments were made of strips of coloured paper, foil, gold and silver threads, bright ribbons, etc.

In some areas of Wales with the same decorated and lit candles in the hands of the inhabitants of the parish came to the morning service, starting first in 2-3 hours of the night. Needless to say that it isn't the old customs and traditions that are to blame, but those who make huge profits out of the nationwide spending spree which they themselves had boosted beyond any reasonable proportion.

The Christmas Pantomime

A pantomime is a traditional English entertainment at Christmas. It is meant for children, but adults enjoy just as much. It is a very old form of entertainment, and can be traced back to 16thcentury Italian comedies. Harlequin is a character from these old comedies.

There have been a lot of changes over the years. Singing and dancing and all kinds of jokes have been added; but the stories which are told are still fairy tales, with a hero, a heroine, and a villian.

Because they are fairy tales we do not have to ask who will win in the end! The hero always wins the beautiful princess, the fairy queen it triumphant and the demon king is defeated. In every pantomime there are always three main characters.

These are the "principal boy", the "principal girl", and the "dame". The principal boy is the hero and he is always played by a girl. The principal girl is the heroine, who always marries the principal boy in the end. The dame is a comic figure, usually the mother of the principal boy or girl, and is always played by a man. In addition, you can be sure there will always be a "good fairy" and a "bad fairy" – perhaps an ogre or a demon king. Pantomimes are changing all the time. Every year, someone has a new idea to make them more exciting or more up-to-date.

There are pantomimes on ice, with all the actors skating; pantomimes with a well-known pop singer as the principal boy or girl; or pantomimes with a famous comedian from the English theatre as the dame. But the old stories remain, side by side with the new ideas. This is the day when one visits friends, goes for a long walk or just sits around recovering from too much food – everything to eat is cold. In the country there are usually Boxing Day Meets (fox-hunting). In the big cities and towns tradition on that day demands a visit to the pantomime, where once again one is entertained by the story of Cinderella, Puss in Boots or whoever it may be – the story being protractedand elaborated into as many spectacular scenes as the producer thinks one can take at a sitting. One of the most important functions of the City's 84 Livery Companies is the election of London's Lord Mayor at the Guildhall at 12 noon on Michaelmas Day (September 29th). The public are admitted to the ceremony. It provides one of the many impressive and colourful spectacles for which London is famed.

The reigning Lord Mayor and Sheriffs, carrying posies, walk in procession to the Guildhall and take their places on the dais, which is strewn with sweet-smelling herbs. The Recorder announces that the representatives of the Livery Companies have been called together to select two Aldermen for the office of Lord Mayor of London. From the selected two, the Court of Aldermen will choose one. The Mayor, Aldermen and other senior officials then withdraw, and the Livery select their two nominations. Usually the choice is unanimous, and the Liverymen all hold up their hands and shout "All!". The Sergeant-at-Arms takes the mace from the table and, accompanied by the Sheriffs, takes the two names to the Court of Aldermen, who then proceed to select the Mayor Elect. The bells of the City ring out as the Mayor and the Mayor Elect leave the Guildhall the state coach for the Mansion House.

Boxing Day

Boxing Day is the day after Christmas and almost like an extension of the main holiday. People spent time with their families and loved ones, as many are tired or off from work. Typical traditions include watching sports, playing games, hunting, going for walks and eating Christmas leftovers. People love to shop on Boxing Day.

New Year’s Eve

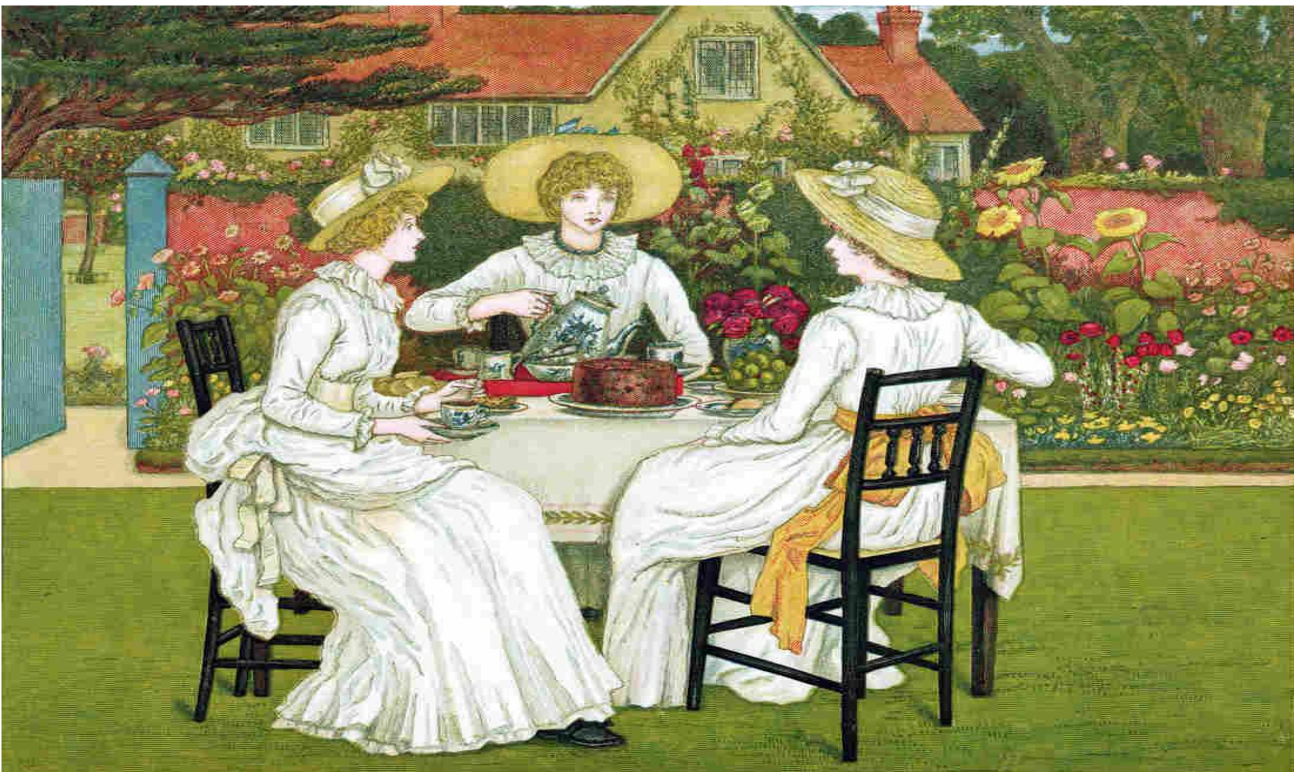
The largest celebration of fireworks explodes at midnight over the London Eye. Big Ben chimes and rings in the New Year and British people sing Auld Lang Syne. Crowds gather at Trafalgar Square or Piccadilly Circus.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Holidays	When	Where	Score



High afternoon tea

Customs & Weddings & Births & Christenings

In carrying out the wedding strictly observe the tradition. Many of them are used in our days.

On the way of the wedding train dropped flowers. In the wedding train in addition to the bride and groom were their parents, the bridesmaids, the sister of the groom, his friends, and relatives and friends of the bride and groom. The bridesmaids (usually six people) dressed in dresses, style and color of which chose the bride, and her mother paid for their value. During the wedding feast, the main role was assigned to the ballgame. Wedding usually never end without a cake. Cut it should have been by the bride herself. Feast could last a few days, but not more than a week and at the expense of the guest. After the celebration, the bride went to his new home. If she stumbled over the threshold, it was regarded as an ominous sign. So usually, the groom took her in his arms and carried over the threshold. Then girlfriend was accompanied her to the bedroom and put to bed. On the next day after the wedding the couple began to live a separate family, without interference from anyone.

Getting Engaged

In Britain the custom of becoming engaged is still generally retained, though many young people dispense with it, and the number of such couples is increasing. As a rule, an engagement is announced as soon as a girl has accepted a proposal of marriage, but in some cases it is done a good time afterwards.

Rules of etiquette dictate that the girl's parents should be the first to hear the news; in practice, however, it is often the couple's friends who are taken into confidence before either of the parents.

If a man has not yet met his future in-laws he does so at the first opportunity, whereas his parents usually write them a friendly letter. It is then up to the girl's mother to invite her daughter's future in-laws, to a meal or drinks. Quite often, of course, the man has been a frequent visitor at the girl's house long before the engagement, and their families are already well acquainted.

When a girl accepts a proposal, the man generally gives her a ring in token of the betrothal. It is worn on the third finger of the left hand before marriage and together with the wedding ring after it.

Engagement rings range from expensivediamond rings to rings with Victorian semi-precious stones costing only a few pounds. In most cases the engagement itself amounts only to announcements being made to the parents on both sides and to friends and relations, but some people arrange an engagement party, and among the better-off people it is customary to put an announcement in the newspaper.

In the book Etiquette the author writes that "as soon as congratulations and the first gaieties of announcement are over, a man should have a talk with the girl's father about the date of their wedding, where they will live, how well off he is and his future plans and prospects". Nowadays this is often not done, one of the reasons being that today the young people enjoy a greater degree of financial independence that they used to, to be able to decide these matters for themselves.

However, in working class families, where the family ties are still strong and each member of the family is more economically dependent upon the rest, things are rather different.

Quite often, particularly in the larger towns, the couple will have no option but to live after marriage with either the girl's or the man's people. Housing shortage in Britain is still acute, and the rents are very high. It is extremely difficult to get unfurnished accommodation, whereas a furnished room, which is easier to get, costs a great deal for rent. In any case, the young couple may prefer to live with the parents in order to have a chance to save up for things for their future home.

But if the young people, particularly those of the higher-paid section of the population, often make their own decisions concerning the wedding and their future, the parents, particularly the girl's, still play an important part in the ensuing activities, as we shall see later. The period of engagement is usually short, three or four months, but this is entirely a matter of choice and circumstances.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

The Ceremony

The parents and close relatives of the bride and groom arrive a few minutes before the bride.

The bridegroom and his best man should be in their places at least 10 minutes before the service starts. The bridesmaids and pages wait in the church porch with whoever is to arrange the bride's veil before she goes up the aisle.

The bride, by tradition, arrives a couple of minutes late but this should not be exaggerated. She arrives with whoever is giving her away. The verger signals to the organist to start playing, and the bride moves up the aisle with her veil over her face (although many brides do not follow this custom).

She goes in on her father's right arm, and the bridesmaids follow her according to the plan at the rehearsal the day before. The bridesmaids and ushers go to their places in the front pews during the ceremony, except for the chief bridesmaid who usually stands behind the bride and holds her bouquet. After the ceremony the couple go into the vestry to sign the register with their parents, best man, bridesmaids and perhaps a close relation such as a grandmother. The bride throws back her veil or removes the front piece (if it is removable), the verger gives a signal to the organist and the bride and groom walk down the aisle followed by their parents and those who have signed the register.

The bride's mother walks down the aisle on the left arm of the bridegroom's father and the bridegroom's mother walks down on the left arm of the bride's father (whoever has given the bride away). Guests wait until the wedding procession has passed them before leaving to go on to the reception.

Marriage in Scotland

In Scotland, people over the age of sixteen do not require their parents' consent in order to marry. Marriage is performed by a minister of any religion after the banns have been called on two Sundays in the districts where the couple have lived for at least fifteen days previously. Weddings may take place in churches or private houses, and there is no forbidden time.

Alternatively, the couple may give notice to the registrar of the district in which they have both lived for fifteen days previously. The registrar will issue a Certificate of Publication which is displayed for seven days, and it will be valid for three months in any place in Scotland.

Marriage at a registry office in Scotland requires a publication of notice for seven days or a sheriff's licence, as publication of banns is not accepted. Such a licence is immediately valid but expires after ten days. One of the parties must have lived in Scotland for at least fifteen days before the application, which is often prepared by a solicitor.

The Reception

The bride's parents stand first in the receiving line, followed by the groom's parents and the bride and groom. Guests line up outside the reception room and give their names to the major-domo who will announce them. They need only shake hands and say "How do you do?" to the parents, adding perhaps a word about how lovely the bride is or how well the ceremony went. The bride introduces to her husband any friends that he may not already know, and vice versa.

The important parts of the reception are the cutting of the cake and the toast to the bride and groom. There should never be any long speeches. When all the guests have been received, the major-domo requests silence and the bride cuts the cake, with her husband's hand upon hers.

The toast to the bride and groom is usually proposed by a relative or friend of the bride. He may say, "My Lords (if any are present), ladies and gentlemen, I have pleasure in proposing the toast to the bride and bridegroom". He should not make a speech full of jokes or silly references to marriage.

It should be short and dignified. The bridegroom replies with a few words of thanks. He may or may not then propose the health of the bridesmaids. The best man replies with a few words of thanks.

If a meal is provided, the toasts will come at the end of it. After the toasts the bride and groom may move around the room talking to their friends until it is time for them to go and change. When they are ready to leave, guests gather to see them off.

Wedding Presents can be anything, according to your pocket and your friendship with the bride or groom. Such presents are usually fairly substantial compared with most other presents, and should preferably be things useful for a future home.

Some brides have lists at a large store near their homes. It is always wise to ask if there is one, as this eliminates your sending something the couple may have already. The list should contain items of all prices and when one is bought it is crossed off. A wedding is one of the few occasions when money can be given, usually as a cheque. Presents are sent after the invitations have been received, usually to the bride's home. You address the card to both the bride and bridegroom.

Births & Christenings

When a child is born its parents may wish to announce the birth in a national or local newspaper.

The birth must be registered at the local registrar's office within six weeks in England and Wales and three weeks in Scotland. A child is usually christened in the first six months of its life.

At the christening there is one godmother and two godfathers for a boy and vice versa for a girl (but no godparents are necessary at a Church of Scotland christening). The godmother always holds the baby during the ceremony and gives it to the clergyman just before he baptizes it.

She makes the responses during the ceremony and tells the clergyman the names when asked. The true role of godparents is to watch over the spiritual welfare of their godchildren until confirmation, or at least to show interest in them throughout their childhood.

Usually, but by no means always, the friends and relatives give a christening present.

Traditionally, the godparents give a silver cup, which is probably going to be far more useful if it is a beer mug! Other presents should preferably be something

For many English families Sunday begins with the by now traditional "lie-in", when, instead of getting up at 7.30 or at 8 o'clock, as during the rest of the week, most people stay in bed for at least another hour. And there are many younger people – Saturday night revellers in particular – who never see the light of day before midday: what is usually referred to as "getting up at the crack of noon".

Church bells are another typical feature of an English Sunday morning, although by many their summons remains unanswered, especially by those in need of physical rather than spiritual comfort.

But whether people get out of bed for morning service or not, their first meaningful contact with the world beyond the four walls of their bedroom will be the delicious aroma of bacon and eggs being fried by mother downstairs in the kitchen. This smell is for most people so much a part of Sunday mornings that they would not be the same without it.

During the mid-morning most people indulge in some fairly light activity such as gardening, washing the car, shelling peas or chopping mint for Sunday lunch, or taking the dog for a walk.

Another most popular pre-lunch activity consists of a visit to a "pub" – either a walk to the "local", or often nowadays a drive to a more pleasant "country pub" if one lives in a built-up area.

It is unusual for anyone to drink a lot during a lunchtime "session", the idea being to have a quiet drink and a chat, perhaps discussing the previous evening's entertainment or afternoon's sport.

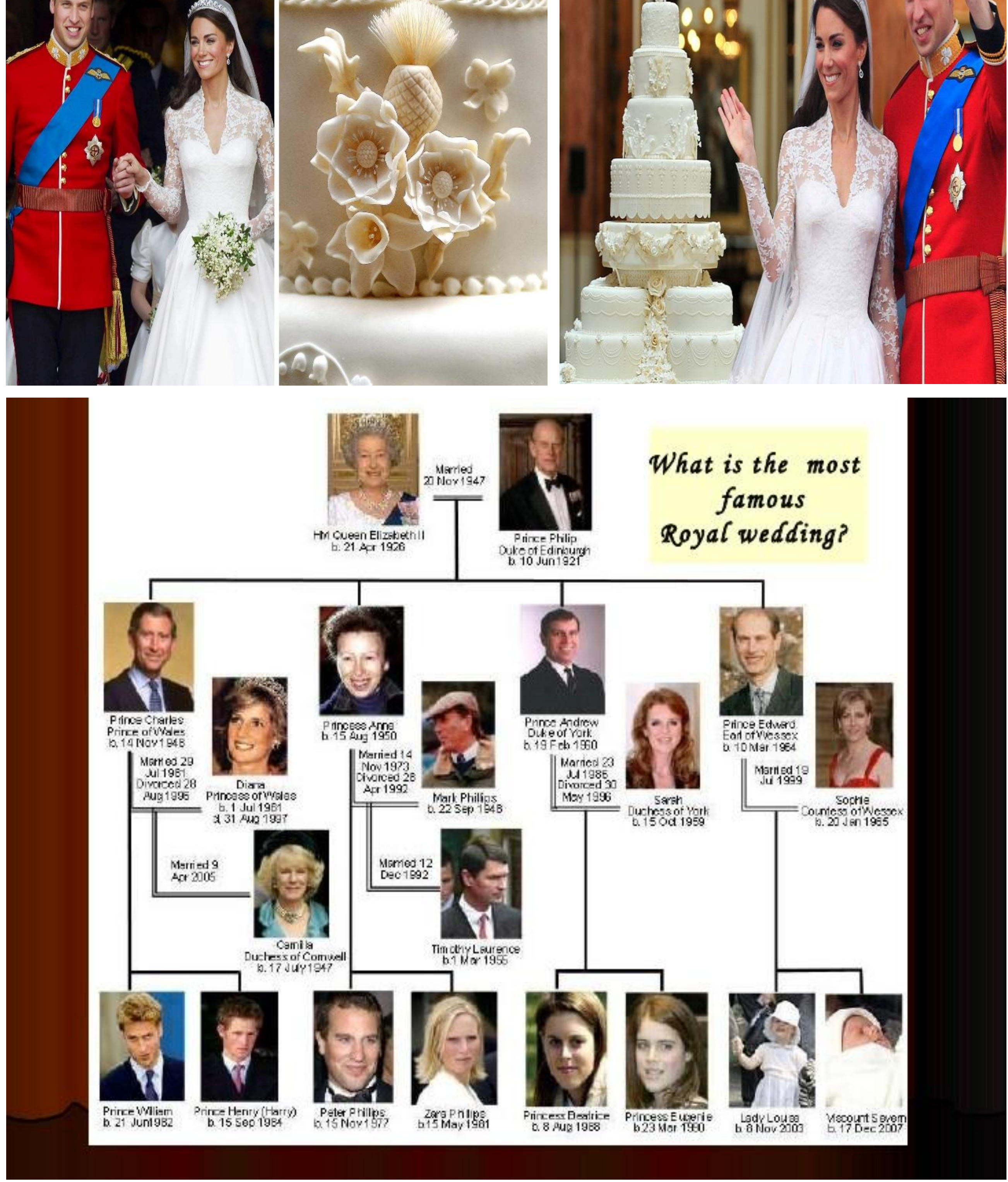
One additional attraction of Sunday lunchtime drinks is that most men go to the pub alone, that is to say without their wives or girlfriends, who generally prefer to stay at home and prepare the lunch.

Sunday has always been a favourite day for inviting people – friends, relations, colleagues – to afternoon tea, and there are no signs that this custom is losing popularity nowadays.

In recent years television has become increasingly popular; Sunday evening is now regarded as the peak viewing period of the week. Concerning the differences between a typically English Sunday and a Sunday on the Continent, there are still many forms of entertainment which a visitor from Europe would be surprised to find missing on Sundays in England. Professional sport, for example, was for many years forbidden on Sundays, and although the restrictions have been relaxed in recent years, it is still difficult to find any large sporting fixture taking place on Sundays.

This is in marked contrast to the situation in most European countries where Sunday afternoon is the most popular time for so-called "spectator sports" – football, horse-racing, in Spain bullfighting.

On the Continent museums and art galleries also attract large numbers of visitors on Sundays, whereas in England it is only in recent times that such places as the National Portrait Gallery and "The Tate" have been open on such days – at present between 2 p. m. and 6 p. m. One of the most popular attractions in London on Sunday afternoons, especially in summer, is the Tower, although this too was closed for many years on Sundays.



GENERAL ADVICE

Men should open doors for women and stand when a woman enters a room, although it is generally accepted for men and women both to hold the door open for each other, depending on who goes through the door first. It is important to respect the British desire for privacy.

Don't ask personal questions about family background and origin, profession, marital status, political preferences or money issues. It is considered extremely impolite to violate a queue, so never push ahead in a line. It is also considered very rude to try to sound British or mimic their accent.

Remember that humour is ever-present in English life. It is often self-deprecating, ribbing, sarcastic, sexist or racist. Try not to take offense. Cultural etiquette dictates that when invited to someone's home, you should bring a small gift for the hostess. Give flowers, chocolates, wine, champagne or books. Feel free to express your gratitude and delight with the visit on the next day with a note or a telephone call.

Women's Rules

Women in Britain are entitled to equal respect and status as men, both at work and daily life.

The British have the habit to use "affectionate" names when addressing someone, so do not take any offense if they call you love, dearie, or darling. These are commonly used and not considered rude. It is acceptable, but may be misconstrued, for a foreign woman to invite an English man to dinner. It is best to stick with lunch. Also, if you would like to pay for your meal, you should state it at the outset. Remember that when in public, it is proper to cross your legs at the ankles, instead at the knees. The British food is a blending of four different rich cultures of countries that comprise the UK.

This explains why the British culinary traditions are such diverse. Far from home one of the things you'll often miss is your native cuisine, which you're used to consuming it daily. In the UK you will still feel the same, however, the British food will undoubtedly be a perfect replacement for it.

Among a wide variety of dishes, you will certainly find some that suit your taste.

One of the very first things you'll encounter in a country's culture it's his traditional food. To avoid a culture shock in UK you would be grateful to have a basic guideline about the British food.

There is more beyond Yorkshire Pudding and Roast beef that are usually associated with the UK cuisine. Below we bring to you some of the most common typical British food which you wouldn't like to miss trying at least once when going to UK.

Fish & Chips

Perhaps the most typical British food. The history of this food in UK's culture is so long. It is thought that once in the past an employer had to hire a doorman to control the queue of people waiting to buy Fish and chips. The plate contains a deep-fried fish and potato chips (fries for American readers). British people prefer the cod and Haddock over other sorts of fish. You can also prepare some boiled peas mixed with salt, pepper or other ingredients.

Sunday Roast with Yorkshire Pudding

One cannot talk about the British food without mentioning the Sunday Roast with Yorkshire pudding. Usually served on Sundays afternoons, however, you can eat during the week also. You can ask for a roast dinner with a chicken, turkey or whatever, but you definitely should not miss the Yorkshire pudding. Commonly the Yorkshire pudding is accompanied with beef.

Eccles Cake

Delicious round small cakes containing currants. It's named after a town in Manchester with the same name. Across UK you can find different versions of this delicious food because it's not strictly associated with a particular place.

Black Pudding

Onions, pork fat, oatmeal and blood are mixed together to create a delicious food. Often called as a superfood because it's rich in protein, potassium, calcium and magnesium. Moreover is almost free of carbohydrates, so it won't digress you from your diet.

Laverbread

The Laverbread is another British food typically found in Wales. To prepare it the seaweed is boiled then chopped and mashed, rolled in oatmeal and then fried. This food is often referred as a Welsh caviar.

Scotch Eggs

Scotch eggs are a dish containing a mix eggs covered with sausage meat breadcrumbs & fried.

Shepherd Pie

The Shepherd pie is usually cooked with meat (beef or lamb more often) and mashed with rind of potato. The name of this food appeared for the first time in 1877.

Full English breakfast

The typical English breakfast is rich with ingredients including bacon, sausages, eggs, toast, mushrooms, tomatoes and tea or coffee.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 4. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

SOCIAL HISTORY OF THE UK

The social history of the UK from 1945 began with the aftermath of the Second World War.

The UK was one of the victors, but victory was costly in human and economic terms. Thus, the late 1940s was a time of austerity and economic restraint, which gave way to prosperity in the 1950s.

The Labour Party held control from 1945-51, and granted independence to India in 1947. Most of the other major colonies became independent in the late 1950s and early 1960s.

Britain collaborated closely with the USA during the Cold War after 1947, and in 1949 helped form NATO as a military alliance against Soviet Communism.

After a long debate and initial scepticism, the UK joined the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1973, but voted to leave the European Union (EU) in 2016. Immigration from South Asia, the West Indies, and Eastern Europe produced a multicultural society, while traditional Anglican and other denominations of Christianity declined sharply.

During the war, surveys showed public opinion moving to the left and in favour of wide social reform. The public associated the Conservative Party with the poverty and mass unemployment of the inter-war years. Historian Henry Pelling, noting that polls showed a steady Labour lead after 1942, points to the usual swing against the party in power; the Conservative loss of initiative; wide fears of a return to the high unemployment of the 1930s; the theme that socialist planning would be more efficient in operating the economy; and the mistaken belief that Churchill would continue as prime minister regardless of the result. The sense that all Britons had joined in a "People's War" and all deserved a reward animated voters.

The most important Labour initiatives were the expansion of the welfare state, the founding of the National Health Service and nationalisation of the coal, gas, electricity, railways and other primary industries. The welfare state was expanded by the National Insurance Act 1946, which built upon the comprehensive system of social security originally set up in 1911. People of working age had to pay a weekly contribution (by buying a stamp) and in return were entitled to a wide range of benefits, including a pension, health and unemployment benefits, and widows' benefits.

The National Health Service began operations in July 1948. It promised to give cradle to grave free hospital and medical care for everyone in the country, regardless of income. Labour went on to expand low cost council housing for the poor.

The Treasury, headed by Chancellor of the Exchequer Hugh Dalton, faced urgent problems. Half of the wartime economy had been devoted to mobilising soldiers, warplanes, bombs & munitions; a transition to a peacetime budget was begun, while attempting to control inflation. New loans from the US and Canada to replace Lend Lease were essential to sustain living conditions.

The status of women slowly improved. A youth culture emerged from the 1960s with such iconic international celebrities as The Beatles and Princess Diana. Conservative prime minister, Margaret Thatcher (1979-1990) rejected the post-war consensus in the 1980s, denationalised most industries, and worked to weaken the power of the unions. The "New Labour" premiership of Tony Blair (1997-2007) accepted most of Thatcher's economic policies. Devolution became a major topic, as Scotland and Wales gained more local control. In 2014, Scotland voted 55% to 45% to remain in the UK.

Social & cultural forces

The 1950s was a bleak period for feminism. In the aftermath of World War II, a new emphasis was placed on companionate marriage and the nuclear family as a foundation of the new welfare state. In 1951, the proportion of adult women who were married was 75%; more specifically, 84.8% of women between the ages of 45 and 49 were married. At that time: "marriage was more popular than ever before". In 1953, a popular book of advice for women states: "A happy marriage may be seen, not as a holy state or something to which a few may luckily attain.

But rather as the best course, the simplest, and the easiest way of life for us all".

While at the end of the war, childcare facilities were closed and assistance for working women became limited, the social reforms implemented by the new welfare state included family allowances meant to subsidise families, that is, to support women in their “capacity as wife and mother.

Sue Bruley argues that "the progressive vision of the New Britain of 1945 was flawed by a fundamentally conservative view of women". Women's commitment to companionate marriage was echoed by the popular media: films, radio and popular women's magazines.

In the 1950s, women's magazines had considerable influence on forming opinion in all walks of life, including the attitude to women’s employment.

Nevertheless, 1950s Britain moved to equal pay for teachers (1952) and for men and women in the civil service (1954), thanks to activists like Edith Summerskill.

Barbara Caine argues: "Ironically here, as with the vote, success was sometimes the worst enemy of organised feminism, as the achievement of each goal brought to an end the campaign which had been organised around it, leaving nothing in its place."

Feminist writers of the early post-war period, such as Alva Myrdal and Viola Klein, started to allow for the possibility that women should be able to combine home duties with outside employment.

Feminism was strongly connected to social responsibility and involved the well-being of society as a whole. This often came at the cost of the liberation and personal fulfilment of self-declared feminists.

Even those women who regarded themselves as feminists strongly endorsed prevailing ideas about the primacy of children’s needs, as advocated, for example, by John Bowlby the head of the Children's Department at the Tavistock Clinic and by Donald Winnicott.

Equal pay entered the agenda in the 1959 General Election, when the Labour Party's Manifesto proposed a charter of rights including "the right to equal pay for equal work".

Polls in 1968-9 showed public opinion moving in favour of equal pay for equal work; nearly three-quarters of those polled favoured the principle. A Labour government with Conservative support passed the Equal Pay Act 1970; it took effect in 1975. Women’s wages for like work rose sharply from 64% in 1970 to 74% by 1980, then stalled because of high unemployment, and public-sector cuts that hit women working part-time.

Sexuality in 1960s & 1970s

In the 1960s, the generations divided sharply regarding sexual freedoms demanded by youth that disrupted long-held norms. Sexual morals changed rapidly. The national media, based in London with its more permissive social norms, led in explaining and exploring the new permissiveness.

Other elements of the sexual revolution included the development of the contraceptive pill, Mary Quant's miniskirt and the partial decriminalisation of male homosexuality in 1967. The incidence of divorce and abortion rose along with a resurgence of the women's liberation movement, whose campaigning helped secure the Equal Pay Act 1970 and the Sex Discrimination Act 1975.

Irish Catholics, traditionally the most puritanical of the ethno-religious groups, eased up a little, especially as the membership disregarded the bishops' teaching that contraception was sinful.

The feminist movement drew inspiration primarily from the USA, and from the experience of left-wing British women experiencing discrimination by male activists. Efforts to form a national movement in the mid-1970s foundered on a bitter split between the (predominantly heterosexual) socialists, the (predominantly lesbian) radicals. The most visible spokesperson was Germaine Greer called on women to rebel against marriage and instead live in heterosexual communes. Paul Addison concludes that, "in popular culture, feminism was generally treated as a bit of a joke".

Margaret Thatcher received scant credit from feminists for breaking the ultimate glass ceiling, because she avoided feminism, and expressed a masculine persona.

Sexual bullying is "any bullying behaviour, whether physical or non-physical, that is based on a person's sexuality or gender. It is when sexuality or gender is used as a weapon by boys or girls towards other boys or girls – although it is more commonly directed at girls.

It can be carried out to a person's face, behind their back or through the use of technology."

As part of its research into sexual bullying in schools, the BBC TV series *Panorama* commissioned a questionnaire aimed at people aged 11 to 19 in schools and youth clubs across five regions of England. The survey revealed that of the 273 respondents, 28 had been forced to do something sexual, and 31 had seen it happen to someone else.

Of the 273 respondents, 40 had experienced unwanted touching. U.K. government figures show that in the 2007–2008 school year, there were 3,450 fixed-period exclusions and 120 expulsions from schools in England due to sexual misconduct. This included incidents such as groping and using sexually insulting language. From April 2008 to March 2009, ChildLine counselled a total of 156,729 children, 26,134 of whom spoke about bullying as a main concern and 300 of whom spoke specifically about sexual bullying. The UK charity Beatbullying has claimed that as gang culture enters, children are being bullied into providing sexual favours in exchange for protection.

However, other anti-bullying groups and teachers' unions, including the National Union of Teachers, challenged the charity to provide evidence of this. Sexting cases are also on the rise and have become a major source of bullying. The circulation of explicit photos of those involved either around school or the internet put the originators in a position to be scorned and bullied. There have been reports of some cases in which the bullying has been so extensive that the victim has taken their life.

Teenagers

"Teenager" was an American coinage that first appeared in the British social scene in the late 1930s. National attention focused on them from the 1950s onward. Improved nutrition across the entire population was causing the age of menarche to fall on average by three or four months every decade, for well over a century. Young people 12 to 20 were physically much more mature than before. They were better educated, and their parents had more money. National Service – the conscription of young men age 17-21 for compulsory military service – was introduced in 1948; when it was abolished in 1960 the young men had 18 more months of freedom. The widespread use of washing machines, vacuums, kitchen appliances and prepared foods meant that teenage girls were no longer needed for so many household duties.

The middle and upper-class populations were mostly still in school, so that much of the teenage phenomena of the post-war years was a product of the working-class. There are two dimensions of special importance, first the economics of teenage consumerism, and secondly a middle-class moral panic about the decline in British morality.

Looking just at the population of unmarried young people between 15 and 25, there were 5 mln of them in 1960, and they controlled about 10 % of all personal income in Britain. They had blue collar jobs that paid fairly well after the austerity years were over. They typically lived at home, and did not spend their allowances and wages on housing, groceries, taxes, appliances, furniture or savings for the future. Instead came the immediate urgent need to keep up with the standards of their peers; today mattered, not next year. New stylish clothes as worn by the trendsetters were promptly copied.

The weekend dances and musical performances were very well attended.

One estimate in 1959 calculated the teenagers spent 20 % of their money on clothes, cosmetics and shoes; 17 % on drink and cigarettes; 15 % on sweets, snacks and soft drinks; the rest, almost half, went to many forms of pop entertainment, from cinemas and dance halls to sports, magazines and records. Spending was a device that gave a person identity and status, and most important, a sense of belonging to the group. Moral panics break out in time of dramatic social change; they appeared often in the last two centuries.

Teenager troubles first came to public attention during the war years, when there was a surge of juvenile delinquency. By the 1950s, there was widespread concern about bellicose American comic books that the boys were gobbling up; censorship was imposed in 1955. By then, the media presented the teenagers in terms of generational rebellion. The Teddy Boys Were gangs that seemed prone to violence, in addition to their outlandish costumes.

Likewise, the 1960s working class subculture known as "skinheads" appeared ominous.

The exaggerated moral panic among politicians and the older generation was typically belied by the growth in intergenerational cooperation between parents and children.

Many working-class parents, enjoying newfound economic security, eagerly took the opportunity to encourage their teens to enjoy more adventurous lives. Schools were falsely portrayed as dangerous blackboard jungles under the control of rowdy kids.

The media distortions of the teens as too affluent, and as promiscuous, delinquent, counter-cultural rebels do not reflect the actual experiences of ordinary young adults, particularly young women. Starting in the late 1960s, the counterculture movement spread from the US like a wildfire.

Bill Osgerby argues that: the counterculture's various strands developed from earlier artistic and political movements. On both sides of the Atlantic, the 1950s "Beat Generation" had fused existentialist philosophy with jazz, poetry, literature, Eastern mysticism and drugs – themes that were all sustained in the 1960s counterculture. Britain did not experience the intense social turmoil produced in America by the Vietnam War and racial tensions. Nevertheless, British youth readily identified with their American counterparts' desire to cast off the older generation's social mores.

Music was a powerful force. British groups and stars such as The Beatles, Rolling Stones, The Who, Led Zeppelin, Pink Floyd and many others gained huge followings in the UK and around the world, leading young people to question convention in everything from clothing to the class system.

The anti-war movement in Britain was fuelled by the counter-culture. It collaborated with American counterparts, moving from an emphasis on nuclear war with Russia, to support for insurgents in the Southeast Asian jungles.

Cultural Movements

Environmentalism is a major public issue was brought to the forefront by Prime Minister Thatcher in 1988, Which included a warning about climate change. The environmentalism movements of the 1980s reduced the emphasis on intensive farming, and promoted organic farming and conservation of the countryside.

Types of violence

UNIT III. HEALTHCARE & WELFARE IN THE UK

HEALTH CARE IN THE UK

Health care in the UK is a devolved matter, with England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales each having their own systems of publicly funded healthcare, funded by and accountable to separate governments and parliaments, together with smaller private sector and voluntary provision.

As a result of each country having different policies and priorities, a variety of differences now exist between these systems. Despite there being separate health services for each country, the performance of the National Health Service (NHS) across the UK can be measured for the purpose of making international comparisons.

In a 2014 report by the Commonwealth Fund ranking developed-country healthcare systems, the UK was ranked the best healthcare system in the world overall and in the following categories: Quality of Care (effective, safe, coordinated, patient-oriented), Access to Care, Efficiency, and Equity.

The UK's palliative care has been ranked as the best in the world by the Economist Intelligence Unit. On the other hand, in 2005-09 cancer survival rates lagged ten years behind the rest of Europe, although survival rates continue to increase. In 2015, the UK was 14th (out of 35) in the annual Euro health consumer index. It was criticised for its poor accessibility and "an autocratic top-down management culture". The index has in turn been criticized by academics, however.

The total expenditure on healthcare as a proportion of GDP in 2013 was 8.5%, below the OECD average of 8.9% and considerably less than comparable economies such as France (10.9%), Germany (11.0%), Netherlands (11.1%), Switzerland (11.1%) and the USA (16.4%). The percentage of healthcare provided directly by the state is higher than most European countries, which have insurance-based healthcare with the state providing for those who cannot afford insurance.

Common Features

Each NHS system uses General Practitioners (GPs) to provide primary healthcare and to make referrals to further services as necessary. Hospitals then provide more specialist services, including care for patients with psychiatric illnesses, as well as direct access to Accident and Emergency (A&E) departments. Community pharmacies are privately owned but have contracts with the relevant health service to supply prescription drugs.

The public healthcare system also provides free (at the point of service) ambulance services for emergencies, when patients need the specialist transport only available from ambulance crews or when patients are not fit to travel home by public transport.

These services are generally supplemented when necessary by the voluntary ambulance services (British Red Cross, St Andrews Ambulance Association and St John Ambulance). In addition, patient transport services by air are provided by the Scottish Ambulance Service in Scotland and elsewhere by county or regional air ambulance trusts (sometimes operated jointly with local police helicopter services) throughout England and Wales.

In specific emergencies, emergency air transport is also provided by naval, military and air force aircraft of whatever type might be appropriate or available on each occasion, and dentists can only charge NHS patients at the set rates for each country. Patients opting to be treated privately do not receive any NHS funding for the treatment. About half of the income of dentists in England comes from work sub-contracted from the NHS, however not all dentists choose to do NHS work.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

PRIVATE MEDICINE

Private medicine, where patients, or their insurers, pay for treatment in the UK is a niche market. Some is provided by NHS hospitals. Private providers also contract with the NHS, especially in England, to provide treatment for NHS patients, particularly in mental health and planned surgery.

Patients go abroad for treatment. In 2014 about 48,000 went abroad for treatment and about 144,000 in 2016. This may be driven by increasing waiting times for NHS treatment, but will include migrants who may return to their home country for treatment, especially childbirth. It includes fertility services, dentistry and cosmetic surgery which may not be available on the NHS. See Medical tourism.

Most healthcare in England is provided by the National Health Service (NHS), England's publicly funded healthcare system, which accounts for most of the Department of Health and Social Care's budget (£122.5 bn in 2017-18).

In April 2013, under the terms of the Health and Social Care Act 2012, a reorganisation of the NHS took place regarding the administration of the NHS. Primary care trusts (PCTs) and strategic health authorities (SHAs) were abolished, and replaced by clinical commissioning groups (CCGs).

CCGs now commission most of the hospital and community NHS services in the local areas for which they are responsible. Commissioning involves deciding what services a population is likely to need, ensuring that there is provision of these services. The CCGs are overseen by NHS England, formally known as the NHS Commissioning Board (NHS CB) which was established on 1 October 2012 as an executive non-departmental public body. NHS England also has the responsibility for commissioning primary care services – General Practitioners, opticians and NHS dentistry, as well as some specialised hospital services. Services commissioned include general practice physician services (most of whom are private businesses working under contract to the NHS), community nursing, local clinics and mental health services.

Provider trusts are NHS bodies delivering health care service. They are involved in agreeing major capital and other health care spending projects in their region. NHS trusts are care deliverers which spend money allocated to them by CCG's. Secondary care (sometimes termed acute health care) can be either elective care or emergency care and providers may be in the public or private sector. The biggest part of healthcare in Northern Ireland is provided by Health and Social Care in Northern Ireland. Though this organization does not use the term 'National Health Service', it is still sometimes referred to as the 'NHS'.

The majority of healthcare in Scotland is provided by NHS Scotland; Scotland's current national system of publicly funded healthcare was created in 1948 at the same time as those in Northern Ireland and in England and Wales, incorporating and expanding upon services already provided by local and national authorities as well as private and charitable institutions.

It remains a separate body from the other public health systems in the UK although this is often not realised by patients when "cross-border" or emergency care is involved due to the level of co-operation and co-ordination, occasionally becoming apparent in cases where patients are repatriated by the Scottish Ambulance Service to a hospital in their country of residence once essential treatment has been given but they are not yet fit to travel by non-ambulance transport.

The majority of healthcare in Wales is provided by NHS Wales. This body was originally formed as part of the same NHS structure for England and Wales created by the National Health Service Act 1946 but powers over the NHS in Wales came under the Secretary of State for Wales in 1969 and, in turn, responsibility for NHS Wales was passed to the Welsh Assembly and the Welsh Assembly Government under devolution in 1999.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 3. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, use it in practice.

DIFFERENCES

Best Practice & Cost Effectiveness

In England and Wales, the National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE) sets guidelines for medical practitioners as to how various conditions should be treated and whether or not a particular treatment should be funded. These guidelines are established by panels of medical experts who specialise in the area being reviewed.In Scotland, the Scottish Medicines Consortium advises NHS Boards there about all newly licensed medicines and formulations of existing medicines as well as the use of antimicrobiotics but does not assess vaccines, branded generics, non-prescription-only medicines (POMs), blood products and substitutes or diagnostic drugs. Some new drugs are available for prescription more quickly than in the rest of the UK. At times this has led to complaints.

The National Audit Office reports annually on the summarised consolidated accounts of the NHS, and Audit Scotland performs the same function for NHS Scotland.

Since January 2007, the NHS have been able to claim back the cost of treatment, and for ambulance services, for those who have been paid personal injury compensation.

Parking charges at hospitals have been abolished in Scotland and have also been abolished in Wales. Parking charges continue to be in place at many hospitals in England.

In a sample of 13 developed countries the UK was 9th in its population weighted usage of medication in 14 classes in both 2009 and 2013. The drugs studied were selected on the basis that the conditions treated had high incidence, prevalence and/or mortality, caused significant long-term morbidity and incurred high levels of expenditure and significant developments in prevention or treatment had been made in the last 10 years. The study noted considerable difficulties in cross border comparison of medication use. Northern Ireland, Scotland & Wales no longer have Prescription charges.

However, in England, a prescription charge is payable per item as of April 2017, though patients under 16 years old (16-18 years if still in full-time education) or over 60 years getting prescribed drugs are exempt from paying as are people with certain medical conditions, those on low incomes or in receipt of certain benefits, and those prescribed drugs for contraception.

UK permanent residents in England do not pay the real cost of the medicines and so for some prescribed medicines that can be bought over the counter without a prescription, for example aspirin, it can be much cheaper to purchase these without a prescription.

UK permanent residents in England who must pay can purchase a three-month Prescription Prepayment Certificate (PPC).This saves the patient money where the patient needs three or more items in three months. There is also a 12-month PPC certificate, which saves patient's money if 12 or more items are needed in 12 months. There are no prescription charges anywhere in the UK for medicines administered at a hospital, by a doctor or at an NHS walk-in centre.

Role of Private Sector in Public Healthcare

From the birth of the NHS in 1948, private medicine has continued to exist, paid for partly by private insurance. Provision of private healthcare acquired by means of private health insurance, funded as part of an employer funded healthcare scheme or paid directly by the customer, though provision can be restricted for those with conditions such as AIDS/HIV.

In recent years, despite some evidence that a large proportion of the public oppose such involvement, the private sector has been used to increase NHS capacity.

In addition, there is some relatively minor sector crossover between public and private provision with it possible for some NHS patients to be treated in private healthcare facilities and some NHS facilities let out to the private sector for privately funded treatments or for pre- and post-operative care. However, since private hospitals tend to manage only routine operations and lack a level 3 critical care unit, unexpected emergencies may lead to the patient being transferred to an NHS hospital.

When the Blair government expanded the role of the private sector within the NHS in England, the Scottish government reduced the role of the private sector within public healthcare in Scotland and planned legislation to prevent the possibility of private companies running GP practices in future. Later, however in an attempt to comply with the Scottish Treatment Time Guarantee, a 12-week target for inpatient or day-case patients waiting for treatment.

Funding & Performance of Healthcare since Devolution

The Nuffield Trust published a comparative study of NHS performance in England and the devolved administrations since devolution, concluding that while Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have had higher levels of funding per capita than England, with the latter having fewer doctors, nurses and managers per head of population, the English NHS is making better use of the resources by delivering relatively higher levels of activity, crude productivity of its staff, and lower waiting times.

However, the Nuffield Trust quickly issued a clarifying statement in which they admitted that the figures they used to make comparisons between Scotland and the rest of the UK were inaccurate due to the figure for medical staff in Scotland being overestimated by 27 %.

Using revised figures for medical staffing, Scotland's ranking relative to the other devolved nations on crude productivity for medical staff changes, but there is no change relative to England.

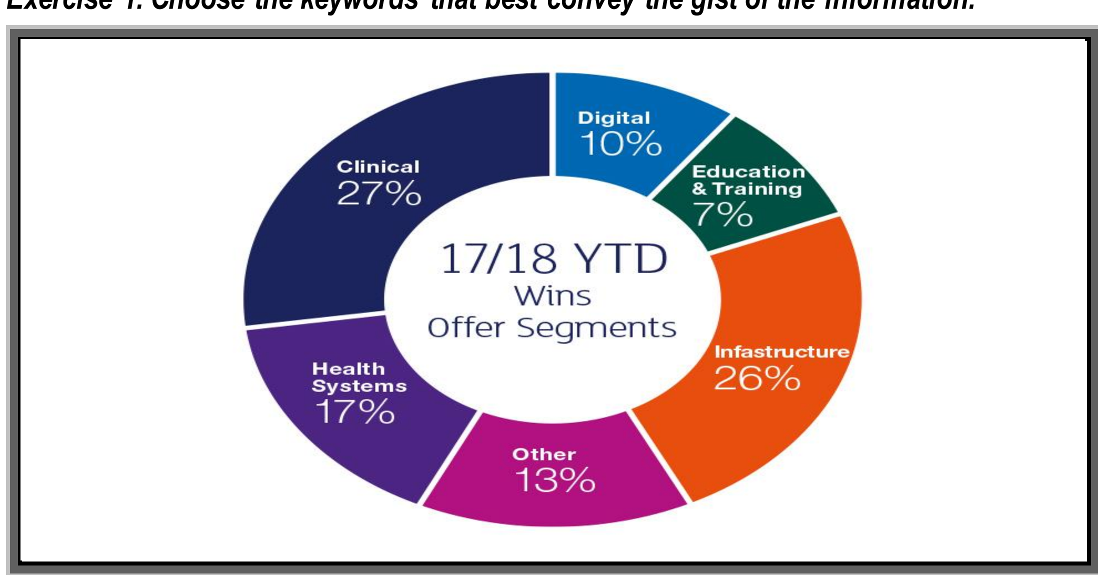
The Nuffield Trust study was comprehensively criticised by the BMA which concluded "whilst the paper raises issues which are genuinely worth debating in the context of devolution, these issues do not tell the full story, nor are they unambiguously to the disadvantage of the devolved countries.

The emphasis on policies which have been prioritised in England such as maximum waiting times will tend to reflect badly on countries which have prioritised spending increases in other areas including non-health ones.

The Nuffield Trust produced a further comparative report "The four health systems of the UK: How do they compare?" which concluded that despite the widely publicised policy differences there was little sign that any one country was moving ahead of the others consistently across the available indicators of performance. It also complained that there was an increasingly limited set of comparable data on the four health systems of the UK which made comparison difficult.

In 2016 the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development published a review which concluded that performance of the NHS in Wales was little different from that in the rest of the UK. They described performance across the UK as "fairly mediocre" saying that great policies were not being translated into great practices. They suggested that GPs should be more involved in health boards and that resources should be shifted out of hospitals.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.



HEALTHCARE IN ENGLAND

Healthcare in England is mainly provided by England's public health service, the National Health Service, that provides healthcare to all permanent residents of the UK that is free at the point of use and paid for from general taxation. Since health is a devolved matter, there are differences with the provisions for healthcare elsewhere in the UK. Though the public system dominates healthcare provision in England, private health care and a wide variety of alternative

The NHS provides the majority of healthcare in England, including primary care, in-patient care, long-term healthcare, ophthalmology and dentistry.

The National Health Service Act 1946 came into effect on 5 July 1948. Private health care has continued parallel to the NHS, paid for largely by private insurance, but it is used by less than 8% of the population, and generally as a top-up to NHS services. Recently there have been some examples where unused private sector capacity has been used to increase NHS capacity and in some cases the NHS has commissioned the private sector to establish and run new facilities on a sub contracted basis. Some new capital programs have been financed through the private finance initiative.

The involvement of the private sector remains relatively small yet, according to one survey by the BMA, a large proportion of the public oppose such involvement.

The NHS is divided conceptually into two parts covering primary and secondary care with trusts given the task of health care delivery. There are two main kinds of trusts in the NHS reflecting purchaser/ provider roles: *commissioning trusts* are responsible for examining local needs and negotiating with providers to provide health care services to the local population, and *provider trusts* which are NHS bodies delivering health care service. Commissioning trusts negotiate service delivery with providers that may be NHS bodies or private entities. They will be involved in agreeing major capital and other health care spending projects in their region.

By far the most known and most important purchases are services including general practice physician services (most of whom are private businesses working under exclusive contract to the NHS), community nursing, local clinics and mental health service.

For most people, the majority of health care is delivered in a primary health care setting.

Provider trusts are care deliverers, the main examples being the hospital trusts and the ambulance trusts which spend the money allocated to them by the commissioning trusts. Because hospitals tend to provide more complex and specialised care, they receive the lion's share of NHS funding.

The hospital trusts own assets (hospitals & equipment) purchased for the nation and held in trust for them. Commissioning has been extended to the very lowest level enabling GPs who identify a need in their community to commission services to meet that need.

Primary care is delivered by a wide range of independent contractors such as GPs, dentists, pharmacists and optometrists and is the first point of contact for most people. Secondary care (acute health care) can be either elective care or emergency care and providers may be in the public or private sector, but the majority of secondary care happens in NHS owned facilities.

The NHS is the world's largest health service and the world's fourth-largest employer; only the Chinese People's Liberation Army, Indian Railways, and Wal-Mart employ more people directly.

The NHS has recently adopted a formal constitution which for the first time, in one document, lays down the objectives of the NHS, the rights and responsibilities of the various parties (patients, staff, trust boards) and the guiding principles which govern the service.

A patient needing specialist care at a hospital or clinic, will be informed by the GP of the hospitals where they can get their treatment. This choice usually includes public and private hospitals.

The NHS will pay for treatment in a private setting if the hospital meets the cost and service criteria that NHS hospitals adhere to. Otherwise opting for a private hospital makes the patient liable for private hospital fees. Because the private sector often has higher costs.

Most people choose to be treated for free in an NHS hospital. If the GP judges the case to be extremely urgent, the doctor may by-pass the normal booking system and arrange an emergency admission. The median wait time for a consultant led first appointment in English hospitals is a little over 3 weeks. Patients can be seen by the hospital as out-patients or in-patients, with the latter involving overnight stay. The speed of in-patient admission is based on medical need and time waiting with more urgent cases faster though all cases will be dealt with eventually. Only about one third of hospital admissions are from a waiting list. For those not admitted immediately, the median wait time for in-patient treatment in English hospitals is a little under 6 weeks.

Trusts are working towards an 18-week guarantee that means that the hospital must complete all tests and start treatment within 18 weeks of the date of the referral from the GP.

Some hospitals are introducing just in time workflow analysis borrowed from manufacturing industry to speed up the processes within the system and improve efficiencies.

Almost all NHS hospital treatment is free of charge along with drugs administered in hospital, surgical consumables and appliances issued or loaned. However, if a patient has chosen to be treated in an NHS hospital as a private fee paying patient by arrangement with his consultant, the patient (or the insurance company) will be billed. This can happen because at the inception of the NHS, hospital consultants were allowed to continue doing private work in NHS hospitals and can enable private patients to "jump the NHS queue". This arrangement is nowadays quite rare as most consultants and patients choose to have private work done in private hospitals.

Emergency Department (Accident and Emergency) treatment is free of charge. A triage nurse prioritises all patients on arrival. Waiting times can be up to 4 hours if a patient goes to the Emergency Department with a minor problem or may be referred to other agencies (pharmacy, GP, Walk in clinic).

Emergency Departments try to treat patients within 4 hours as part of NHS targets for emergency care. The Emergency Department is always attached to an NHS general hospital.

Private hospitals do not provide emergency care services. The NHS also provides end of life palliative care in the form of Palliative Care Specialist Nurses. The NHS can commission the expertise of organisations in the voluntary sector to compliment palliative care. Such organisations include Marie Curie Cancer Care, Sue Ryder Care & Macmillan Cancer Support. Despite their names, these services are designed for all palliative conditions, not exclusively cancer.

All palliative care services provide support for both the patient and their relatives during and after the dying process. Again, these are all free of charge to the patient.

Although the NHS has a high level of popular public support within the country, the national press is often highly critical of it and this may have affected perceptions of the service within the country as a whole and outside. An independent survey conducted in 2004 found that users of the NHS often expressed very high levels satisfaction about their personal experience of the medical services they received. Of hospital inpatients, 92% said they were satisfied with their treatment; 87% of GP users were satisfied with their GP, 87% of hospital outpatients were satisfied with the service they received, and 70% of Accident and Emergency department users reported being satisfied.

When asked whether they agreed with the question "My local NHS is providing me with a good service" 67% of those surveyed agreed with it, and 51% agreed with the statement "The NHS is providing a good service. The reason for this disparity between personal experience and overall perceptions is not clear. Similarly the survey showed that net satisfaction with NHS services was generally higher amongst NHS services users than for all respondents (users /non-users).

Where more people had no recent experience of that service, the difference in net positive perception reported by users compared to non-users was more likely to diverge.

The least used service surveyed was walk-in centres (only 15% of all persons surveyed had actually used an NHS Walk in clinic in the last year) but 85% of walk in clinic users were satisfied with the service they received. Users' net positive satisfaction was 80%.

However, for all respondents (non-recent users) the overall net positive satisfaction was just 25%. The service with the highest rate of use was the GP service (77% having seen their GP in the last year) and the difference in net satisfaction between users and all users was the smallest (76% & 74% net satisfied respectively).

It is apparent from the survey that most people realise that the national press is generally critical of the service (64% reporting it as being critical compared to just 13% saying the national press is favourable), and that the national press is the least reliable source of information (50% reporting it to be not very or not at all reliable, compared to 36% believing the press was reliable).

Newspapers were reported as being less favourable and less reliable than the broadcast media.

The most reliable sources of information were considered to be leaflets from GPs and information from friends (both 77% reported as reliable) and medical professionals (75% considered reliable).

Most people think that the NHS is well run, with 73% of people reporting that they are satisfied with the running of the service and only a little over 10% reporting themselves as dissatisfied.

England's healthcare is ranked 14th in Europe in the Euro Health Consumer Index.

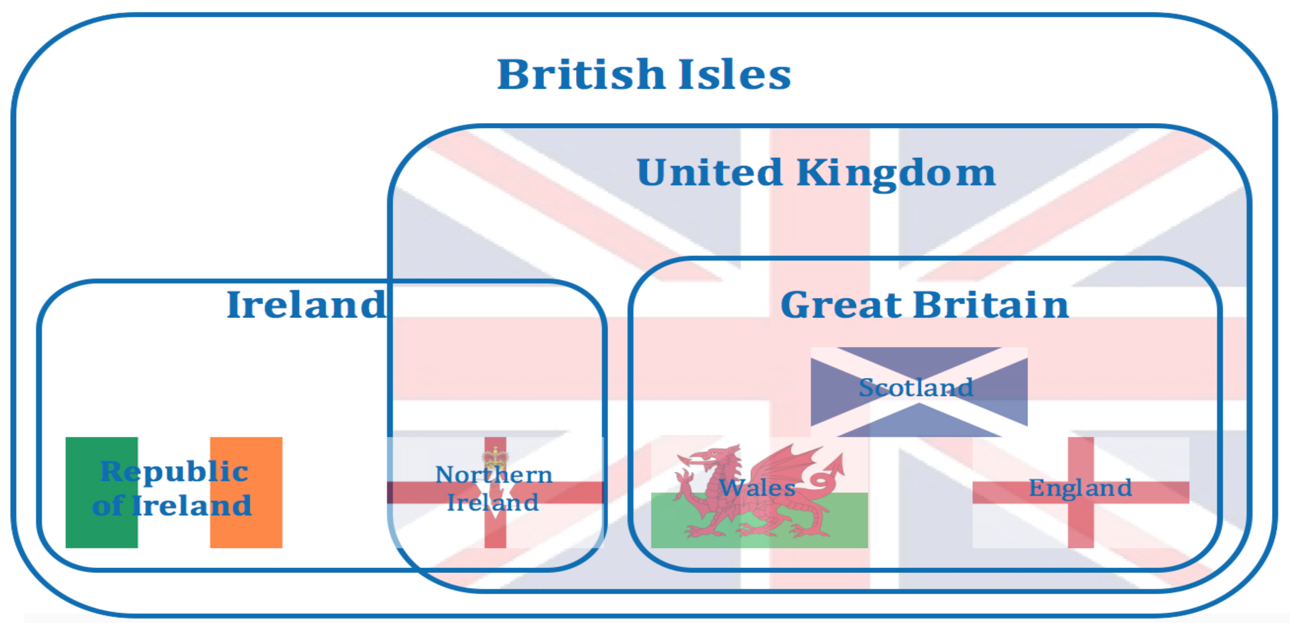
England has a private health care sector. Private health care is sometimes funded by employers through medical insurance as part of a benefits package to employees though it is mostly the larger companies that do. Insurers market policies directly to the public. Most private care is for specialist referrals with most people retaining their NHS GP as point of first contact.

The private sector now does some subcontracting work for the NHS. Thus an NHS patient can be treated in the private sector as an NHS patient if the Health Services has subcontracted work to the hospital. Some private hospitals are business enterprises and some are non-profit-making trusts.

Some hospital groups provide insurance plans (Bupa, Benenden), and some insurance companies have deals with particular private hospital groups. Some private sector patients can be treated in NHS hospitals in which case the patient or his/her insurance company is billed.

The Care Quality Commission, after inspecting more than 200 private sector hospitals, warned in April 2018 that informality in processes meant that systematic and robust safety procedures were not in place. Hospital consultants are generally not employed by the private hospitals where they have admitting rights and the commission said private companies could be reluctant to challenge them.

Safety was viewed as the responsibility of individual clinicians, rather than a corporate responsibility supported by formal governance processes. Furthermore private hospitals "were not set up to anticipate and handle emergency situations". There were only 15 critical care services across 206 hospital sites so in an emergency they had to rely on the 999 service.



HEALTHCARE IN SCOTLAND

Healthcare in Scotland is mainly provided by Scotland's public health service, NHS Scotland. It provides healthcare to all permanent residents free at the point of need and paid for from general taxation.

Health is a matter that is devolved, and considerable differences have developed between the public healthcare systems in the different countries of the UK.

Though the public system dominates healthcare provision, private healthcare and a wide variety of alternative and complementary treatments are available for those willing to pay.

Overall Scotland has a healthy population. The average life expectancy in 2014 was 79.4 years, mortality rates from illnesses such as cancer and heart disease are declining, and obesity rates have stayed stable. But because Scotland is a country with large rural expanses (20% of the population lives across 94% of the land space), there are parts of the population that find it challenging to access some healthcare services. This problem is compounded by the fact that a disproportionate number of people aged 65 and older live in these rural areas.

The elderly generally require more specialised and intensive forms of healthcare services.

These may not always be able to be provided at the same level in remote rural areas as they are in Scotland's urban areas due to a lack of rural healthcare professionals.

The National Health Service (NHS) in Scotland was created by the National Health Service (Scotland) Act 1947 in 1948 at the same time the NHS was created for England and Wales. Scotland's NHS remains a separate body from the other public health systems in the UK which can lead to confusion from patients when "cross-border" or emergency care is involved.

Primary and secondary care are integrated in Scotland. Unlike in England, NHS trusts do not exist in Scotland. Instead, healthcare is provided through fourteen regional health boards. These health boards are further subdivided into Health and Social Care Partnerships.

Scotland spent over £12 bn on healthcare in 2015/16 which accounted for 40% of the Scottish Government's total budget. The NHSScotland consists of approximately 161,000 employees. 9.2% of whom are medical or dental doctors, 42.9% nurses and midwives, 18.2% administrative services, 3.9% healthcare scientists, and the remaining 25.8% in various other medical services.

In the past several years, healthcare costs have been rising in Scotland. Despite this, Scots have a generally favorable view of their NHS service with 61% of the population either very or quite satisfied with the service. This is in contrast to a diminishing view in England of their NHS system.

Healthcare policy and funding is the responsibility of the Scottish Government's Health Directorates.

The current Cabinet Secretary for Health and Sport is Shona Robison. The Director-General (DG) of Health and Social Care, Chief Executive of NHS Scotland is Paul Gray.

Around 8.5% of people in Scotland are reckoned to have some form of voluntary private health insurance. Private clinics carry out dental and other healthcare services, including non-surgical cosmetic interventions and fertility care. 4% of the Scottish population have had a cosmetic procedure.

The number of referrals to private companies by NHS Scotland increased from almost 13,000 in 2013/4 to more than 28,000 in 2014/5 at a cost of £37 mln. The biggest increase was in MRI scans in Glasgow. Nuffield Health runs a private hospital in Glasgow which is a major centre for In vitro fertilisation. It celebrated its 30th anniversary in 2015 with approximately 6,000 babies produced.

Healthcare Improvement Scotland (HIS) is responsible for scrutiny of NHS hospitals and services, as well as independent healthcare services.[7]Its function is to assess the quality of care in Scottish health facilities and to make recommendations for how to fix various issues.

However, HIS does not impose a formal accreditation system for NHS hospitals and clinics.

The philosophy behind this is that setting minimum standards incentivizes healthcare facilities to provide only the baseline level care. Formal accreditation can be seen as burdensome bureaucratic intrusion by healthcare providers.

SOCIAL SECURITY & WELFARE

This has led to the introduction of Universal Credit, which has not yet been completely rolled out. Any benefits a person is receiving will now be paid in one lump sum. The idea is to encourage people to find paid work, increase their working hours, and have a smooth transition into a new working environment. The system is supposed to be simpler, so that people who find jobs do not have to worry about increased poverty. The system changes are also being put in place to reduce error and fraud. A couple of types of welfare exist in the system: DLA and Allowance Claimant Commitment.

Disability Living Allowance is now going to be Personal Independence Payment (PIP). Anyone who has a long term illness that stops them from working at all or in a great capacity will be able to benefit from this welfare option. The Allowance Claimant Commitment is for job seekers who need support while searching for a job. There is a cap on time and benefits that can be received for this allowance in order to encourage more people to actively seek employment.

The Employment and Support Allowance, or ESA, is undergoing changes to the benefits provided for new claims relating to incapacity or illness. The changes made in 2008 and rolled out in 2010 will be used going forward.Welfare systems also include help with housing and food. People with low incomes can enrol for housing help and be moved into a council-sponsored housing system with lower rates. There are a number of charity initiatives to help people afford basic groceries.

Social security can be accessed for those who have retired, or who are over 55 years of age.

Social security benefits may come from a state pension, bereavement coverage, incapacity benefits, ESA or income support. Social security benefits can also come in the form of industrial death benefit or invalid care allowance. In order to access any of the welfare or social security benefits available one has to meet certain terms. The amount paid out is based on how long a person worked, since their contributions to the system dictate the allowance available to them. Benefit categories generally do not overlap, meaning that only one type of allowance is usually paid out.

Expats pay into social security, which means they are eligible for benefits based on unemployment, sickness, maternity, age, disability and death. The rate is dependent on how long they have worked in the UK and paid UK taxes and social security (National Insurance). Expats from a European Economic Area (EEA) will be able to get benefits either from the UK or their home country. For medical services there are specific rules with regards to countries in the EEA or EU.

The bi-lateral social security agreement between the EEA and EU means that there is also a chance of state pensions being offered to expats. This again depends on spent time in the UK versus the home country. For state pensions, as long as an expat has been contributing to the pension, they can access benefits when they reach retirement age. Like UK citizens, the state pension is accessed early only if there is an illness that warrants it; decisions are made on a case by case basis.

If the expat can receive benefits from their home country, they may be required to accept these benefits instead of a UK pension, social security, or welfare. The system does not allow people to receive benefits from more than one system. It is recommended that expats take out private insurance to ensure full coverage. Benefits from the state are dependent on how much is paid out beforehand, thus insurance can help add to the eventual income.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

THE UK SOCIAL SECURITY SYSTEM OVER TIME

Most of the UK's social security benefits are being gradually replaced by the Universal Credit System, a process that started in 2013.In order to get the full amount of state pension, you need to have paid 35 years of National Insurance contributions; otherwise you receive only a pro-rata amount.

The pensions for citizens from EU and EEA member states are harmonized throughout the EU. You need to apply for pension in the country you last worked before retiring.

Non-citizens might be eligible for unemployment benefits, too. But please note that this can hurt your immigration status if you're still subject to immigration control.

Contemporary pensions in the UK, as well as the entire social security system, go back well over a century. In 1908, the Old-Age Pensions Act laid the foundation for a modern welfare state.

Three years later, the National Insurance Act introduced the concept of sick pay, maternity benefits, and unemployment benefits for wage earners. There have been countless reforms to the UK's social security schemes ever since, including the NHS Service Acts from the late 1940s. They established the National Health Service, i.e. public health insurance in the UK. The latest legislations concerning social security in the UK include the UK Pensions Act of 2011 and the Welfare Reform Act 2012. These measures have introduced several controversial changes, e.g. regarding UK pensions, disability assessments for people unable to work, or so-called "back-to-work schemes".

However, British citizens can still claim a variety of financial benefits in times of need. These include: next to the Universal Credit, Jobseeker's Allowance, Maternity Allowance, and other benefits.

Some general points should be of interest.

First of all, since 2013, most UK social security benefits are gradually being replaced by a Universal Credit System. At the time of writing in December 2016, Universal Credit is available for single persons in England, Scotland, and Wales as well as couples or families living in certain areas.

The Universal Credit System is not the only thing changing in the UK's social security system: people reaching state pension age on or after 6 April 2016 will receive the new state pension instead of the basic and additional state pensions. We will give you a more detailed overview on this topic on the next pages of this article. If you receive social security in the UK, allowances often depend on your nationality, visa type. In some cases, residents from non-EU/EEA countries might hurt their immigration status by applying for financial help. Most benefits are means-tested. Your savings and current income have to be under a certain limit for you to qualify. If you come to the UK for a well-paid new job, and with a financial cushion to boot, most benefits are not applicable to your situation.

Nonetheless, a few aspects of the UK social security system are highly relevant for expatriates.

Everyone should have an idea of how pensions in the UK work and what happens in case you are let go from your job in the UK. UK pensions can be saved for in three different ways. The three basic pillars of British social security for retirees are:

- state pensions;
- company pension plans;
- private pension funds.

Like most other benefits, UK pensions, as provided by the state, are funded by a mixture of contributions from employees, employers, and the government. All workers, employees, and self-employed people living in the UK have to pay into the so-called National Insurance funds – provided they have a certain minimum income. In 2016, this income limit was 112 GBP per week for employed residents, or 5,965 GBP per year for the self-employed. If you don't fulfill these criteria, you can still contribute on a voluntary basis. When you start working in the UK, you definitely need to get a National Insurance (NI) number. Whether or not you are planning to stay permanently, you have to contribute financially to UK pensions and other insurance schemes if you earn above those limits.

Employees usually belong to NI Class 1. In 2016/17, they have to pay 12% of their weekly earnings between 155 GBP and 827 GBP, as well as 2% of all earnings over 827 GBP per week.

Self-employed expats fall into both NI Class 2 and NI Class 4. They have to pay a flat rate of 2.80 GBP per week and a certain share of their annual taxable profit. The latter normally amounts to 9% of profits between 8,060 GBP and 43,000 GBP, as well as 2% of all earnings above that limit.

National Insurance contributions adjusted annually – are automatically deducted from your salary. They are used, among other things, to finance state pensions.

Some of the means-tested benefits in the UK are gradually being replaced by the Universal Credit System. This is going to replace six separate income related benefits: Housing Benefit, income-based Jobseeker's Allowance, Working Tax Credit, Child Tax Credit, income-based Employment and Support Allowance, and Income Support. People claiming one of these benefits will have to move to Universal Credit eventually. You can claim Universal Credit if you meet the following requirements:

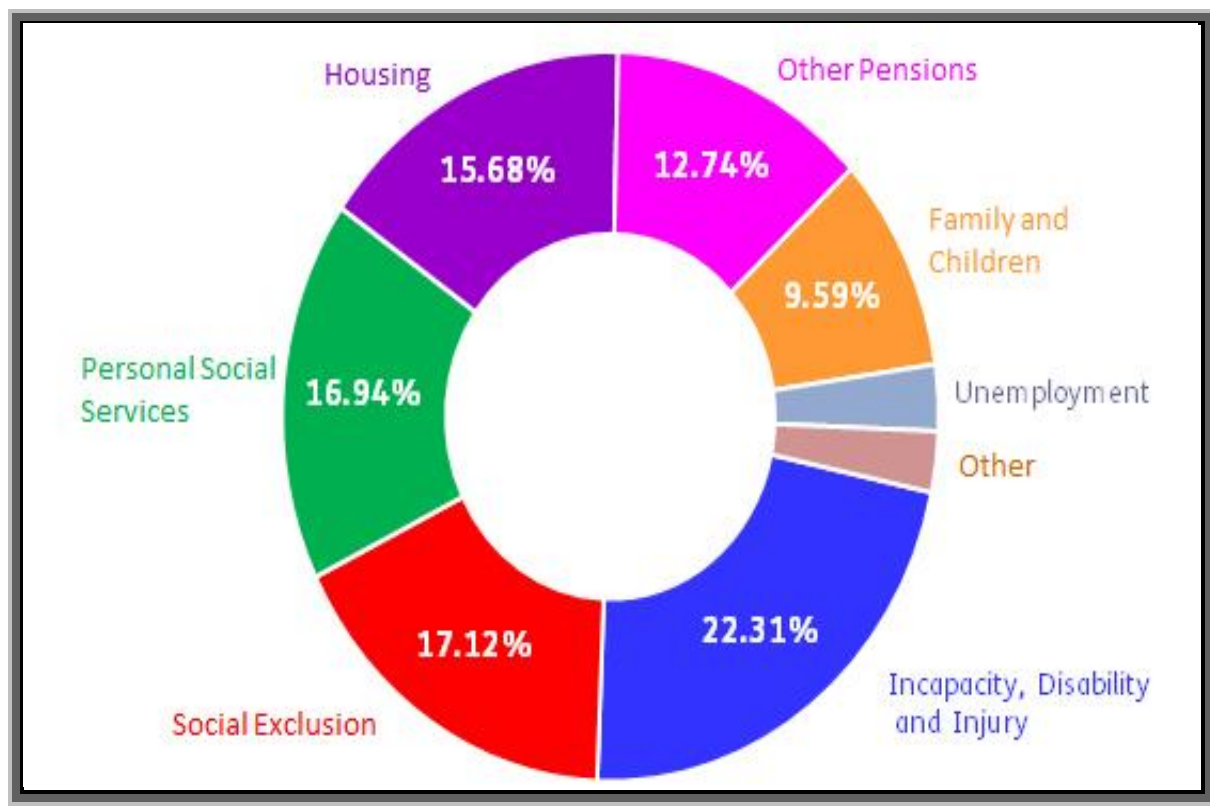
- You are over 18 but under state pension age.
- You are not in full-time education or training.
- You do not have savings over 16,000 GBP.

Contrary to other benefits, Universal Credit is paid monthly. How much you receive depends on your circumstances and income. The basic standard allowance for a single person over 25 is 317.82 GBP a month. On top of that you may claim additional amounts if you're eligible.

You may receive additional support on top of your standard allowance for:

- your children;
- childcare costs;
- disabled or severely disabled children;
- disabilities or health conditions of your own;
- caring for a disabled person.

Universal Credit is currently only available for single persons living in England, Wales, & Scotland, as well as couples or families living in certain areas.



CHAPTER VII. CITIES & TOWN IN THE UK

INTRODUCTION

Municipal Boundaries

The reason Sheffield had somehow sneaked its way into third place, despite manifestly not being the country's third largest city, is because it's often listed as the third largest individual local authority in England, with a population of around 553,000. Only Leeds (751,000) and Birmingham (1.1m) are bigger. Actually, so is Glasgow, with 593,000, but for some reason a single list of local authorities covering the entire UK is surprisingly hard to come by.

And already, you can see another problem with this definition: there isn't a London-wide local authority that's directly comparable to these places. Greater London is more sensibly compared to the other old metropolitan counties (West Midlands, West Yorkshire, etc). But while Greater Manchester is a pretty coherent entity these days, several of the others are still arguing about whether they're one city or several. Nonetheless, in the name of completism, here are the populations of England's metropolitan counties and of some of the bigger official "cities" they contain: **the urban area**

There are a number of other ways of defining city populations, of which perhaps the most obvious is the "urban area" – that is, the continuously built up zone. This, after all, is the thing that feels like a city when you are actually inside it – or, come to that, when you are flying over it in a plane.

The most up-to-date stats on this measure come from Demographia, a St. Louis-based consultancy, which every year gathers data on every city with a population of 500,000 or more and ranks it in its. In this year's edition 13 British cities make that list. Here they are, in chart form:

Primary urban areas

PUAs are, essentially, collections of local authorities that function a bit like single cities. They were created by the Department for Communities & Local Government a decade or so back, as a statistical tool to help it draw comparisons between very different places. The aim was to come up with a list of areas less arbitrary than existing council boundaries; but which still allowed you to count largely independent but touching cities as independent entities. On these definitions, Leeds and Bradford are counted separately; Sunderland isn't part of Newcastle, and Bolton, Rochdale and Wigan are not included in Manchester. These things obviously have a knock-on effect on the final figures for how big city populations are. Manchester is rather shrunken; Birmingham is back in second place.

Metropolitan Areas

Metropolitan areas are, in the most literal sense, the big ones – not simply a city itself, but its suburbs, commuter towns and rural hinterland. On this definition, London isn't Greater London – it's a large chunk of the Home Counties, too.

The twin cities of South Hampshire are back in the rankings, and several other cities look a lot bigger when the whole of their economic footprint is taken into account. Glasgow, however, doesn't: it barely makes the top 10. Compared to cities like Birmingham or Leeds, it doesn't have much of a hinterland. What should be clear by now is that no definitive ranking is possible. London is definitely the UK's biggest city, and no one will challenge you. You can say that Manchester is bigger than Newcastle, and be on pretty safe ground.

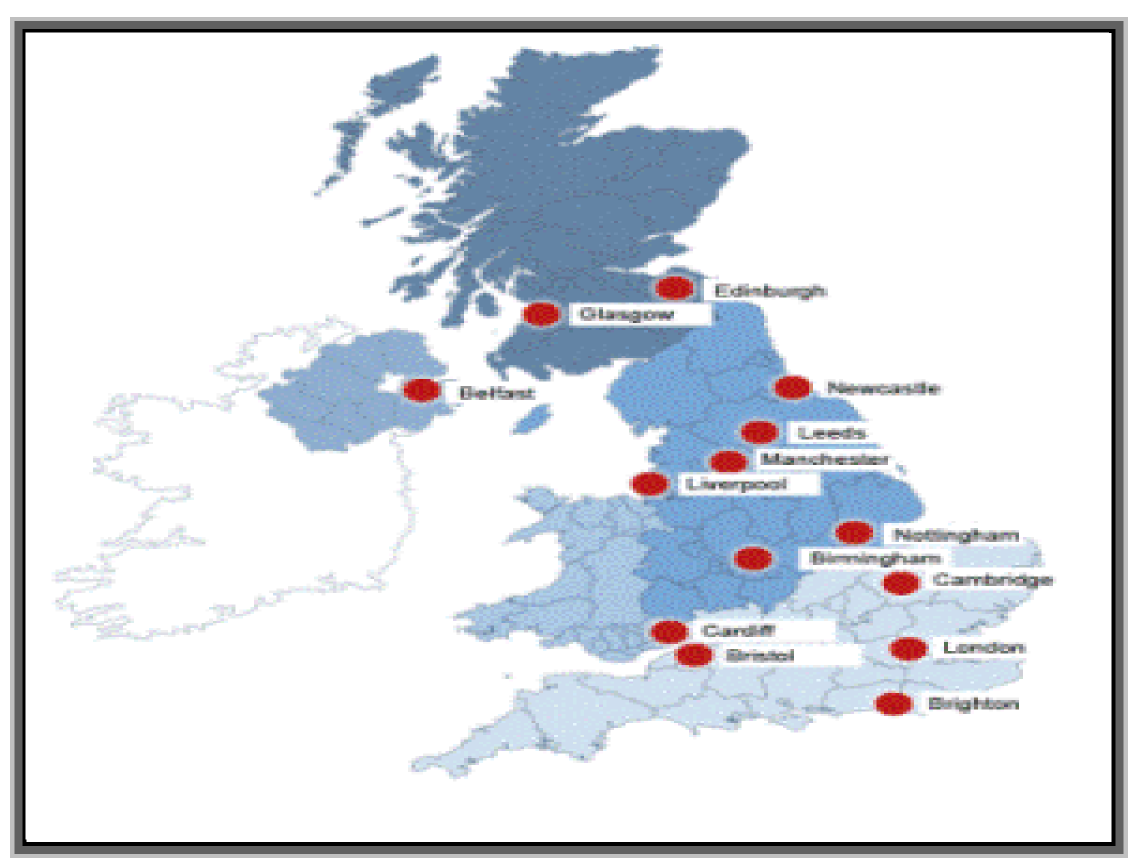
But is Manchester bigger than Birmingham? What's the UK's 7th biggest city? These are questions with no answers. What we can do, is come up with a sort of typology: not a numbered ranking, exactly, but a sort of way of visualising which league cities are playing in. Here you go:

- **Megacity:** London.
- **Second cities**: Birmingham, Manchester.
- **Major cities:** Glasgow, Leeds, Liverpool, Newcastle, Sheffield.
- **Large cities:** Belfast, Bristol, Nottingham, Southampton/Portsmouth, Leicester, etc.

Britain only has one city whose population even gets close to 10m, but a couple of handfuls of them are bobbing around the 500,000 mark.

MAJOR CITIES

	Name	Administration	Population
1.	London	ENG	8,250,205
2.	Birmingham	ENG	1,085,810
3.	Glasgow	SCO	590,507
4.	Liverpool	ENG	552,267
5.	Bristol	ENG	535,907
6.	Sheffield	ENG	518,090
7.	Manchester	ENG	510,746
8.	Leeds	ENG	474,632
9.	Edinburgh	SCO	459,366
10.	Leicester	ENG	443,760



CITY STATUS IN THE UK

City status in the UK is granted by the British monarch to a select group of communities.

The holding of city status gives a settlement no special rights other than that of calling itself a "city". Nonetheless, this appellation carries its own prestige and, consequently, competitions for the status are hard fought. The status does not apply automatically because of any particular criteria, although in England and Wales it was traditionally given to towns with diocesan cathedrals. This association between having a cathedral and being called a city was established in the early 1540s when King Henry VIII founded dioceses (cathedral in the city) in 6 English towns and granted them city status by issuing letters patent.

City status in Ireland was granted to far fewer communities than in England and Wales, and there are only two pre-19th century cities in present-day Northern Ireland.

In Scotland, city status did not explicitly receive any recognition by the state until the 19th century. At that time, a revival of grants of city status took place, first in England, where the grants were accompanied by the establishment of new cathedrals, and later in Scotland and Ireland.

In the 20th century, it was explicitly recognised that the status of city in England and Wales would no longer be bound to the presence of a cathedral, and grants made since have been awarded to communities on a variety of criteria, including population size. The abolition of some corporate bodies as part of successive local government reforms, beginning with the Municipal Corporations (Ireland) Act 1840, has deprived some ancient cities of their status. However, letters patent have been issued for most of the affected cities to ensure the continuation or restoration of their status.

At present, Rochester and Elgin are the only former cities in the UK.

The suffix "City" does not, in itself, denote city status; it may be appended to locations for reasons of historical association (White City) or for marketing purposes (Stratford City).

Ancient Cities

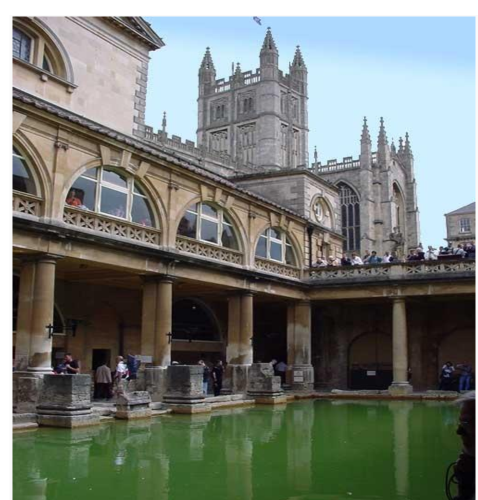
In the 16th century, a town was recognised as a city by the English Crown if it had a diocesan cathedral within its limits. This association between having a cathedral and being called a city was established when Henry VIII founded dioceses (each having a cathedral in the See City) in six English towns and also granted them city status by issuing letters patent. Some cities today are very small because they were granted city status in or before the 16th century, then were unaffected by population growth during the Industrial Revolution – notably Wells (population about 10,000) and St. David's (population about 2,000). After the 16th century, no new dioceses (cities) were created until the 19th century.

In 1836, Ripon was the first of a number of new dioceses to be created. Ripon Town Council assumed that this had elevated the town to the rank of a city, and started referring to itself as the *City and Borough of Ripon*. The next diocese to be created was Manchester, and the Borough Council began to informally use the title *city*. When Queen Victoria visited Manchester in 1851, the doubts surrounding the status of the town were raised. The situation was resolved when the borough petitioned for city status, which was granted by letters patent in 1854.

This eventually forced Ripon to regularise its position; its city status was recognised by Act of Parliament in 1865. This led to the situation of Ripon, with the diocesan cathedral, having city status whilst the rapidly expanding conurbation of Leeds – in the same diocese – did not.

The Manchester case established a precedent that any municipal borough in which an Anglican See was established was entitled to petition for city status.

Accordingly, Truro, St.Albans, Liverpool, Newcastle upon Tyne and Wakefield were all officially designated as cities between 1877 and 1888. This was not without opposition from the Home Office, who dismissed St. Albans as "a fourth or fifth rate market town" and objected to Wakefield's elevation on grounds of population. In one new diocese, Southwell, a city was not created, because Southwell was a village without a borough corporation and therefore could not petition the Queen.



The diocese covered the counties of Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire, and the boroughs of Derby and Nottingham were disappointed that they would not be able to claim the title of city.

Birmingham was the first English town without an Anglican cathedral to be granted city status. Birmingham City Council meets at the Council House.

The link with Anglican dioceses was broken in 1889 when Birmingham successfully petitioned for city status on the grounds of its large population and history of good local government.

At the time of the grant, Birmingham lacked an Anglican cathedral, although the parish church later became a cathedral in 1905. This new precedent was followed by other large municipalities: Leeds and Sheffield became cities in 1893, and Bradford, Kingston upon Hulland Nottingham were honoured on the occasion of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee in 1897. The last three had been the largest county boroughs outside the London area without city status. Between 1897 and 1914, applications were received from a number of other boroughs, but only one was successful: in 1905, Cardiff was designated a city and granted a lord mayoralty as "the Metropolis of Wales".

The London Government Act 1899 abolished the existing local authorities within the County of London and replaced them with 28 metropolitan boroughs. Among the bodies to be dissolved was the Court of Burgesses of the City of Westminster. William Burdett-Coutts, one of Westminster's Members of Parliament, brought forward an amendment to rename the proposed borough of Greater Westminster to *City of Westminster*. This was intended to give "recognition to the title which the area had possessed for over three and a half centuries". He felt that if the status was not retained for the new borough it "must necessarily disappear altogether". The amendment was rejected by the government, however, with the First Lord of the Treasury, Arthur Balfour, believing it would be "an anomaly which, I think, would be not unnaturally resented by other districts which are as large in point of population as Westminster, although doubtless not so rich in historical associations".

The government eventually relented, with Balfour stating that "as soon as the necessary arrangements under the London Government Act have been completed, there will be conferred on the borough of Westminster, as constituted under the Act, the title of city, originally conferred in the time of Henry VIII". Letters patent were duly issued granting the title of "city" to the newly created Metropolitan Borough of Westminster. In 1907, the Home Office and King Edward VII agreed on a policy that future applicants would have to meet certain criteria. This policy, which was not at the time made public, had the effect of stemming the number of city creations. The 1907 policy contained three criteria:

- A minimum population of 300,000.
- A "local metropolitan character"– this implied that the town had a distinct identity of its own and was the centre of a wider area.
- A good record of local government.

However, well into the 20th century it was often assumed that the presence of a cathedral was sufficient to elevate a town to city status and that for cathedral cities the city charters were recognising its city status rather than granting it. On this basis, the 1911 *Encyclopedia Britannica* said that Southwell and St. Asaph were cities.

The policy laid down by Edward VII was continued by his successor, George V, who ascended the throne in 1910. In 1911, an application for city status by Portsmouth was refused. Explaining the Home Secretary's reason for not recommending the King to approve the petition, the Lord Advocate stated: during the reign of his late Majesty it was found necessary, in order to maintain the value of the distinction, to lay down a rule as to the minimum population which should ordinarily, in connexion with other considerations, be regarded as qualifying a borough for that higher status.

Following the World War I, the King made an official visit to Leicester in 1919 to commemorate its contributions to the military victory. The borough council had made several applications for city status since 1889, and took the opportunity of the visit to renew its request. Leicester had a population of approximately 230,000 at the previous census, but its petition was granted as an exception to the policy, as it was officially a restoration of a dignity lost in the past.

When the county borough of Stoke-on-Trent applied for city status in 1925, it was initially refused as it had only 294,000 inhabitants. The decision was overturned, however, as it was felt to have outstanding importance as the centre of the pottery industry. The effective relaxation of the population rule led to applications from Portsmouth and Salford. The civil servants in the Home Office were minded to refuse both applications. In particular, Salford was felt to be "merely a scratch collection of 240,000 people cut off from Manchester by the river". Salford's case, however, was considered favourably by the Home Secretary, William Joynson-Hicks, MP for a neighbouring constituency of Manchester.

Following protests from Portsmouth, which felt it had better credentials as a larger town and as the "first Naval Port of the kingdom", both applications were approved in 1926.

In 1927, a Royal Commission on Local Government was examining local authority areas and functions in England and Wales. The question arose as to which towns were entitled to be called cities, and the chairman, the Earl of Onslow, wrote to the Home Office to seek clarification.

The Home Office replied with a memorandum that read: The title of a city which is borne by certain boroughs is a purely titular distinction. It has no connexion with the status of the borough in respect of local government and confers no powers or privileges. Now and for several centuries past the title has been obtained only by an express grant from the Sovereign affected by letters patent; but a certain number of cities possess the title by very ancient prescriptive right. There is no necessary connexion between the title of a city & the seat of a bishopric; the creation of a new see neither constitutes the town concerned a city nor gives it any claim to the grant of letters patent creating it a city.

In 1928, Plymouth submitted an application for city status. As the borough was larger than Portsmouth, and had recently absorbedDevonport and East Stonehouse, the King agreed to the request. He indicated that he had "come to an end of city making", Southampton's application in the following year was turned down. The next city to be created was Lancaster as part of the celebrations of the coronation of King George VI and Queen Elizabeth. With a population of a little over 50,000, Lancaster was stated to be an exception due to the town's "long association with the crown" and because it was "the county town of the King's Duchy of Lancaster".

Following the Second World War, members of Cambridge Borough Council made contact with Lancaster officials for assistance in their application. Cambridge became a city in 1951, again for "exceptional" reasons, as the only ancient seat of learning in the kingdom not a city or royal burgh and to coincide with the 750th anniversary of the borough's first charter of incorporation.

Croydon applied in 1951, but failed as it was felt not to have a sufficient identity apart from Greater London, and reports on the conduct of local government in the town were unfavourable.

It was anticipated that the coronation of Elizabeth II in 1953 would lead to the creation of a city, and Wolverhampton, Preston and Southampton made approaches. In the event, the only civic honour given was that of a lord mayoralty to Coventry. Derby and Southwark made unsuccessful applications in 1955. The planned reorganisations by the Local Government Commissions for England and Wales from 1958 effectively blocked new city grants. Southampton lodged a petition in 1958. Initially refused in 1959, pending the decision of the Commission, it was eventually allowed in 1964.

In the meantime, the administration of London was reformed under the London Government Act 1963. While the City of London was permitted to continue in existence largely unchanged, Westminster was merged with two neighbouring authorities to form a new London borough from 1965.

In 1963, it was announced that a charter was to be granted incorporating the new authority as "Westminster", and that the Queen had accepted the advice of the Home Secretary to raise the London borough to the title and dignity of city. With the establishment of the Royal Commission on Local Government in England in 1966, city grants were again in abeyance in England. Attempts by Derby, Teesside and Wolverhampton to become cities were not proceeded with.

In Wales, Swansea campaigned for city status throughout the 1960s. The campaign came to a successful conclusion in 1969, in conjunction with the investiture of Charles, Prince of Wales.

The Local Government Act 1972 abolished all existing local authorities outside London (other than parish councils) in England and Wales. This meant that the various local authorities that held city status ceased to exist on 1 April 1974. To preserve city status, new letters patent were issued to the metropolitan borough, non-metropolitan district or successor parish councils created by the 1972 Act. Because some of the new boroughs or districts covered areas much wider than the previous city, this had the effect that city status was awarded to a number of local government districts.

They were not themselves towns and included a number of towns and villages outside the urban areas from which the districts took their names, the cities of Bradford, Leeds and Winchester.

There were three exceptions: charter trustees were established for the Cities of Lichfield and New Sarum (Salisbury) which were neither districts nor parishes, and special letters patent preserved the City of Rochester as part of the new Borough of Medway. In 1977, as part of the celebrations of the Silver Jubilee of Elizabeth II, the Home Office identified 9 candidates for city status: Blackburn, Brighton, Croydon, Derby, Dudley, Newport, Sandwell, Sunderland and Wolverhampton.

Ultimately, Derby received the award, as the largest non-metropolitan district not already designated a city. In April 1980 a parish council was created for Lichfield, and the charter trustees established six years earlier were dissolved. City status was temporarily lost until new letters patent were issued in November of the same year. In 1992, on the 40th anniversary of the monarch's accession, it was announced that another town would be elevated to a city.

An innovation on this occasion was that a competition was to be held, and communities would be required to submit applications. Sunderland was the successful applicant. This was followed in 1994 by the restoration of the dignity to St. David's, historic see of a bishop. Since 2000, city status has been awarded to towns by competition on special occasions. Four successful applicants in England have become cities, as well as two in Wales; in 2000 for the Millennium Celebrations.

The new cities were Brighton and Hove and Wolverhampton; in 2002 for the Queen's Golden Jubilee it was Preston and Newport, and in 2012 for the Queen's Diamond Jubilee it was Chelmford and St Asaph. Other than the cities of London and Westminster, no local authorities in the Greater London area have been granted city status. The Home Office had a policy of resisting any attempt by metropolitan boroughs to become cities even when their populations, and other proposed claims as qualifying criteria, might otherwise have made them eligible. It was felt that such a grant would undermine the status of the two existing cities in the capital.

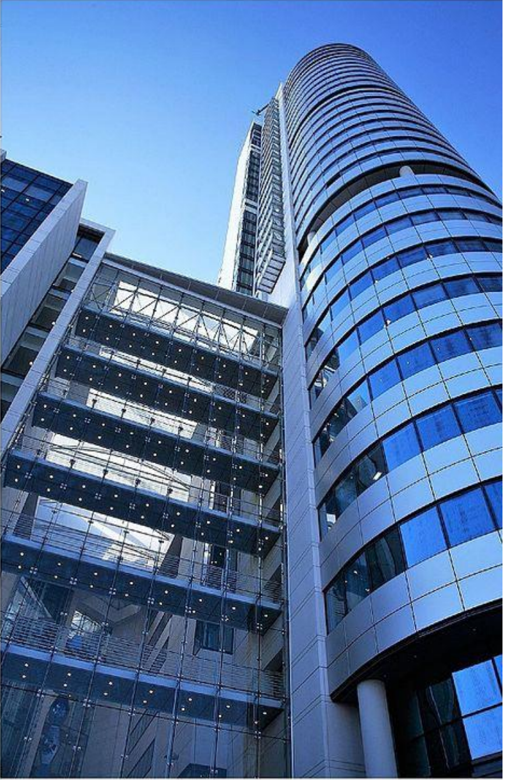
The Metropolitan Borough of Southwark made a number of applications, but in 1955, the borough's town clerk was told not to pursue the matter any further. Outside the boundaries of the county, the County Borough of Croydon made three applications, all of which were dismissed as it was not seen as being sufficiently separate from London. When the successor London Borough of Croydon applied in 1965 the Assistant under Secretary of State summarised the case against Croydon: "...whatever its past history, it is now just part of the London conurbation and almost indistinguishable from many of the other Greater London boroughs". The same objections were made when the London Boroughs of Croydon and Southwark unsuccessfully entered the competition for city status to mark the millennium: Croydon was said to have "no particular identity of its own" while Southwark was "part of London with little individual identity".

When the most recent competition was held to mark the Golden Jubilee of 2002, Croydon made a sixth application, again unsuccessful. It was joined by the London Borough of Greenwich, which emphasised its royal and maritime connections, while claiming to be "to London what Versailles is to Paris".

City of York Cambridge

NOTTINGHAM

OXFORD



LEEDS

MANCHESTER

EDINBURGH

SCOTLAND

Scotland had no cities by royal charter or letters patent before 1889. The nearest equivalent in pre-Union Scotland was the royal burgh. The term *city* was not always consistently applied, and there were doubts over the number of officially designated cities.

The royal burghs of Edinburgh and Perth anciently used the title *civitas*, but the term *city* does not seem to have been used before the 15th century.

Unlike the situation in England, in Scotland there was no link between the presence of a cathedral and the title of *city*. Aberdeen,Glasgow and Edinburgh were accepted as cities by ancient usage by the 18th century, while Perth and Elgin also used the title.

In 1856, the burgh of Dunfermline resolved to use the title of *city* in all official documents in the future, based on long usage and its former status as a royal capital. The status was never officially recognised. In 1889, Dundee was granted city status by letters patent. The grant by formal document led to doubts about the use of the title *city* by other burghs.

In 1891, the city status of Aberdeen was confirmed when the burgh was enlarged by local Act of Parliament. The Royal Burgh of Inverness applied for promotion to a city as part of the Jubilee honours in 1897. The request was not granted, partly because it would draw attention to the lack of any charter granting the title to existing cities. Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh and Glasgow were constituted "counties of cities" by the Local Government (Scotland) Act 1929.

The Act made no statement on the title *city* for any other burgh. In 1969, the Home Secretary, James Callaghan, stated that there were six cities in Scotland (without naming them) and Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh, Elgin, Glasgow and Perth were the only burghs listed as cities in 1972.

The Local Government (Scotland) Act 1973 reorganised Scotland's local administration in 1975. All burghs were abolished, and a system of districts created.

The four districts of Aberdeen, Edinburgh, Dundee and Glasgow had *City* included in their titles by the Act. The 1975 districts were replaced with the present council areas by the Local Government etc. (Scotland) Act 1994 in 1996, and the same four cities were designated.

Since the 1996 reorganisation, three more Scottish cities have been designated: Inverness as part of the millennium celebrations, Stirlingin 2002 to commemorate Queen Elizabeth II's Golden Jubilee and Perth in 2012 to mark the Queen's Diamond Jubilee.

In the case of these three cities, there are no city councils and no formal boundaries.

In January 2008, a petition to matriculate armorial bearings for the City of Inverness was refused by Lord Lyon King of Arms on the grounds that there is no corporate body or legal persona to whom arms can be granted.

NORTHERN IRELAND

City status in Ireland tended historically to be granted by royal charter. There are many towns in Ireland with Church of Ireland cathedrals that have never been called cities.

In spite of this, Armagh was considered a city, by virtue of its being the seat of the Primate of All Ireland, until the abolition of Armagh's city corporation by the Municipal Corporations (Ireland) Act 1840. The only historic city with a charter in present-day Northern Ireland is Derry. Derry was given its first charter by James I in 1604, but the garrison was attacked and destroyed by Cahir O'Doherty in 1608. The present city is the result of a second charter granted in 1613 to members of the London guilds, as part of the Plantation of Ulster, providing for the building of a walled city, which was renamed Londonderry. In 1887, the Golden Jubilee of Queen Victoria was celebrated, and the Borough of Belfast submitted a memorial to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland seeking city status.

Belfast based its claim on its similarity to two English boroughs that had received the honour – the seaport of Liverpool and the textile centre of Manchester – and the fact that it had (at the time) a larger population than the City of Dublin. Following some legal debate, city status was conferred in 1888. The grant of the honour on the grounds of being a large industrial town, rather than a diocesan centre, was unprecedented. Belfast's example was soon followed by Birmingham and Dundee in England and Scotland respectively.

In 1994, Armagh's city status was restored. In 2002, Lisburn and Newry were two of the five towns in the UK that were granted city status by Queen Elizabeth II to mark her Golden Jubilee. In the case of Lisburn, the status extends t o the entire local government district. Newry, like Inverness and Stirling in Scotland, has no formal boundaries or city council. The letters patent were presented to representatives of Newry and Mourne District Council on behalf of the city.

Queen's university in Belfast

Dunluce Castle in County Antrim, Northern Ireland (UK

Dublin is the capital city of the Ireland, there are over 1.5 mln residents and the pubs are good. This is all true, but they're hardly facts that are going to blow your socks off! Perhaps you are heading away on vacation to Dublin or maybe you would just like to get your facts straight. Let us impart to you some less known facts about Dublin. Dublin is twinned to cities Barcelona in Catalonia, Spain, Liverpool in the UK and San Jose, in California.

Lord Mayors

According to a Memorandum from the Home Office issued in 1927, if a town wishes to obtain the title of a city the proper method of procedure is to address a petition to the King through the Home Office. It is the duty of the Home Secretary to submit such petitions to his Majesty and to advise his Majesty to the reply to be returned. It is a well-established principle that the grant of the title is only recommended in the case of towns of the first rank in population, size and importance, and having a distinctive character and identity of their own. At the present day, therefore, it is only rarely and in exceptional circumstances that the title is given. In fact, a town can now apply for city status by submitting an application to the Lord Chancellor, who makes recommendations to the sovereign.

Competitions for new grants of city status have been held to mark special events, such as coronations, royal jubilees or the Millennium.

Some cities in England, Wales and Northern Ireland have the further distinction of having a Lord Mayor rather than a simple Mayor – in Scotland, the equivalent is the Lord Provost. Lord Mayors have the right to be styled "The Right Worshipful The Lord Mayor". The Lord Mayors and Provosts of Belfast Cardiff, Edinburgh, Glasgow; City of London and York have the further right to be styled "The Right Honourable the Lord Mayor" (Provost), although they are not members of the Privy Council as this style usually indicates. The style is associated with the office, not the person holding it.

There are currently 69 recognised cities (including 30 Lord Mayoralties or Lord Provostships) in the UK: 51 cities (23 Lord Mayoralties) in England, six cities (two Lord Mayoralties) in Wales, seven cities (four Lord Provostships) in Scotland and five cities (one Lord Mayoralty) in Northern Ireland.

In the Republic of Ireland, the ceremonial head of the city government of Dublin is the Lord Mayor of Dublin. This title was granted by Charles II in 1665 when Dublin was part of the Kingdom of Ireland. Whilst the 1665 letters patent provided for the Lord Mayor to hold the formal title of Right Honourable, this was repealed in 2001.

There is a Lord Mayor of Cork, a title granted in 1900 when Cork was still part of the UK.

In 2012, a further competition was held, as part of the Diamond Jubilee celebrations, with Armagh receiving the distinction. Eleven other cities entered the contest, namely: Cambridge, Derby, Gloucester, Lancaster, Newport, Peterborough, Salford, Southampton, St. Albans, Sunderland, and Wakefield. Since local government, reorganisation in 1974 city status has been awarded to a number of local government districts, which are not towns. Each includes a number of towns and villages outside the urban area from which the district takes its name.

Lord Mayor's Show

City Councils

The holding of city status gives a settlement no special rights other than that of calling itself a "city". Nonetheless, this appellation carries its own prestige and, consequently, competitions for the status are hard fought. Historically, city status could only be granted to incorporated towns. The grant was specifically awarded to the relevant local government area such as a civil parish or borough.

However, recent grants have used a looser wording, where the status is awarded to the "town".

In most cases the "town" is held to be coterminous with the relevant local government area, such that the city status holder is the corporate body of the council. In some cases, like the cities of Stirling and Inverness, there was no existing corporate body.

Stirling Council's application for city status was specifically for the urban area of the (now former) Royal Burgh of Stirling and included proposed city boundaries. Thus, not all of the council area has city status; there is no official city council. Most cities, however, do have city councils, which have varying powers depending on the type of settlement. There are unitary authorities (metropolitan & London boroughs), which are responsible for all local government services within their area. The only London borough having city status is the City of Westminster.

Many cities have ordinary district councils, which share power with county councils. Some English cities which are neither local government districts nor within local government districts with city status have city councils which are parish councils, with limited powers. Some cities that used to have a city council but have subsequently had it abolished may have charter trustees, drawn from the local district council, who appoint the mayor and look after the city's traditions.

The three winners were Brighton and Hove, Wolverhampton and Inverness, which were subsequently dubbed "Millennium Cities". To mark the Diamond Jubilee of Elizabeth II, another competition was launched for towns to bid for city status, as well as for existing cities to bid for Lord Mayoralty or Provostship. 26 applications were received. City status is conferred by letters patent and not by a royal charter (except in Ireland).

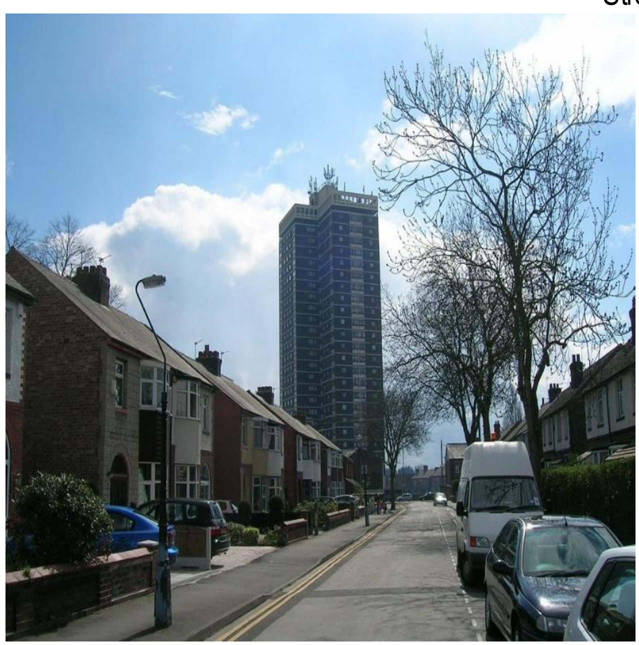
There are twenty towns in England and Wales that were recognised as cities by "ancient prescriptive right"; none of these communities had been formally declared a city, but they had all used the title since "time immemorial", that is, before 3 September 1189. The holding of city status brings no special benefits other than the right to be called a city. All cities where a local government unit that holds that status is abolished have to be re-issued with letters patent reconfirming city status following local government reorganisation where that holder has been abolished.

The formal definition of a city has been disputed, in particular by inhabitants of towns that have been regarded as cities in the past but are not generally considered cities today. Additionally, although the Crown clearly has the right to bestow "official" city status, some have doubted the right of the Crown to define the word *city* in the UK. In informal usage, *city* can be used for large towns or conurbations that are not formally cities. The best-known example of this is London, which contains two cities (the City of London and the City of Westminster) but is not itself a city.

There are currently 69 officially designated cities in the UK, of which eleven have been created since 2000 in competitions to celebrate the new millennium and Queen Elizabeth II's Golden Jubilee in 2002 and Diamond Jubilee in 2012. The designation is highly sought after, with over 40 communities submitting bids at recent competitions. Stretford (pop. 37,500) is a town within the Trafford, in Greater Manchester, England. Lying on flat ground between the River Mersey and the Manchester Ship Canal, it is to the southwest of Manchester city centre. The Bridgewater Canal bisects the town.

Historic counties of England a part of Lancashire, during much of the 19th century Stretford was an agricultural village known locally as Porkhampton, a reference to the large number of pigs produced for the nearby Manchester market. It was also an extensive market gardening area, producing over of vegetables each week for sale in Manchester by 1845.

Stretford



DERBY

Derby is a city in the East Midlands of England. In the 2001 census the population of the borough was 233,700, whilst that of the Derby Urban Area was 229,407. Measured by Urban Area, Derby is the 18th largest settlement in England. The City has Roman, Saxon and Viking connections. The city recently celebrated its 2,000th year as a settlement. New research into the history and archaeology of Derby has provided evidence that the Vikings and Anglo-Saxons probably co-existed, occupying two areas of land surrounded by water. The Saxon Chronicles (c. 900) state that "Derby is divided by Water") During the Civil War of 1642-1646 the town was garrisoned by Parliamentary troops commanded by Sir John Gell, 1st Baronet, who was appointed Governor of Derby in 1643.

These troops took part in the defence of Nottingham.

Bonnie Prince Charlie made camp at Derby on 4 December 1745, whilst on his way south to seize the English Crown. The Prince called at The George Inn on Irongate, where the Duke of Devonshire had set up his headquarters, and demanded billets for his 9000 troops. He had received misleading information about an army coming to meet him south of Derby. Although he wished to continue with his quest, he was overruled by his fellow officers.

Statue of Bonnie Prince Charlie on Cathedral Green

BIRMINGHAM

A large population gives the citizens of a town the satisfaction of saying they live in a "big" city, but even having a small population can be a reason for being proud. For example, St. David's with about 1400 residents is the smallest town with city status in the UK and hence claims the title of the "UK's smallest city". The size of the population can also decide the ranking given to a city. The best example of this is the fact that both Birmingham and Manchester claim to be Britain's second city, but in population terms, Birmingham has the stronger case by having over twice the population of its rival.

Another source of pride is when individuals making up the population go on to become nationally and internationally famous and brings prestige to their home town.

Some are subsequently honoured by being given the freedom of their town or city for their achievements. Birmingham, Britain's second city, known as the city of a thousand trades, has long been recognised as one of the World's most important manufacturing and commercial centres.

The first record of Birmingham is as a small roman station on Icknield Street.

It became an industrial town in early times and is known to have supplied thousands of sword blades to the Parliamentary forces during the Civil War in the 16th-century.

In spite of the grinding povery associated with 19th-century industrial towns, the city developed and prospered. This new prosperity caused the creation of many fine new buildings. The Town Hall, built in 1834 is modelled on a classical roman temple. The City's Council House of 1879 is of grand Victorian proportions.

The Anglican Cathedral of St.Philip, dates from the 18th-century and the Roman Catholic Cathedral of St.Chad, designed by Augustus Pugin, was built around 1840.

Much effort too, has gone into the preservation of the City's great network of Canal's.

A network said to have more miles of waterways than Venice. These day's, gaily-coloured sailing and narrow boats cruise the waters, providing a stark contrast to the memory of Barges filled with coal that plied these canals in Victorian times.

The City has several Museums; the most noted is the City's Art Gallery which has a fine collection of pre-Raphaelite paintings. Birmingham Airport sees the arrival of visitors from the world over they come to this dynamic City for a variety of reasons for Birmingham continues to maintain its position as a World Class Business City.

It offers the visitor a wide cultural scene, diverse and lively mix of shopping attractions, night life, major international events and exhibitions and easy access to some very fine countryside. Places to visit – Birmingham Botanical Gardens where every turn brings something new and delightful, the City's beautiful new Symphony Hall home to the C.B.S.O. and the nearby National Exhibition Centre.

Birmingham's Royal Ballet, when at home, is always worth seeing and of course, the City has two fine Football Clubs, Aston Villa and Birmingham City. Whatever you are seeking, you will find much to do in this vibrant, cosmopolitan City that has flourished throughout the centuries to become the thriving and exciting metropolis of today.

James Watt, who lived in Birmingham (1775-1819) developed the steam engine.

He also invented the letter copying machine, which was the forerunner of the photocopier.

The light bulb rating "Watt", a standard throughout the world, is named after him. Place names in Birmingham include California, Hollywood and Broadway.

J R R Tolkien, author of "the Hobbit" and "Lord of the Rings", spent his childhood in the village of Sarehole, Birmingham. The tiny village is said to have been the model for the Shire, home of Bilbo Baggins in the book *The Hobbit*.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

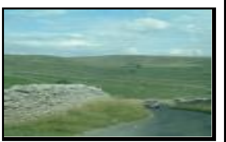
Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

ENGLISH TOWNS

	Alfriston, East Sussex Alfriston occupies a favoured position in the beautiful Cuckmere Gap and serves as a tourist village to which hoards of visitors flock to enjoy the many well preserved fine old buildings to be seen, one of the most important being the local church
	Allendale Town, Northumberland This picturesque Northumberland village enjoys a lovely location in the fine hill and dale countryside of the beautiful East Allen Valley.
	Allithwaite, Cumbria Allithwaite is a small village situated a couple of miles inland from the favoured resort of Grange-over-Sands. It is also within easy reach of Cartmel with its racecourse and old priory.
	Almondbury, West Yorkshire Almondbury is one of the oldest and prettiest of the villages dominating the edge of the Pennine moors...
	Alnmouth, Northumberland Alnmouth lies on a coastline famed for its outstanding natural beauty, thus one of its greatest pleasures is found in wandering the coastal paths enjoying uninterrupted sea and coastal views.
	Alresford, Hampshire Alresford is a market town in Hampshire, just north-east of the City of Winchester and south-west of the town of Alton, which it is linked to by the Mid Hants Watercress Railway.
	Alston, Cumbria At a height of over 1,000 feet in the far reaches of the Pennines, this is one of England's highest market towns. Alston is a lively bustling place of steeply rising narrow.
	Ashby de la Zouch, Leicestershire This town takes its name from the La Souche family, lords of the manor from about 1160. The Norman prefix distinguishes Ashby from other towns of similar name.
	Ashford in the Water, Derbyshire The village was a centre for candle making, noted for lead mining and made famous by the discovery of Ashford marble which was first quarried by Henry Watson in 1748.
	Ashleworth, Gloucestershire This is a lovely pastoral village set beside the west bank of the River Severn, in the middle of a typical rural Gloucestershire landscape.

	Ashwell, Hertfordshire Ashwell embodies some of the finest domestic architecture in England, here in this well preserved village, at a glance you get a pleasurable insight as to what England was like in the 16th and 17th-centuries.
	Askrigg, North Yorkshire In 1587, Queen Elizabeth II granted a charter to this lively little village and in the 20th-century Askrigg claimed its place in history as the setting for the T.V. series based on the James Herriot stories of a vet's life in the Yorkshire Dales.
	Aston Ingham, Herefordshire This is a serene pastoral village set in the rolling agricultural landscape of the valley of the River Wye.
	Athelhampton, Dorset Athelhampton lies close to the little River Piddle which almost entirely encircles Athelhampton House built in the 15th-c. by Sir William Martyn who was granted the lands and a license to build upon them by King Henry VII in the year 1483.
	Axmouth, Devon This quiet resort of colourwashed cottages sitting at the edge of the River Axe was once an important south Devon port.
	Aylesbury, Buckinghamshire Aylesbury is the county town of Buckinghamshire, taking over the mantle from the town of Buckingham during the 16th century. Aylesbury is a very busy vibrant town, situated at.
	Aylesham, Kent The village preserves its history, it has several noted buildings from when it was built & a strong community spirit still prevails. Of interest is the beautiful sculpture dedicated to the men who lived in Aylesham & spent their lives working in the mines.
	Aynho, Northamptonshire There is a pale beauty about Aynho that is enhanced only by the pale golden fruit that flourishes in these parts and caused this lovely place to become known as 'The Apricot Village'.
	Aysgarth, North Yorkshire The ground rises sharply as you head towards this high upland village which is dominated by what are renowned as the prettiest falls in Yorkshire. It is also famous for the landscapes.
	Altrincham, Greater Manchester First developed as a quiet hamlet on the edge of the sweeping Cheshire Plain, where life went quietly on.

	Alvingham, Lincolnshire This charming village is set alongside the old Louth Navigation Canal. It is noted for having the only church in England dedicated to Saxon St.Adlewold.
	Alwinton, Northumberland Alwinton occupies a lovely position in a hollow of the Cheviot Hills where the waters of the Alwin and the Coquet Rivers meet.
	Amberley, West Sussex Amberley is a pretty little village on the edge of the South Downs, near to the Cathedral town of Arundel.
	Ambleside, Cumbria Ambleside, meaning "Shieling" or summer pasture by the riverbank, lies next to the northern shore of Lake Windermere. A busy victorian town ideal as a base when visiting the Lake District.
	Amersham, Buckinghamshire Amersham is one of those towns where you immediately know that this is a place with a long history for around the broad High Street is a mixture of fine.
	Amesbury, Wiltshire Amesbury is a town near to stonehenge & is Wiltshire's most attractive little towns.
	Ampthill, Bedfordshire The lovely town of Ampthill lies sheltered by hills in the sandstone belt of Bedfordshire.
	Anderby Creek, Lincolnshire One of the joys of Anderby is its fine stretch of golden sand making it ideal for bathing and for youngsters wishing to try their hand at building sandcastles.
	Anstey, Leicestershire One of the most attractive features of Anstey is the famous 14th century five arched pack-horse bridge crossing the River Wreake.
	Appleby-in-Westmorland, Cumbria Appleby, is situated in the valley of the River Eden near to Hoff Beck, stunningly beautiful, it is an ideal centre for both walking and touring.
	Appledore, Devon Appledore is as enchanting as its name. It is a pretty place that shows a host of colourful fishermens cottages in the narrow streets beyond the quay.
	Appledore, Kent This picturesque village with its wealth of attractive architectural properties sits quietly on the edge of Romney Marsh.

	Armscote, Warwickshire Please submit your pictures of this wonderful Cotswold village for others to enjoy
	***Arncliffe, North Yorkshire*** Arncliffe is the largest of Littondales four villages and is situated on the lovely River Skirfare.
	Arnold, Nottinghamshire This is an attractive part of Nottingham, at its heart is the splendid church dedicated to St. Mary, a place of worship for over one thousand years.
	Arnside, Cumbria This pretty village has all the ingredients of an old style fishing village with a delightful mix-match of charming properties rising up from a beach of firm golden sand littered with colourful sailing boats.
	Ashbury, Oxfordshire The village of Ashbury is located in a lovely scenic area where the borders of south Oxfordshire meet with Wiltshire.

UNDERGROUND

LONDON

London has been a capital for nearly a thousand years, and many of its ancient buildings still stand. The most famous of these are the Tower of London (where the Crown Jewels are kept), Westminster Abbey and St. Paul's Cathedral, but most visitors want to see the Houses of Parliament, Buckingham Palace and the many magnificent museums. Once London was a small Roman town on the north bank of the Thames, but slowly it grew into one of the world's major cities with more than seven mln people. Fewer people live in the centre now, but the suburbs are still growing.

Places now in the heart of London, like Westminster, once stood in the middle of green fields. Many small villages, like Hampstead, Chelsea and Mayfair, became part of London, but they still keep some of their old atmosphere. Different areas of London seem like different cities. The West End is a rich man's world shops, offices and theatres.

The old port area is now called "Docklands". The great ships have gone, and the area is changing very fast. There are huge new office buildings of new flats and houses.

Other parts of London are changing too. Some of the poorer areas have become fashionable, and people with more money are moving into them.

A hundred years ago, the river was crowded with ships, leaving for Java and Japan, New Zealand and New York, but now people travel by air, and London's main airport, Heathrow, is one of the busiest in the world. Like all big cities, London has streets and concrete buildings, but it also has many big parks, full of trees, flowers and grass. Sit on the grass (you're allowed to!) in the middle of Hyde Park or Kensington Gardens and you will think that you are in the country, miles away.

Many people live outside the centre of London in the suburbs, and they travel to work in the shops and offices by train, bus or underground. The trains are full – and expensive – and the roads are crowded with cars, but every day a mln people make the journey.

Some people come from far out of London, even from the coast, and spend up to four hours travelling every day. Most people work from 9 to 5 p.m. From 8 until 10 every morning, and from 4.30 to 6.30 every evening, the trains are crowded with people, and after the morning "rush hour" the shoppers come. By day the whole London is busy. At night, the offices are quiet and empty, but the West End stays alive, because this is where Londoners come to enjoy themselves.

There are two opera houses here, several concert halls and many theatres, as well as cinemas, and in nearby Soho the pubs and restaurants and nightclubs are busy half the night. Many people think that London is all grey, but in fact red is London's favourite colour. The buses are red, the letterboxes are red and the mail vans are all bright, bright red. London is at its best when people are celebrating. Then the flags, the soldiers' uniforms, the cheering crowds and the carriages and horses all sparkle in the sunshine – if it's not raining, of course.

HISTORY OF LONDON

London began as a Roman settlement in A.D. 43 – where the City – London's financial district, stands today – and flourished as a market town for the next 350 years. The most visible legacy from this era is the straight roads that led out of Londinium, as it was then known and which form some of the capital's main arteries – Oxford St., Edware Rd, Kingsland Rd. At the Museum of London, you can also view part of the Roman wall. After the Romans left in A.D. 410, the town declined.

The Anglo-Saxons who settled in the region were farmers living in small rural communities.

But, by A.D. 800, London was a busy trade centre again. The town's strategic and commercial importance grew and it was fought over by Vikings and warring Saxon factions before falling into the hands of William the Conqueror in 1066.

Under his reign, the Tower of London was built to protect the city. During the next five centuries, London became a bustling medieval city of timber-framed buildings towering over narrow, winding streets, with gothic churches and cathedrals. It also became a city of slums, squalor and disease. The Black Death, halving the population of the city in 1348, and the Great Plague of 1665, claiming 100,000 lives, are only the most extreme examples of frequent epidemics that swept the city.

Under the reign of Elizabeth I (1558-1603), the arts flourished and Bankside became London's first theatreland; it was here that Shakespeare's Globe Theatre stood, and the Bard's plays were staged. The district was home to the low-life, who thriven in brothels and taverns. But these establishments were shut down after the defeat of the monarchy in the English Civil war (1648), which brought an era of puritanism. After the restoration of the monarchy, in 1660, the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden, was built, marking the beginning of the West End as an entertainment district.

Medieval London ceased to exist on 2 September 1666 when a fire which started in Pudding Lane destroyed three-quarters of the city. A new law required new structures to be stone, and the entire character of the City was changed. But there are a few ancient relics that survived the flames. It was the Guildhall, which was able to withstand the flames because it was partially in stone. Also protected by stone were the Tower Green Tudor houses, safely within the fortified walls of the Tower of London. The change in the character of the City can perhaps best be understood by a visit to St. Paul's Cathedral, built after the fire had destroyed the gothic cathedral that stood in its place.

In the 18th and 19th centuries, London mushroomed as a commercial centre; docks, bridges and canals were built and, in 1836, the first railway opened, forming the infrastructure that allowed England's industrial revolution to gather pace. Reacting against such progress, architects sought refuge in England's medieval past and many public buildings (the new Houses of Parliament) were done in gothic style.

By the start of the 20th century, London was a huge metropolis, but depression and wartime devastations took their toll. Development since then has seen the re-emergence of the South Bank as a centre for the arts and regeneration of the Covent Garden (once home to fruitsellers) into a shopping area with piazzas, street cafes and boutiques. But the former docks now form the focus for growth. Once again, London is changing shape, but visitors continue to come and many return. As Moore said: "Go where we may, rest was we would; eternal London haunts us still."

CHAPTER VIII. CULTURAL LIFE IN THE UK
UNIT I. MUSICAL ACTIVITIES & THEATRE & CINEMA

CULTURE OF THE UK

The UK's culture is influenced by its history as a developed state, a liberal democracy and a great power; its predominantly Christian religious life; and its composition of four countries – England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland – each of which has distinct customs cultures and symbolism. The wider culture of Europe has influenced British culture, Humanism Protestantism and representative democracy developed from broader Western culture.

British literature, music, cinema, art, theatre, comedy, media, television, philosophy architecture and education are important aspects of British culture. The UK is prominent in science and technology, producing world-leading scientists (Isaac Newton & Charles Darwin) and inventions.

Sport is an important part of British culture; numerous sports originated in the country, including football. The UK has been described as a "cultural superpower", and London has been described as a world cultural capital. A global opinion poll for the BBC saw the UK ranked the third most positively viewed nation in the world (behind Germany and Canada) in 2013 and 2014.

The Industrial Revolution, which started in the UK, had a profound effect on the family socio-economic and cultural conditions of the world. As a result of the British Empire, significant British influence can be observed in the language, law, culture and institutions of a geographically wide assortment of countries, including Australia, Canada, India, the Republic of Ireland, New Zealand, Nigeria, Pakistan, South Africa, Sri Lanka, the USA and English speaking Caribbean nations.

These states are sometimes collectively known as the Anglosphere, and are among Britain's closest allies. In turn the empire also influenced British culture, particularly British cuisine.

The cultures of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are diverse and have varying degrees of overlap and distinctiveness.

Throughout its history, the UK has been a major producer and source of musical creation, drawing its artistic basis from the history of the UK, from church music, Western culture and the ancient and traditional folk music and instrumentation of England, Scotland Northern Ireland and Wales.

In parts the 20th century, influences from the music of the USA became dominant in popular music. Following this was the explosion of the British Invasion, while subsequent notable movements in British music include the new wave of British heavy metal and Britpop. The UK has one of the world's largest music industries today, with many British musicians having influenced modern music.

Early Music

Music in the British Isles, from the earliest recorded times until the Baroque and the rise of recognisably modern classical music, was a diverse and rich culture, including sacred and secular music and ranging from the popular to the elite.

Each of the major nations of England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales retained unique forms of music and of instrumentation, but British music was highly influenced by continental developments, while British composers made an important contribution to many of the major movements in early music in Europe, including the polyphony of the Ars Nova and laid some of the foundations of later national and international classical music. Musicians from the British Isles also developed some distinctive forms of music, including Celtic chant, the Contenance Angloise, the rota, polyphonic votive antiphons and the carol in the medieval era.

English Miniature from a manuscript of the *Roman de la Rose* Luca Marenzio, a highly influential composer of madrigals in the last two decades of the 16th century

Church music and religious music were profoundly affected by the Protestant Reformation, which affected Britain from the 16th century, curtailed events associated with British music and forced the development of distinctive national music, worship and belief.

English madrigals, lute ayres and masques in the Renaissance era led particularly to English language opera developed in the early Baroque period of the later seventeenth century.

In contrast, court music of the kingdoms of England, Scotland and Ireland, although having unique elements remained much more integrated into wider European culture.

Baroque Music

The Baroque era in music, between the early music of the Medieval and Renaissance periods and the development of fully fledged and formalised orchestral classical music in the second half of the eighteenth century, was characterised by more elaborate musical ornamentation, changes in musical notation, new instrumental playing techniques and the rise of new genres such as opera.

Although the term Baroque is conventionally used for European music from about 1600, its full effects were not felt in Britain until after 1660, delayed by native trends and developments in music, religious and cultural differences from many European countries and the disruption to court music caused by the Wars of the Three Kingdoms and Interregnum Under the restored Stuart monarchy the court became once again a centre of musical patronage, but royal interest in music tended to be less significant as the seventeenth century progressed, to be revived again under the House of Hanover.

British chamber and orchestral music drew inspiration from continental Europe as it developed into modern classical music. The Baroque era in British music can be seen as one of an interaction of national and international trends, sometimes absorbing continental fashions and practices and sometimes attempting, as in the creation of ballad opera, to produce an indigenous tradition.

However, arguably the most significant British composer of the era, George Frideric Handel, was a naturalised German, who helped integrate British and continental music and define the future of the classical music of the UK that would be officially formed in 1801.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Kind of music	When	Where	Score
1.				

BRTISH CLASSICAL MUSIC

Musical composition, performance & training in the UK inherited European classical traditions of the eighteenth century (Handel) and saw a great expansion during the 19th century. Romantic nationalism encouraged clear national identities and sensibilities within the countries of the UK towards the end of the 19th century, producing many composers and musicians of note and drawing on the folk tradition. These traditions, including the cultural strands drawn from the UK's constituent nations and provinces, continued to evolve in distinctive ways through the work of such composers as Arthur Sullivan, Gustav Holst, Edward Elgar, Hubert Parry, Ralph Vaughan William and Benjamin britten.

English Folk Music

Each of the four countries of the UK has its own diverse and distinctive folk music forms.

Folk music flourished until the era of industrialisation when it began to be replaced by new forms of popular music, including music hall and brass bands. Realisation of this led to three folk revivals, one in the late-19th century, one in the mid-20th century and one at the start of the 21st century which keeps folk music as an important sub-culture within society.

England has a long and diverse history of folk music dating back at least to the medieval period and including many forms of music, song and dance. Through three periods of revival from the late nineteenth century much of the tradition has been preserved and continues to be practiced. It led to the creation of a number of fusions with other forms of music that produced subgenres such as British folk rock, folk punkand folk metal and continues to thrive nationally and in regional scenes, particularly in areas such as Northumbria and Cornwall.

Northern Irish Music

Northern Ireland, has vibrant folk traditions. The popularity of traditional instruments such as fiddles has remained throughout the centuries even as analogues in GB died out. Perhaps the most famous modern musician from Northern Ireland influenced by folk tradition is Van Morrison.

Scottish Folk Music

Scottish folk music includes many kinds of songs, including ballads and laments, sung by a single singer with accompaniment by bagpipes, fiddles or harps. Traditional dances include walzes, reels, strathspeys and jigs. Alongside the other areas of the UK, Scotland underwent a roots revival in the 1960s. Cathy-Ann McPhee and Jeannie Robertson were the heroes of this revival, which inspired some revolutions in band formats by groups like The Clutha, The Whistlebinkies, The Boys of the Lough and the Incredible String Band.

Welsh Folk Music

Wales is a Celtic country that features folk music played at communal dances and music festivals. Welsh music includes male voice choirs and songs accompanied by a harp.

Having long been subordinate to English culture, Welsh musicians in the late 20th century had to reconstruct traditional music when a roots revival began.

This revival began in the late 1970s and achieved some mainstream success in the UK in the 80s with performers like Robin Huw Bowen, Moniars and Gwerinos.

While the British national anthem "God Save the Queen" and other patriotic songs such as "Rule, Britannia!" represent the UK, each of the four individual countries of the UK also has its own patriotic hymns. Edward Elgar's "Land of Hope and Glory", and William Blake's poem *And did those feet in ancient time* set to Hubert Parry's "Jerusalem", are among England's most patriotic hymns.

Scottish patriotic songs include "Flower of Scotland", "Scotland the Brave", "Scots Wha Hae" and "Highland Cathedral"; patriotic Welsh hymns include "Guide me, O Thou Great Redeemer" by William Williams Pantycelyn, and "Land of My Fathers"; the latter is the national anthem of Wales.

The patriotic Northern Irish ballad *Danny Boy* is set to the tune "Londonderry Air".

The traditional marching song "The British Grenadiers" is often performed by British Army bands, and is played at the Trooping the Colour ceremony. Written by British Army bandmaster F. J. Ricketts, the "Colonel Bogey March" is often whistled, becoming part of British way of life during World War II. George Frideric Handelcomposed *Zadok the Priest* in 1727 for the coronation of George II: it has been performed during the Sovereign's anointing at every subsequent British coronation. Jeremiah Clarke's "TrumpetVoluntary" is popular for wedding music, and has featured in royal weddings.

Other notable British composers have made major contributions to British music.

Living composers include Brian Eno (pioneer of "ambient music" which emerged in the early 1970s in the UK), Clint Mansell, Karl Jenkins, Harry Gregson Williams, Craig Armstrong and Michael Nyman. The traditional folk music of England has contributed to several genres, such as sea shanties, jigs, hornpipes and dance music. It has its own distinct variations and regional peculiarities.

Wynkyn de Worde's printed ballads of Robin Hood from the 16th century are an important artefact, asare John Playford's *The Dancing Master* and Robert Harley's *Roxburghe Ballards collections.*

Some of the best known songs are "Greensleeves", "Scarborough Fair" and "Over the Hills and Far Away". Accompanied with music, Morris dancing is an English folk dance that first appeared in the 1440s. The bagpipes have long been a national symbol of Scotland, and the Great Highland Bagpipe is widely recognised. Scottish folk songs include "The Bonnie Banks o' Loch Lomond", "Will Ye Go, Lassie, Go?" while "Auld Lang Syne" is sung throughout the English-speaking world to celebrate the start of the New Year, especially at Hogmanay in Scotland. A depiction of a harp was carved out by the Picts (medieval Celts) on the Dupplin Cross, Scotland, circa 800 A.D.

The Child Ballads, a collection of *English and Scottish Popular Ballads*, are ballads of the British Isles from the later medieval period until the 19th century. Both Northern English and Southern Scots shared in the identified tradition of Border ballads, such as the cross-border narrative in "The Ballad of Chevy Chase" from 1540. Many ballads were written and sold as single sheet broadsides.

British folk groups, such as Fairport Convention, have drawn heavily from these ballads.
In the mid-16th century nursery rhymes begin to be recorded in English plays, and the most popular date from the 17th and 18th centuries. The first English collections, *Tommy Thumb's Song Book* and a sequel, *Tommy Thumb's Pretty Song Book*, were published before 1744. John Newbery's compilation of English rhymes, *Mother Goose's Melody, or, Sonnets for the Cradle* (London, c. 1765), is the first record we have of many classic rhymes, still in use today. The 19th-century historian James Orchard Halliwell was a notable collector of English nursery rhymes. Many of these rhymes are based on figures in British history, "Pussy Cat Pussy Cat" (1805) is about going to see the Queen. The 1730 rhyme "As I was going to St. Ives" (southern English town) is in the form of a riddle.

Christmas carols in English first appear in a 1426 work by John Awdlay, a Shropshire chaplain who lists 25 "caroles of Cristemas", probably sung by groups of "wassailers", who went from house to house. A Festival of Nine Lessons and Carols held in King's College Chapel, Cambridge was introduced in 1918 and first broadcast on the BBC in 1928. The service is broadcast around the world. The music of Christmas has always been a combination of sacred and secular, and every year in the UK there is highly publicised competition to be the Christmas number one single, which has led to the production of music which provides the mainstay of festive playlists. Responding to a BBC report on the 1984 famine in Ethiopia, Bob Geldof created the charity supergroup Band Aid who recorded "Do They Know It's Christmas?". It has been Christmas number one three times.

The UK has several major orchestras, including the BBC Symphony Orchestra, the Royal Philharmonic Orchestra, the Philharmonia, the London Symphony Orchestra and the London Philharmonic Orchestra. The BBC Philharmonic's recent work includes recording "First Steps", the BBC theme for the 2012 London Olympics. London is one of the world's major centres for classical music: it has several important concert halls and is home to the Royal Opera House, one of the world's leading opera houses. British traditional music has also been very influential abroad.

The Brit Awards, the BPI's annual pop music awards, take place at the O_2 Arena in London every February. The Ivor Novello Awards for songwriting and composing are presented annually by the British Academy of Songwriters, Composers and Authors. Large outdoor music festivals and concerts in the summer are popular, such as Glastonbury, V Festival, Summertime Ball, T in the Park, Download Festival and the Reading and Leeds Festivals.The UK was one of the two main countries in the creation and development of many genres of popular music, including

- rock music: The Beatles, The Rolling Stones, The Who, The Kinks;
- hard rock: Led Zeppelin, Cream, Def Leppard, Whitesnake;
- prog rock: Pink Floyd, Genesis, Yes, King Crimson;
- glam rock: David Bowie, Queen, Elton John, T. Rex;
- blues rock: The Yardbirds, The Animals, Eric Clapton, Dire Straits;
- heavy metal: Black Sabbath, Deep Purple, Iron Maiden, Motörhead, Judas Priest;
- punk rock: Sex Pistols, The Clash, Billy Idol;
- new wave: The Police, Elvis Costello, Culture Club, Duran Duran;
- goth rock: The Cure, Siouxsie and the Banshees, The Cult;
- art rock: The Moody Blues, Emerson, Lake and Palmer, Procol Harum, Peter Gabriel, Bryan Ferry, Kate Bush; folk rock: Van Morrison, Cat Stevens, Donovan, Jethro Tull;
- soft rock: The Hollies; blue-eyed soul: Dusty Springfield, Tom Jones, Steve Winwood;
- disco: Bee Gees;
- synth pop: Depeche Mode, Eurythmics, Pet Shop Boys, Gary Numan, Erasure;
- reggae: UB40;
- ska: Madness;
- shock rock: Arthur Brown;
- pop rock: Rod Stewart, Phil Collins, Sting, Joe Cocker, Robert Palmer, Bonnie Tyler, Tears for Fears, Simple Minds;
- alternative rock: The Smiths, New Order, Stone Roses, Radiohead, Coldplay;
- symphonic rock: ELO, Muse; Britpop: Oasis, Blur, Pulp, The Verve;
- soul: Sade, Soul II Soul, Simply Red, Amy Winehouse, Adele.

The UK has pioneered various forms of electronic dance music including dubstep, acid house, UK garage, drum and bass and trip hop. At the 1997 Brit Awards, Spice Girls singer Geri Halliwell wore the iconic red, white and blue Union Jack mini-dress, which became an enduring image of the Cool Britannia era. In 2009, British artists topped the decade end ranking, with "Chasing Cars" by Snow Patrol announced as the most widely played song of the decade in the UK, and *Back to Bedlam* by James Blunt the best selling album of the 2000s in the UK.

In the sense of commercial music enjoyed by the people, British popular music can be seen to originate in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries with the arrival of the broadside ballad, which were sold cheaply and in great numbers until the 19th century. Further technological, economic and social changes led to new forms of music in the nineteenth century, including the brass band, which produced a popular and communal form of classical music. Similarly, the music hall sprang up to cater for the entertainment of new urban societies, adapting existing forms of music to produce popular songs and acts. In the 1930s the influence of American Jazz led to the creation of British dance bands, who provided a social and popular music that began to dominate social occasions and the radio airwaves. Forms of popular music, including folk music, jazz, rapping/hip hop, pop and rock music, have particularly flourished in Britain since the twentieth century. Britain has influenced popular music disproportionately to its size, due to its linguistic and cultural links with many countries, particularly the USA and many of its former colonies like Australia, South Africa, and Canada.

Its capacity for invention, innovation and fusion has led to the development of, or participation in, many of the major trends in popular music.

In the early-20th century, influences from the USA became most dominant in popular music, with young performers producing their own versions of American music, including rock n' roll from the late 1950s and developing a parallel music scene. This is particularly true since the early 1960s when the British Invasion, led by The Beatles, helped to secure British performers a major place in development of pop and rock music. Since then, rock music and popular music contributed to a British-American collaboration, with trans-Atlantic genres being exchanged and exported to one another, where they tended to be adapted and turned into new movements, only to be exported back again.

Genres originating in or radically developed by British musicians include blues rock, heavy metal, progressive rock, ska, hard rock, punk rock, Bhangra, British folk rock, folk punk, acid jazz, trip hop, shoegaze, drum and bass, goth rock, grime, Britpop, Industrial and dubstep.

Annie –musical

Beetles group

Rolling Stones group

HISTORY OF BRITISH THEATRE

Theatre of UK plays an important part in British culture, and the countries that constitute the UK have had a vibrant tradition of theatre since the Renaissance with roots doing back to the Roman occupation. Theatre was introduced from Europe to what is now the UK by the Romans and auditoriums were constructed across the country for this purpose (an example has been excavated at Verulamium).

By the medieval period theatre had developed with the mummers' plays, a form of early street theatre associated with the Morris dance, concentrating on themes such as Saint George and the Dragon and Robin Hood. These were folk tales re-telling old stories, and the actors travelled from town to town performing these for their audiences in return for money and hospitality.

The medieval mystery plays and morality plays, which dealt with Christian themes, were performed at religious festivals. The most important work of literature surviving from the Middle Cornish period is *An Ordinale Kernewek* ("The Cornish Ordinalia"), a 9000-line religious drama composed around the year 1400. The longest single surviving work of Cornish literature is *Bywnans Meriasek* (The Life of Meriasek), a play dated 1504, but probably copied from an earlier manuscript.

There are four complete or nearly complete extant English biblical collections of plays from the late medieval period; although these collections are sometimes referred to as "cycles," it is now believed that this term may attribute to these collections more coherence than they in fact possess.

The most complete is the *York cycle* of 48 pageants. They were performed in the city of York, from the middle of the fourteenth century until 1569. There are also the *Towneley plays* of thirty-two pageants, once thought to have been a true "cycle" of plays and most likely performed around the Feast of Corpus Christi probably in the town of Wakefield, England during the late Middle Ages until 1576.

The *Ludus Coventriae* (N Town plays" or *Hegge cycle*), now generally agreed to be a redacted compilation of at least three older, unrelated plays, and the *Chester cycle* of 24 pageants, now generally agreed to be an Elizabethan reconstruction of older medieval traditions.

These biblical plays differ widely in content. Most contain episodes such as the *Fall of Lucifer*, the *Creation and Fall of Man*, *Cain and Abel*, *Noah and the Flood*, *Abraham and Isaac*, the *Nativity*, the *Raising of Lazarus*, the *Passion*, and the *Resurrection*.

Other pageants included the story of *Moses*, the *Procession of the Prophets*, *Christ's Baptism*, the *Temptation in the Wilderness*, and the *Assumption and Coronation of the Virgin*. In given cycles, the plays came to be sponsored by the newly emerging Medieval craft guilds.

Having grown out of the religiously based mystery plays of the Middle Ages, the morality play is a genre of Medieval and early Tudor theatrical entertainment, which represented a shift towards a more secular base for European theatre. In their own time, these plays were known as "interludes", a broader term given to dramas with or without a moral theme.

Morality plays are a type of allegory, in which the protagonist is met by personifications of various moral attributes who try to prompt him to choose a Godly life over one of evil. The plays were most popular in Europe during the 15th and 16th centuries.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 3. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

RENAISSANCE THEATRE: 1500-1660

The reign of Elizabeth I in the late 16th and early 17th century saw a flowering of the drama and all the arts. Perhaps the most famous playwright in the world, William Shakespeare, wrote around 40 plays that are still performed in theatres across the world to this day. They include tragedies, such as *Hamlet* (1603), *Othello* (1604), *King Lear* (1605); comedies, such as *A Midsummer Night's Dream* (1594-96) and *Twelfth Night* (1602); and history plays, such as *Henry IV*.

The Elizabethan age is sometimes nicknamed "the age of Shakespeare" for the amount of influence he held over the era. Other important Elizabethan and 17th-century playwrights include Ben Jonson, Christopher Marlowe, and John Webster.

The English playwrights were intrigued by Italian model: a conspicuous community of Italian actors had settled in London. The linguist and lexicographer John Florio (1553-1625), whose father was Italian, was a royal language tutor at the Court of James I, and a possible friend and influence on William Shakespeare, had brought much of the Italian language and culture to England.

The earliest Elizabethan plays includes *Gorboduc* (1561) by Sackville and Norton and Thomas Kyd's (1558-94) revenge tragedy *The Spanish Tragedy* (1592). *The Spanish Tragedy, or Hieronimo is Mad Again* is an Elizabethan tragedy written by Thomas Kyd between 1582 and 1592. Highly popular and influential in its time, *The Spanish Tragedy* established a new genre in English literature theatre, the revenge play or revenge tragedy. Its plot contains several violent murders and includes as one of its characters a personification of Revenge. *The Spanish Tragedy* was often referred to, or parodied, in works written by other Elizabethan playwrights, including William Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, and Christopher Marlowe. Many elements of *The Spanish Tragedy,* such as the play-within-a-play used to trap a murderer and a ghost intent on vengeance, appear in Shakespeare's *Hamlet.*

Thomas Kyd is frequently proposed as the author of the hypothetical *Ur-Hamlet* that may have been one of Shakespeare's primary sources for *Hamlet*.

George Chapman (1559-1634) was a successful playwright who produced comedies (his collaboration on *Eastward Hoe* led to his brief imprisonment in 1605 as it offended the King with its anti-Scottish sentiment), tragedies (most notably *Bussy D'Ambois*) and court masques (*The Memorable Masque of the Middle Temple and Lincoln's Inn*).

David Lyndsay's *Ane Pleasant Satyre of the Thrie Estaitis* (1552), is a surviving example of a Scots dramatic tradition in the period that has otherwise largely been lost. James Wedderburn is recorded as having written anti-Catholic tragedies and comedies in Scots around 1540 before being forced to flee into exile. Although the propaganda value of drama in the Scottish Reformation was important, the Kirk hardened its attitude to such public entertainments.

In 1599 James VI had to intervene to overturn a prohibition on attending performances by a visiting theatre troupe from England. Scottish drama did not succeed in becoming a popular artform in the face of religious opposition and the absence of King and court after 1603.

As with drama in England, only a small proportion of plays written and performed were actually published, and the smaller production in Scotland meant that a much less significant record of Scottish drama remains to us. The ribald verse play in Scots, *Philotus*, is known from an anonymous edition published in London in 1603.

Drama in Wales as a literary tradition dates to morality plays from north-east Wales in the second half of the 15th century. The development of Renaissance theatre in England did not have great influence in Wales as the gentry found different forms of artistic patronage.

One surviving example of Welsh literary drama is *Troelus a Chresyd*, an anonymous adaptation from poems by Henrysoun and Chaucer dating to around 1600. With no urban centres to compare to England to support regular stages, morality plays and interludes continued to circulate in inn-yard theatresand fairs, supplemented by visiting troupes performing English repertoire.

RESTORATION THEATRE: 1660-1710

During the Interregnum 1642-1660, English theatres were kept closed by the Puritans for religious and ideological reasons. When the London theatres opened again with the Restoration of the monarchy in 1660, they flourished under the personal interest and support of Charles II(reigned 1660-1685). Wide and socially mixed audiences were attracted by topical writing and by the introduction of the first professional actresses (in Shakespeare's time, all female roles had been played by boys).

New genres of the Restoration were heroic drama, pathetic drama, and Restoration comedy.

The Restoration plays that have best retained the interest of producers and audiences today are the comedies, such as William Wycherley's *The Country Wife* (1676), *The Rover* (1677) by the first professional woman playwright, Aphra Behn, and John Vanbrugh's *The Relapse* (1696).

Restoration comedy is famous or notorious for its sexual explicitness, a quality encouraged by Charles II personally and by the rakish aristocratic ethos of his court.

Although documented history of Irish theatre began at least as early as 1601, the earliest Irish dramatists of note were: William Congreve (1670–1729), author of *The Way of the World* (1700); late Restoration playwright, George Farquhar (?1677–1707), *The Recruiting Officer* (1706); as well as two of the most successful playwrights on the London stage in the 18th century, Oliver Goldsmith (?1730-74), *She Stoops to Conquer* (1773) and Richard Brinsley Sheridan (1751-1816), *The School for Scandal* (1777). Anglo-Irish drama in the 18th century also includes Charles Macklin(?1699-1797), and Arthur Murphy (1727-1805). Thomas Sydserf was behind the establishment in Edinburgh of the first regular theatre in Scotland, and his 1667 play *Tarugo's Wiles: or, The Coffee-House*, based on a Spanish play, was produced in London to amazement that a Scot could write such excellent English.

Scottish poet John Ogilby, who was the first Irish Master of the Revels, had established the Werburgh Street Theatre, the first theatre in Ireland, in the 1630s. It was closed by the Puritans in 1641.

The Restoration of the monarchy in Ireland enabled Ogilby to resume his position as Master of the Revels and open the first Theatre Royal in Dublin in 1662 in Smock Alley.

In 1662 Katherine Philips went to Dublin where she completed a translation of Pierre Corneille's *Pompée*, produced with great success in 1663 in the Smock Alley Theatre, and printed in the same year both in Dublin and London. Aphra Behn (one of the women writers dubbed "The fair triumvirate of wit") was a prolific dramatist and one of the first English professional female writers. Her greatest dramatic success was *The Rover* (1677).

Theatre began to spread from the UK to the expanding British Empire. Farquhar's *The Recruiting Officer* was the first play to be staged in New York City on December 6, 1732. It was also the first play to be staged in the Colony of New South Wales, which is now Australia.

The age of Augustan drama was brought to an end by the censorship established by the Licensing Act 1737. After 1737, authors with strong political or philosophical points to make would no longer turn to the stage as their first hope of making a living, and novels began to have dramatic structures involving only normal human beings, as the stage was closed off for serious authors. Prior to the Licensing Act 1737, theatre was the first choice for most wits. After it, the novel was.

From its formation in 1707, the UK has had a vibrant tradition of theatre, much of it inherited from England and Scotland. The West End is the main theatre district in the UK.

The West End's Theatre Royal in Covent Garden in the City of Westminster dates back to the mid-17th century, making it the oldest London theatre. Opened in 1768, the Theatre Royal at the Bristol Old Vic is the oldest continually-operating theatre in the English speaking world.

In the 18th century, the highbrow and provocative Restoration comedy lost favour, to be replaced by sentimental comedy, domestic tragedy such as George Lillo's The London Merchant (1731), and by an overwhelming interest in Italian opera. Popular entertainment became more important in this period than ever before, with fair-booth burlesque and mixed forms that are the ancestors of the English music hall.

ROMANTISM: 1738-1896

In the 18th century, the highbrow & provocative Restoration comedy lost favour, to be replaced by sentimental comedy, domestic Bourgeois tragedy such as George Lillo's The London Merchant (1731), and by an overwhelming interest in Italian opera. Popular entertainment became more important in this period than ever before, with fair-booth burlesque and mixed forms that are the ancestors of the English music hall. These forms flourished at the expense of legitimate English drama, which went into a long period of decline. By the early 19th century it was no longer represented by stage plays at all, but by the closet drama, plays written to be privately read in a "closet" (a small domestic room).

Percy Bysshe Shelley and Lord Byron were the most important literary dramatists of their time (although Shelley's plays were not performed until later in the century). Shakespeare was enormously popular, and began to be performed with texts closer to the original, as the drastic rewriting of 17th and 18th century performing versions for the theatre (as opposed to his plays in book form, which were also widely read) was gradually removed over the first half of the century. Melodramas, light comedies, operas, Shakespeare and classic English drama, pantomimes, translations of French farces and, from the 1860s, French operettas, continued to be popular, together with Victorian burlesque.

Victorian Era: 1837-1901

In 1847, a critic using the pseudonym *Dramaticus* published a pamphlet describing the parlous state of British theatre. Production of serious plays was restricted to the patent theatres, and new plays were subjected to censorship by the Lord Chamberlain's Office. At the same time, there was a burgeoning theatre sector featuring a diet of low melodrama and musical burlesque; but critics described British theatre as driven by commercialism and a 'star' system. Kotzebue's plays were translated into English and Thomas Holcroft's *A Tale of Mystery* was the first of many English melodramas.

Pierce Egan, Douglas William Jerrold, Edward Fitzball, James Roland MacLaren and John Baldwin Buckstone initiated a trend towards more contemporary and rural stories in preference to the usual historical or fantastical melodramas. James Sheridan Knowles and Edward Bulwer-Lytton established a "gentlemanly" drama that began to re-establish the former prestige of the theatre with the aristocracy.

For much of the first half of the 19th century, drama in London and provincial theatres was restricted by a licensing system to the Patent theatre companies, and all other theatres could perform only musical entertainments (magistrates had powers to license occasional dramatic performances).

By the early 19th century, music hall entertainments had become popular, and provided a loophole in the restrictions on non-patent theatres in the genre of melodrama which did not contravene the Patent Acts, as it was accompanied by music.

The passing of the Theatres Act 1843 removed the monopoly on drama held by the Patent theatres, enabling local authorities to license theatres as they saw fit; restricted the Lord Chamberlain's powers to censor new plays. The 1843 Act did not apply to Ireland where the power of the Lord Lieutenantto license patent theatres enabled control of stage performance analogous to that exercised by the Lord Chamberlain in Great Britain.

James Planché was a prolific playwright. He revolutionised stage productions of Shakespeare and the classics by introducing the use of historically appropriate costume design, working with antiquarians to establish what was known about period dress.

Dion Boucicault (1820-90) made the latest scientific inventions important elements in his plots and exerted considerable influence on theatrical production. His first big success, *London Assurance* (1841) was a comedy in the style of Sheridan, but he wrote in various styles, including melodrama.

T. W. Robertson wrote popular domestic comedies and introduced a more naturalistic style of acting and stagecraft to the British stage in the 1860s. These forms flourished at the expense of other forms of English drama, which went into a long period of decline.

By the early 19th century it was no longer represented by stage plays at all, but by the closet drama, plays written to be privately read in a "closet" (a small domestic room).

In 1847, a critic using the pseudonym "Dramaticus" published a pamphlet describing the parlous state of British theatre. Production of serious plays was restricted to the patent theatres, and new plays were subject to censorship by the Lord Chamberlain's Office. At the same time, there was a burgeoning theatre sector featuring a diet of low melodrama and musical burlesque; but critics described British theatre as driven by commercialism and a "star" system.

A change came in the late 19th century with the plays on the London stage by the Irishmen George Bernard Shaw and Oscar Wilde, who influenced domestic English drama and revitalised it.

The Shakespeare Memorial Theatre was opened in Shakespeare's birthplace Stratford upon Avon in 1879; and Herbert Beerbohm Tree founded an Academy of Dramatic Art at Her Majesty's Theatre in 1904. Producer Richard D'Oyly Carte brought together librettist W. S. Gilbert and composer Arthur Sullivan, nurtured their collaboration, and had their first success with *Trial by Jury*.

Among Gilbert and Sullivan's best known comic operas are *H.M.S. Pinafore*, *The Pirates of Penzance* and *The Mikado*. Carte built the West End's Savoy Theatre in 1881 to present their joint works, and through the inventor of electric light Sir Joseph Swan, the Savoy was the first theatre, and the first public building in the world, to be lit entirely by electricity.

In 1895, Lyceum Theatre stage actor Henry Irving became the first actor to be awarded a knighthood.

The performing arts theatre Sadler's Wells, under Lilian Baylis, nurtured talent that led to the development of an opera company, which became the English National Opera (ENO); a theatre company, which evolved into the National Theatre; a ballet company, which eventually became the English Royal Ballet. Making his professional West End debut at the Garrick Theatre in 1911, flamboyant playwright, composer and actor Noël Coward had a career spanning over 50 years, in which he wrote many comic plays, over a dozen musical theatre works. Laurence Olivier, Ralph Richardson and John Gielgud dominated British theatre of the mid-20th century.

A change came in the late 19th century with the plays on the London stage by the Irishmen George Bernard Shaw and Oscar Wilde and the Norwegian Henrik Ibsen, all of whom influenced domestic English drama and vitalised it again. The Shakespeare Memorial Theatre was opened in Shakespeare's birthplace Stratford upon Avon in 1879; and Herbert Beerbohm Tree founded an Academy of Dramatic Art at Her Majesty's Theatre in 1904.

Carte built the Savoy Theatre in 1881 to present their joint works, and through the inventor of electric light Sir Joseph Swan, the Savoy was the first theatre, and the first public building in the world, to be lit entirely by electricity. The success of Gilbert and Sullivan greatly expanded the audience for musical theatre. This, together with much improved street lighting and transportation in London led to a late Victorian and Edwardian theatre building boom in the West End.

At the end of the century, Edwardian musical comedy came to dominate the musical stage.

In the 1920s and later Noël Coward (1899-1973) achieved enduring success as a playwright, publishing more than 50 plays from his teens onwards. Many of his works, such as *Hay Fever* (1925), *Private Lives* (1930), *Design for Living* (1932), *Present Laughter* (1942) and *Blithe Spirit*(1941), have remained in the regular theatre repertoire. In the 1930s W. H. Auden and Christopher Isherwood co-authored verse dramas, of which The Ascent of F6 (1936) is the most notable, that owed much to Bertolt Brecht.

T. S. Eliot had begun this attempt to revive poetic drama with *Sweeney Agonistes* in 1932, and this was followed by *The Rock* (1934), *Murder in the Cathedral* (1935) and *Family Reunion* (1939). There were three further plays after the war. The artistic credentials of the Fringe were established by the creators of the Traverse Theatre, John Calder, Jim Haynes and Richard Demarco in 1963. Sadler's Wells, under Lilian Baylis, nurtured talent that led to the development of an opera company, which became the English National Opera(ENO), a theatre company, which evolved into the National Theatre, and a ballet company, which eventually became the English Royal Ballet.

The Royal Shakespeare Company operates out of Stratford-upon-Avon, producing mainly but not exclusively Shakespeare's plays. The RSC was formally established on 20 March 1961 with the royal announcement that the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre would henceforth be known as the Royal Shakespeare Theatre and the company as the Royal Shakespeare Company.

In 1962 the RSC established the Aldwych Theatre as its London base for productions transferred from Stratford to London, its stage redesigned to match the RST's apron stage.

In 1982, the company took up London residence in both the Barbican Theatre and The Pit studio space in the Barbican Centre under the auspices of the City of London. The RSC was closely involved in the design of these two venues. Since 2002 the RSC has had no regular London home, concentrating its work in Stratford at the Swan Theatre and the redeveloped Royal Shakespeare Theatre (re-opened in 2010).

An important cultural movement in the British theatre that developed in the late 1950s and early 1960s was Kitchen sink realism (or *kitchen sink drama*), art (the term itself derives from an expressionist painting by John Bratby), novels, film, and television plays. The term angry young men was often applied members of this artistic movement. It used a style of social realism which depicts the domestic lives of the working class, to explore social issues and political issues. The drawing room plays of the post war period, typical of dramatists like Terence Rattigan and Noël Coward were challenged in the 1950s by these Angry Young Men, in plays like John Osborne's *Look Back in Anger* (1956). Arnold Wesker and Nell Dunn brought social concerns to the stage.

Again in the 1950s, the absurdist play *Waiting for Godot* (1955) (originally *En attendant Godot*, 1952), by the Paris-based Irish expatriate Samuel Beckett profoundly affected British drama.

The Theatre of the Absurd influenced Harold Pinter (1930-2008), (The Birthday Party, 1958), whose works are often characterised by menace or claustrophobia. Beckett influenced Tom Stoppard (1937-) (*Rosencrantz and Guildenstern are Dead*,1966). Stoppard's works are notable for their high-spirited wit and the great range of intellectual issues which he tackles in different plays. Both Pinter and Stoppard continued to have new plays produced into the 1990s.

The Chichester Festival Theatre was Britain's first modern thrust stage theatre. It was inspired by the Festival Theatre of the Stratford Shakespeare Festival launched by Tyrone Guthrie in the Canadian city of Stratford, Ontario. The inaugural Artistic Director of the Chichester Festival was Sir Laurence Olivier, and it was at Chichester that the first National Theatre company was formed. Chichester's productions would transfer to the National Theatre's base at the Old Vic in London.

The Theatres Act 1968 abolished the system of censorship of the stage that had existed in Great Britain since 1737. The new freedoms of the London stage were tested by Howard Brenton's *The Romans in Britain*, first staged at the National Theatre during 1980, and subsequently the focus of an unsuccessful private prosecution in 1982.

The height of Alan Ayckbourn's commercial success included *Absurd Person Singular* (1975), *The Norman Conquests* trilogy (1973), *Bedroom Farce* (1975) and *Just Between Ourselves* (1976), all plays that focused heavily on marriage in the British middle classes. Throughout his writing career, all but four of his plays were premièred at the Stephen Joseph Theatre in Scarborough in its three different locations. The Stephen Joseph Theatre was the first theatre in the round in Britain.

West End theatre is a popular term for mainstream professional theatre staged in the large theatres of London's "Theatreland". Along with New York's Broadway theatre, West End theatre is usually considered to represent the highest level of commercial theatre in the English-speaking world.

Seeing a West End show is a common tourist activity in London. A prolific composer of musical theatre in the 20th century, Andrew Lloyd Webber has been referred to as "the most commercially successful composer in history". His musicals have dominated the West End for a number of years and have travelled to Broadway in New York City & around the world as well as being turned into films.

Lloyd Webber's musicals originally starred Elaine Paige, who with continued success has become known as the First Lady of British Musical Theatre.

The National Theatre's largest auditorium is named after Olivier, and he is commemorated in the Laurence Olivier Awards, given annually by the Society of London Theatre.

Lionel Bart's 1960 musical *Oliver!* (based on Charles Dickens novel) contains the songs "Food, Glorious Food", "Consider Yourself" and "You've Got to Pick a Pocket or Two". *Oliver!* has received thousands of performances in British schools since. In July 1962, a board was set up to supervise construction of a National Theatre in London, a separate board was constituted to run a National Theatre Company and lease the Old Vic theatre. The Company remained at the Old Vic until 1976, when the new South Bankbuilding was opened. A National Theatre of Scotland was set up in 2006. Today the West End of Londonhas many theatres, particularly centred on Shaftesbury Avenue.

A prolific composer of musical theatre in the 20th century, Andrew Lloyd Webber has been referred to as "the most commercially successful composer in history". His musicals, which include *The Phantom of the Opera*, *Cats*, *Jesus Christ Superstar* and *Evita*, have dominated the West End for a number of years and have travelled around the world as well as being turned into films.

Lloyd Webber has worked with producer Cameron Mackintosh, lyricist Tim Rice, actor Michael Crawford(originated the title role in *The Phantom of the Opera*), actress and singer Sarah Brightman, while his musicals originally starred Elaine Paige (originated the role of Grizabella in *Cats* and had a chart hit with "Memory"), who with continued success has become known as the First Lady of British Musical Theatre. Agatha Christie's *The Mousetrap* has seen more than 25,000 performances in the West End, and is the longest-running West End show.

The Woman in Black is the second longest running stage play. Written by Catherine Johnson, *Mamma Mia!* is the West End's longest running jukebox musical.

Richard O'Brien's 1973 West End musical *The Rocky Horror Show* has been ranked among the "Nation's Number One Essential Musicals". Peter Shaffer's 1979 play *Amadeus* premiered at the National Theatre. The Royal Shakespeare Company, at Stratford-upon-Avon, produces mainly but not exclusively Shakespeare plays. Important modern playwrights include Nobel laureate Harold Pinter, Tom Stoppard, Alan Ayckbourn, John Osborne, Michael Frayn and Arnold Wesker.

Shakespeare Globe Theatre

THEATRE IN SCOTLAND

Theatre in Scotland refers to the history of the performing arts in Scotland, or those written, acted and produced by Scots. Scottish theatre generally falls into the Western theatre tradition, although many performances and plays have investigated other cultural areas.

The main influences are from North America, England, Ireland and from Continental Europe. Scotland's theatrical arts were generally linked to the broader traditions of Scottish and English-language literature and to British and Irish theatre, American literature and theatrical artists. As a result of mass migration, both to and from Scotland, in the modern period, Scottish literature has been introduced to a global audience, and has also created an increasingly multicultural Scottish theatre.

Scottish theatre dates back at least as far as the Middle Ages. Because of the linguistic divide between Lowland Scots and Scottish Gaelic speakers and puritanism in the wake of the Scottish reformation, it has been a late development. A third problem was the union which removed patronage.

Scottish "national drama" emerged in the early 1800s, as plays with specifically Scottish themes began to dominate the Scottish stage. The existing repertoire of Scottish-themed plays included John Home's *Douglas* (1756) and Allan Ramsay's *The Gentle Shepherd* (1725), with the last two being the most popular plays among amateur groups. *Douglas* elicited the (in)famous "Whaur's Yer Wullie Shakespeare Noo?" jeer from a member of one of its early audiences, and was also the subject of a number of pamphlets for and against it.

Folk Plays

Medieval Scotland probably had its own Mystery plays, often performed by craft guilds, like one described as *ludi de ly haliblude* and staged at Aberdeen in 1440 and 1445 and which was probably connected with the feast of Corpus Christi, but no texts are extant. One tradition that has survived into the modern day is "guising", the ancestor of America's "trick or treat". This involved youngsters dressing up in costume at New Years and Halloween and often performing a song or act for a reward.

Up-helly-aa, a Shetland festival appealing to Viking heritage, only took its modern form out of "mischief" of guising, tar-barrelling and other activities in the 1870s as part of a Romantic revival.

Legislation was enacted against folk plays in 1555, and against liturgical plays ("clerk-plays or comedies based on the canonical scriptures") in 1575 by the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland. However, attempts to ban folk plays were more leniently applied and less successful than once assumed. They continued into the seventeenth century, with parishioners in Aberdeen reproved for parading and dancing in the street with bells at weddings and Yule in 1605, Robin Hood and May plays at Kelso in 1611 and Yuletide guising at Perth in 1634.[6] The kirk also allowed some plays, particularly in schools when they served their own ends, as in the comedy about the prodigal son permitted at St. Andrews in 1574.

Renaissance Drama

James Wedderburn is recorded as having written anti-Catholic tragedies and comedies in Scots around 1540, before he was forced to flee into exile. These included the *Beheading of Johne the Baptist* and the *Historie of Dyonisius the Tyraonne*, which were performed at Dundee.

David Lyndsay (c. 1486-1555), diplomat and the head of the Lyon Court, was a prolific poet and dramatist. He produced an interlude at Linlithgow Palace for the king and queen thought to be a version of his play *The Thrie Estaitis* in 1540, which satirised the corruption of church and state, and which is the only complete play to survive from before the Reformation.

George Buchanan (1506-82) was major influence on Continental theatre with plays such as *Jepheths* and *Baptistes*, which influenced Pierre Corneille and Jean Racine. Through them the neo-classical tradition in French drama, but his impact in Scotland was limited by his choice of Latin as a medium.

The anonymous *The Maner of the Cyring of ane Play* (before 1568) and *Philotus* (published in London in 1603), are isolated examples of surviving plays.

The later is a vernacular Scots comedy of errors, probably designed for court performance for Mary, Queen of Scots or James VI. The same system of professional companies of players and theatres that developed in England in this period was absent in Scotland, but James VI signalled his interest in drama by arranging for a company of English players to erect a playhouse and perform in 1599. The loss of a royal court when James VI inherited the crown of England in 1603 meant there was no force to counter the Kirk's dislike of theatre, which struggled to survive in Scotland.

However, it was not entirely extinguished. Surviving plays for the period include William Alexander's *Monarchicke Tragedies*, written just before his departure with the king for England in 1603.

They were closet dramas, designed to be read rather than performed, and already indicate Alexander's preference for southern English over the Scots language.

Restoration Drama

There is no evidence of theatre in the period from 1603 and 1660. After the Restoration there were some attempts to revive Scottish drama.

In 1663 Edinburgh lawyer William Clerke wrote *Marciano or the Discovery*, a play about the restoration of a legitimate dynasty in Florence after many years of civil war. It was performed at the Tennis-Court Theatre at Holyrood Palace before the parliamentary high commissioner John Leslie, Earl of Rothes. Thomas Sydsurf's *Tarugo's Wiles or the Coffee House*, was first performed in London in 1667 and then in Edinburgh the year after and drew on Spanish comedy. Sydsurf was also manager from 1667 of the Tennis Court Theatre and ran a company of players in Edinburgh's Cannongate.

The repertoire followed that in London and there were no new Scottish plays after *Tarugo's Wiles*. The Duke of Albany brought with him a company of actors when he was resident at Holyrood as commissioner. He was joined by a group of Irish players, who brought their own costumes. He encouraged court masques and seasons of plays at the Tennis Court Theatre, one of which included Princess Anne, the future Queen Anne. A relative of Sydsurf, physician Archibald Pitcairne (1652-1713) wrote *The Assembly or Scotch Reformation* (1692), a ribald satire on the morals of the Presbyterian kirk, circulating in manuscript, but not published until 1722, helping to secure the association between Jacobitism and professional drama that discouraged the creation of professional theatre.

Drama was pursued by Scottish playwrights in London such as Catherine Trotter (1679-1749), born in London to Scottish parents and later moving to Aberdeen. Her plays included the verse-tragedy *Fatal Friendship* (1698), the comedy *Love at a Loss* (1700) and the history *The Revolution in Sweden* (1706). David Crawford's (1665-1726) plays included the Restoration comedies *Courtship A-la-Mode* (1700) and *Love at First Sight* (1704). These developed the character of the stage Scot, often a clown, but cunning and loyal. Newburgh Hamilton (1691-1761), born in Ireland of Scottish descent, produced the comedies *The Petticoat-Ploter* (1712) and *The Doating Lovers* or *The Libertine* (1715).

He later wrote the libretto for Handel's *Samson* (1743), closely based on John Milton's *Samson Agonistes*. James Thompson's plays often dealt with the contest between public duty and private feelings, and included *Sophonisba* (1730), *Agamemnon* (1738) and *Tancrid and Sigismuda* (1745), the last of which was an international success. David Mallet's (c. 1705–65) *Eurydice* (1731) was accused of being a coded Jacobite play and his later work indicates opposition to the Walpole administration.

The opera *Masque of Alfred* (1740) was a collaboration between Thompson, Mallet and composer Thomas Arne, with Thompson supplying the lyrics for his most famous work, the patriotic song *Rule, Britannia!*. In Scotland, performances were largely limited to performances by visiting actors, who faced hostility from the Kirk. In November 1727, Edinburgh Town Council denounced stage plays. The Court of Session reversed the magistrates' pleas, but Rev Robert Wodrow complained of plays as "seminaries of idleness, looseness and sin."

A pamphlet of the time described actors as, "the most profligate wretches and vilest vermin that hell ever vomited out... the filth and garbage of the earth, the scum and stain of human nature, the excrement and refuse of all mankind".

In 1729, the Scots Company of Comedians, formed for dramatic entertainments, was forced to close.[20] The Edinburgh Company of Players were able to perform in Dundee, Montrose, Aberdeen and regular performances at the Taylor's Hall in Edinburgh under the protection of a Royal Patent.

In 1727, Allan Ramsay wrote his *Some Hints in Defence of Dramatic Entertainment*. Ramsay was instrumental in establishing them in a small theatre in Carruber's Close in Edinburgh, but the passing of the 1737 Licensing Act made their activities illegal and the theatre soon closed.

In 1739, the Presbytery of Edinburgh closed a production of *Macbeth*. In 1752, Glasgow's first theatre was burnt down, shortly after George Whitfield complained it was the "Devil's Home".

Dundee and Perth seemed more tolerant. Dundee formed a Company of Players in 1734, but in 1784, the Dundee Town Council prevented a company from Edinburgh from entering. Perth did not seem to suffer these censorships, but it was 1780 before theatre was properly produced there. Aberdeen's theatres were closed in 1745 and 1751 by clergy as well. A new theatre was opened on Edinburgh's Canongate in 1747 and operated without a licence into the 1760s.

In the later 18th century, many plays were written for and performed by small amateur companies and were not published, meaning most have been lost. Towards the end of the century there were "closet dramas", primarily designed to be read, rather than performed, including work by James Hogg (1770-1835), John Galt (1779-1839) and Joanna Baillie (1762-1851), often influenced by the ballad tradition and GothicRomanticism. The blank verse tragedy *Douglas*, by John Home, was first performed in 1756 in Edinburgh. The play was a remarkable success in both Scotland and England for decades, attracting many notable actors of the period, such as Edmund Kean, who made his debut in it.

In 1783, John Logan's tragedy, *Runnamede*, was acted in the Edinburgh Theatre. It reflected contemporary politics in its emphasis on the liberties of the subject. It made out a clear parallel between John of England and George III of England, and for that reason the censorship of the Lord Chamberlain had prevented its production on the London stage. Walter Scott later wrote that the idea of the contrast drawn in *Ivanhoe* between Saxons & Normans was drawn from the staging of *Runnamede* with (anachronistic) Saxon and Norman barons on opposite sides of the theatre.

Also important was the work of Joanna Baillie (1762-1851); although her work was more significant anonymously in print than in performance for much of her lifetime, she emerged as one of Scotland's leading playwrights. Baillie's first volume of *Plays on the Passions* was published in 1798, consisting of *Count Basil*, a tragedy on love, *The Tryal*, a comedy on love, and *De Monfort*, a tragedy on hatred. *De Monfort* was successfully performed in Drury Lane, London before knowledge of her identity emerged and the prejudice against women playwrights began to affect her career.

In the later 19th century, Scottish music hall was at its height, but in the earlier part of the century, there were many adaptations of historical material, particularly the novels of Walter Scott.

Scott was keenly interested in drama, becoming a shareholder in the Theatre Royal, Edinburgh.

Baillie's Highland themed *Family Legend* was first produced in Edinburgh in 1810 with the help of Scott, as part of a deliberate attempt to stimulate a national Scottish drama Scott wrote five plays, of which *Hallidon Hill* (1822) and *MacDuff's Cross* (1822), were patriotic Scottish histories. Adaptations of the Waverley novels, largely first performed in minor theatres rather than the larger Patent theatres, included *The Lady in the Lake* (1817), *The Heart of Midlothian* (1819/1820), and *Rob Roy*, which underwent over 1,000 performances in Scotland in this period.

Locally produced drama in this period included *John O' Arnha*, adapted from the poem by George Beattieby actor-manager Charles Bass and poet James Bowick for the Theatre Royal in Montrose in 1826. A local success, Bass also took the play to Dundee and Edinburgh.

Despite these successes, provincialism began to set in to Scottish theatre. By the 1840s, Scottish theatres were more inclined to use placards with slogans like "the best company out of London", rather than producing their own material. In 1893 in Glasgow, there were five productions of *Hamlet* in the same season.

In the second half of the century the development of Scottish theatre was hindered by the growth of rail travel, which meant English tour companies could arrive and leave more easily for short runs of performances. A number of figures who could have made a major contribution to Scottish drama moved south to London, including William Sharp (1855–1905), William Archer (1856-1924) and J. M. Barrie (1860-1937).

In 1876, an obscure tar barrelling ceremony in Shetland called Up Helly Aa was modified into a pseudo-Norse performance. It has to be admitted even today that the costumes owe more to Wagner than Vikings. Nonetheless, it is perhaps significant in being one of the best known pieces of folk ritual performance in Scotland today.

J. M. Barrie was amongst the most successful of Scottish literary exports, spending most of his career in England. His *Peter Pan* (1904), which began life as a play, is one of the best known stories in English. Barrie is often linked to the Kailyard movement and his early plays such as *Quality Street* (1901) and *The Admirable Crichton* (1902) deal with temporary inversions of the normal social order. His later works, such as *Dear Brutus* (1917) and *Mary Rose* (1920), focused on historical themes.

After Barrie the most successful Scottish playwrights of the early 20th century were John Brandane and James Bridie, the pseudonyms, respectively, of doctors John Macintyre (1869-1947) and Osborne Mavor (1888-1951). Brandane's plays were often humorous explorations of the clash between modernity and tradition in Highland society, as in *The Glen is Mine* (1925).

Bridie emerged as a prolific playwright and a major figure in developing modern Scottish drama. As well as drawing on his medical experience, as in *The Anatomist* (1930), his plays included middle class satires such as *The Sunlight Sonata* (1928) called on biblical characters such as devils and angels, as in *Mr. Bolfry* (1943). He was a member of the Scottish National Players (1924-43), who performed several of his plays and which aimed to produce a Scottish national theatre, but his view that they should become a professional company meant he resigned from the board. He was a founder and first president of the Glasgow Citizens' Theatre (1943), a member of the body that became the Scottish Arts Council and was its first President (1947). He founded the College of Drama within the Royal Scottish Academy of Music, Glasgow (1951).

The early 20th century saw the emergence of a tradition of popular or working class theatre. Hundreds of amateur groups were established, particularly in the growing urban centres of the Lowlands. Many were offshoots of the Workers' Theatre Movement (WTM) and the Unity Theatre Society (UTS). Among the most important were the Fife Miner Players (1926-31), Glasgow Workers' Theatre Group (1937-41) and Glasgow Unity Theatre (1941-51), which lay the ground for modern popular theatre groups. Important playwrights in the movement included former miner Joe Corrie (1894-1968), whose plays included *In Time o' Strife* (1927), based on the events of the general strike the year before.

The Scottish Repertory Theatre was the first Scottish company to encourage native playwrights.

In the interwar period its aim was taken up by other amateur companies, particularly the Curtain Theatre, Glasgow, who "discovered" the work of Robert McLellan (1907-85), including his first full-length play *Toom Byers* (1936) and his best known work *Jamie the Saxt* (1936).

A talented comic dramatist, his commitment to the use of Lallans limited his impact on the wider theatrical world. Together they are now the largest, and among the most prestigious, arts festivals in the world, and have included large and small-scale theatrical productions. A Scottish theatrical renaissance has been perceived by Ian Brown as occurring between the opening of the Traverse Theatre in Edinburgh in 1963 & the foundation of the Scottish Society of Playwrights in 1973.

The Theatres Act 1968 abolished the system of censorship of the stage by the Lord Chamberlain that had existed in Great Britain since 1737. This allowed much greater artistic freedom, but local authorities in Scotland still retained the ability to prosecute "obscene performances" under local by-laws and statutes. In the 1970s a large number of plays explored the nature of Scottish identity. Historical dramas included Stewart Conn's *The Burning* (1971) and Hector Macmillan's *The Rising*(1973).

Workplace dramas included Bill Bryden's *Willy Rough* (1975) and Roddy McMillan's *The Bevellers* (1973). These plays opened the way for a new form of independent and politically committed community theatre. The trend was kicked off by 7:84 (1971-2008), with their 1973 production of John McGrath's (1935-2002) *The Cheviot, the Stag, and the Black Black Oil*.

The 1960s and 1970s saw the flourishing of Scottish Gaelic drama. Key figures included Iain Crichton Smith, whose plays explored wide-ranging themes. Often humorous, they also dealt with serious topics such as the betrayal of Christ in *An Coileach* (*A Cockerel*, 1966) of the Highland Clearances in *A' Chùirt* (*The Court*, 1966).

The political and funding climate changed radically after the failure of the devolution referendum of 1979 and the election of a Conservative government under Margaret Thatcher.

The Scottish Arts Council encouraged theatre companies to function as business, finding funding in ticket sales and commercial sponsorship. In 1981 the actor Ewan Hooper was given £50,000 to found the Scottish Theatre Company based in Glasgow and designed to promote the work of Scottish writers.

The company found touring difficult as there were insufficient large venues that could generate the necessary income outside of the major cities.

By the last two decades of the 20th century a substantial body of Scottish theatrical writing had built up. There was a change from a habit of one writer working with one company to several companies drawing on a community of writers. Scottish play writing became increasingly internationalised, with Scottish writers adapting classic texts. Scottish playwrights were increasingly preoccupied with wider European culture. The current century has been described as a "golden age" for theatre in Scotland.

Devolution and the re-establishment of the Scottish Parliament at Holyrood in 1999 had significant impacts on the ecology and infrastructure of the performing arts. Numerous venues were expanded and refurbished, while new venues opened in several towns and cities across Scotland.

The Byre Theatre in St Andrews was renovated and expanded at a cost of £5.5m, opening in 2001. North Edinburgh Arts Centre opened in 2002 in the Muirhouse area of Edinburgh, comprising a 96-150 seat studio theatre, two smaller studio spaces, a recording studio, gallery, licensed cafe and garden. Eden Court Theatre in Inverness re-opened in November 2007, having undergone a complete refurbishment and extension by Robertson Construction and Page\Park Architects.

Upon its re-opening, it became the largest combined arts centre in Scotland.

Mull Theatre moved into new premises at Druimfin in 2008, and in 2013 partnered with arts centre An Tobar to form Comar, a multi-arts organisation that produces, presents and develops creative work. Perth Theatre closed for renovation in 2014, with projected re-opening in 2017.

In contrast to these developments, some venues closed their doors permanently, including The Arches in Glasgow. Since the early days of devolution, a national theatre for Scotland had been a priority of the Scottish Executive. The company has no theatre building of its own, administration is based at Speirs Lock in Glasgow. Instead it tours work to theatres, village halls, schools and site-specific locations across Scotland, the UK and internationally.

The company has created over 200 productions and collaborates with other theatre companies, local authorities, and individual artists to create a variety of performances, from large-scale productions through to theatre specifically made for the smallest venues.

Playwrights and theatre companies responded to the burst of creative energy stemming from devolution, and later, the 2014 Scottish independence referendum, in a number of ways.

Music hall

Music hall was a form of variety light entertainment common in Scotland from the mid-19th to the mid-20th century. With the arrival of cinema, radio and television, its influence began to wane.

Theatre for younger audiences, especially very young children, has grown enormously in popularity since the 1980s, and has been described as "a particular strength in contemporary Scottish theatre".. However, something of the flavour of Scottish music hall can still be seen in many Scottish pantomimes. Music hall is not strictly theatre, but it can contain dramatic elements and small sketches. It tended towards sentimentality, light humour and the singalong, rather than high-brow dramatic entertainment. Music hall was often working class recreation, the temperance movement encouraged it as an alternative to drinking. Despite this, music hall contained frequent *double entendres* and sexual humour. A notable feature of Scottish music hall was its frequent use of exaggerated forms of Highland Dress. It had some overlap with the Kailyard movement as well.

Palace theatre in London

Royal Opera House

Royal Opera

THEATRE IN WALES

Theatre in Wales includes dramatic works in both the Welsh language and English language. Actors from Wales have also achieved international recognition.

The earliest known performance tradition is that of the mumming custom *Mari Lwyd*. However, the existence of a Roman amphitheatre at Caerleon suggests that drama may well have been introduced during the classical period. Drama in Wales as a literary tradition dates to morality plays from north-east Wales in the second half of the 15th century. Extant miracle play "The three kings from Cologne" represents short individual plays rather than being elements of a larger cycle. It can be compared to the Everyman tradition. The development of Renaissance theatre in England did not have great influence in Wales as the gentry found different forms of artistic patronage.

One surviving example of Welsh literary drama is *Troelus a Chresyd*, an anonymous adaptation from poems by Henrysoun and Chaucer dating to around 1600. With no urban centres to compare to England to support regular stages, morality plays and interludes continued to circulate in inn-yard theatres and fairs, supplemented by visiting troupes performing English repertoire.

Stock Welsh characters occur in theatre in England on the Tudor and Stuart stage. Fluellen is a fictional character in the play *Henry V* by William Shakespeare.

Twm o'r Nant (1739-1810) was famous for his interludes, performed mainly around his native Denbighshire. The bawdiness and licensed foolery of the comic stereotypes of the interlude tradition have been compared to commedia dell'arte.

However, the religious revival connected with the rise of Methodism in Wales brought an end to such libertine satires. Interludes came to be replaced as expressions of public drama by a high-flown and imagistic preaching style and dialogues on moral issues such as temperance.

The English classical repertoire was brought to those who could understand it by travelling troupes such as the Kemble family (Charles Kemble was born at Brecon in 1775).

In the late 19th century and early 20th century, Welsh literature began to reflect the way the Welsh language was increasingly becoming a political symbol. Secular drama began to attract interest in the 1870s as national consciousness grew. Plays in a Shakespearean style were written and performed at the Llanberis Eisteddfod of 1879.

There was institutional opposition to the new drama. The Methodist Convention in 1887 recommended that chapels regard theatrical activity as an immoral practice on a par with gambling. It was not until 1902 when David Lloyd George called for patronage of Welsh drama at the National Eisteddfod that a profile of respectability started to be acquired among devout communities.

With the advance of the English language, theatre in English developed quickly between 1875 and 1925. By 1912 Wales had 34 theatres and many halls licensed for dramatic performances.

However, the arrival of sound cinema in the 1930s led to the closure or transformation of most theatres. A full theatre tradition only developed in Wales with 20th century Welsh drama. Many playwrights were inspired by the example of the Abbey Theatre, Dublin. Thomas Scott-Ellis, 8th Baron Howard de Walden, used his patronage to attempt the foundation of a national theatre for Wales.

Among his attempts was the foundation of a bilingual theatre at Plas Newydd, Llangollen in the 1930s. The inter-war period has been described as a golden age of amateur dramatics, with five hundred companies active all over Wales providing a second occupation for large numbers of quarrymen and miners. This flourishing tradition was curtailed by the outbreak of the Second World War and ended by the arrival of television in the 1950s. Professional theatre developed in Wales in the 1950s and 1960s.

Wales has two national theatres: Theatr Genedlaethol Cymru (the Welsh language national theatre of Wales, founded 2003), and National Theatre Wales.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

IRISH THEATRE

The history of Irish theatre begins with the rise of the English administration in Dublin at the start of the 17th century. Over the next 400 years this small country was to make a disproportionate contribution to drama in English. In the early days of its history, theatrical productions in Ireland tended to serve the political purposes of the administration, but as more theatres opened and the popular audience grew, a more diverse range of entertainments were staged.

Many Dublin-based theatres developed links with their London equivalents and performers and productions from the British capital frequently found their way to the Irish stage. Almost all Irish playwrights from William Congreve to George Bernard Shaw found it necessary to leave their native island to establish themselves.

At the beginning of the 20th century, theatres and theatre companies dedicated to the staging of Irish plays and the development of indigenous writers, directors and performers began to emerge.

This allowed many of the most significant Irish dramatists to learn their trade and establish their reputations in Ireland rather than in Great Britain or the United States.

Few historic theatre buildings survive in Ireland, and only a small minority predate the 20th century. The Gaiety Theatre dates to 1871, and despite multiple alterations it retains several Victorian era features and remains Ireland's longest-established, continuously producing public theatre.

The Theatre Royal, Waterford dates to 1876, but retains some structural material from the 1785 theatre building which preceded it, and is considered Ireland's oldest continually operating theatre. The Smock Alley Theatre was converted, in 2012, from an early 19th century church building which is built on the foundations of the first Theatre Royal from 1662.

It is thus often referred to as Ireland's "oldest new theatre" or "newest old theatre". The Lord Amiens Theatre was built as a private theatre wing of Aldborough House in 1795, and used as such until 1830. Despite alterations to the interior, structurally the building remains exactly as it was designed and first constructed, and it is thus considered the oldest purpose-built theatre building in Ireland.

Although there would appear to have been performances of plays on religious themes in Ireland from as early as the 14th century, the first well-documented instance of a theatrical production in Ireland is a 1601 staging of *Gorboduc* presented by Lord Mountjoy Lord Deputy of Ireland in the Great Hall in Dublin Castle.

The Werburgh Street Theatre in Dublin is generally identified as the "first custom-built theatre in the city," "the only pre-Restoration playhouse outside London", and the "first Irish playhouse."

In 1642, as a result of the English Civil War, Dublin Royalists were forced to flee the city. Many of them went to Kilkenny to join a confederacy of Old English and Irish that formed in that city.

Kilkenny had a tradition of dramatic performance going back to 1366, and the Dublin company, much attenuated, set up in their new home. With the restoration of the monarchy in 1661, John Ogilby was commissioned to design the triumphal arches and write masques for the new king's entrance into London. Ogilby was reinstated as Master of the Revels and returned to Dublin to open a new theatre in Smock Alley. Although starting well, this new theatre was essentially under the control of the administration in Dublin Castle and staged mainly pro-Stuart works and Shakespearean classics. As a result, Irish playwrights and actors of real talent were drawn to London.

An early example of this trend is William Congreve, one of the most important writers for the late 18th London stage. Although born in Yorkshire, Congreve grew up in Ireland and studied at Trinity College, Dublin. After graduating, Congreve moved to London to study law at the Temple and pursue a literary career. His first play, *The Old Bachelor* (1693) was sponsored by John Dryden, and he went on to write at least four more plays. The last of these, *The Way of the World* (1700) is the one Congreve work regularly revived on the modern stage. With the accession to the throne of William of Orange, the whole ethos of Dublin Castle, including its attitude to the theatre, changed.

A theatre at Smock Alley stayed in existence until the 1780s and new theatres, such as the Theatre Royal, Queens' Theatre, The Gaiety Theatre opened during the 19th century.

However, the one constant for the next 200 years was that the main action in the history of Irish theatre happened outside Ireland itself, mainly in London.

The 18th century saw the emergence of two major Irish dramatists, Oliver Goldsmith and Richard Brinsley Sheridan, who were two of the most successful playwrights on the London stage in the 18th century. Goldsmith (1728-1774) was born in Roscommon and grew up in extremely rural surroundings.

He entered Trinity College in 1745 and graduated in 1749. He returned to the family home, and in 1751, began to travel, finally settling in London in 1756, where he published poetry, prose and two plays, *The Good-Natur'd Man* 1768 and *She Stoops to Conquer* 1773. This latter was a huge success and is still regularly revived.

Sheridan (1751-1816) was born in Dublin into a family with a strong literary and theatrical tradition. His mother was a writer and his father was manager of Smock Alley Theatre.

The family moved to England in the 1750s, and Sheridan attended Harrow Public School. His first play, *The Rivals* 1775, was performed at Covent Garden and was an instant success. He went on to become the most significant London playwright of the late 18th century with plays like *The School for Scandal* and *The Critic*. He was owner of the Drury Lane Theatre, which he bought from David Garrick. The theatre burned down in 1809, and Sheridan lived out the rest of his life in reduced circumstances. He is buried in Poets' Corner at Westminster Abbey.

The next Irish dramatist of historical importance was Dion Boucicault (1820-1890).

Boucicault was born in Dublin but went to England to complete his education. At school, he began writing dramatic sketches and soon took up acting under the stage name of Lee Morton.

His first play was *Legend of Devil's Dyke* 1838 in which he acted himself in Brighton. His first London production was *London Assurance* 1841. This was a great success and he seemed set to become the major writer of comedies of his day. However, his next few plays were not as successful and Boucicault found himself in debt. He recovered some of his reputation with *The Corsican Brothers* (1852), a well constructed melodrama.

In 1853, he moved to New York, where he soon became a hit with plays like *The Poor of New York* (1857), *Dot* (1859, based on Charles Dickens's *The Cricket on the Hearth*) and *The Octoroon* (1859).

These plays tackled issues such as urban poverty and slavery. Boucicault was involved in getting the 1856 law on copyright passed through Congress. His last New York play was *The Colleen Bawn* (1860). In that year, Boucicault returned to London to stage *The Colleen Bawn* and the play ran for 247 performances at The Adelphi Theatre. He wrote several more successful plays, including *The Shaughran* (1875) and *Robert Emmet* (1884).

These later plays helped perpetuate the stereotype of the drunken, hotheaded, garrulous Irishman that had been common on the British stage since the time of Shakespeare. Other Irish dramatists of the period include John Banim and Gerald Griffin, whose novel *The Collegians* formed the basis for *The Colleen Bawn*. Boucicault is widely regarded as the wittiest Irish dramatist between Sheridan and Oscar Wilde (1854-1900). Wilde was born in Dublin into a literary family and studied at Trinity College, where he had a brilliant career. In 1874 he won a scholarship to Magdalen College, Oxford. Here he began his career as a writer, winning the Newdigate Prize for his poem *Ravenna*. His studies were cut short during his second year at Oxford when his father died leaving large debts.

During a short but glittering literary career, Wilde wrote poetry, short stories, criticism and a novel, but his plays probably represent his most enduring legacy. Wilde's first stage success came with *Lady Windermere's Fan* (1892), which resulted in his becoming the most talked about dramatist in London. He followed this up with *A Woman of No Importance* (1893), *An Ideal Husband* (1895) and his most famous play *The Importance of Being Earnest* that same year. With these plays, Wilde came to dominate late-Victorian era British theatre.

His plays are noted for the lightness of their wit, but he contrived to address some serious issues around sexual and class roles and identity, as he wrote himself "treating the serious things lightly and the light things seriously". Events in Wilde's personal life were to overtake his literary success and he died in Paris in 1900. He remains one of the great figures in the history of Irish theatre and his plays are frequently performed all over the English-speaking world.

Wilde's contemporary George Bernard Shaw (1856-1950) was a very different kind of writer.

Born in Dublin, Shaw moved to London in 1876 intending to become a novelist. Here he became active in socialist politics and became a member of the Fabian Society. He was a very public vegetarian. His writing for the stage was influenced by Henrik Ibsen. His early political plays were not popular, but he made a breakthrough with *John Bull's Other Island* (1904). Shaw was extremely prolific, and his collected writings filled 36 volumes. Many of his plays are now forgotten, but a number, including *Major Barbara*, *Saint Joan* (his masterpiece) and *Pygmalion* are still regularly performed.

Pygmalion was the basis for the movie *My Fair Lady*, a fact which benefitted the National Gallery of Ireland as Shaw had left the royalties of the play to the gallery. A statue to the playwright now stands outside the gallery entrance. He won the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1925.

A sea change in the history of the Irish theatre came with the establishment in Dublin in 1899 of the Irish Literary Theatre by W. B. Yeats, Lady Gregory, George Moore and Edward Martyn. This was followed by the Irish National Theatre Society, later to become the Abbey Theatre. The history of this theatre is well documented, and its importance can be seen from the list of writers whose plays were first performed here in the early days of the 20th century. These included W.B. Yeats, Lady Gregory, John Millington Synge, George Moore, and Seán O'Casey. Equally importantly, through the introduction by Yeats, via Ezra Pound, of elements of the Noh theatre of Japan, a tendency to mythologise quotidian situations, and a particularly strong focus on writings in dialects of Hiberno-English, the Abbey was to create a style that held a strong fascination for future Irish dramatists.

Indeed, it could almost be said that the Abbey created the basic elements of a national theatrical style. This period saw a rise in the writing of plays in Irish, especially after the formation, in 1928, of An Taidhbhearc, a theatre dedicated to the Irish language. The Gate Theatre, founded in 1928 under the direction of Hilton Edwards and Micheál MacLiammoir, introduced Irish audiences to many of the classics of the European stage.

The 20th century saw a number of Irish playwrights come to prominence. Samuel Beckett is probably the most significant of these. Beckett had a long career as a novelist and poet before his first play, *Waiting for Godot* (1953) made him famous. This play, along with his second, *Endgame*, is one of the great works of absurdist theatre. Beckett was awarded for the Nobel Prize in 1969.

The Lyric Theatre, founded in 1944 by Austin Clarke was based in the Abbey until 1951 and produced many of Clarke's own verse plays. From the mid-1950s, the Unitarian Church at St Stephen's Green, Dublin was home to Amharclann an Damer/The Damer Theatre.

The Damer produced both professional and amateur Irish language theatre. The world premier of Brendan Behan's *An Giall* (*The Hostage*) took place here in 1958. The theatre closed in 1976.

Behan went on to be an extremely popular dramatist, particularly through his work with Joan Littlewood's Theatre Royal in Stratford, East London. Other important Irish dramatists of this period include: Denis Johnston, Thomas Kilroy, Tom Murphy, Hugh Leonard, Frank McGuinness,and John B. Keane. In general, the Abbey was the dominant influence in theatre in Ireland across the 20th century.

In the 1990s & 2000s a new wave of theatre companies arrived. A number of these companies had a significant portion or, in some cases, all of their Arts Council funding cut at the beginning of 2010 and it remains to be seen if they will continue to operate.

Exercise 1. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 2. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

PERFORMING ARTS & CARNIVALS & PARADES

Large outdoor music festivals in the summer and autumn are popular, such as Glastonbury (the largest greenfield festival in the world), V Festival, Reading and Leeds Festivals.

The UK was at the forefront of the illegal, free rave movement from the late 1980s, which led to pan-European culture of teknivalsmirrored on the UK free festival movement and associated travelling lifestyle. The most prominent opera house in England is the Royal Opera House at Covent Gardens.

The Proms, a season of orchestral classical music concerts held at the Royal Albert Hall, is a major cultural event held annually. The Royal Ballet is one of the world's foremost classical ballet companies, its reputation built on two prominent figures of 20th-century dance, *prima ballerina* Margot Fonteyn and choreographer Frederick Ashton. Irish dancing is popular in Northern Ireland and among the Irish diaspora throughout the UK; its costumes feature patterns taken from the medieval Book of Kells. A staple of British seaside culture, the quarrelsome couple Punch and Judy made their first recorded appearance in Covent Garden, London in 1662.

The various episodes of Punch and Judy are performed in the spirit of outrageous comedy – often provoking shocked laughter – are dominated by the anarchic clowning of Mr. Punch. Regarded as British cultural icons, they appeared at a significant period in British history, with Glyn Edwards stating: "[Pulcinella] went down particularly well with Restoration British audiences, fun-starved after years of Puritanism. We soon changed Punch's name, transformed him from a marionette to a hand puppet, and he became, really, a spirit of Britain – a subversive maverick who defies authority, a kind of puppet equivalent to our political cartoons."

The circus is a traditional form of entertainment in the UK. Chipperfield's Circus dates back more than 300 years in Britain, making it one of the oldest family circus dynasties. Philip Astley is regarded as the father of the modern circus. Following his invention of the circus ring in 1768, Astley's Amphitheatre opened in London in 1773. As an equestrian master Astley had a skill for trick horse-riding, and when he added tumblers, tightrope-walkers, jugglers, performing dogs, and a clown to fill time between his own demonstrations – the modern circus was born. The Hughes Royal Circus was popular in London in the 1780s. Pablo Fanque's Circus Royal, among the most popular circuses of Victorian England, showcased William Kite, which inspired John Lennon to write "Being for the Benefit of Mr. Kite!" on The Beatles' album *Sgt. Pepper's Lonely Hearts Club Band*. Joseph Grimaldi, originator of whiteface clown make-up, is considered the father of modern clowning.

Theatre Festivals

The best known theatre festivals in Scotland at the Edinburgh International Festival and Edinburgh Festival Fringe. The Edinburgh Festival Fringe started life when 8 theatre companies turned up uninvited to the inaugural Edinburgh International Festival in 1947.

It takes place in Scotland's capital during three weeks every August alongside several other arts and cultural festivals. The Fringe mostly attracts events from the performing arts, particularly theatre and comedy, although dance and music feature. Seven performed in Edinburgh, and one undertook a version of the medieval morality play "Everyman" in Dunfermline Abbey, about 20 mi north, across the Firth of Forth, in Fife. These groups aimed to take advantage of the large assembled theatre crowds to highlight their own, alternative, theatre. The Fringe got its name the following year (1948) after Robert Kemp, a Scottish playwright and journalist, wrote during the second Edinburgh International Festival. Much of the material in these festivals, however, tends to be of non-Scottish origin.

Other Edinburgh festivals include the Imaginate Festival of Theatre for Children and Young People, held in May each year and originally known as the Scottish Children's Theatre Festival, Manipulate – the Visual Theatre Festival and the Edinburgh People's Festival.

Glasgow festivals include the Glasgay! Festival and the Buzzcut festival of live art, held at the Pearce Institute in Govan.The Edinburgh Festival Fringe is the world's largest arts festival.

The Notting Hill Carnival is an annual event that has taken place on the streets of Notting Hill, London since 1966. Led by the British African-Caribbean community, the carnival has attracted around one mln people, making it Britain's biggest street festival and one of the largest in the world.

Pantomime ("panto") is a British musical comedy stage production, designed for family entertainment. It is performed in theatres throughout the UK during the Christmas and New Year season.

The art originated in the 18th century with John Weaver, a dance master and choreographer at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane in London.

In 19th-century England it acquired its present form, which includes songs, slapstick comedy and dancing, employing gender-crossing actors, combining topical humour with a story loosely based on a well-known fairy tale.[128] It is a participatory form of theatre, in which the audience sing along with parts of the music and shout out phrases to the performers, such as "It's behind you".

Pantomime story lines and scripts are almost always based on traditional children's stories: some of the popular British stories featured include *Jack and the Beanstalk*, *Peter Pan*, *Babes in the Wood*, *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* and *Dick Whittington and His Cat*.

Plot lines are almost always adapted for comic or satirical effect, and characters and situations from other stories are often interpolated into the plot. *Jack and the Beanstalk* might include references to English nursery rhymes involving characters called "Jack", such as *Jack and Jill*.

Famous people regularly appear in Pantos, such as Ian McKellen. McKellen has appeared at gay pride marches, with Manchester Pride one of 15 annual gay pride parades in the UK; the largest in Brighton attracts over 300,000.

Indoor Arenas

The Manchester Arena has the highest indoor capacity in the UK with 21,000 seats.

The world's busiest indoor arena, the O_2 Arena in London, has a 20,000 capacity. In 2007 Led Zeppelin performed a one off concert at the O_2 which saw a world record 20 mln online application for tickets. The Genting Arena in Birmingham has a capacity of 16,000; in 2017 the venue saw the last ever performance of Black Sabbath. The SSE Hydro in Glasgow has the largest capacity of any indoor arena in Scotland with 13,000 seats; it was opened in 2013 with a concert by Rod Stewart.

The Odyssey Complex in Belfast is the largest indoor arena in Northern Ireland, while fhe Motorpoint Arena Cardiff is the largest in Wales. The Hammersmith Apollo in London opened in 1932 and has hosted some noteworthy performances, such as David Bowie's final concert as Ziggy Stardust in July 1973, while in 2014 Kate Bush undertook a 22 date residency at the venue, her first live shows in nearly 35 years.

HISTORY OF THE BRITISH CINEMA

The UK has had a large impact on modern cinema, producing some of the greatest actors, directors and motion pictures, including Sir Alfred Hitchcock, Charlie Chaplin, David Lean, Laurence Olivier, Richard Attenborough, Alec Guinness, Vivien Leigh, Audrey Hepburn, John Gielgud, Peter O'Toole, Sean Connery, Richard Burton, Vanessa Redgrave, Michael Caine, Anthony Hopkins, Julie Andrews, Judi Dench, Maggie Smith, Alan Rickman, John Hurt and Daniel Day-Lewis.

The BFI Top 100 British films is a British Film Institute poll which ranks what they consider to be the 100 greatest British films of the 20th century. Two of the biggest actors in the silent era were Chaplin and Stan Laurel. The UK was the location of the oldest surviving motion picture film, *Roundhay Garden Scene* (1888), which was shot in Roundhay, Leeds in the north of England by French inventor Louis Le Prince. The world's first colour motion picture was shot by Edward Raymond Turner in 1902. Eadweard Muybridge was another notable English pioneer of motion picture, while pioneering Scottish documentary maker John Grierson coined the term "documentary" to describe a non-fiction film in 1926.

Ranked by many as the best British filmmaker, Hitchcock's first thriller, *The Lodger: A Story of the London Fog* (1926), helped shape the thriller genre in film, while his 1929 film, *Blackmail*, is often regarded as the first British sound feature film. *The 39 Steps* (1935) features a signature Hitchcock cameo, and established the quintessential English "Hitchcock blonde" Madeleine Carroll as the template for his succession of ice cold and elegant leading ladies. Alexander Korda's *The Private Life of Henry VIII* (1933), was the first British production to be nominated for the Academy Award for Best Picture. Boris Karloff played the leading role in major horror films in the 1930s, and collaborated with film director James Whale. Famous for their motion picture film scores, the London Symphony Orchestra first performed film music in 1935. The 1939 romantic drama *Goodbye, Mr. Chips* about a beloved aged schoolteacher Mr. Chipping was based on the 1934 novel by James Hilton. In the 1940s James Mason was the top box office star in the UK, and starred in *Odd Man Out*(1947).

The first British Academy Film Awards (BAFTA) ceremony took place in 1947.

Sir Laurence Olivier starred in and directed *Henry V* (1944), and *Hamlet* (1948), the latter picked up the BAFTA Award for Best Film and also became the first British film to win the Academy Award for Best Picture. The third Shakespearean film directed by Olivier was *Richard III* (1955).

The British film-making partnership of Powell and Pressburger made a series of influential films in the 1940s and 1950s, with *The Red Shoes* (1948) their most commercially successful film.

With a screenplay by Graham Greene, Carol Reed directed the film noir *The Third Man* (1949), regarded among the best British films of the 20th century.

David Lean emerged as a major filmmaker in the 1940s with *Brief Encounter* (1945) and *Great Expectations*(1946), with his first big-screen epic *The Bridge on the River Kwai* (1957): these are ranked among the best British films. Towards the end of the 1950s, Hammer Films embarked on their series of influential and wildly successful horror films, including lavish colour versions of Frankenstein (1957), *Dracula* (1958) and *The Mummy* (1959), with actors Peter Cushing and Christopher Lee at the forefront. The *Carry On* series, which consists of 31 comedy motion pictures, commenced in 1958.

A West Country native where many well-known English pirates hailed from, Robert Newton's portrayal of Long John Silver in 1950s films popularised the stereotypical West Country pirate accent.

Often portraying disreputable members of the upper classes, comedian Terry-Thomas' personification of the Englishman as an amiable bounder struck a chord with British audiences during the 1950s.

The *James Bond* film series began in the early 1960s, with Sean Connery in the leading role.

Bond, portrayed by Connery, was selected as the third-greatest hero in cinema history by the AFI. After The Beatles films *A Hard Day's Night* (1964) and *Help!* (1965), it became standard for each new pop group to have a verité style feature film made about them. Michael Powell's hugely controversial thriller/horror film *Peeping Tom* was released in 1960.

It is today considered a classic, and is regarded as a contender for the first "slasher" film.

The Ipcress File (1965) stars Michael Caine as Harry Palmer, a British Army sergeant with a criminal past now working for a Ministry of Defence (MoD). Adjusted for inflation, David Lean's *Doctor Zhivago* (1965) is among the top ten highest-grossing films. *A Man for All Seasons*(1966), based on Sir Thomas More, is listed by the Vatican as being among the greatest religious movies.

Other major British films of the 1960s included *Lawrence of Arabia* (1962), *Tom Jones (1963), Zulu* (1964) and *Those Magnificent Men in Their Flying Machines* (1965). Four of the decade's Academy Award winners for best picture were British productions, including the film musical *Oliver!* (1968) based on Charles Dickens' classic *Oliver Twist*, with Ron Moody acclaimed as Fagin.

In the 1970s, Ronald Neame directed the festive favourite *Scrooge* (1970). *A Clockwork Orange* (1971), based on Anthony Burgess' novella of the same name, starred Malcolm McDowell as Alex, the leader of a gang of thugs in a dystopian Britain.

Get Carter (1971) features the eponymous London gangster Jack Carter (played by Michael Caine). The horror film *The Wicker Man* (1973), starring Christopher Lee, is considered a cult classic.

In 1973 *The Day of the Jackal* starred Edward Fox as the "Jackal". Nicolas Roeg's acclaimed psychological horror/thriller *Don't Look Now* was released in 1973.

Two adaptations of Agatha Christie stories *Murder on the Orient Express* (1974) and *Death on the Nile*(1978) were critically acclaimed. The film adaptation of the West End musical *The Rocky Horror Picture Show*(1975) sees Tim Curry reprise his role as Dr Frank N Furter. Starring as James Bond in *Live and Let Die*(1973), Roger Moore would go on to play 007 seven times.

In the mid-1970s, British comedy team Monty Python switched their attention to films, beginning with *Monty Python and the Holy Grail* (1975), followed by *Monty Python's Life of Brian* (1979), the latter regularly voted the funniest film of all time by the British public. A notable song from *Life of Brian*, "Always Look on the Bright Side of Life" has become a common singalong at public events. Hollywood blockbusters filmed at major British studios in 1977-79, include *Star Wars* at Elstree Studios, Superman at Pinewood, and *Alien* at Shepperton. British films won back to back Academy and BAFTAs for best picture in the 1980s, with *Chariots of Fire* (1981), followed by *Gandhi* (1982). John Hurt starred as 19th-century Englishman Joseph Merrick in *The Elephant Man* (1980). Bob Hoskins played a London gangster in *The Long Good Friday* (1980). In the 1980s, a wave of visually stylish directors, Ridley Scott, Alan Parker, Tony Scott, Hugh Hudson and Adrian Lyne, were credited for "ushering in a new era of blockbusters using the crowd-pleasing skills they'd honed in advertising."

The 1983 drama/comedy *Educating Rita* features Julie Walters and Michael Caine. The 1985 dystopian fantasy, *Brazil*, is regarded as one of the best British films of the mid-1980s.

The 1987 black comedy, *Withnail and I*, has been described as "one of Britain's biggest cult films". Gary Oldman portrayed British punk icon Sid Vicious in the cult film *Sid and Nancy* (1986). In 1988 Charles Crichton directed *A Fish Called Wanda*, the most acclaimed British comedy of the era.

During the late 1980s, a number of young British actors who were becoming major stars, Gary Oldman, Tim Roth, Daniel Day-Lewis, Colin Firth and Rupert Everett, were dubbed the "Brit Pack".

The 1990s saw a large number of traditional British period dramas, including *Sense and Sensibility* (1995), *Restoration* (1995), *Emma* (1996), *Mrs. Brown* (1997), *Shakespeare in Love* (1998) depicts Shakespeare while he was writing *Romeo and Juliet*.

Set in pre and post war Britain, *The Remains of the Day* (1993), starring Anthony Hopkins and Emma Thompson, was based on the novel by Kazuo Ishiguro. Thompson starred *In the Name of the Father* alongside Daniel Day-Lewisthe same year. Alan Rickman starred as a ghost in *Truly, Madly, Deeply* (1990) and Nigel Hawthorne starred in *The Madness of King George* (1994).

Other critical successes include *The Crying Game* (1992) – famous for its shocking twist, *The Secret Garden* (1993) – inspired by the walled garden at Great Maytham Hall in Kent, and *Shadowlands* (1993) starring Anthony Hopkins. Anthony Minghella's *The English Patient* (1996) won 9 Academy Awards.

BAFTA Award winning films included Danny Boyle's black comedy drama *Trainspotting* (1996) featuring heroin addict Mark Renton (Ewan McGregor) and his circle of friends in Edinburgh, the 1997 comedy *The Full Monty* set in Sheffield, and the biographical drama *Elizabeth* (1998).

Richard Curtis's 1994 film *Four Weddings and a Funeral*, starring Hugh Grant in his breakthrough role, set a pattern for British-set romantic comedies, including *Sliding Doors* (1998) and *Notting Hill* (1999). Grant made headlines for his high-profile relationship with Elizabeth Hurley, which was the focus of much attention in the British and international media. Guy Ritchie filmed the crime comedies *Lock, Stock &Two Smoking Barrels* (1998) & *Snatch* (2000), both set in the London criminal underworld.

London visual effects company *The Mill* produced the computer-generated imagery effects for Ridley Scott's *Gladiator* (2000); the film was dedicated to Oliver Reed who died during filming. *The Mill* created a digital body double for his remaining scenes.

At the start of the 21st century, three major international British successes were the romantic comedies *Bridget Jones's Diary* (2001), sequel *Bridget Jones: The Edge of Reason* (2004), and Richard Curtis's directorial debut *Love Actually* (2003). In 2000, Leavesden *Film Studios* began filming the first instalment of the *Harry Potter* film series. Set in north-east England, *Billy Elliot* (2000) deals with a boy becoming a ballet dancer. Composer Clint Mansell's theme "Lux Aeterna" has gained wide usage in popular culture and has featured in a number of film trailers.

Written by Julian Fellowes, *Gosford Park* (2001) is set in an English country house. The British Indian themed sports comedy drama *Bend It Like Beckham* (2002) featured starring roles for Keira Knightley and Parminder Nagra. Famous for his creation Mr. Bean, the comedian Rowan Atkinson starred in *Johnny English* (2003). Wallace & Gromit creator and award-winning animator Nick Park directed *Chicken Run* (2000) and *Wallace & Gromit: The Curse of the Were-Rabbit* (2005). They are the two highest-grossing stop motion animated films.

Helen Mirren starred as Elizabeth II in *The Queen* (2006). Acclaimed British sci-fi films, *28 Days Later* (2002), and *Children of Men* (2007), depict a dystopian Britain.

Joe Wright's *Atonement* (2007) is set in England through WWII. Simon Pegg co-wrote and starred in the *Three Flavours Cornetto* trilogy of films: *Shaun of the Dead* (2004), *Hot Fuzz* (2007), and *The World's End* (2013), which were directed by Edgar Wright.

Danny Boyle's *Slumdog MInaire* (2008) was the most successful British film of the decade.

The 2008 horror *Eden Lake* is among a group of contemporary films dealing with British "hoodies". Based on Mark Millar's comics, *Kick-Ass* (2010), starring Aaron Taylor-Johnson as the title character, and *Kingsman: The Secret Service* (2015), starring Michael Caine as the head of the British secret service Kingsman – both directed by M. Vaughn – won Empire Awards for Best British Film.

Historical drama *The King's Speech* (2010), featuring Colin Firth as George VI, received several awards. Acclaimed for his motion capture work, in 2011 actor Andy Serkis opened his own motion capture workshop, The Imaginarium Studios in London. In 2012, the 23rd *James Bond* film *Skyfall* was the highest-grossing film in the UK at that point. In 2013, British visual effects company Framestore, produced the critically acclaimed space epic *Gravity*.

In 2014, the film biopics on two British scientists, *The Theory of Everything* and *The Imitation Game*, both achieved critical and commercial success. British actors and actresses have always been significant in international cinema. Hollywood films with a British dimension have had enormous worldwide commercial success. Many of the highest-grossing films worldwide of all time have a British historical, cultural or creative theme.

Films based on British historical events: RMS *Titanic*, Piracy in the Caribbean, Mutiny on the Bounty, The Great Escape, historical people; William Wallace, Lawrence of Arabia, King Arthur, Elizabeth I, British stories; *Harry Potter*, *The Lord of the Rings*, *James Bond*, *The Chronicles of Narnia*, *Sherlock Holmes*, *Frankenstein*, *A Christmas Carol*, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory*, *Treasure Island*, *The War of the Worlds* among many others.

British video game *Tomb Raider* features English archaeologist Lara Croftwhich has been made into feature films. British influence can be seen with the 'English Cycle' of Disney films, which feature *Alice in Wonderland*, *Peter Pan*, *Robin Hood*, *The Jungle Book*, *The Sword in the Stone*, *The Rescuers*, *The Hundred and One Dalmatians* and *Winnie the Pooh*.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Film	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

UNIT III. RADIO & TV & PRESS

BROADCASTING

The UK has been at the forefront of developments in film, radio and television. Broadcasting in the UK has historically been dominated by the taxpayer-funded but independently run British Broadcasting Corporation (*BBC*), although other independent radio and television (ITV, Channel 4, Five) and satellite broadcasters (especially BSkyB which has over 10 mln subscribers) have become more important in recent years. BBC TV and the other 3 main TV channels are public service broadcasters who, as part of their licence allowing them to operate, broadcast a variety of minority interest programming.

The BBC and Channel 4 are state-owned, though they operate independently.

Many successful British TV shows have been exported around the world, such as *Pop Idol* (created by Simon Fuller), *Who Wants to Be a Mlnaire?*, *Britain's Got Talent* (Simon Cowell), *The X Factor*, *Hell's Kitchen* (Gordon Ramsay), *The Office* (Ricky Gervais and Stephen Merchant), *Strictly Come Dancing*, *House of Cards*, *Who Do You Think You Are?* (genealogy series where a celebrity traces their family tree), *Black Mirror* (Charlie Brooker), *Sherlock*, *Doctor Who*, *Downton Abbey*, *The Crown* and *Top Gear*.

David Attenborough's acclaimed nature documentaries, including *The Blue Planet*, *Planet Earth* and *Life on Earth*, are produced by the BBC Natural History Unit, the largest wildlife documentary production house in the world. The British Film Institute's list of the 100 Greatest British Television Programmes in 2000 was voted by industry insiders. In 2004 the BBC conducted a poll to find Britain's Best Sitcom. The British public voted for TV's 50 Greatest Stars in 2006.

International football tournaments, such as the World Cup, are historically the most viewed sports events among the public, while *Match of the Day* is the most popular weekly football show.

The 1966 FIFA World Cup Final and the Funeral of Princess Diana are the two most watched television events ever in the UK. Satire has been a prominent feature in British comedy for centuries. The British satire boom of the 1960s, which consisted of writers and performers such as Peter Cook, Dudley Moore, Alan Bennett, David Frost and Jonathan Miller, has heavily influenced British television, including the sketch comedy series *Monty Python's Flying Circus* created in 1969 by Monty Python. Regarded as the leading figure of the satire boom, Peter Cook was ranked number one in the *Comedians' Comedian* poll. The puppet show *Spitting Image* was a satire of the royal family, politics, entertainment, sport and UK culture of the 1980s up to the mid-1990s.

Have I Got News for You and *Mock the Week* are the two longest running satirical panel shows. Satire features heavily in the *Grand Theft Auto* video game series which has been ranked among Britain's most successful exports. The slapstick and double entendre of Benny Hill achieved very high ratings on UK television, as did the physical humour of *Mr. Bean*.

Popular comedy duos in television include *The Two Ronnies* and *Morecambe and Wise*, with both shows featuring memorable sketches. *Jeeves and Wooster* starred Hugh Laurie as Bertie Wooster, an airy, nonchalant, gormless, idle young gentleman and Stephen Fry as Jeeves, his calm, well-informed, and talented valet. Created by and starring Rik Mayall as Richie and Adrian Edmondson as Eddie, *Bottom* features two crude, perverted flatmates with no jobs and little money, which is noted for its chaotic, nihilistic humour and violent comedy slapstick. First airing in 1958, *Blue Peter* is famous for its arts and crafts "makes". The show has been a staple for generations of British children.

The UK has a large number of national and local radio stations which cover a great variety of programming. The most listened to stations are the five main national BBC radio stations.

PRINT & PRESS

Freedom of the press was established in Great Britain in 1695. Popular British daily national newspapers include *The Times*, *The Sun*, *Daily Mail*, *The Daily Telegraph*, *Daily Mirror*, *Daily Express and the Guardian*.

Founded by publisher John Walter in 1785, *The Times* is the first newspaper to have borne that name, lending it to numerous other papers around the world, and is the originator of the widely used Times Romantypeface, created by Victor Lardent and commissioned by Stanley Morison in 1931.

The weekly newspaper *The Economist* was founded by James Wilson in 1843, and the daily *Financial Times* was founded in 1888. Founding *The Gentleman's Magazine* in 1731, Edward Cave coined the term "magazine" for a periodical, and was the first publisher to successfully fashion a wide-ranging publication. Founded by Thomas Gibson Bowles, *Vanity Fair* featured caricatures of famous people for which it is best known today.

A pioneer of children's publishing, John Newbery made children's literature a sustainable and profitable part of the literary market. *The History of Little Goody Two-Shoes* was published by Newbery in 1765. Founded by Sir Allen Lane in 1935, Penguin Books revolutionised publishing in the 1930s through its inexpensive paperbacks, bringing high-quality paperback fiction and non-fiction to the mass market. Formed four years later, Puffin Books is the children's imprint of Penguin Books: Barbara Euphan Todd's 1936 story about the scarecrow *Worzel Gummidge* was the first Puffin story book in 1941.

The English novel has generally been seen as beginning with Daniel Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe* (1719) and *Moll Flanders* (1722). These books were published after the creation of Copyright in 1709, with other notable published works including Samuel Richardson's *Pamela* (1740) and Clarissa (1747); Jonathan Swift's *Gulliver's Travels* (1726) and Henry Fielding's *Tom Jones* (1749).

In 1764 Horace Walpole published the first gothic novel, *The Castle of Otranto*, initiating a new literary genre. John Polidori's *The Vampyre* (1819) was the first fictional vampire story.

The *Guinness Book of Records* was the brainchild of Sir Hugh Beaver. On 10 November 1951 he became involved in an argument over which was the fastest game bird in Europe, and realised that it was impossible to confirm in reference books. Beaver knew that there must be numerous other questions debated throughout the world, but there was no book with which to settle arguments about records. He realised that a book supplying the answers to this sort of question may prove successful.

His idea became reality when an acquaintance of his recommended University friends Norris & Ross McWhirter who were then commissioned to compile what became *The Guinness Book of Records* in August 1954. E. L. James' erotic romance trilogy *Fifty Shades of Grey*, *Fifty Shades Darker*, and *Fifty Shades Freed*, have sold over 125 mln copies globally, and set the record in the UK as the fastest selling paperback.

Copyright laws originated in Britain with the Statute of Anne (also known as the Copyright Act 1709), which outlined the individual rights of the artist. A right to benefit financially from the work is articulated, and court rulings and legislation have recognised a right to control the work, such as ensuring that the integrity of it is preserved. The Statute of Anne gave the publishers rights for a fixed period, after which the copyright expired.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Press	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

BRITISH COMICS

British comics in the early 20th century typically evolved from illustrated penny dreadfuls of the Victorian era (featuring Sweeney Todd, Dick Turpin and *Varney the Vampire*). Introducing familiar features in vampire fiction, *Varney* is the first story to refer to sharpened teeth for a vampire.

After adult comics had been published – most notably *Ally Sloper's Half Holiday* (1880s) featuring Ally Sloper who has been called the first regular character in comics, – more juvenile British comics emerged, with the two most popular, *The Beano* and *The Dandy*, released by DC Thomson (based in Dundee, Scotland) in the 1930s. By 1950 the weekly circulation of both reached two mln.

Explaining the popularity of comics during this period, Anita O'Brien, director curator at London's Cartoon Museum, states: "When comics like the *Beano* and *Dandy* were invented back in the 1930s – and through really to the 1950s and 1960s – these comics were almost the only entertainment available to children." In 1954 *Tiger* comics introduced *Roy of the Rovers*, the hugely popular football based strip recounting the life of Roy Race and the team he played for, Melchester Rovers.

The stock media phrase real "Roy of the Rovers stuff" is often used by football writers, commentators and fans when describing displays of great skill, or surprising results that go against the odds, in reference to the dramatic storylines that were the strip's trademark. Other comic books and graphic novels such as *Eagle*, *Valiant*, *Warrior*, and *2000 A.D.* flourished.

Created by Emma Orczy in 1903, the Scarlet Pimpernel is the alter ego of Sir Percy Blakeney, a wealthy English fop who transforms into a formidable swordsman and a quick-thinking escape artist, establishing the "hero with a secret identity" into popular culture.

The Scarlet Pimpernel first appeared on stage (1903) and then in novel (1905), and became very popular with the British public. He exhibits characteristics that became standard superhero conventions in comic books, including the penchant for disguise, use of a signature weapon (sword), ability to out-think and outwit his adversaries, and a calling card (he leaves behind a scarlet pimpernel at his interventions). Drawing attention to his alter ego Blakeney he hides behind his public face as a meek, slow thinking foppish playboy (like Bruce Wayne), and he establishes a network of supporters, The League of the Scarlet Pimpernel, that aid his endeavours.

In the 1980s, a resurgence of British writers and artists gained prominence in mainstream comic books, which was dubbed the "British Invasion" in comic book history. These writers and artists brought with them their own mature themes and philosophy such as anarchy, controversy and politics common in British media, but were never before seen in American comics. These elements would pave the way for mature and "darker and edgier" comic books that would jump start the Modern Age of Comics. Prominent comic book artists include Steve Dillon, Simon Bisley, Dave McKean, Glen Fabry, John Ridgwayand Sean Phillips.

UNIT IV. VISUAL ARTS & ARCHITECTURE

INTRODUCTION

Art is an important part of the British history and culture. Many British artists created irreplaceable artwork whose appealing influenced many artists from all around the globe.

Traces of British art development take us back to the pre-historical periods.

The Stonehenge, built around 2600 B.C., is clearly the oldest British artwork we know until now. The influence of Roman conquer and other preceding historical ages are still present in UK.

Old churches and cathedrals have the same illuminated manuscript and sculpture as when they were built centuries ago. Throughout the history of art, the UK produced some of the greatest artists ever. Names like William Blake, J.M.W.Turner, John Constable, Samuel Palmer and so forth made a strong basis for artists that would come later.

Before 18th century, a number of brilliant British artists are best represented by the names of Hans Holbein, Anthony van Dyck, Niccolas Hilliard, Robert Peake, William Larkin, William Dobson and John Michael Wright. During the second part of the 18th century, the art movements that took place in the UK resulted in the expansion of the distinguished artists like Sir Joshua Reynold, George Stubbs, Thomas Gainsborough and Joseph Wright of Derby.

Artists like Joseph Wright, James Wright, Samuel Palmer, Richard Parkes Bonnington and so on, were some of the best during the 19th century or the Romantic period as it is known.

During the 20th century artists like John Singer Sargent, Jack Butler Yeats, Sir Jacob Epstein, avid Bomberg, Lawrence Atkinson, Dora Carrington and others climbed the elite of artists in UK.

BRITISH PAINTING

From the creation of the UK, the English school of painting is mainly notable for portraits and landscapes, indeed portraits in landscapes. Among the artists of this period are Joshua Reynolds (1723-1792), George Stubbs (1724-1806), and Thomas Gainsborough (1727-1788).

Pictorial satirist William Hogarth pioneered Western sequential art, and political illustrations in this style are often referred to as "Hogarthian". Following the work of Hogarth, political cartoons developed in England in the latter part of the 18th century under the direction of James Gillray.

Regarded as being one of the two most influential cartoonists (the other being Hogarth), Gillray has been referred to as the father of the political cartoon, with his satirical work calling the king (George III), prime ministers and generals to account.

The late 18th century and the early 19th century was perhaps the most radical period in British art, producing William Blake (1757-1827), John Constable (1776-1837), J. M. W. Turner (1775-1851), three of the most influential British artists, each of whom have dedicated spaces allocated for their work at the Tate Britain. Named after Turner, the Turner Prize (created in 1984) is an annual award presented to a British visual artist under the age of 50.

The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood (PRB) achieved considerable influence after its foundation in 1848 with paintings that concentrated on religious, literary, and genre subjects executed in a colourful and minutely detailed style. PRB artists included John Everett Millais, Dante Gabriel Rossetti and subsequently Edward Burne-Jones. Also associated with it was the designer William Morris, whose efforts to make beautiful objects affordable for everyone led to his wallpaper and tile designs to some extent defining the Victorian aesthetic and instigating the Arts and Crafts movement.

Visual artists from the UK in the 20th century include Lucian Freud, Francis Bacon, David Hockney, Bridget Riley, the pop artists Richard Hamilton and Peter Blake. Prominent amongst 20th-century artists was Henry Moore, regarded as the voice of British sculpture, and of British modernism in general. Sir Jacob Epstein was a pioneer of modern sculpture.

In 1958 artist Gerald Holtom designed the protest logo for the British Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament (CND), the peace movement in the UK, which became a universal peace symbol.

As a reaction to abstract expressionism, pop art emerged in England at the end of the 1950s.

The 1990s saw the Young British Artists, Damien Hirst and Tracey Emin.

The auction was revived in 17th- and 18th-century England when auctions by candle began to be used for the sale of goods and leaseholds, some of which were recorded in Samuel Pepys's diary in 1660. Headquartered in King Street, London, Christie's, the world's largest auction house, was founded in 1766 by auctioneer James Christie in London. Known for his thickly impasted portrait and figure paintings, Lucian Freud was widely considered the pre-eminent British artist of his time. Freud was depicted in Francis Bacon's 1969 oil painting, *Three Studies of Lucian Freud*, which was sold for $142.4 mln in November 2013, the highest price attained at auction to that point.

Randolph Caldecott, Walter Crane, Kate Greenaway, John Tenniel, Aubrey Beardsley, Roger Hargreaves, Arthur Rackham, John Leech, George Cruikshank and Beatrix Potter were notable book illustrators. Posters have played a significant role in British culture. Designed by Alfred Leete in 1914 as a recruitment poster for the British Army, "Lord Kitchener Wants You" is the most famous British recruitment poster ever produced and an iconic and enduring image of World War I.

Produced by the British government in 1939 for World War II, the *Keep Calm and Carry On* motivational poster is now seen as "not only as a distillation of a crucial moment in Britishness, but also as an inspiring message from the past to the present in a time of crisis". In the late 1960s, British graphic designer Storm Thorgerson co-founded the English graphic art group Hipgnosis, who have designed many iconic single and album covers for rock bands. His works were notable for their surreal elements, with perhaps the most famous being the cover for Pink Floyd's *The Dark Side of the Moon*.

Designed by David Bowie, the *Aladdin Sane* album cover features a lightning bolt across his face which is regarded as one of the most iconic images of Bowie. The subversive political artwork of Banksy (pseudonym of English graffiti artistwhose identity is concealed) can be found on streets, walls and buildings in the UK and the rest of the world. Arts institutions include the Royal College of Art, Royal Society of Arts, New English Art Club, Slade School of Art, Royal Academy, and the Tate Gallery (the National Gallery of British Art).

Design

In 2006, 37 years after its first test flight, Concorde was named the winner of the Great British Design Quest organised by the BBC and the Design Museum. A total of 212,000 votes were cast with Concorde beating other British design icons such as the Mini, mini skirt, Jaguar E-Type, Tube map and the Supermarine Spitfire. The Spitfire featured in Christopher Nolan's 2017 action-thriller film *Dunkirk*.

Sir Morien Morgan led research into supersonic transport in 1948 that culminated in the Concorde passenger aircraft. In November 1956 he became Chairman of the newly formed Supersonic Transport Aircraft Committee which funded research into supersonic transport at several UK aviation firms though the 1950s. By the late 1950s the Committee had started the process of selecting specific designs for development, and after the forced merger of most UK aviation firms in 1960, selected the Bristol Type 223, designed by Archibald Russell, as the basis for a transatlantic design.

The Brit Awards statuette for the BPI's annual music awards, which depicts Britannia, the female personification of Britain, is regularly redesigned by some of the best known British designers, stylists and artists, including Dame Vivienne Westwood, Damien Hirst, Tracey Emin, Sir Peter Blake, Zaha Hadid and Sir Anish Kapoor.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 3. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 4. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Artist	Picture	When	Score
1.				

ARCHITECTURE

The British architecture is unique with its own styles and forms. Their architectural structure depicts specific traits from different periods of history, from the 5th century of Roman conquering, throughout the Dark Ages and Renaissance whose impact is still present in the British architectural heritage. There are castles, monuments, and other architectural buildings all across the country and many of them are nowadays transformed into touristic attractions.

These objects combine perfectly with the latest trend in modern architecture. During the 6th century, there were many Anglo-Saxon churches built in the UK. With the invasion of Normans, there was a large number of Norman style castles during the 11th century.

There is the Carrick Fergus castle built during the 12th century on the shores of Belfast Lough. In the capital of UK, London there is the first Romanesque building in England, the Westminster Abbey. Between the 12th and 16th century, it was time for the Gothic style to make its impact on British architecture. Although initially copied from France, the British gothic cathedrals developed their unique features. There was the Canterbury Cathedral, built in 1174, followed by the Wells Cathedral and Lincoln Cathedral. On both sides of the Anglo-Scottish border, there are still a number of stone castles left from the lasting Scottish Independence War during the 14th century. Many engineering inventions made later on Renaissance caused the emerging on many new artistic building styles.

Old castles share also a proportion of architectural heritage in the UK. Among many of them, some of the most beautiful and most visited by tourists are the Windsor Castle, the Edinburgh Castle, Leeds, Alnwick, Cardiff, Bodiam, Stirling, Caernarfon, Warwick, Bamburgh Castle etc.

The architecture of the UK includes many features that precede the creation of the UK in 1707, from as early as Skara Brae and Stonehenge to the Giant's Ring, Aveburyand Roman ruins.

In most towns and villages the parish church is an indication of the age of the settlement.

Many castles remain from the medieval period, such as Windsor Castle (longest-occupied castle in Europe), Stirling Castle, Bodiam Castle (a moated castle), Warwick Castle.

Over the 200 following the Norman conquest of England of 1066, the building of the Tower of London, castles such as Caernarfon Castle in Wales and Carrickfergus Castle in Ireland were built.

English Gothic architecture flourished from the 12th to the early 16th century, and famous examples include Westminster Abbey, the traditional place of coronation for the British monarch, which also has a long tradition as a venue for royal weddings; and was the location of the funeral of Princess Diana, Canterbury Cathedral, one of the oldest & most famous Christian structures in England; Salisbury Cathedral, which has the tallest church spire in the UK; and Winchester Cathedral, which has the longest nave and greatest overall length of any Gothic cathedral in Europe.

Tudor architecture is the final development of Medieval architecture in England, during the Tudor period (1485-1603). In the UK, a listed building is a building or other structure officially designated as being of special architectural, historical or cultural significance. About half a mln buildings in the UK have "listed" status.

In the 1680s, Downing Street was built by Sir George Downing, and its most famous address 10 Downing Street, became the residence of the Prime Minister in 1730.

One of the best-known English architects working at the time of the foundation of the UK was Sir Christopher Wren. He was employed to design and rebuild many of the ruined ancient churches of London following the Great Fire of London. His masterpiece, St Paul's Cathedral, was completed in the early years of the UK. Buckingham Palace, the London residence of the British monarch, was built in 1705. Both St. Paul's Cathedral and Buckingham Palace use Portland stone, a limestone from the Jurassic period quarried in the Jurassic Coast in Portland, Dorset, which is famous for its use in British and world architecture. In the early 18th century Baroque architecture – popular in Europe – was introduced, and Blenheim Palace was built in this era.

However, Baroque was quickly replaced by a return of the Palladian form. The Georgian architecture of the 18th century was an evolved form of Palladianism.

Many existing buildings such as Woburn Abbey and Kedleston Hall are in this style. Among the many architects of this form of architecture and its successors, neoclassical and romantic, were Robert Adam, Sir William Chambers, and James Wyatt.

The aristocratic stately home continued the tradition of the first large gracious unfortified mansions such as the Elizabethan Montacute House and Hatfield House. Many of these houses are the setting for British period dramas, such as *Downton Abbey*.

During the 18th and 19th centuries in the highest echelons of British society, the English country house was a place for relaxing, hunting in the countryside. Many stately homes have become open to the public: Knebworth House, now a major venue for open air rock and pop concerts – Freddie Mercury's final live performance with Queen took place at Knebworth on 9 August 1986, Alton Towers, the most popular theme park in the UK, and Longleat, the world's first safari park outside Africa.

In the early 19th century the romantic Gothic revival began in England as a reaction to the symmetry of Palladianism. Notable examples of Gothic revival architecture are the Houses of Parliament and Fonthill Abbey. By the middle of the 19th century, as a result of new technology, one could incorporate steel as a building component: one of the greatest exponents of this was Joseph Paxton, architect of the Crystal Palace. Paxton built such houses as Mentmore Towers, in the still popular retrospective Renaissance styles.

In this era of prosperity and development British architecture embraced many new methods of construction, but such architects as August Puginensured that traditional styles were retained.

Following the building of the world's first seaside pier in July 1814 in Ryde, Isle of Wight off the south coast of England, the pier became fashionable at seaside resorts in the UK during the Victorian era, peaking in the 1860s with 22 being built. Providing a walkway out to sea, the seaside pier is regarded as among the finest Victorian architecture, and is an iconic symbol of the British seaside holiday. By 1914, there were over 100 piers around the UK coast. Today there are 55 seaside piers in the UK. Tower Bridge (half a mile from London Bridge) opened in 1895.

At the beginning of the 20th century a new form of design, arts and crafts, became popular; the architectural form of this style, which had evolved from the 19th-century designs of such architects as George Devey, was championed by Edwin Lutyens.

Arts and crafts in architecture is characterised by an informal, non-symmetrical form, often with mullioned or lattice windows, multiple gables and tall chimneys. This style continued to evolve until World War II. After that war, reconstruction went through a variety of phases, but was heavily influenced by Modernism, especially from the late 1950s to the early 1970s. Many bleak town centre redevelopments – criticised for featuring hostile, concrete-lined "windswept plazas"– were the fruit of this interest, as were many equally bleak public buildings, such as the Hayward Gallery.

Many Modernist-inspired town centres are today being redeveloped: Bracknelltown centre is an example. However, in the immediate post-War years many thousands of council houses in vernacular style were built, giving working-class people their first experience of private gardens and indoor sanitation.

Many towns feature statues or sculptures dedicated to famous natives. Modernism remains a significant force in UK architecture, although its influence is felt predominantly in commercial buildings.

The two most prominent proponents are Lord Rogers of Riverside and Norman Foster. Rogers' best known London buildings are probably Lloyd's Building and the Millennium Dome, while Foster created the "Gherkin" and the City Hall.

The Turner Prize winning artist Sir Anish Kapoor is an acclaimed contemporary British sculptors. A notable design is his ArcelorMittal Orbitsculpture at the Olympic Park in London.

Described by *The Guardian* as the "Queen of the curve", Zaha Hadidliberated architectural geometry with the creation of highly expressive, sweeping fluid forms of multiple perspective points and fragmented geometry that evoke the chaos and flux of modern life.

A pioneer of parametricism, and an icon of neo-futurism, with a formidable personality, her acclaimed work and ground-breaking forms include the aquatic centre for the London 2012 Olympics.

In 2010 and 2011 she received the Stirling Prize, the UK's most prestigious architectural award, and in 2015 she became the first woman to be awarded the Royal Gold Medal from the Royal Institute of British Architects. Completed in 2012, the Shard London Bridge is the tallest building in the UK. Other major skyscrapers under construction in London include The Pinnacle, and Heron Tower.

Modernist architect Nicholas Grimshaw designed the Eden Project in Cornwall, which is the world's largest greenhouse.

UNIT V. SPORTS ACTIVITIES

INTRODUCTION

Sport in the UK plays an important role in British culture. The UK has given birth to a range of major international sports including: football, rugby (union & league), cricket, golf, netball darts, tennis, table tennis, badminton, squash, croquet, fives, bowls, modern rowing, hockey, boxing, water polo, snooker, billiards, and curling. This has meant that in the infancy of many sports England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland formed among the earliest separate governing bodies, national teams and domestic league competitions.

After 1922 some sports formed separate bodies for Northern Ireland though some continued to be organised on an all-Ireland basis. In a small number of sports, these teams are supplemented by high-profile events featuring a combined team representing one or more nations.

Overall, association football attracts the most viewers and money though the nation is notable for the diversity of its sporting interests, especially at the elite level. Major individual sports include athletics golf, cycling, motorsport, and horse racing. Tennis is the highest profile sport for the two weeks of the Wimbledon Championships, but otherwise struggles to hold its own in the country of its birth. Snooker and Darts, too, enjoy period profile boosts in line with the holding of their largest events.

Many other sports are also played and followed to a lesser degree. There is much debate over which sport has the most active participants with swimming, athletics, cycling all found to have wider active participation than association football in the 2010 Sport England Active People survey.

17th century

Writing about has explained the role of Puritan power, the English Civil War, and the Restoration of the monarchy in England. The Long Parliament in 1642 "banned theatres, which had met with Puritan disapproval. Although similar action would be taken against certain sports, it is not clear if cricket was in any way prohibited, except that players must not *break the Sabbath*".

In 1660, "the Restoration of the monarchy in England was immediately followed by the reopening of the theatres and so any sanctions that had been imposed by the Puritans on cricket would have been lifted." He goes on to make the key point that political, social and economic conditions in the aftermath of the Restoration encouraged excessive gambling, so much so that a Gambling Act was deemed necessary in 1664. It is certain that cricket, horse racing and boxing (prizefighting) were financed by gambling interests.

Leech explains that it was the habit of cricket patrons, all of whom were gamblers, to form strong teams through the 18th century to represent their interests. He defines a strong team as one representative of more than one parish and he is certain that such teams were first assembled in or immediately after 1660. Prior to the English Civil War and the Commonwealth, all available evidence concludes that cricket had evolved to the level of village cricket only where teams that are strictly representative of individual parishes compete. The "strong teams" of the post-Restoration mark the evolution of cricket (and, indeed of professional team sport, for cricket is the oldest professional team sport) from the parish standard to the county standard. This was the point of origin for major, or first-class, cricket. The year 1660 also marks the origin of professional team sport.

Cricket had become well-established among the English upper class in the 18th century, and was a major factor in sports competition among the public schools. Army units around the Empire had time on their hands, and encouraged the locals to learn cricket so they could have some entertaining competition. Most of the Empire embraced cricket, with the exception of Canada. Cricket test matches (international) began by the 1870s; between Australia and Britain for "The Ashes".

Public Schools

A number of the public schools such as Winchester and Eton, introduced variants of football and other sports for their pupils. These were described at the time as "innocent and lawful", certainly in comparison with the rougher rural games. With urbanization in the 19th century, the rural games moved to the new urban centres and came under the influence of the middle and upper classes.

The rules and regulations devised at English institutions began to be applied to the wider game, with governing bodies in England being set up for a number of sports by the end of the 19th century. The rising influence of the upper class also produced an emphasis on the amateur, and the spirit of "fair play". The industrial revolution also brought with it increasing mobility, and created the opportunity for universities in Britain and elsewhere to compete with one another. This sparked increasing attempts to unify and reconcile various games in England, leading to the establishment of the Football Association in London, the first official governing body in football.

For sports to become professionalized, coaching had to come first. It gradually professionalized in the Victorian era and the role was well established by 1914. In the First World War, military units sought out the coaches to supervise physical conditioning and develop morale-building teams.

Sports Culture

British Prime Minister John Major was the political leader most closely identified with promotion of sports. In 1995 he argued: We invented the majority of the world's great sports.... 19th century Britain was the cradle of a leisure revolution every bit as significant as the agricultural and industrial revolutions we launched in the century before. The British showed a more profound interest in sports, and in greater variety, than any rival. This was chiefly due to the development of the railway network in the UK before other nations. Allowing for national newspapers, and travel around the country far earlier than in other places. They gave pride of place to such moral issues as sportsmanship and fair play. Cricket became symbolic of the Imperial spirit throughout the Empire. Football proved highly attractive to the urban working classes, which introduced the rowdy spectator to the sports world.

In some sports, there was significant controversy in the fight for amateur purity especially in rugby and rowing. New games became popular almost overnight, including golf, lawn tennis, cycling and hockey. Women were much more likely to enter these sports than the old established ones. The aristocracy and landed gentry, with their ironclad control over land rights, dominated hunting, shooting, fishing and horse racing. Many modern Olympic sports trace their roots back to Britain.

Political responsibility for sport is a devolved matter. As England has no parliament of her own, the UK Department of Culture, Media and Sport which is headed by a cabinet minister – though the Minister for Sport and Tourism is not in the cabinet – deals with English sport in addition to UK – wide sports. Political responsibility for Sport in Scotland lies with the Scottish Government Minister for Sport and Health Improvement, currently Jamie Hepburn, though is part of the remit of the Cabinet secretary for Health, Wellbeing and Sport, currently Shona Robison.

Political responsibility for sport in Wales lies with the Welsh Minister for Health, Wellbeing and Sport, currently Vaughan Gething. The Minister sets out the strategic policy objectives for Sport Wales, who are responsible for the development and promotion of sport and active lifestyles in Wales.

Sport Wales work closely with the Governing bodies of sports in Wales to whom they distribute government and National Lottery funding, through grants and awards.

As the Northern Ireland Assembly was reduced in size and a number of departments removed it is not currently (March 2017) clear who holds political responsibility for Sport in Northern Ireland.

However, virtually every team sport is organised on either an all Ireland or UK-wide basis, with football and netball being the only exceptions. As such responsibility for most sports lies with either the UK minister or the Irish minister for Transport, Tourism & Sport.

The Sport and Recreation Alliance is the representative body for sports organisations in the UK, including federations, players associations, mabagers associations and regional organisations.

A large majority of the funding for elite sport in the UK is commercially generated, but this is concentrated heavily on a few sports.

Athletics, most sports outside the top ten or so in popularity, are heavily dependent on public funding. The government agency which funnels this is UK Sport, which has affiliates in each of the home nations, for example Sport England. These agencies are also responsible for distributing money raised for sport by the National Lottery. In 2005, when it was announced London would host the 2012 Games, UK Sport announced funding plans which were more focused than ever before on rewarding sports which have delivered Olympic success, and as a corollary penalising those which have not. UK Sport provides money for the recreational side of the main team sports, even football.

Other sports benefit from special financial provision. British tennis is subsidised by the profits of the Wimbledon Championships, which are in the tens of mlns of pounds each year. Horse racing benefits from a levy on betting.

Team Sports

Four sports in the UK operate high-profile professional leagues. Football is the most popular sport and is played from August to May. Rugby league is traditionally a winter sport, but since the late 1990s the elite competition has been played in the summer to minimise competition for attention with football. Rugby union is also a winter sport. Cricket is played in the Summer, from April to September.

There is a professional Ice Hockey league operating called the Elite Ice Hockey League.

Association Football

The modern global game of football evolved out of traditional football games played in England in the 19th century and today is the highest profile sport in the UK by a very wide margin. This has been the case for generations, but the gap is widely perceived to have increased since the early 1990s, and football's dominance is often seen as a threat to other sports. Each of the four countries in the UK organises its own football league; there are however a few teams who play in another country.

The only major national team competition won by a Home Nation is the 1966 World Cup, which England hosted and won, though clubs in both the Scottish and English domestic leagues have had success in European club competitions, most notably the UEFA Champions League or its predecessor the European Cup.

Glasgow's Celtic won the 1966-67 European Cup, becoming the first British team to do so, with a team composed entirely of players born and raised within the local area around the club's stadium, while the following year, Manchester United became the first English club to win the competition, 10 years after the team had been the victim of a notorious air disaster in Munich while playing in the same competition. Liverpool, with 5 wins, is the most successful English, and British, team in European football, while the competition has also been won by Manchester United 3 times in total, Nottingham Forest twice, and Aston Villa, from Birmingham and Chelsea from London once each.

The Welsh football league system includes the Welsh Premier League and regional leagues.

These leagues have a relatively low profile as rugby union is the national sport of Wales and the top three Welsh football clubs play in the English league system; in addition, one Welsh Premiership club, The New Saints, play their home matches on the English side of the border in Oswestry.

The Welsh clubs of Cardiff City, Colwyn Bay, Merthyr Town, Newport County, Swansea City and Wrexham play in the English system, while Merthyr Tydfil played in an English league before they were liquidated in 2010. The main Welsh Cup competitions are the Welsh Cup and the FAW Premier Cup. Cardiff's 76,250 seater Millennium Stadium is the principal sporting stadium of Wales.

The Northern Ireland football league system includes the NIFL Premiership, often known colloquially as the "Irish League".

Cricket

The early reference to the separate national identities in the UK is perhaps best illustrated by the game of cricket. Cricket is claimed to have been invented in England. The national sport of England is cricket, but England has no team of its own, instead fielding a joint team with Wales.

There are 18 professional county clubs, seventeen of them in England and one in Wales. Each summer the county clubs compete in the first class County Championship, which consists of two leagues of 9 teams and in which matches are played over four days. Team members are drawn from the main county sides, and include both English and Welsh players. It is by no means equal to football in finance, attendance or coverage, but it has a high profile nonetheless. It is probably the second most widely covered sport in England and third most widely covered sport in Wales and the fortunes of the England team are closely followed by many people who never attend a live game.

Scotland and Ireland both have their own cricket teams, but the game is neither as popular nor their teams as successful as the English and Welsh team. Ireland did not receive Test status until 2017, and Scotland still does not have Test status.

Rugby Football

Like association football, rugby union and rugby league both developed from traditional British football games in the 19th century. Rugby football was codified in 1871. Dissatisfaction with the governance of the sport led, in 1895, to a number of prominent clubs establishing what would become rugby league. The estranged clubs, based in mainly working class industrial regions of northern England, had wished to be allowed to compensate their players for missing work to play matches but they had been opposed by those clubs that were predominantly middle class and often based in the south of the country. Subsequently, rugby league developed somewhat different rules.

For much of the 20th century there was considerable antagonism towards rugby league from rugby union. This antagonism has abated since 1995 when rugby union's international governing body, now known as World Rugby, "opened" rugby union to professionalism.

Rugby Union

England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland (Northern and The Republic combined) all field separate teams and are collectively known as the Home Nations. All four teams are among the top ten in global rugby union. The Six Nations Championship played between the Home Nations, Italy and France is the premier international tournament in the northern hemisphere.

The Triple Crown is awarded to any of the Home Nations who beats the other three in that tournament. Games are often played against the "Southern Hemisphere" quartet of South Africa, Australia, New Zealand, and Argentina – as well as other rugby playing countries. In 2015, England hosted the Rugby World Cup; however, some games were played in Wales. In the 2011 Rugby World Cup Wales was the only home nation to progress beyond the Quarter Finals. As the sport's worldwide governing body, World Rugby, is based in Dublin and is heavily dominated by the Home Nations, there has never been a threat to the independence of each country's team and a joint team, known as the British and Irish Lions, will tour a Southern Hemisphere nation every four years.

Rugby League

Like Rugby union, England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland all field separate teams Rugby league sides. Overall rugby league is a smaller sport than rugby union in the UK, but it draws healthy crowds in its heartlands in Yorkshire and North West England, and is popular with armchair sports fans nationwide. The top level league is Super League.The 2018 Championship involves 12 teams, with nine from the heartlands plus the London Broncos, Toulouse Olympique and Canada's Toronto Wolfpack. The latter, the first team in the English rugby league system from outside Europe, won the League 1 title and automatic promotion to the Championship in their inaugural 2017 season.

Ice Hockey

Ice hockey is the only team sport to have a UK-wide league with at least one team from every nation. It has a long history in the UK and it is reasonably well supported, with the larger teams attracting thousands of fans to every game. The main league is the ten-team professional Elite Ice Hockey League containing, four Scottish, four English, one Northern Irish and one Welsh club.

Gaelic Games

Gaelic games such as Gaelic football and hurling are organised on an all-Ireland basis and are highly popular in Northern Ireland, with a smaller presence in Great Britain. They are regulated by the Gaelic Athletic Association. Six Northern Ireland teams feature in the All-Ireland Senior Football Championship, as do the London senior football team from Great Britain. The female equivalent of hurling is called *camogie* and is played by teams from Northern Irish and London. Gaelic handball with its roots in Scotland is still played at a competitive level in Northern Ireland.

Composite rules shinty-hurling is a hybrid sport which was developed to facilitate international matches between shinty players and hurling players.[25] International rules football is a team sport consisting of a hybrid of football codes, which was developed to facilitate international representative matches between Australian rules football players and Gaelic football players.

Field Hockey

Field hockey is the second most popular team recreational sport in the UK. The Great Britain men's hockey team won the hockey tournament at the 1988 Olympics, while the women's hockey team repeated the success in the 2016 Games. While hockey receives widespread television coverage during the Olympics, coverage outside that is small, especially relative to its participation level. The success of the women's team in 2016 has raised the profile of the sport, the women's side and a number of the team's star players.

Shinty

Shinty is an amateur sport indigenous to the Scottish Highlands. Although it is mostly restricted to this area it is highly popular within the Highlands, sometimes attracting crowds numbering thousands in what is the most sparsely populated region of the UK.

It is administered by the Camanachd Association. Its main trophies are the Camanachd Cup and the Premier Division. There are clubs in Edinburgh, Glasgow and London however and it was once played throughout Scotland and England until the early 20th century.

Australian Rules Football

Australian rules football is a growing amateur sport in the UK. The British Australian Rules Football League (BARFL) formed in 1989 and has Premier, Regional and Conference divisions.

The Grand Final is an event that regularly attracts growing audience of up to 5,000. Great Britain has a national team the British Bulldogs, it regularly competes in international matches and has competed in the Australian Football International Cup since its inception in 2002. Exhibition matches are regularly scheduled for The Oval in London, and despite the fact that few Britons know of the sport, the most recent match attracted a record crowd of 18,884.

American football

American football is a minor amateur sport, with two League associations BAFA National Leagues and BAUFL (University league). The BAFA League has 3 divisions: Premier, 1 and 2, with Premier and 1 divided into a North and South conference. The national team is known as the **GB Lions** and represents the UK in international gridiron. Formed in 1991 the London Monarchs played in.

Wembley has hosted multiple games in each season since 2013, and the series has since expanded to include other locations in London.

Bandy

Once invented in England, bandy has been virtually unknown in the UK for most of the 20th Century, but this hockey sport played on ice with rules similar to football has been taken up again.

The Bandy Federation of England was founded in 2010. There are plans to form a national team for the 2018 Bandy World Championship.

Basketball

Basketball is a minor sport in the UK. The top level league is the British Basketball League with the English Basketball League and Scottish Basketball League below them. As with football, the home nations teams were encouraged to work together for the Olympics, while British international basketball teams have not achieved any major successes since then.

Finally, until very recent years, British players were reluctant to develop themselves in the more competitive leagues of continental Europe.

Speedway

Motorcycle speedway, usually referred to as speedway, is a motorcycle sport involving four and sometimes up to six riders competing over four anti-clockwise laps of an oval circuit. Speedway motorcycles use only one gear and have no brakes and racing takes place on a flat oval track usually consisting of dirt or loosely packed shale. The UK has three domestic leagues, the Elite League, the Premier League, and the National League. The Speedway Grand Prix is the main world championship for standalone riders with an event taking place in Cardiff each year. The Speedway World Cup takes place once a year and England hosts a semi final stage in Peterborough and recently in King's Lynn.

Rounders

Rounders is a bat-and-ball base-running game played on a diamond. Played in England since Tudor times, it is referenced in 1744 in the children's book *A Little Pretty Pocket-Book* where it was called baseball. The game is popular among British and Irish school children. In 2015 it was played by 7 mln children in the UK. Gameplay centres on a number of innings, in which the two teams alternate at batting and fielding. A maximum of nine players are allowed to field at any time.

Points ("rounders") are scored by the batting team when one of their players completes a circuit past four bases without being put "out". The batter must strike at a good ball and attempt to run a rounder in an anti-clockwise direction around the first, second, and third base and home to the fourth, though they may stay at any of the first three.

Touch

Touch (Touch Rugby) is a limited-contact sport variant of rugby football. It is typically played with a mixed-gender team of six (three men and three women), with single-gender and age group variants. Teams play on a 70m by 50m pitch with rolling substitutions. There are no set pieces (scrums or lineouts) and kicking the ball is not allowed. Scores are made by grounding the ball over the scoreline as in Rugby Union or League; a team is allowed six touches in possession to attempt a score before the ball is turned over to the opposition.

It is administered globally by the Federation International Touch and by the England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland Touch Association in the UK. The England Touch Association runs three national mixed series from April to September, as well as a men's and a women's series. More than a thousand players across over 40 clubs are registered to play in these competitions. There are also substantial local and regional competitions.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 3. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

INDIVIDUAL SPORTS

Athletics

Athletics does not have a very high profile in Britain on a week-in week-out basis, but it leaps to prominence during major championships. The level of attention received by successful British athletes is illustrated by the fact that athletes have won far more BBC Sports Personality of the Year awards than practitioners of any other sport. The governing body of British Athletics is UK Athletics. There are also semi-independent athletics associations in each of the home nations.

Over the last few decades British athletes have usually won between one and three gold medals at the Olympics; the 2012 Games in London saw three British athletes win four golds.

Traditionally Britain was strongest in men's athletics, especially middle distance running, but over the last 20 years success has been achieved in a wide range of events and British women have closed the attainment gap on the men. However, there remain serious concerns about the depth of the sport in Britain, with the number of club athletes reportedly in decline. Two high-profile annual athletics events are the London Marathon and the Great North Run, which is a half marathon.

Boxing

The UK played a key role in the evolution of modern boxing, with the codification of the rules of the sport known as the Queensberry Rules, named after John Douglas, 9th Marquess of Queensberry in 1867. Britain's first heavyweight world champion Bob Fitzsimmons made boxing history as the sport's first three-division world champion. British professional boxing offers some of the largest purses outside the USA to a few elite professional boxers who become nationally known.

British heavyweight contenders are especially popular, but most British world champions have fought in the middle weight bracket. Amateur boxing is governed by separate bodies in each home nation. At Olympic, World and European events, home nation boxers (with the exception of N.Ireland) compete under the GB podium squad banner. British amateurs have enjoyed success in international competition in recent years but unlike their counterparts boxing for the Irish Republic there's a tendency for them to turn professional early in their amateur career.

Cycling

Britain had limited success with cycle racing in the 20th century. Progress was made in the 2004 Summer Olympics; the first time the British team had won two golds in track cycling since 1908. The investment paid off in the 2008 Olympics; British cyclists brought home gold medals in seven events, most notably Chris Hoy who became the first British Olympian to win three golds at one Olympiad, earning him a knighthood. Success at road racing was limited, with the UK being the only major nation not to have a Tour de France champion, until Bradley Wiggins' victory in the 2012 Tour de France. Because of the increasing interest in cycling, a British UCI ProTeam (Team Sky) was formed for the 2010 cycling season. The success of British Cycling and Team Sky has increased dramatically the popularity of the sport in the UK which has brought in more sponsors into the sport. Words such as MAMIL (middle aged men in lycra) have become part of popular culture.

Golf

Modern competitive golf originated in Scotland. In the early 20th century British golfers were the best in the world, winning nearly all of the US Open championships before World War I. American golfers later became dominant, but Britain has continued to produce leading golfers, with an especially strong period in the 1980s and 1990s. There are usually more British golfers than others in the top 100 of the Official World Golf Ranking relative to population, that is to say more than a fifth as many.

Several British golfers have reached the world's top 10 in the early 2000s.

Golf is the sixth most popular sport, by participation, in the UK. The Open Championship, which is played each July on a number of British golf courses on a rotating basis, the majority of them in Scotland, is the only men's major golf tournament which is played outside of the United States.

Tennis

Tennis is yet another sport which originated in the UK, first originating in the city of Birmingham between 1859 and 1865 as a more open variant of the historical real tennis, or Royal tennis, often associated with the Tudor monarchy of Henry VIII of England.

However, it has not flourished there in recent decades: its profile is highly dependent on the Wimbledon Championships, the most prestigious event of the global tennis calendar. After Fred Perry's Wimbledon win in 1936, no British man won the singles until Andy Murray from Scotland did so in 2013. No British woman has won at Wimbledon since Virginia Wade in 1977.

In addition, Perry's victory in the US National Championships (predecessor to the modern US Open) later in 1936 was the last for any British man in a Grand Slam singles event until Murray won the US Open in 2012; Wade remains the last British woman to win such an event.

The governing body of the sport is the Lawn Tennis Association (LTA), which invests the vast profits from the tournament in the game in the hope of producing British champions, but a string of revamps of the coaching system have failed to raise the standard of LTA-trained players.

The only British players of either sex to reach the world top 50 in recent years are Greg Rusedski, who learnt his tennis in Canada, Tim Henman and Murray, who did not pass through the LTA system either, and on the women's side Anne Keothavong and the late Elena Baltacha both slipped into the worlds top 50 during their careers. Outside of Wimbledon fortnight tennis's profile in Britain is low.

As a result, Great Britain had a top ten ranked men's singles, men's doubles and women's singles players at the same time for the first time ever. Great Britain have won the Davis Cup ten times, with their most recent title in 2015 being their first since 1936.

Motorsport

Britain is the centre of Formula One, with the majority of the Formula One teams based in England, and more world titles won by drivers from Britain than from any other country.

Britain hosts one round of the MotoGP World Championship at Silverstone in early September. Since 2000 the British Superbike Championship (BSB) has become increasingly popular. Road racing events are popular, with the Isle of Man hosting the Isle of Man TT and Northern Ireland hosting the North West 200. In rally raiding, Sam Sunderland became the first British winner of the Dakar Rally when he won the motorcycle classification in 2017.

Triathlon

Triathlon popularity continues to grow in the UK with membership to the British triathlon federation up 174% since 2009, though numbers of participants are larger due to many people who swim, bike or run participating in triathlons. One reason the popularity has increased domestically is due to the UK's strength at the international level with two gold and two bronze medals at the two most recent Olympic games and many wins on the international circuit. Many races are held over the UK hosted by local clubs with about 213,000 race entrants in 2017.

Swimming

Swimming is the largest participation sport in England according to Sport England. It is larger than athletics, cycling and football. The swimming organisations of the home countries formed an umbrella organisation called British Swimming in the year 2000.

British Swimming concentrates on elite swimmers with podium potential. Britain sends large teams to all the major international swimming events, and enjoy some successes, but it is not currently a leading swimming nation. The sport's profile is highest during the Commonwealth Games, when British swimmers have their best chance to win gold medals, and during the Olympics. The sport has a thriving club structure with competition at all levels.

Other Individual Sports

Other sports with loyal followings include **snooker,** which is popular with television companies as it fills their schedules at a very low cost, and also attracts good audiences. However, its popularity has waned somewhat since 1985. There are many amateur leagues set up across the country, featuring team matches between snooker clubs.

Table Tennis is, according to Sport England a widely participated physical activity with c 200000 participants and a large number of regional clubs enrolled to English Table Tennis Association.

Darts is another British centred sport with an assured place in the attention of the British sporting public. The two rival Darts World Championships have been held in the UK since their inception.

Sailing is a well regarded sport in the UK. It is governed by the RYA, and there are many locations in the UK where sailing can take place, both inland and coastal. Media coverage tends to be low, but if this were to be increased, some feel that support for the sport would increase.

Orienteering is regulated by the British Orienteering Federation, and Britain generally puts on a very strong show at the World Orienteering Championships.

The UK has proved successful in the international sporting arena in **rowing**. It is widely considered that the sport's most successful rower is Steve Redgrave who won five gold medals and one bronze medal at five consecutive Olympic Games, as well as numerous wins at the World Rowing Championships and Henley Royal Regatta. There are many other sports in which Britons compete, sometimes with success, but which do not receive much attention outside a small number of aficionados except during major events such as the Olympics and the Commonwealth Games, or when a British athlete does something extraordinary such as breaking a world record. Examples include *judo, gliding, modern pentathlon, figure skating and sailing*.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Sport	When	Where	Score

EQUESTRIAN SPORTS

Horseracing

Thoroughbred racing, which originated under Charles II of England as the "sport of kings", occupies a key place in British sport, probably ranking in the top four or five sports in terms of media coverage. There are 60 racecourses in Great Britain with annual racecourse attendance exceeding six mln and roughly 13,500 races being held across Britain and Ireland each year.

The sport in Great Britain is governed by the British Horseracing Authority. The two racecourses in Northern Ireland are governed by Horse Racing Ireland, which runs the sport on an All-Ireland basis.

The town of Newmarket is considered the centre of English racing, largely because of the famous Newmarket Racecourse. The two forms of horseracing in the UK are National Hunt, which involves jumping over fences or hurdles, and the more glamorous flat racing.

National Hunt is a winter sport and flat racing is a summer sport, but the seasons are very long and they overlap. In flat racing the three races which make up the Triple Crown are the 2,000 Guineas, The Derby, and the St. Leger Stakes. Other leading flat races include the 1,000 Guineas and The Oaks, and these five races are collectively known as the Classics.

Apart from the meetings at which the aforementioned races are staged, major flat racing meetings include Royal Ascot, Glorious Goodwood, the Ebor Festival at York Racecourse. The highlights of the National Hunt season are the Cheltenham Festival and the Aintree Grand National.

The UK played a key role in the evolution of three-day eventing and showjumping. Two of the six annual three-day event competitions given the highest classification by the FEI are British, namely the Badminton Horse Trials and the Burghley Horse Trials. Badminton attracts crowds of up to a quarter of a mln spectators on cross country day, which is the largest for any paid-entry sports event in Britain.

Great Britain at the Olympics

The UK competes in the Olympics as Great Britain during Olympic competition. The British Olympic Association is responsible for the promotion of the Olympic Movement within the UK and for the selection, leadership and management of Great Britain and Northern Ireland at every Olympic accredited event. By longstanding practice, athletes of Northern Ireland have the option of being part of either the Great Britain or Ireland teams.

After the 2004 Summer Olympics Great Britain was third in the all-time Summer Olympic medal count (ranked by gold medals), although the majority of the medals are accounted for by some very large tallies in the first few Olympic Games. British medal tallies for much of the post-war period were generally considered disappointing, but the 2000 Summer Olympics marked an upturn and this was sustained at the 2004 Summer Olympics when Great Britain finished tenth in the medal table and the 2008 where it finished fourth behind only China, the USA and Russia.

This was seen as a great success, and there was a victory parade through the streets of London. This trend continued in the 2012 Games in London. Great Britain again finished fourth in the total medal table (behind the USA, China and Russia), but was third in the gold medal count behind the USA and China. The sports in which the British team has won most medals in recent Summer Olympics include rowing, sailing, cycling and athletics. In addition to the 2012 Summer Olympics, London hosted the Games in 1908 and 1948.

Winter sports only play a minor role in British sporting life because the winters are not cold enough for them to be practised out of doors very much. Great Britain is not a leading nation at the Winter Olympics, but has had a few successes in sports such as figure skating, curling and bob skeleton. A number of athletes represented Great Britain in the freestyle skiing discipline when it debuted at the 2014 Winter Olympics.

Great Britain at the Paralympics

The UK has played a major role in the development of disability sport. The Paralympic Games originated in the Stoke Mandeville Games, which were held at Stoke Mandeville Hospital in Buckinghamshire in 1948. The Great Britain team does much better in the medal table at the Summer Paralympics than at the Summer Olympics. It has never finished outside the top five and has been second several times, including the last five games in 2000, 2004, 2008, 2012 and 2016.

The BBC is an enthusiastic promoter of disability sport. London's successful bid for the 2012 Summer Olympics meant that it hosted the 2012 Summer Paralympics. Although Great Britain have been a minor nation in the Winter Paralympics, they have enjoyed particular success in women's visually impaired alpine skiing in the 2010s, with Kelly Gallagher becoming the first British Winter Paralympic gold medallist at the 2014 Games.

Sport Facilities

In the early 20th century the UK had some of the largest sports facilities in the world, but the level of comfort and amenities they offered would be considered totally unacceptable by modern standards. After a long period of decline relative to other developed countries British facilities have made a relative improvement since the 1980s. Many stadia in the UK were built for national teams:

Wembley Stadium (England football team, FA Cup finals, Football League Cup finals, FA Community Shield, Football League play-offs, and Football League Trophy) 90,000. Wembley has been used by the Great Britain rugby league team, and for major club matches in both rugby codes. It hosts at least one annual regular-season game of the National Football League, the major US professional league of American football, as part of the NFL International Series.

In both 2011 and 2013, it hosted the UEFA Champions League Final. In the 2012 Summer Olympics, Wembley hosted a total of 9 matches – 6 in the men's tournament and three in the women's tournament, including both gold-medal matches.

Lord's (England cricket team, Middlesex County team) 32,000. Lord's is widely referred to as the *"home of cricket"* and is home to the world's oldest sporting museum. Bowls, baseball, tennis, archery and several other sports have been played at Lord's in the past. The archery competition at the 2012 Summer Olympics was held in front of the Pavilion.

Twickenham (England rugby union team; occasionally used for major club matches, notably the London Double Header) 82,000. During the 2016–2018 period, Twickenham will host at least two NFL International Series games.

Millennium Stadium (Wales rugby union and football teams) 75,000. A football venue at the 2012 Summer Olympics.

Murrayfield (Scotland rugby union team & Edinburgh Rugby) 67,000.

Hampden Park (Queen's Park F.C.; the building is owned by Queen's Park but also contains the offices for Scotland's national team) 52,025. Also a football venue at the 2012 Summer Olympics.

Windsor Park (Northern Ireland football team and Linfield F.C.). Owned by Linfield and rented to the Irish Football Association for national team matches.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Stadium	When	Where	Score
1.				

Wembley Stadium in Wembley

CHAPTER IX.

SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

UNIT I.HIGH SCHOOLS

INTRODUCTION

The educational system of G.B. is extremely complex and bewildering. It is very difficult to generalize particular types of schools as schools differ from one to the other. The department of education and science is responsible for national educational policy, but it doesn't employ teacher or prescribe curricula or text books. Each school has it's own board of governors consisting of teachers, parents, local politicians, members of local community, businessmen and sometimes pupils. According to the law only one subject is compulsory. It is religious instruction.

Schooling for children is compulsory from 5 to 16, though some provision is made for children under 5 and some pupils remain at school after 16 to prepare for higher education. The state school system is usually divided into 2 stages (secondary & primary).The majority of primary schools are mixed. They are subdivided into infant schools (ages 5 to 7), and junior schools (ages 7 to11). In junior schools pupils were often placed in A, B, C or D-streams, according to their abilities.

Under the pressure of progressive parents and teachers the 11+ examination has now been abolished in most parts of the country. There are several types of schools in G.B.

Grammar schools provide an academical cause for selected pupils from the age of 11 to 18.

Only those children who have the best results are admitted to these schools. They give pupils a high level of academic education which can lead to the university. Technical Schools offer a general education with a technical bias and serve those pupils who are more mechanically minded.

The curriculum includes more lessons of science & mathematics. Secondary modern schools were formed to provide a non-academic education for children of lesser attainment.

The curriculum includes more practical subjects. Comprehensive schools bring about a general improvement in the system of secondary education. Education in Britain is provided by the local education authority (L.E.A.), it is financed by both the national and local government bodies. It is divided into four categories: nursery, primary, secondary and tertiary.

Nursery education (less than 5 years old). Children do not have to go to school until they are five years old but there is some free nursery school education before that age. However. there are not enough places for all the children. Sometimes parents form their own play groups for children which meet two or three times a week.

Primary education. At five, all children go to infant school and stay there till they are seven.

Then they go to junior school where pupils learn to read, write, and to do arithmetic, these three subjects are known as the three R's. They also sing, draw and play games.

Secondary education. Since 1944, education has been available free of charge to all British children. It is compulsory for all children to go to school until the age of sixteen. In 1965. the government introduced a new system of comprehensive education. Nearly all children attend their local comprehensive school. Classes are arranged so that pupils of similar academic levels are kept together. Often classes are called streams, for example top stream maths or middle stream French. Today parents often have a choice of local schools, some specialising in science, others in arts or social science.

At the age of 16, most pupils take some public examinations called G.C.S.E.'s (General Certificates of Secondary Education). Pupils sit between 3 and 11 of these examinations depending on their level of ability.

Generally pupils take at least English language, English literature, mathematics, a foreign language and a pure science. Some schools have "six forms" for pupils aged 16-18; here it is possible to study three or four subjects at "A" (advanced) level. Most students who study "A" levels do so in order to enter university when they are eighteen, if a school doesn't have a sixth form then students can attend a special sixth form colleges or technical colleges to study a specialised subject or "A" level subjects.

Private schools. Parents who don't wish their children to attend government schools can pay for their children to attend private schools (sometimes called public or grammar schools).

Some people claim that private education is of better quality than state education as most students from private schools go to university when they leave school, however many university students come from state schools.

About forty percent of the private schools are boarding schools where students live at school for nine months of the year; they can go home for the holidays if they want though! Private schools cost from 3,000 to 20,000 pounds per year. In Britain the school year is divided into three terms of around twelve weeks each. The year runs from September till July.

Each term usually has a one week half term holiday in the middle. The timetable usually starts at 8.30 in the morning and finishes at 3.30 p.m. with a morning break and a lunch break.

At many schools it is compulsory to wear a uniform; often this consists of dark shoes, dark trousers or skirt, a white shirt, school tie and the school blazer with the school badge on the pocket. Many schools also have a discipline system to punish tow standards of work or unacceptable behaviour and a commendation system to praise high standards of work.

University or tertiary education. After completing "A" level exams, many British students attend universities. Often a student will attend a university many kilometres from their family home.

In their first year they may live in Halls of Residence and in subsequent years they will often live with their friends in a shared house. Students study one subject but often take one or two shorter course in associated subjects. For example a Physics student may take a maths or computing course as well.First year students are nicknamed "freshers" as they are fresh from home and must often learn to cook for themselves and handle their own finances. British students enjoy independent lives at uni. They are free to pursue their own studies and hobbies. Students normally study for three or four years before being awarded a "Bachelor's" degree.

Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 2. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 3. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

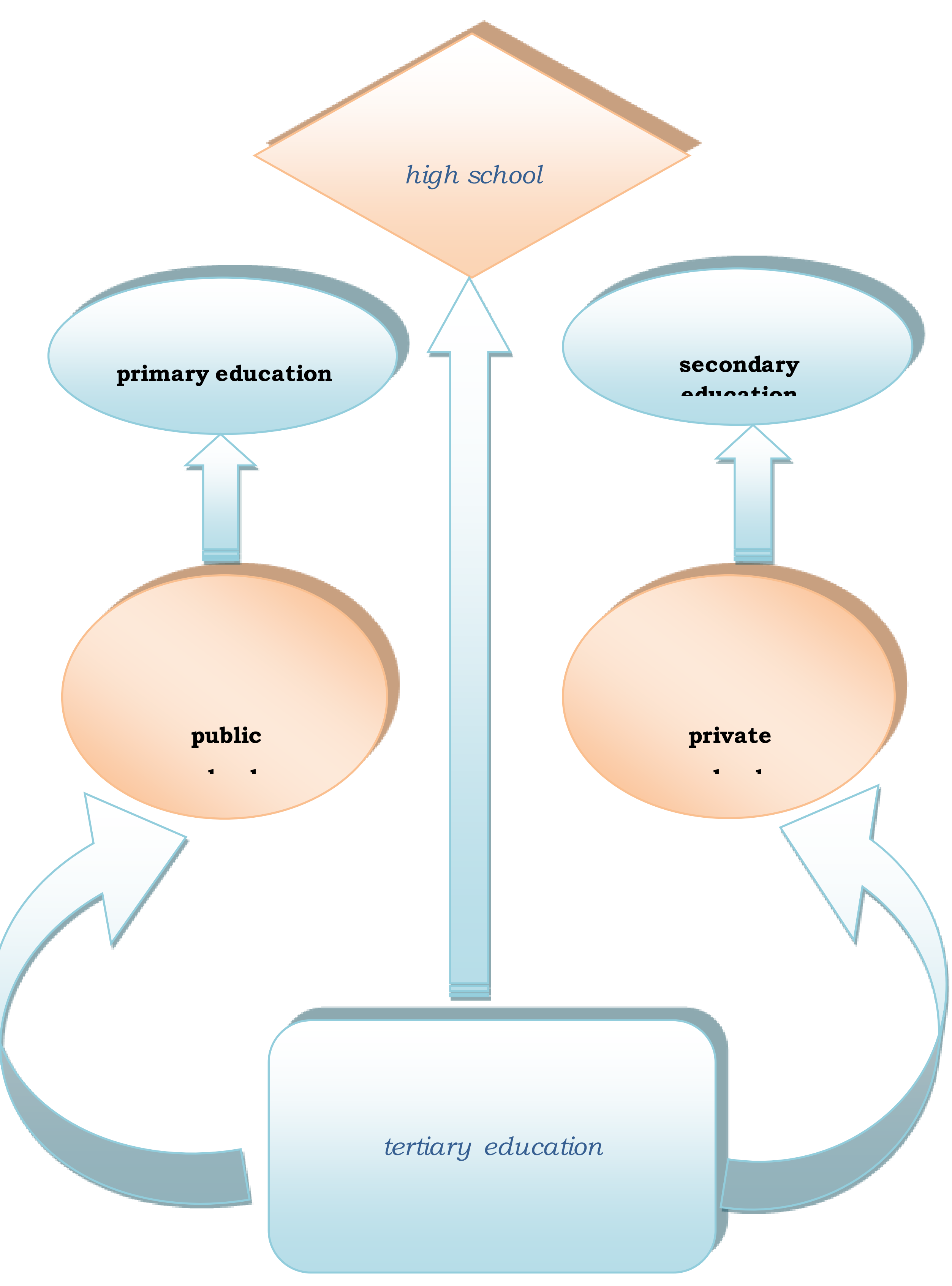
Exercise 4. Answer the questions.

1. When do children begin to attend school in Britain? 2. What school do they attend at the age of 5? (of 7?) 3. How much does it cost to go to school in Britain? 4. How are classes arranged at comprehensive schools? 5. What sort of exams do pupils take at the age of 16 years? 6. Can you describe the school year in Britain? 7. Do pupils in the UK wear uniforms? 8. How many subjects do 18-year-old students usually take? 9. What are first year students at university nicknamed? 10. Where do university students in Britain live? 11. How many subjects take students study at university? 12. Where can students live in their first year? 13. Where can students live in subsequent years? 14. Do the students often take one or two shorter course in associated subjects? 15. How are first year students nicknamed? 16. Do British students enjoy independent lives at uni? 17. Are they free to pursue their own studies and hobbies? 18. How long do students normally study before being awarded a "Bachelor's" degree? 19. How long do students normally study before being awarded a "Master's" degree? 20. Canyou compare the education in Ukraine and England?

EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

Department for Education
Department for Business, Innovation and Skills

General details	
Primary languages	English
System type	National
Compulsory education	1880
Enrollment	
Total	11.7 mln
Primary	4.4 mln
Secondary	3.6 mln
Post secondary	3.7 mln
Attainment	
Secondary diploma	Level 2 and above: 70.7% Level 3 and above: 50.6%
Post-secondary diploma	Level 4 and above: 30.9% (2012 statistics for population aged 19-64)



Education system in Great Britain.

THE FIVE AGES OF EDUCATION

British education has many different faces, but one goal. Its aim is to realize the potential of all, for the good of the individual and society as a whole. The past few years have seen a lot of changes in Britain's traditionally decentralised education system. The most significant in England and Wales were introduced under the Education Reform Act 1988. This led to the phasing-in of compulsory National Curriculum for pupils aged 5 to 16 in state schools.

The Act also aims to give parents a wider choice of schools for their children, and to grant schools, parents and the local community more responsibility in running school affairs.

First steps. Around half of 3- and 4-year-olds in Britain receive nursery education, and many other children attend pre-school playgroups, mostly organized by parents. Children of nursery age need care as well as education, however, and it is not just their mental requirements, but social, emotional and physical needs that must be met. It nursery schools, qualified teachers, usually primary teachers with a nursery teaching qualification, work alongside helpers and nursery nurses to achieve this.

Starting off. Compulsory primary education begins at the age of 5 in England, Wales and Scotland, and 4-in Northern Ireland. Children usually start their school career in an infant school and move to a junior school or department at age 7. In some parts of the country, though, children begin at a first school at age 5, and move on to a middle school at age 8, 9 or 10. Primary schools vary in size and location, some having as few as two teachers and others as many as 30.

Subjects covered include English, mathematics and science, along with technology, history, geography, music, art, and physical education. At 7 & 11 years old (at secondary school at 14 & 16), teachers measure children's progress in each subject against attainment targets.

In English, for instance, there are five basic targets: speaking and listening; reading; writing; spelling; and handwriting. For each target, there are ten levels of attainment. For example, in order to achieve attainment level 2 in writing, a child should, amongst other things, be able to structure sequences of real or imagined events coherently in chronological accounts - this could be in an account of a family occasion, or in a practical mathematics task, or in an adventure story.

Building the Future. Since the 1944 Education Act of Parliament, free secondary education has been available to all children in Britain. Children must go to school until the age 16, and pupils my stay on for 1-2 years more if they wish. Secondary schools in Great Britain are usually comprehensive schools nowadays. The Labour Government introduced the policy of comprehensive schools in 1965.

Children begin their studies there at the age of 11. These schools are not selective-you don't have to pass an exam to go there. Until 1965 all children took an exam at the age of 11 called the "11 plus". The system was considered unfair to many children. Only about 20% were chosen to go to the academic grammar schools. Those who failed the "11 plus"– about 80% – went to secondary modern schools where they had fewer opportunities to go higher institutions after finishing.

Comprehensive schools offer suitable courses for pupils of all abilities.

In Britain, most children of compulsory secondary age (11 to 16) receive free education financed from public funds. A small proportion attends private or "independent" schools, not financed by the state. The large majority of schools teach both boys and girls together. The school year in England and Wales normally begins in September and continues into the following July; in Scotland, it runs from August to June and in Northern Ireland from September to June.

Comprehensive schools develop the talents of each individual child. They offer a wide choice of subjects, from art and craft, woodwork and domestic science to the sciences, modern languages, computer studies, etc. Pupils at comprehensive schools are quite often put into "sets" for the more academic subjects such as mathematics or languages. Sets are formed according to ability in each subject, so that for example the children in the highest set for Maths will not necessary be in the highest set for the language. All pupils move to the next class automatically at the end of the year.

Schools are committed to the objectives of the Children Act (1989), that is to say "to health, happiness and proper physical, intellectual, emotional, social and behavioural development of the child as well as protecting him or her against the risk of suffering significant harm or neglect". They aim to treat all pupils equally and to encourage such equality in this outlook of all pupils, particularly in regard to culture, religion, gender and ethnic background. Care for a pupil is in the hands of Housemasters and Housemistresses and they are assisted by their tutor teams.

Usually schools operate a series of training and educational programmes for both staff and pupils, which aim to cover subjects such as pastoral care, personal and social education, and leadership and inter-personal relationships. Every school encourages and expects the full involvement of its members in a range of academic, cultural and sporting activities.

Children build on the knowledge they have acquired at primary school – and they also start to learn a modern foreign language. Their years at secondary school may lead to General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) qualifications. Those who choose to stay on at school after GCSE usually study for two further years for A (Advanced) level exams in two or three subjects. They can broaden their range by taking AS levels, which demand the same standard of work as A levels but cover only half the content or by taking courses leading to vocational qualifications. Breaking down the artificial barriers between education and business is an important Government aim. Pupils of all ages take part in workplace activities including work-based projects that teachers believe help them to develop personal as well as commercial skills.

For example, one large school in the south of England set up links with a telecommunications firm, which installed satellite dishes on the roof of the school: giving the children experience of industry at first hand and the school access to foreign-language television programmes to use in lessons.

Schools Principles & School Life

Here is an example of aims and principles followed by one of numerous british schools:

- to educate pupils across a wide spectrum of activity;
- to encourage them to strive for the highest standards of which they are capable;
- to teach them the importance of knowing their own strengths and weaknesses;
- to help them acquire self-motivation and a determination to prove their worth in the world beyond school. The life in this school is based on the conviction that each individual matters and that each has valuable qualities. Understanding, tolerance and concern for the individual have a very high priority in this school. On the hand the school encourages that each individual should achieve his or her potential in as many areas of activity as possible offering equal opportunities for its pupils to participate in all activities within the school. On the other hand, the school like any community makes demands on its members – the demands that enable pupils live in harmony. ***That means***:

- tolerance does not mean that anything goes;
- concern for the individual does not mean concern only for self;
- understanding is a two way process.

Exercise 1. Explain the score of the information.

Discipline has an important part to play: self-discipline means how the individual learns to restrain his or her actions in the interest of the community; imposed discipline through which the community reinforces certain established patterns of behaviour, if necessary by using sanctions.

Parents communicate with the school over matters concerning their children through the Housemaster. Practically every member of school staff is attached to the children as a Tutor, responsible for a group of about twenty pupils. The Tutor normally stays with this group throughout their time at the school. He is able to advise and encourage on all elements in pupils' life. Religious education lessons in this school are attended by all pupils, regardless of their religious affiliation. They cover many of the moral and ethical issues facing young people in the modern world, as well as mainline Christianity.

CURRICULUM

Years 1 and 2 (age 11-13)

All pupils take the following subjects: Maths, Foreign Language (French), English, History, Geography, Design Technology, Art, Music, Chemistry, Physics, Religious Education, Biology, Information Technology, Physical Education and Classical Civilization or Latin. All teaching is geared to the National Curriculum and is in mixed ability sets.

Year 3 (age 13-14)

All pupils are in sets (i.e. divided into classes for each subject according to ability in that subject). The subjects studied are exactly as in years 1 and 2 except that Spanish or German are introduced as second languages. Again the National Curriculum is recognized.

Years 4 & 5

At the end of the Third Year choices of GCSE subjects have to be made and these lead to key stage 4 of the National Curriculum. As a compulsory core all pupils take: English, Maths, French, Science (3 separate subjects), with Religious Education and Information Technology as non-examined subjects; they chose three further options from Spanish or German, Latin, Classical Civilization, Art, History, Geography, Music and Design Technology.

Year 6 (age 17-18)

Pupils who stay on into year 6 usually fall into two categories: some study 3 subjects at A-Level (Advanced Level – a highly specialized exam) while others stay on in the sixth form to try and obtain more O-Level (Ordinary Level) passes. The following subjects are available: Maths, Chemistry, Physics, Biology, French, Spanish, Classical Civilization, English, History, Geography, Economics, Business Studies, Art, Design, Music and German. In addition, all as a non-examined subject, plus Religious Education and Information Technology takes a Liberal Studies Course.

The school educates pupils in the classroom in such a way that they obtain maximum success at GCSE before going on to three subjects at A-Level. Pupils also are given a wide view of cultural background to the world, in which they live and they are prepared for the technological age, in which they will spend the rest of their lives. Information Technology is aimed to ensure that all leavers have a basic knowledge of what the computer can do and how its capabilities can be applied.

There is a careers programme, which introduces the important issues involved in career choice. During the course of the school term the tutor is responsible for monitoring how things are going in a series of a three-weekly grading for effort and achievement.

Sixth formers have a half-term report, which is discussed with the Headmaster or with the Director of Studies. Parents receive full written reports twice a year. The great majority of Sixth formers leave to take up places in further education.

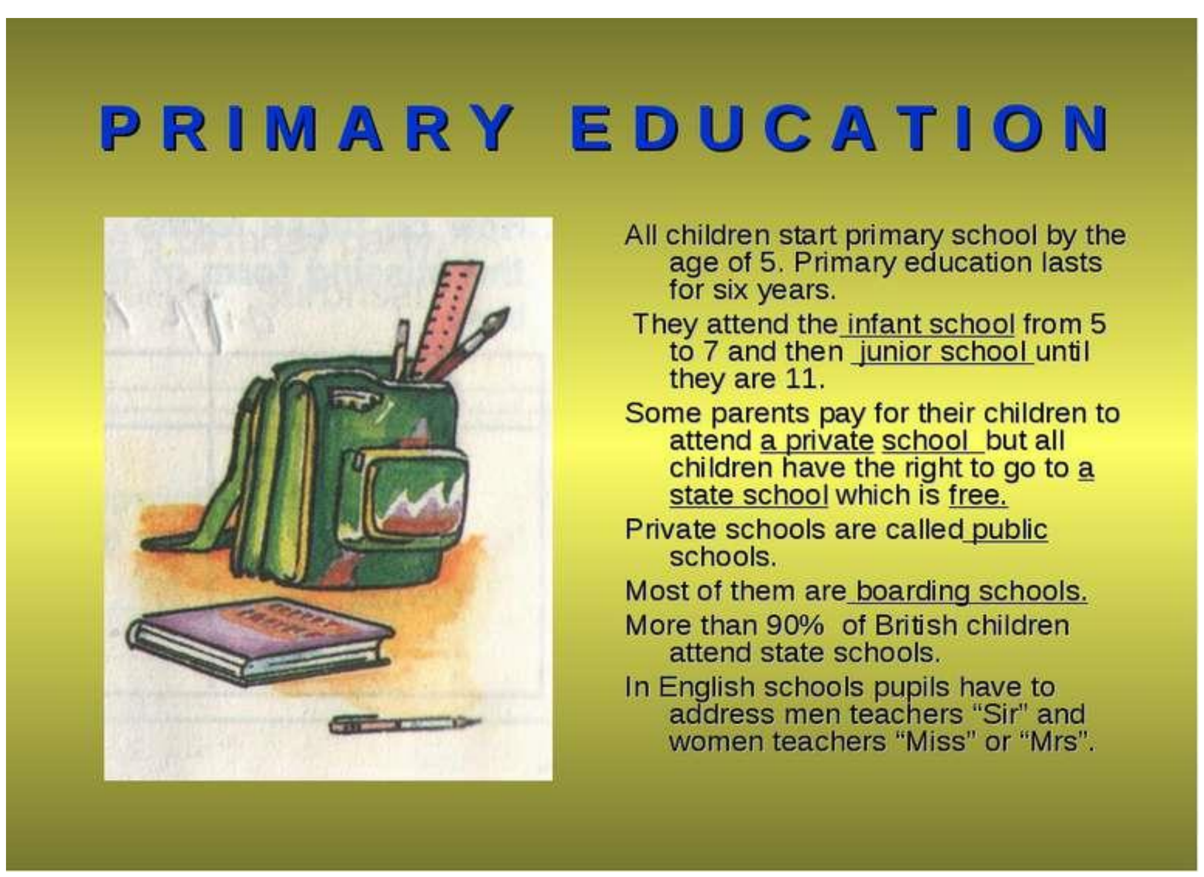
In recent years these have included courses at Oxford, Cambridge, virtually every other English university, at Medical Schools, Art and Music Colleges and Agricultural Colleges.

Art departments at schools cater both those who are aiming at public exams and for "amateurs" who enjoy painting and drawing. Many British schools can boast of marvellous opportunities for sport: extensive games fields, covered or outdoor swimming pools, hard or grass tennis court, athletics tracks, sports centres, golf and squash courts. Boys of the above mentioned school have rugby, cricket, hockey, tennis, squash, swimming, badminton, golf, cross-country, shooting, athletics and basketball.

Girls play hockey, netball and tennis and all other activities as they wish. All these sports plus sailing also form part of the regular weekly programme according to season.

As you see education in Britain is aimed at upbringing an independent, self-confident and self-disciplined, cultured and educated citizen of the country.

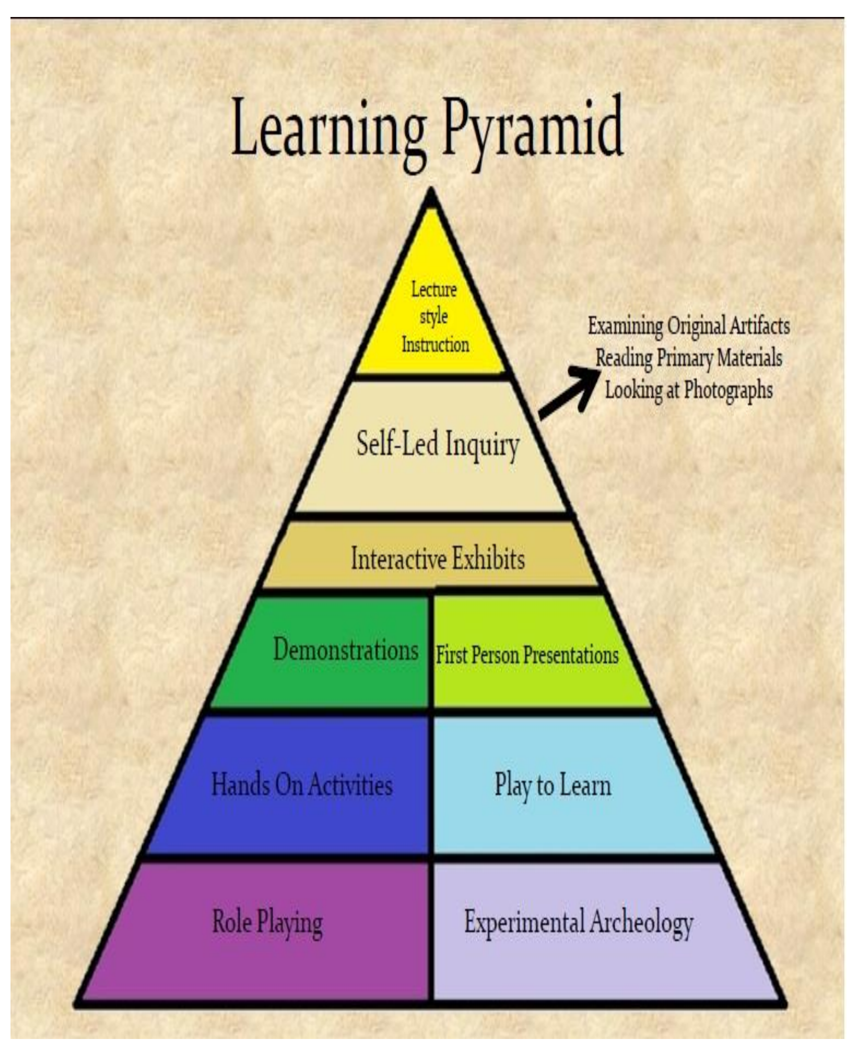
Learning for life. Education doesn't stop with leaving school. Further education in particular is learning which, with its strong ties with commerce and industry, is vital in the effort to keep Britain economically competitive. Over 500 colleges of further education run courses on everything from catering to business studies. Most further education courses are vocational, but many colleges offer more academic courses, such as GCSEs and A levels. There were 400,000 full-time further education students in 2012 and 4 mln who attended college part-time, by day or block release from their jobs or in the evening. The new National Vocational Qualifications, based on standards of competence set by industry, are designed to ensure the relevance of vocational qualifications to employers. They are based on defined levels of attainment, to which qualifications can be assigned.



Exercise 1. Read the text below and characterize the main certificates in Britain.

In Britain, the minimum school-leaving age is 16. There are mainly two types of school; comprehensive, and grammar. Within these schools, the pupils can choose a different range of subjects. At the age of 16, young people take G.C.S.E. (General Certificate of Secondary Education) examinations. Those who want to can continue at school to take "A" (Advanced) Level examinations (in Scotland, "Highers"). Students must achieve good results in these examinations to be accepted for a university place. At university, (or polytechnic) people study for a degree. In general, the first degree is awarded after 3-4 years study and success in examinations and is either a BA (Bachelor of Arts) or a BSc (Bachelor of Science). If you are awarded Honours it means your degree is of higher standard than an ordinary pass. Students can then do further courses for special subjects such as medicine or law and get the appropriate qualifications or after another year or two of study and examinations in their chosen subject at university they can achieve the second degree, a MA (Master of Arts) or MSc (Master of Sciences). Finally, if they undertake research work and produce a thesis, after another few years, they can receive the third, highest level degree, the PhD (Doctor of Philosophy).

Exercise 2. Analyze the information and use it in practice.



SOME QUESTIONS & ANSWERS

There are many independent schools in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, taking international pupils of all school ages. We can help you find the one that's best for you through our frequently asked questions

Where can I find information about the British education system?

Education in the UK is compulsory for everyone between the ages of five and sixteen. Most UK children enter the state education system when they go to primary school at the age of five and generally move to secondary school at the age of eleven. Pupils must take national *Standard Assessment Tests (SATs)*. These tests give an independent measure of how pupils and schools are doing compared with national standards in these subjects. The main exam is the *General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE*) which pupils take at about 16 in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, with a similar but separate system in Scotland.

What types of schools are there in the UK?

Schools in Great Britain are either *state-funded or privately-funded (private, independent and public schools).* Education at state-funded schools is free of charge. Privately-funded schools charge fees and often expect their students to sit an entrance exam. There are many *independent schools* in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, taking international pupils of all school ages. Independent schools offer a high academic success rate, with most pupils moving on to a UK university after completing their schooling. The UK independent school system offers one of the best educational experiences in the world and will enable your child to become a fluent speaker of English.

This will prepare your child for a successful career with many opportunities. *Maintained boarding schools* are no different from local day schools and are maintained by the local authority. Independent boarding schools charge both tuition and boarding fees while those in the maintained sector charge only for boarding. ***School types:***

Comprehensive/ Secondary school with sixth form: offer a general education; about 90% of British pupils attend these schools.

Grammar School: will only accept students that have passed an entrance exam. They provide academic education, preparing their students for university or further education colleges.

Colleges for Further education: these schools are open to anyone over the age of 16. There is often a mix of different age groups, from school leavers to mature students. Some courses are aimed specifically at adults.

Which subjects do children do at school?

The compulsory subjects up until the end of compulsory education are: maths, English and science. But there are others, called "'***foundation subjects***": technology (design and technology /information technology), history, geography, music, arts, classic studies, physical education, and for secondary school children, a foreign language and sexual education. Sometimes religious education is also included. If you are planning to do your ***A-levels***, you are free to combine your subjects, bearing in mind that you might need to do certain subjects for entry into particular courses at university. For entry into medical studies you need chemistry and two of the following: physics, maths and biology.

Where can I find information about curricula and exams?

You can find useful information at *National Curriculum Online*, the official government website.

What is GCSE?

GCSE is the abbreviation for the *General Certificate of Secondary Education*.

This qualification is usually gained in 5 to 8 subjects at the age of 16, when compulsory school education comes to an end. After obtaining their GCSEs, pupils have various educational paths they can follow up to the age of 18.

What kind of courses can an individual do between 16 and 18?

At this age pupils study for *A-Levels (Advanced)* and *AS-Levels (Advanced Supplementary)* in preparation for going on to higher education. It is also possible to combine ***A-*** and ***AS-Levels*** or *GNVQs (General National Vocational Qualifications)* with *NVQs (National Vocational Qualifications)*.

GNVQs are vocational qualifications that involve more practical and professional aspects of certain subjects.

There are three levels: Foundation, Intermediate, Advanced. Other possibilities are vocational qualifications such as those of the *BTEC (Business* and *Technology Education Council)* and *City* and *Guilds (modern apprenticeship)*. Finally, between the ages of 17 and 18, students at selected schools in Britain can also do the *International Baccalaureate (IB)*. The International Baccalaureate is accepted as an equivalent school leaving examination to the GCE A-levels. Many countries around the world accept it as a qualification for *entry to higher education institutions*.

What are the entrance requirements?

There is a lot of competition for UK independent schools; most require academic entrance tests and many pupils sit the *Common Entrance exam* at the age of *eleven* or *thirteen*. This is difficult for children who have been through a different educational system, so international students are usually tested on mathematics and English language. The academic year usually begins in September, so you will need to apply a year before the start date. You will also need to contact your school or tutorial college directly to ask for application details and a registration form.

How do I choose the school?

There are many *independent schools* in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, taking international pupils of all school ages. One of the best places to researching UK schools is the *Independent Schools Council*. The *British Accreditation Council (BAC)* keeps a searchable database of independent tutorial colleges, while the *Association of Colleges – London* offers information on London colleges.

Are there any scholarships available?

Independent schools are expensive. These costs will also depend on how your child will be boarding (full-board, half-board, or living with a UK family).

When is the best time for a visiting student to join a British school?

If you want to continue your secondary school education in the UK the best time for a visiting student to join a British school is at the age of 16. This is when British pupils start their preparations for their A-levels.

When are the school holidays in the UK?

The main summer holiday is generally from mid-July to early September. Children also have two weeks holiday at Christmas and at Easter, plus a week in mid-October and in mid-February. The exact term dates are *determined by the location education authorities*, however, and can consequently vary from region to region.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	School	When	Where	Score
1.				

SCHOOL RULES

EVERY BRITISH SCHOOL HAS ITS RULES, FOR EXAMPLE:

- Be polite
- Say hello when you see a teacher
- Come to school on time
- Stand up when a teacher comes into the class
- Wear your school uniform
- Don't eat or drink in the classroom
- Don't run in the corridors
- Don't bring mobile phones to class
- Don't talk to people in lessons

STATE (MAINTAINED) SCHOOLS

Education in Great Britain is compulsory and free for all children between the ages of 5-16. Nine-tens of all children are educated in state schools. Compulsory education begins at 5, although some provision is made for children under school age, and many pupils remain at school beyond the minimum leaving age. Tree- and four-year-olds can receive education in nursery schools or classes or in infants' classes in primary schools. In addition, some children attend pre-school playgroups, most of which are organized by parents. The division between primary and secondary education is at the age of 11 when almost all children in the state system change schools. At the age of 16 about two-thirds of pupils leave school and get jobs. About one-third stay at school until the age of 18.

Primary schools. Children attend a primary school for six years (5 to 11).

Primary school may be housed in a single building. within this single school there are usually two departments: infant and junior. primary education may take place in two separate schools, infants (5 to 7) and juniors (from 8 to 11) in different buildings. The first years of schooling are the foundation of every child's education. To start with, there is talking and listening; reading and writing; and an introduction to mathematics and science. Then there are important social skills to develop – like being part of a team, sharing ideas and learning to be self-confident.

Secondary schools. Between 1945 and 1965, secondary education in the UK was largely selective. At the age 11, most pupils took a test called the eleven-plus examination. Those who passed went on to grammar schools, which offered a predominantly academic education.

Those who did not pass went on to technical or secondary modern schools, where the education was more practical. In 1965, the Labour Government began abolishing selection at 11 and establishing comprehensive schools. These are non-selective secondary schools, which take pupils (boys and girls) of mixed abilities and which offer both academic and practical subjects.

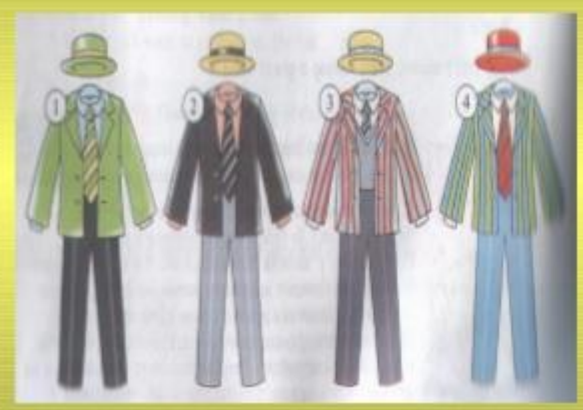
At present in most areas, the secondary schools are comprehensive. Selection has now been abolished in Scotland and Wales, and it has almost been abolished in England (only in Northern Ireland is secondary education still selective).

A comprehensive school offers 5-year courses to pupils of all levels of ability. Promotion to a higher class every year does not depend upon examination results – it is almost automatic. Pupils never repeat a year. There is still much disagreement about the good and the bad in the comprehensive system but the good comprehensive schools have shown that the academic and the non-academic children needn't be kept apart, and that there are many school and out-of-school activities which they can share: acting, singing, woodwork, cooking and, of course, games. So boys and girls have the opportunity of making friends with young people from many different backgrounds.

Exercise 1. After reading try to give a brief summary about different schools.

Exercise 2. Comment on the given details about state schools.

SCHOOL UNIFORM



A lot of people think that school uniforms in England are for the children from rich families at the country's best schools.

But it isn't always true.In fact, uniforms first came to schools for poor because they were cheaper.

Today a lot of British schools have uniforms. Usually they differ only in colours but include a blazer, a pullover, a shirt (a blouse), trousers (a skirt), tights or socks, shoes and boots, a scarf and gloves of a certain colour, a cap or a hat. School badge is on a cap and on a blazer's pocket.

One of the most important elements of the uniform is **a school tie.**

WORDS OF WISDOM for you

- Live and learn.
- It is never too late to learn.
- It is never too late to mend.
- Men learn while they teach.
- Knowledge is power.
- Practice is the best of all instructions.
- Practice makes perfect.
- Learn to write well, or not to write at all.
- Language is the dress of thought.
- Think before you speak.
- Lost time is never found again.

THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM

Until 1988 the programmes of study varied from school to school and from region to region.

One of the most important changes in education brought about by the Education Reform Act of 1988 is the introduction of a National Curriculum, for children aged 5-16 in all state schools in England and Wales. The National Curriculum consists of 10 subjects, which all the children must study at school. The subjects are English, Mathematics, Science, a modern foreign language (for 11-16-year-olds), Technology and Design, History, Geography, Music, Art, Physical Education (PE).

These subjects are called foundation subjects. English, Mathematics and Science are also known as the "core" subjects, which help children in studying all the other subjects.

Religious Education (RE) is required for pupils as part of the basic curriculum, although parents have a right to withdraw their children from religious education classes. Schools teach religious education and provide daily collective worship. Arrangements can vary from school to school. Schools offer other subjects in addition to those in the National Curriculum. The National Curriculum aims to ensure that all children study essential subjects and have a better all-round education. The National Curriculum makes it easier for the children to move from one school to another. In particular, moving from primary to secondary schools will be easier as teachers will know what children have done. Pupils' progress in subjects in the National Curriculum is measured by written and practical tests.

Examinations. The most important examinations in British schools are GCSEs and A-levels (Advanced Level examinations). GCSE stands for the General Certificate of Secondary Education.

Pupils sit for the GCSE exams at the end of the 5-year course. They usually take as many subjects as possible. Weak students may only sit for three or four subjects. Better students will take ten subjects. So pupils in Britain leave school at the age of 16 with examination certificates in the individual subjects they have passed. Pupils that are more ambitious continue with very specialized studies in the sixth form. They remain at school for two more years and take their A-level examinations.

The Sixth form. Most secondary schools have sixth-form departments providing one- or two-year courses. Some pupils, however, go to a special sixth-form college, where the atmosphere is less like a school and where they are treated as adults. At the 6th-form stage studies are highly specialized in three or four main subjects, which will prepare students either for entry to University, Polytechnic or College of Further Education, or for direct entry into employment in industry or commerce.

Specialization is essential for the student who wants to achieve good A-level results, but a sixth-former is also expected to follow the General Studies Course.

This course has a very serious purpose; it can provide the opportunity not only for a science specialist to continue with some literature, or an arts student to tackle technology, it can also provide a vehicle for students to discover something about subjects not usually available in school that they might be considering as a choice for University: law, for instance, or psychology.

Besides, the General Studies course tries to offer to all students a wide range of subjects over the two years, which are a welcome break from solid academic study and which enable to learn new skills in a relaxed atmosphere. Such subjects as Drama and Conversation, the History of Art or Car Maintenance can maintain an exciting interest with students. The GCE Advanced Level is normally taken after the two years of study in the sixth form.

New examinations, Advanced Supplementary (AS) levels, were introduced for the first time in 1989 and provide an opportunity for sixth-form pupils to make up a much wider curriculum than was previously possible. Students specializing in the arts and humanities, for example, are able to continue to study mathematics and technological subjects at the new level. Or a student can take mathematics and physics at A-level but also study a modern language and economics at AS-level.

A-level or a mixture of A- and AS-levels are the main standard for entrance to University or other higher educational institutions and to many forms of professional training.

Exercise 1. Summarize in the form of notes your knowledge about educational problems.

Exercise 2. Try to understand the notion.

Examination – a detailed inspection or study; for example: an examination of marketing behaviour. A medical examination is conducted without delay. The action or process of conducting such an inspection or study; for example: The role of the planning system has come under increasing critical examination. A formal test of a person's knowledge or proficiency in a subject or skill; written exercises, oral questions, or practical tasks, set to test a candidate's knowledge and skill; for example: He scraped through the examinations at the end of his first year. An examination is a formal test that you take to show your knowledge or ability in a particular subject, or to obtain a qualification.

Exercise 3. Try to understand the joke.

A college freshman was being severely criticized by his professor.

"Your last paper was very difficult to read", said the professor. "Your work should be so written that even the most ignorant will be able to understand it."

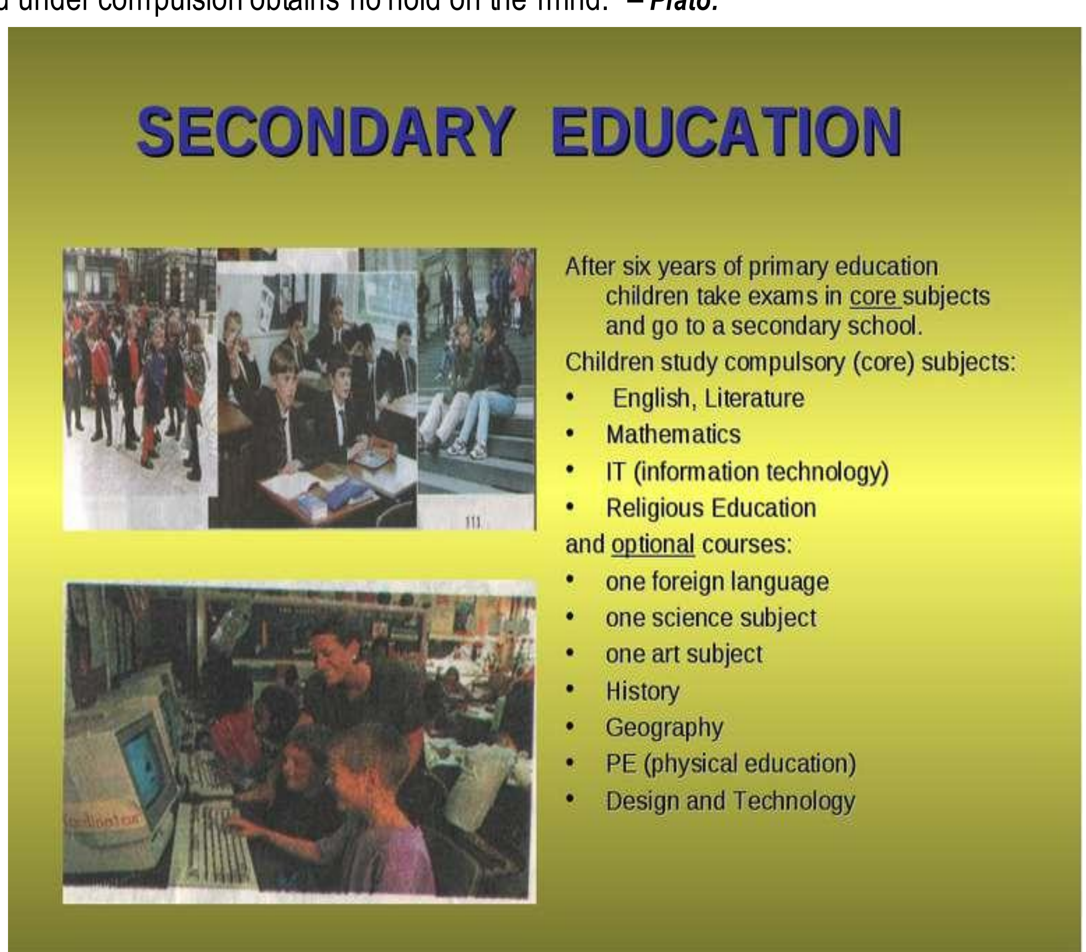
"Yes, sir", said the student. "What part didn't you get?"

Exercise 4. Translate the quotations.

"One child, one teacher, one book, one pen can change the world." – ***Malala Yousafzai.***

"When you want to teach children to think, you begin by treating them seriously when they are little, giving them responsibilities, talking to them candidly, providing prvacy and solitude for them, and making them readers and thinkers of significant thoughts from the beginning. That's if you want to teach them to think." – ***Bertrand Russell.***

"Bodily exercise, when compulsory, does no harm to the body; but knowledge which is acquired under compulsion obtains no hold on the mind." – ***Plato.***



PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Some parents prefer to pay for their children to be educated at independent schools.

This private sector includes the so-called public schools, some of whose names are known all over the world. The oldest of the public schools were founded to give free education to clever boys whose parents could not afford to educate them privately. They were under "public" control and management. Today, these schools are not public in the usual sense of the word. They depend almost entirely on the fees paid by their pupils' parents and are the most expensive of the independent schools in Britain. They are mostly boarding schools, where the pupils live as well as study, though many of these schools also take some day pupils.

Most of public schools have a few places for pupils, whose fees are paid by a local education authority, but normally entrance is by examination, and state schools do not prepare children for this.

So parents who wish to send their children to a public school often send them first to a pre-preparatory school (for children aged 5 to 7 or 8), and to a preparatory (prep) school (aged 7 or 8 to 13). In order to gain entrance to public school, children leaving preparatory school have to pass an examination known as Common Entrance. There are about 2,400 independent schools in Britain educating 600,000 of all ages. They charge fees varying from around 250 pounds a term for day pupils at nursery age to 2,900 pounds a term for senior boarding pupils. Many offer bursaries to help pupils from less well-off families. Local education authorities may also help such pupils. The government also gives incomerelated help with fees to pupils at certain music and ballet schools.

Many of Britain's public schools are long established and have gained a reputation for their high academic standards, as well as their exclusiveness and snobbery. The boys' schools include such well-known schools as Eton (College), Harrow (School), Westminster (School) and Winchester (College). Among leading girls' public schools are Roedean School and Cheltenham Ladies' College.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Answer the questions.

1. Where do some parents prefer to pay for their children to be educated? 2. What does this private sector include? 3. When were the oldest of the public schools founded? 4. Are they mostly boarding schools? 5. Most of public schools have a few places for pupils whose fees are paid by a local education authority, haven’t they? 6. Where do some parents who wish to send their children to a public school send them at first? 7. How many independent schools are there in Britain? 8. How many pupils of all ages are educating there? 9. What does the government also give to pupils at certain music and ballet schools? 10. Are many of Britain's public schools long-established? 11. Have they gained a reputation for their high academic standards?

Exercise 3. Explain the history of public schools establishment.

During the Middle Ages, the grammar school provided education for poor scholars intended for the church and for the sons of noblemen. This included such schools as Eton and Winchester. By the 18th century a number of "Great Schools" had emerged, including Harrow, Rugby, Sherborne, and Canterbury. Other changes during the early 19th century stimulated the demand for public schools.

These included the spread of railways which enabled wealthy parents to send their children to board at far-off schools; the increase in political power of the middle classes after the 1832 Reform Act; and the rise of the professions. Reforms in public schools were introduced by heads such as Samuel Butler at Shrewsbury (1793-1836), and Dr Thomas Arnold at Rugby (1828-42), who were clerics. The school chapel became the focal point of life; discipline was enforced through prefects and team games emphasized.

Proprietary schools, such as Marlborough (1843) and Haileybury (1864), often more progressive than the older public schools, were established to meet the demand from the middle classes.

At first day schools, they later accepted boarders. Criticism of some of the public schools, such as Westminster and Charterhouse, was so persistent that a royal commission was appointed in 1861, under Lord Clarendon, to investigate conditions in the nine large public schools Winchester, Eton, Westminster, Charterhouse, Harrow, Rugby, Shrewsbury, St Paul's, and Merchant Taylors'.

Whilst broadly satisfied, the commissioners made a number of recommendations which were embodied in the Public Schools Act (1868). Governing bodies were reformed and schools such as Harrow developed a modern side. The Endowed Schools Bill (1869) threatened further intervention by the state into the affairs of schools, especially limiting the powers of headmasters. Attempts were made in the 20th century to bridge the gap between public schools and the state-provided sector. The term public school has now been superseded by independent school.

Exercise 4. Try to understand the joke.

First stud.: "The dean says he is going to stop smoking in the college."

Second stud.: "Huh! Next thing he'll be asking us to stop it too."

Public School

ETON SCHOOL

Eton is one of the oldest and best-known public schools for boys, at the town of Eton, near Windsor, on river Thames. Its students (currently 1,250 in number) are largely from aristocratic and upper-class families. The school was founded in 1440 by the English king Henry the Sixth (King's College Cambridge was founded in 1441).

Henry Redman, who was also worked on the palace at Hampton Court, built Lupton's Tower, opposite the main entrance, in 1520. Many distinguished people of Britain studied at Eton. The most famous of all Old Etonians is perhaps the Duke of Wellington, victor of Waterloo and later Prime Minister. Twenty of Britain's Prime Ministers were educated at Eton.

There were future writers among the students of Eton from Thomas Gray, Percy Bysshe Shelley and Henry Fielding to Aldous Huxley and George Orwell. Political and literary friendships were often formed at Eton: the association of the writers Thomas Gray and Horace Walpole is one of many examples. Old Etonian explorers include Sir Humphrey Gilbert, founder of the colony of Newfoundland, and Captain Oates, who was on Scott's expedition to the South Pole. Among the scientists are Robert Boyle, Sir John Hershel, and Sir Joseph Banks.

Entrance to Eton is competitive, based on a test at the age of 11 and a Common Entrance exam at 13. Academic standards are very high. The academic year starts at the end of September and has three terms. The year finishes with the exams in early June. Short courses are run at the college after the boys have left for their summer holidays. There are no girls at Eton (many other boys' public schools in the UK accept some girls in the upper school, after age 16).

Boys leave the school at the age of 18 – many go on to study at top universities such as Oxford and Cambridge. Boys usually stay at Eton for five years (between the ages of 13-18). Eton provides exceptionally fine teaching facilities, for example in science, languages, computing and design. There are two major libraries, College Library and School Library, but also numerous well-stocked subject libraries. The boys still wear a formal school uniform: a black tailcoat and waistcoat and pin-striped trousers (top hats were abolished in the 1940s). The tutorial system allows pupils to choose their own academic tutors to supervise their work. Sport plays an extremely important part in the life of most Etonians. The principal games are rugby and football, cricket and rowing.

Athletics, swimming, golf, squash, tennis, fencing, judo and karate are all very popular.

The boys are offered a very wide range of opportunities for spare-time activities: art, sculpture, pottery and printmaking, woodwork, metalwork and silverwork; almost any musical instrument can be learnt; fifty societies, run by boys themselves, cater for enormous number of interests.

Eton enjoys its advantages but it retains a friendly and intimate atmosphere, which is possible when boys live and work in units of small size. Students at Eton are all boarders (some other public schools accept dayboys as well). Boys live in dormitories in a "house" (run by a "house master").

They have their own small rooms with a bed and desk. The main team sports which are played are rugby and football in the winter and spring, and either cricket or rowing in the summer.

Other popular activities include drama and music. There are daily services in the chapels. Senior boys may take part in military training (in what is called the Combined Cadet Force), or choose to do social service in the community.

Exercise 1. Digest the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Answer the questions.

1. What school is one of the oldest and best-known public schools for boys? 2. When was the school founded? 3. Were there future writers among the students of Eton? 4. How long do boys usually stay at Eton (between the ages of 13-18)? 5. What kind of facilities does Eton provide exceptionally? 6. What does the tutorial system allow pupils? 7. Sport plays an extremely important part in the life of most Etonians, doesn't it? 8. The boys are offered a very wide range of opportunities for spare-time activities, aren't they? 9. Does Eton enjoy its advantages? 10. What are the main team sports? 11. What are the main popular activities? 12. Are there daily services in the chapels? 13. What do the boys still wear? 14. When were top hats abolished? 15. Where may take part senior boys?

Exercise 3. Remember that.

Levels of attainment

The statutory curriculum for maintained schools consists of

- The National Curriculum (ages 5-16).
- Religious Education (ages 5-18).
- Sex Education (ages 11-18).

The current National Curriculum is set out in the primary and secondary National Curriculum until 2014. For each subject there's a "programme of study". It describes what children should learn.

There are also "attainment targets" – usually split into 8 levels for each subject. You'll get a school report at the end of the year telling you what level your child is at.

Exercise 4. Try to understand the joke.

Prof.: "A fool can ask more questions than a wise man can answer."

Stud.: "No wonder so many of us flunk in our exams!"

WESTMINSTER COLLEGE

The Royal College of St. Peter in Westminster, better known as Westminster Schooland standing in the precincts of Westminster Abbey in London, is one of Britain's leading independent schools, with the highest Oxford and Cambridge acceptance rates of any secondary school or college in Britain. With a history going back to the 11th century, the school's notable alumni include Ben Jonson, John Dryden, Robert Hooke, Christopher Wren, John Locke, Jeremy Bentham, Edward Gibbon, Henry Mayhew, A. A. Milne, Tony Benn and seven Prime Ministers.

Boys are admitted to the Under School at age seven, and to the senior school at age thirteen; girls are admitted only at sixteen. The school has around 750 pupils; around a quarter are boarders, most of them go home at weekends, after Saturday morning School. It is one of the original nine British public schools (the so-called "Clarendon Schools") as defined by the Public Schools Act 1868.

Although it is likely that schoolboys were taught by monks well beforehand, by 1179 Westminster School had certainly become a public school (a school available to members of the public from across the country, so long as they could pay their own costs, rather than private tuition provided to the nobility) as a decree of Pope Alexander III required the Benedictine monks of the Abbey at Westminster to provide a charity school to local boys. Parts of the school's buildings date back to the 11th century, older than the current Abbey. This arrangement changed in 1540, when Henry VIII ordered the dissolution of the monasteries in England, but personally ensured the School's survival by his royal charter. The College of St. Peter carried on with forty "King's Scholars" financed from the royal purse.

During Mary I's brief reign the Abbey was reinstated as a Roman Catholic monastery.

The School occupies a number of the buildings vacated by the monks. Elizabeth I refounded the School in 1560, with new statutes to select 40 Queen's Scholars from boys who had already attended the school for a year.

Queen Elizabeth frequently visited her scholars, although she never signed the statutes nor endowed her scholarships, and 1560 is now generally taken as the date that the school was "founded", although legal separation from the Abbey was only achieved with the Public Schools Act 1868.

There followed a scandalous public and parliamentary dispute over a further 25 years, to settle the transfer of the properties from the Canons of the Abbey to the School. Under the Act, the Dean of Westminster Abbey is *ex officio* the Chairman of the Governors; and school statutes have been made by Order in Council of Queen Elizabeth II. Furthermore the Dean of Christ Church, Oxford and the Master of Trinity College, Cambridge are *ex officio* members of the school's governing body.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 3. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Camden was a headmaster, but Dr. Busby, himself an Old Westminster, established the reputation of the school for several hundreds of years, as much by his classical learning as for his ruthless discipline of the birch, immortalised in Pope's *Dunciad*.

Busby prayed publicly Up School for the safety of the Crown, on the very day of Charles I's execution, and then locked the boys inside to prevent their going to watch the spectacle a few hundred yards away. Regardless of politics, he thrashed Royalist and Puritan boys alike without fear or favour.

Busby took part in Oliver Cromwell's funeral procession in 1658; when Robert Uvedale, a Westminster schoolboy, succeeded in snatching the "Majesty Scutcheon" (white satin banner) draped on the coffin. Busby remained in office throughout the Civil War and the Commonwealth, when the school was governed by Parliamentary Commissioners, and well into the Restoration.

In 1679, a group of scholars killed a bailiff, ostensibly in defence of the Abbey's traditional right of sanctuary, but possibly because the man was trying to arrest a consort of the boys. Dr Busby obtained a royal pardon for his scholars from Charles II, and added the cost to the school bills.

During the 16th century the school educated writers including Ben Jonson and Richard Hakluyt; in the 17th, the poet John Dryden, philosopher John Locke, scientist Robert Hooke, composer Henry Purcell and architect Christopher Wren were pupils; in the 18th century, philosopher Jeremy Bentham and several Whig Prime Ministers and other statesmen.

Recent Old Westminsters include prominent politicians of all parties, and many members of the arts and media. Until the 19th century, the curriculum was made up of Latin, Greek, Arabic, and Hebrew, all taught Up School. The Westminster boys were uncontrolled outside school hours and notoriously unruly about town, but the proximity of the School to the Palace of Westminster meant that politicians were well aware of the boys' exploits.

After the Public Schools Act 1868, in response to the Clarendon Report on the financial and other malpractices at nine pre-eminent public schools, the school began to approach its modern form.

Unusually among the leading public schools, however, Westminster did not adopt most of the broader changes associated with the Victorian ethos of Thomas Arnold, such as the emphasis on team over individual spirit, and the school retained much of its distinctive character. Despite many pressures, including evacuation and the destruction of the School roof during the Blitz, the school also refused to move out of central London along with other schools and remains in its original location.

Exercise 1. Add some information & make up a small report & give a talk in class.

Exercise 2. Read the text & pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Westminster Under School was formed in 1943 at the evacuated school, as a distinct preparatory school for day pupils between the ages of 8 to 13 (now 7 to 13).

Only the separation is new: in the 18th century, Edward Gibbon attended Westminster from the age of 11. The Under School has since moved to Vincent Square, overlooking the School's playing fields. Its current Master is Mrs. Elizabeth Hill.

In 1967, the first female pupil was admitted to the Upper School, with girls becoming full members in all houses from 1973 onwards.

In 1981, a single-sex boarding house, Purcell's, was created again, for girls. In 1997 the school expanded further with the creation of a new day house, Milne's at 6a, Dean's Yard. In 2005 the school was one of fifty leading private schools guilty of running an illegal price-fixing cartel, exposed by *The Times*, which had allowed them to drive up fees for thousands of customers.

However, each school agreed to pay a nominal penalty of £10,000 and ex-gratia payments totalling £3 mln into a trust designed to benefit pupils who attended the schools during the period in respect of which fee information was shared. In 2010, the school and Westminster Abbey hosted an event to celebrate the 450th anniversary of the granting of the institution's Royal Charter.

Queen Elizabeth II, a guest of the occasion, unveiled a statue of her namesake in Dean's Yard.

The School is located primarily in the walled precincts of the former medieval monastery at Westminster Abbey, its main buildings surrounding its private square Little Dean's Yard (known as "Yard"), off Dean's Yard, where Church House, the headquarters of the Church of England, is situated, along with some of the Houses, the Common Room, the new humanities building Weston's, and College Hall. Immediately outside the Abbey precincts on Great College Street is Sutcliff's (named after the tuck shop in the building in the 19th century), where Geography, Art, Theology, Philosophy and Classics (Latin and Ancient Greek) are taught.

The Robert Hooke Science Centre is further away, just off Smith Square. As part of an expansion programme funded by donations and a legacy from A. A. Milne, the school has acquired the nearby Millicent Fawcett Hall for Drama and Theatre Studies lessons and performances; the Manoukian Centre for Music lessons (both timetabled and private) and recitals; the Weston Building at 3 Dean's Yard. It often uses St John's, Smith Square as a venue for major musical concerts.

The School often uses St. John's, Smith Square as a venue for major musical concerts. College Garden, to the East of Little Dean's Yard, is believed to be the oldest garden in England, under continuous cultivation for around a millennium.

Just beyond rises the Victoria Tower of the Houses of Parliament; the Queen's Scholars have special rights of access to the House of Commons. To the North, the Dark Cloister leads straight to the Abbey, which serves as the School Chapel.

The playing fields are half a mile away at Vincent Square, which Dean Vincent created for the School by hiring a horse and plough to carve 10 ac (40,000 m^2) out of the open Tothill Fields.

The boathouse is now some way from the school at Putney, where it is also used for the Oxford and Cambridge boat race; but the school's First Eight still returns annually to exercise its traditional right to land at Black Rod Steps of the Palace of Westminster.

The "Greaze" has been held "up School" (in the School Hall) on Shrove Tuesdays since 1753: the head cook ceremoniously tosses a horsehair reinforced pancake over a high bar, which was used in the 16th century to curtain off the Lower School. Members of the school fight for the pancake for one minute, watched over by the Dean of Westminster Abbey (as Chairman of the Governors), the Head Master, the whole School and distinguished or even occasionally Royal visitors.

The pupil who gets the largest weight is awarded a gold sovereign (promptly redeemed for use next year), and the Dean begs a half-holiday for the whole School. A cook who failed to get the "pancake" over the bar would formerly have been "booked", or stoned with Latin primers, although that tradition has long lapsed. The privilege of being the first commoners to acclaim each new sovereign at their coronation in Westminster Abbey is reserved for the Queen's (King's) Scholars.

Their shouts of "*Vivat Regina/Rex*" ("Long Live the Queen/King") are incorporated into the Coronation Anthem. Despite the formal separation from the Abbey, the school remains Anglican, with services in the Abbey attended by the entire school at least twice a week, and many other voluntary-attendance services of worship. The school was expressly exempted by the Act of Uniformity to allow it to continue saying Latin prayers despite the Reformation.

Every Wednesday there is an assembly Up School known as Latin Prayers, which opens with the Headmaster leading all members of the school in chanting prayers in Latin, followed by notices in English.

The School's unique pronunciation of formal Latin is known as "Westminster Latin", descends from medieval English scholastic pronunciation: Queen Elizabeth I, who spoke fluent Latin, commanded that Latin was not to be said "in the monkish fashion", a significant warning upon loyalties between Church and State.

A service called 'Little Commem' is given in Latin each year, in which the Queen's Scholars commemorate the school's benefactors, laying pink roses on the tomb of Elizabeth I in Westminster Abbey. In alternate years a much larger service called "Big Commem" is given in its place, where the Praefectus (the Head Boy/Captain of the Queen's Scholars) lays a wreath of pink roses on the tomb of Elizabeth I. From 2010 "Big Commem" will occur in every other year.

Since the monastic Christmas revels of medieval times, Latin plays have been presented by the Scholars, with a prologue and witty epilogue on contemporary events. Annual plays, "either tragedy or comedy", were required by the school statutes in 1560, and some early plays were acted in College Hall before Elizabeth I and her whole Council.

However, in a more prudish age Queen Victoria did not accompany Prince Albert and the Prince of Wales to the play, and recorded in her diary that it was "very Improper". Today, the play is put on less frequently, any members of the school may take part, and the Master of the Queen's Scholars gives the Latin prologue. The Queen's Scholars have privileged access to the House of Commons gallery, said to be a compromise recorded in the Standing Orders of the House in the 19th century, to stop the boys from climbing into the Palace over the roofs. There are four main points of entry for pupils:

- For the Under School, at ages 7, 8, & 11, judged by a combination of internal exam & interview.
- For the Lower School, at age 13, judged by either Common Entrance, a standardised, national set of exams for entrance to independent schools, for standard entry; or the Challenge, an internal set of exams for scholarship entry; as well as interview.

▪ For the Upper School, at age 16, judged by subject-specific exams and interviews and conditional upon GCSE results. This is the only point of entry for girls, and only a handful of boys join at this point each year.

As well as the Queen's Scholarships which pay one half of boarding fees, and of which there are normally eight in each year, there are Honorary Scholarships for boys who pass the Challenge and could have been scholars but do not want to board. Stephen Hawking was entered for the Challenge in 1952, but fell ill on the day of the Challenge examination.Those entering the Lower School also have the opportunity to win scholarships based on musical talent, and bursaries for those whose parents are not able to fund their tuition. Westminster has an unusual system for naming the school years, which can cause confusion to those not familiar with the system.

- Year 9: Fifth Form
- Year 10: Lower Shell
- Year 11: Upper Shell (GCSE)
- Year 12: Sixth Form (AS)
- Year 13: Remove (A2)

The Lower and Upper Shell years are named after the shell-shaped alcove up School where they were originally taught. The first term of the academic year, from September to December, is known as *Play Term*. This is the term in which the Latin Play used to take place. The second term, from January to Easter is the *Lent Term*. The third term of the academic year, from April to July is the *Election Term*. This is the term in which new scholars are elected.

Exercise 1. Render the score of the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Analyze the information above and make up the chart about it.

№	Activity			
	School	When	Where	Score

Exercise 3. Remember that.

Around 5% of the nation's schoolchildren go private, while in the United States the figure is 10%, and in France 30%. But the most significant change of all is the importance that is now attached to academic achievement. In the top schools, the focus is firmly on A levels. GCSEs are regarded as destruction, and pupils might take one ore two when they are 15.

Exercise 4. Remember that.

Westminster is an inner borough of Greater London, on the River Thames, which contains the Houses of Parliament, Westminster Abbey (a Gothic church in London: site of a Benedictine monastery; the collegiate church of St. Peter), Buckingham Palace, and many government offices. Full name is City of Westminster. This notion is used in reference to the British Parliament. For example: Westminster must become more effective in holding the government to account.

Exercise 5. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

DISCIPLINE PROBLEMS – WHO TO REFER TO?

The referral system should be seen as a means of helping pupils and supporting teachers.In order to produce a continuous profile on individual pupils it is essential that all information of importance about a pupil should be communicated to the respective Year Head.

It is only by using this channel of communication that records can be kept up-to-date and suitable follow-up procedures affected. In the vast majority of cases of indiscipline, it is expected that the offended member of staff will, in the first instance, deal with the matter herself.

However, if a classroom problem persists, the matter should be brought to the attention of the respective Head of Department. If it is thought necessary, the matter should then be referred to the respective Year Head for further action and support.

Should the Head of Department feel that no further action is necessary, information on the matter should be given to the Year Head for documentation, in order that a comprehensive picture of the pupil in question can be drawn up. If a particularly serious incident occurs that requires immediate action, any member of the Administrative Group should be contacted.

At no time should a pupil be sent to another colleague without providing information about the nature of the problem or incident being given.

In the case of very serious matters, members of staff will be required to provide a written statement in order to assist in effecting further action. Regular meetings have been initiated with outside agencies.

Heads of Years attend these meetings with the Educational Welfare Service, Child Guidance Service, Educational Psychologist, Probationary Service and Social Services and thereby facilitate direct contact between the school and external agencies.

Discipline

Good order is seen as the responsibility of all staff.We expect all pupils to behave calmly and sensibly in school and we do not tolerate any abuse of staff, other pupils or property.Our pupils can expect from our staff the same consideration as our staff expect from the pupils.

Sanctions

Detentions. Unsatisfactory effort in the classroom may result in a subject area detention. If the detention is longer than 15 minutes subject's teachers are asked to give a warning to parents.

Daily Reports. Where unsatisfactory effort continues, pupils may be placed on daily report.

This enables the tutor (Head of Year) to closely monitor the child's performance throughout the day.

Exclusions. Other sorts of anti-social behaviour may be first checked any verbal agreements reached. If the particular incident occurs after warnings have been given, then exclusion from school may be necessary pending family consultation.

Suspensions. Suspensions are used in cases of server misconduct and the family takes over responsibility for the welfare of the pupil until a reasonable attitude to school is worked out and agreed.

Where difficulties do arise it is the policy of the school to establish close contact with parents since we believe that where parents and the school are working together children may more effectively be helped to overcome their problems.

Absence from School

Parents are expected to inform the tutor in writing with the explanation for the absence of a pupil. If an absence is unexplained, then a request is sent to the parent, and the Educational Welfare Service automatically alerted.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 2. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

UNIT II. EDUCATION IN UNIVERSITIES

WHAT ARE UNIVERSITIES FOR?

The primary and central purpose of the university is the search for knowledge and fundamental understanding in all intellectual disciplines & the transmission of that knowledge and understanding.

It has been a function of universities to give to young people from a relatively narrow age group (17-24) an education designed to develop their capacities, more particularly their intellectual capacities, that is, the ability to communicate, curiosity, reasoning power and factual accuracy.

The important thing on the one hand is to educate intellectually mobile specialists capable of renewing and endlessly adapting themselves to new problems between specialists. To meet these varying needs, the University of Kyiv divides its training into two parts: the first three years are devoted to basic education of a rather general and fundamental nature, and the last two years to specific research work, together with the preparation of a diploma paper.

It tries, moreover, to give its students a civic and social formation, which will enable them to be aware of the problems facing society and have a wish to solve them. Today, the first need among universities everywhere (though it has been less talked about and perhaps less thought about in America than in Europe), is learning power, which is native ability plus the will to learn.

An able person, intellectually inquiring, reflective and industrious – with learning power can make himself educated, cultivated, and wise in this era of free public libraries, museums, and archives.

A great teacher can speed the process. But if learning power is not there, the greatest teaching is only of partial value. A student cannot be lifted beyond the limits of his/her ability. A great teacher may, and often does, inspire an individual student who lacked the will or full opportunity to learn, and so sets his student on the road to education.

But if large numbers of students arrive at the university without a solid academic foundation on which to build, the quality of university education must suffer.

Exercise 1. Answer the questions.

1. What are the three components that make up the primary and central purpose of the university? 2. Can you recognize the difference between knowledge and understanding? 3. Which is easier – to acquire knowledge or to understand it? 4. What is fundamental understanding? Who transmits that knowledge and understanding? 5. What an intellectual capacity is a university education designed to develop? 6. Why is the ability to judge evidence critically, independence of mind, factual accuracy, and curiosity important for a scholar? 7. What do you understand by "the ability to communicate"? 8. What are the necessary qualities of a university graduate? 9. What are the first three years devoted to? 10. What are the last two years devoted to? 11. Can a student be lifted beyond the limits of his/her ability? 12. What does a great teacher do? 13. Why must the quality of university education suffer? 14. Can an able person, intellectually inquiring, reflective, industrious make himself educated, cultivated, and wise? 15. How can he do it? 16. Whom may a great teacher inspire? 17. Does a great teacher set his student on the road to education? 18. What happens if large numbers of students arrive at the university without a solid academic foundation?

Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 3. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 4. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

ON A HIGHER LEVEL

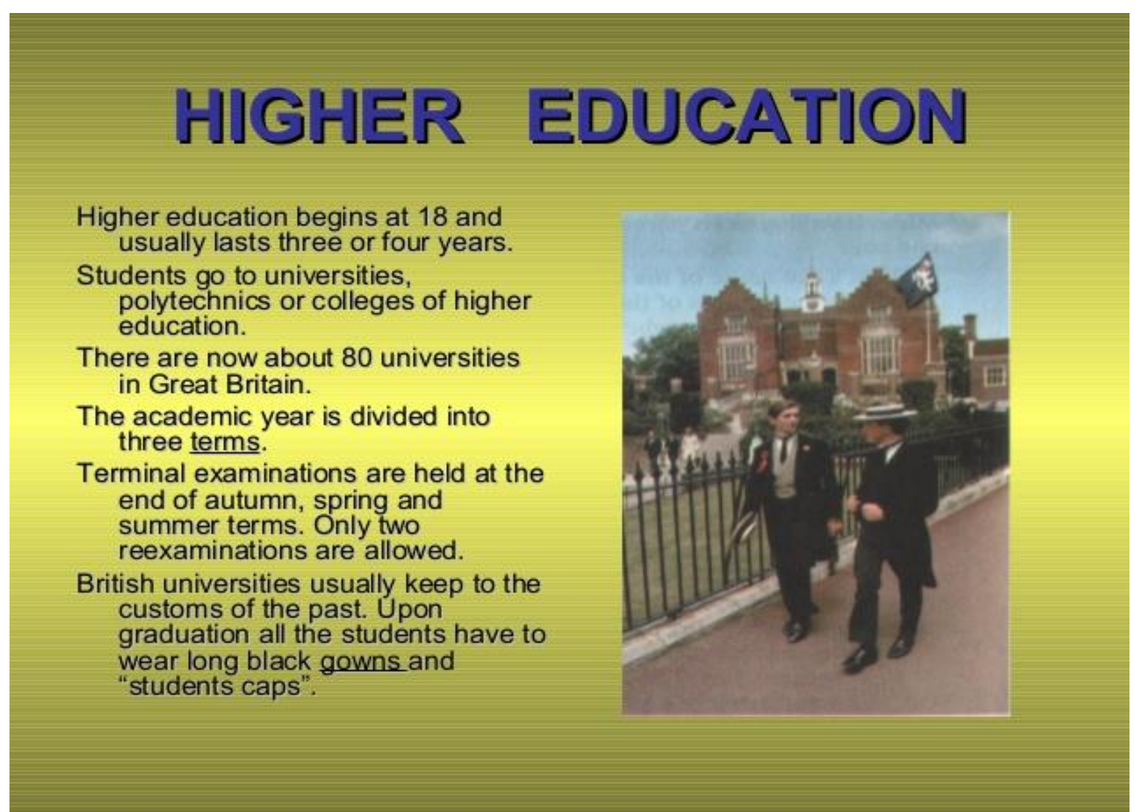
There were a mln students in British higher education in 1990-91 – one-quarter more than in 1980. By the end of this century, the Government aims to have widened access to the point where one in three young people go into higher education. There are now nearly 50 universities, 30 polytechnics and many other colleges offering degree level courses in Britain. Good A-Level results in at least two subjects are necessary to get a place at one. However, good exam passes alone are not enough. Universities choose their students after interviews. Competition for places at university is fierce.

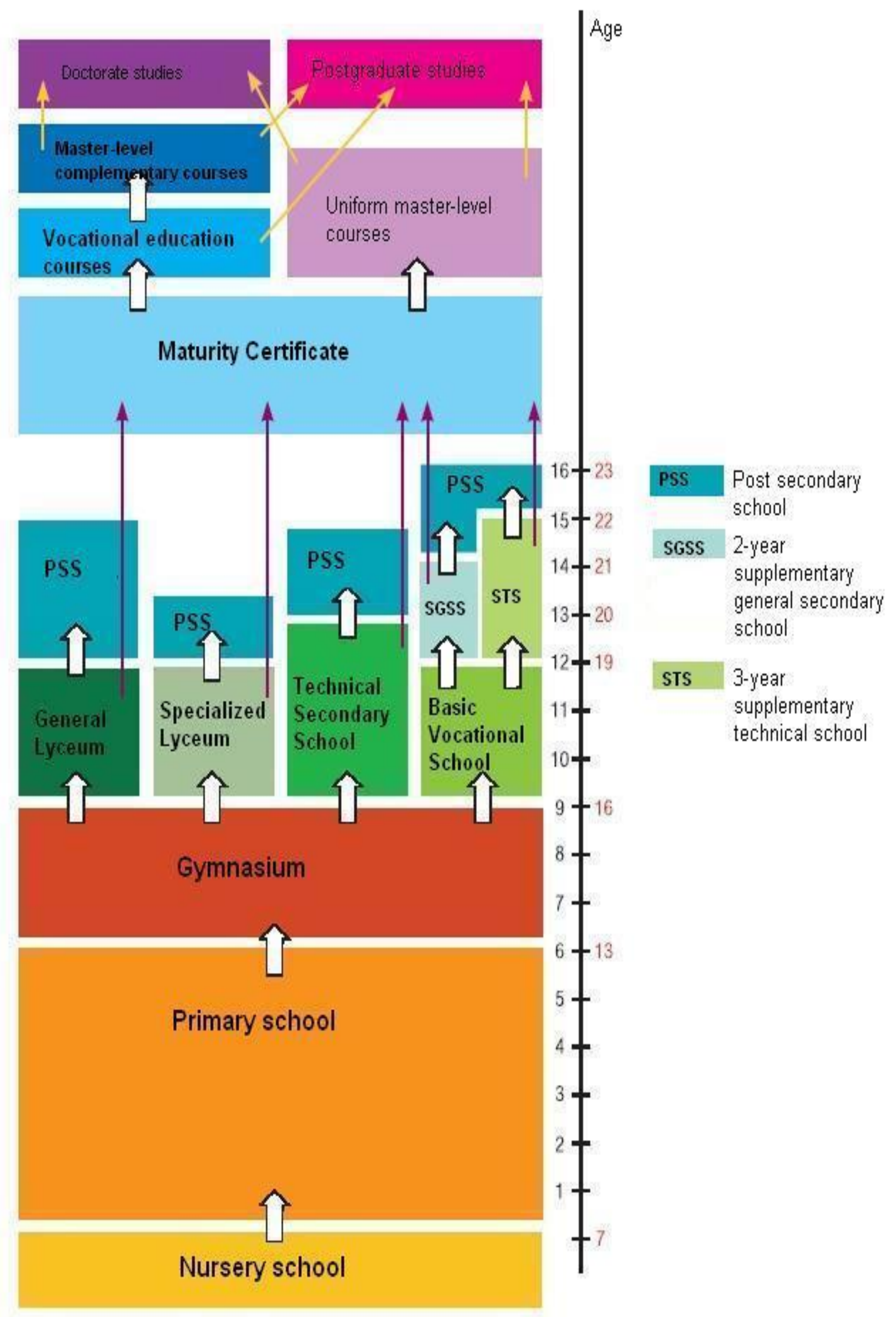
Britain's higher education system has kept to its traditional mould. It remains highly selective, unlike the open access universities in other countries. But for the first time since the 17th century the universities began altering their character by admitting students without the present minimum entry qualifications. For all British citizens a place at university brings with it a grant from their Local Education authority. The grants cover tuition fees and some of the living expenses.

The amount depends on the parents' income. If the parents do not earn much money, their children will receive a full grant, which will cover all the expenses. Universities have another way of studying comparing with schools. There are three terms. University terms last ten weeks each. There are regular lectures and seminars. During seminars one of the students reads his or her paper, which is then discussed by the tutor and the rest of the group. Once or twice a term students have tutorials: they see a tutor alone to discuss their work and their progress. This is much the same system as we have in our country. The different is that in Ukraine students have exams after each term.

In Oxford and Cambridge and in some other universities the study is based entirely around tutorials, which take place once a week. After three or four years (depending on the type of course and the university) students take their finals. Most of them get a first, second or third class degree and become BA (Bachelor of Arts) or BSc (Bachelor of Science). There are two towns in Britain that are known all over the world. They can be found on most tourists' guides as important places to visit.

The principal reason for their fame is their Universities. These towns are Oxford and Cambridge. The history of the universities in Britain is inevitably largely the history of these two original foundations.




Age
Doctorate studies
Postgraduate studies
Master-level complementary courses
Uniform master-level courses
Vocational education courses
Maturity Certificate
PSS
PSS
PSS
PSS
SGSS
STS
General Lyceum
Specialized Lyceum
Technical Secondary School
Basic Vocational School
Gymnasium
Primary school
Nursery school
16 23
15 22
14 21
13 20
12 19
11
10
9 16
8
7
6 13
5
4
3
2
1
7
PSS Post secondary school
SGSS 2-year supplementary general secondary school
STS 3-year supplementary technical school

FROM THE HISTORY OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

Many years ago, a university education had the quite specific aim of preparing young men for a career in the Church (including teaching), the law and medicine. Until the end of the 12th century, when Oxford University was slowly emerging from a loose collection of scholars and students in the city, this training had mainly taken place in cathedral "schools".

At first the colleges were simply groups of schools that lived and studied together.

The oldest is probably University College, Oxford (1249), followed by Merton (1264) and Balliol (1263-68), Peterhouse (1284) is the earliest Cambridge college. The universities came to resemble the institutions of today in the Middle Ages. During the Reformation new secular colleges were founded, while others received property confiscated from religious orders.

Though the universities had the emphasis on the study of the secular science, literature and history of classical antiquity it was largely to London (home of the Royal Society) that students looked for science, mathematics and navigation teaching.

Proposals for universities outside Oxford – at London or in the North – had been made since the 16th century. It was not until the 19the century that the needs of an expanding economy made new foundations essential. Among innovations of the 19th century was higher education for girls.

An important step was the introduction in 1858 of the external degree system. It created a mechanism by which provincial technical and commercial colleges could up-grade themselves to full university status. Similar process is taking place in Ukraine now. Former colleges and so-called institutes can up-grade themselves to university status. In spite of its long ancestry Britain's university heritage is undoubtedly modern. Brand new universities such as York and Kent have been set up since the 1960s; former colleges have been up-graded to create universities.

All Britain's universities enjoy complete academic freedom. They appoint their own staff and decide what and how to teach. The tradition of excellence dates back to the 12th and 13th centuries, when Oxford and Cambridge Universities were founded. Four Scottish universities were established in the 14th and 15th centuries, while the rest of Britain's 47 universities were set up in the last 200 years.

First-degree courses usually last three or four years. The Open University is a little different, because it relies on distance learning.England and Wales's 34 polytechnics tend to be more vocationally orientated than universities, providing degree and sub degree vocational courses as well as traditional academic degree courses.

Many polytechnics have close links with business, and many students have jobs and attend part-time. For those without standard entry qualifications, access and foundation courses can provide a way in to higher education.

The number of access courses in Britain is increasing rapidly.Teacher training, according to one teacher, is preparation for "working with the most valuable resource this country has". Non-graduates normally take a four-year Bachelor of Education (BED) degree, while those who are already graduates undertake a one-year Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE).

Exercise 1. Read the text and render the history of university education.

Education System in UK

Age

General Education

Vocational Education

PHD

Master Degree

21 years

Bachelor's Degree

Tertiary Education

HND

HNC

University

University or college of further education

18 years

A-Levels BTEC

A-Levels BTEC

17 years

College

College of further education

16 years

GCSE

Secondary Education

Secondary School

11 years

Primary School

Primary Education

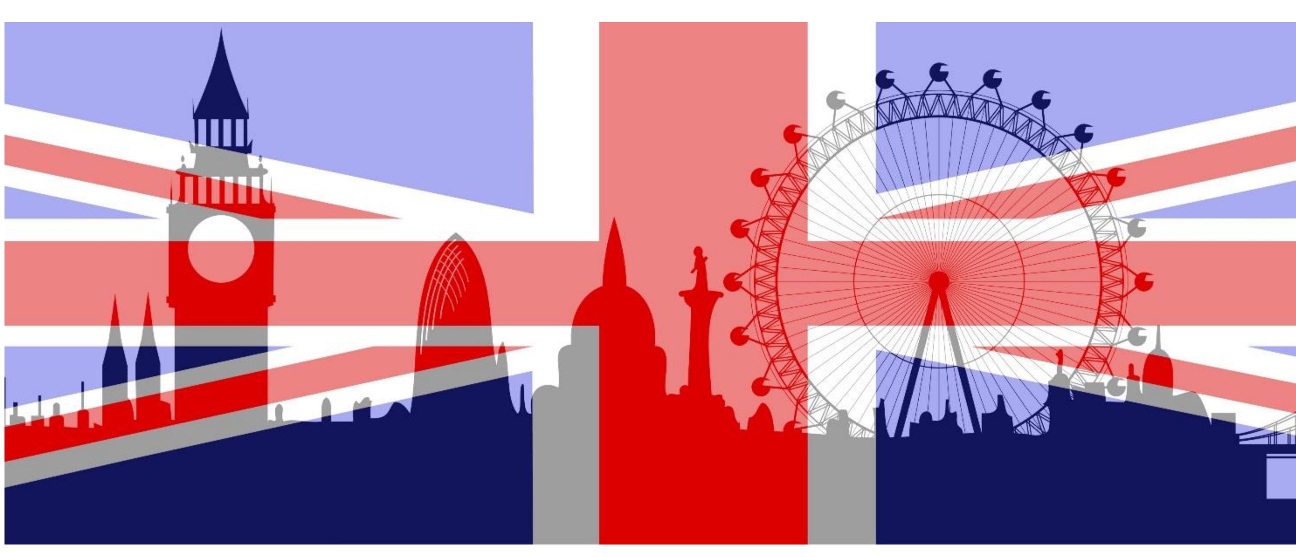
5 years

Nursery school

3 years

Key :

- Compulsory Education
- (A) Apprenticeship-based qualifications
- Basic Education
- General Education
- Vocational Education
- Vocational Education : Post-Secondary Non-Tertiary Education



CAMBRIDGE

My visit to Cambridge has been unusual experience. From whatever country one comes as a student one cannot escape the influence of the Cambridge traditions – and they go back so far. Here, perhaps, more than anywhere else, I have felt at one and the same time the Past, the Present and even the Future. The story of the University begins, as far as I know, in 1209 when several hundred students and scholars arrived in the little town of Cambridge after they had walked 60 miles from Oxford. These students had been studying in Oxford at that city's well-known schools. It was a hard life at Oxford for there was constant trouble between the people living in the town and the students.

Then one day a student accidentally killed a man of the town. The Mayor arrested three other students who were innocent and they were put to death. In protest, all the students moved elsewhere, some coming to Cambridge; and so the new University began.

The Colleges join one another along the curve of the river Cam. Going through a college gate one finds one is standing in an almost square space of about 70 square yards (the size varies from college to college) known as the "court" or quadrangle (quad). Looking down into the court on all sides are the buildings where the students live. The Colleges are built on a plan common to all. There is a chapel, a library and a large dining-hall. The student gets a clear idea of much of the English architectural styles of the past 600 years – the bad as well as the good.

There are 19 colleges, including two for women students, which were built near the end of the last century[1] (women students do not have a very active part in the University life at Cambridge by the way, but they work harder than men and one seldom sees them outside of the classrooms). It is difficult to walk around the quiet quads of the Colleges without feeling a sense of peace and scholarship.

***Note*: (**1) At present there are 18 colleges for men, 5 for women and 6 co-educational colleges (11 thousand students).

Exercise 1. Summarise your findings on education in Oxbridge and Cambridge issue in a short presentation (75 words).

Exercise 2. Mark the following statements as true (T) or false (F).

1. From whatever country one comes as a student one can escape the influence of the Cambridge traditions. 2. You have felt at one and the same time the Past, the Present and even the Future. 3. The story of the University begins in 1309. 4. These students had not been studying in Oxford at that city's well-known schools. 5. It wasn't a hard life at Oxford. 6. There was constant trouble between the people living in the town and the students. 7. The Colleges join one another along the curve of the river Cam. 8. The Colleges are built on a plan common to all. 9. The student gets a clear idea of much of the English architectural styles of the past 600 years. 10. There are 20 colleges. 11. There is a chapel, a library & a large dining-hall. 12. It is difficult to walk around the quiet quads of the Colleges without feeling a sense of peace and scholarship. 13. The size of the college yards varies from college to college.

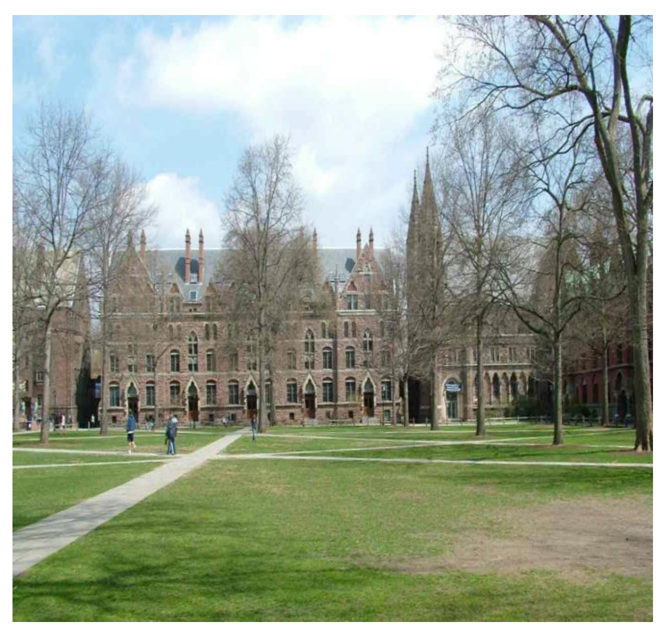
Exercise 3. Answer the questions.

1. When did the story of the University begin? 2. How many students came from Oxford? 3. Why was a hard life at Oxford? 4. What happened one day there? 5. What did all the students do in protest? 6. Do the Colleges join one another along the curve of the river Cam? 7. How are the Colleges built? 8. Does the student get a clear idea of much of the English architectural styles of the past 600 years? 9. How many colleges are there? 10. What kind of feeling do you have walking around the quiet quads of the Colleges?

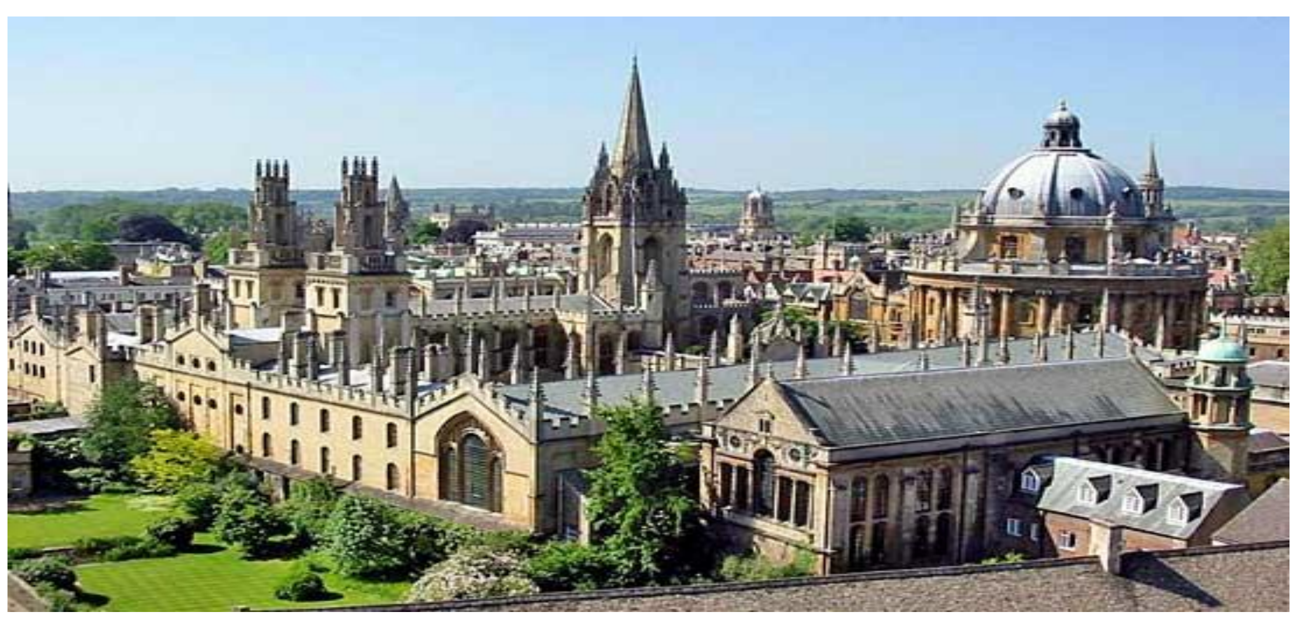
Exercise 4. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 5. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 6. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.



Prohibited
traffic
turn here



THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

One of the largest and most ancient aristocratic universities in England was founded in the city of Oxford in the 12th century. Practically it is not a single university, but a collection of colleges, each self-governing and independent.

The University is merely an administrative body that organises lectures, arranges examinations, gives degrees. The earliest college erected there was the "University College", founded in the year 1249.

Subsequent progress must have been very rapid as we may find many indications of it. The colleges are the real living Oxford and each has its own character and individuality.

Most of the men at Queen's College come from the North of England, those at Jesus College from Wales. The students of one college have high reputation for rugby football (rugger), those of the others for association football (soccer) or tennis, or rowing and so on. There are students of different specialities in each college. Every college has its art men and its science men, its medical students and its engineers. Every student naturally follows his own course of study, but it is supposed that he gains a lot from living among those who represent all other branches.

Admission to the Oxford Colleges is somewhat restricted. Many of the Oxford students are those, who have been educated at private schools, for the rich, such as Eton, Harrow and others.

Much attention at Oxford University is paid to the development of sports and formation of the "Character" of each student, which is often done at the expense of his studies. The students pay for their education, examinations, living accommodations, the use of libraries, laboratories, etc. Very few students, however, hold scholarship from public or private funds. The Oxford University as presented to the world today consists of 16 faculties (sections) including theology, medicine, humanitarian and natural sciences, Oriental Science, foreign languages, engineering and many other specialities. It consists of 25 (autonomous) independent colleges, including 3 colleges mainly for women students.

The University has laboratories and research institutes in all branches of science and engineering and many other educational facilities. The Oxford University boasts of several well stocked museums, a botanical garden, several parks, a theatre, a fine Art Gallery, the well-known Bodleian libraries (old and new) containing about 2,000,000 volumes and over 40,000 manuscripts.

The University, though a self-governing institution, receives aid from the State, mainly in the form of direct grants from the Treasury, which are made on the advice of the University Grants Committee, a committee appointed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer and consisting of people with experience of university administration and education. Formerly the University used to depend for its development only upon private benefactors and even now, though the University gets grants from the State, the generosity of private benefactors means much for it.

The highest honorary officer of the University is the Chancellor who is elected for life from among the most distinguished dignitaries of the country. The vice-chancellor, who is in practice the head of the University, is nominated annually by the Chancellor.

The two proctors are also appointed annually by two of the colleges in rotation. The proctor's job is to maintain discipline. So the Chancellor, vice-chancellor, proctors, masters and scholars of the University of Oxford form a corporate body, within which the colleges are individual corporations.

As lectures are organised not by the colleges but by the University, so any member of the University students may attend them and all the students are members of a college and of the University. The result of this is that the lecture-room of a famous professor will be overcrowded, while that of a dull professor may have only a handful of students.

The Oxford University is known for its tutorial system. The individual tuition provided by Oxford colleges is, perhaps, one of the main reasons which admission there is so eagerly sought after. Every student has a tutor, so one of the first things when a student comes to Oxford is to see the tutor, who is attached individually to every student and practically guides him through the whole study course.

The tutor more or less plans the student's work, suggests the books he should read and sets the work for him to do, for example, lectures to attend, an essay to write, etc.

Each week the student goes to his tutor in his room, perhaps with two or three other students, and the tutor discusses with him the work he has done, criticises in detail the essay he has written and sets him the next week's work. A characteristic feature of the Oxford University is that many traditions of the Middle Ages are still current there now. Many eminent, well-known scholars and scientists have been educated at Oxford. Thousands of tourists flock to this European Mecca, to do the University and its colleges and the town itself, where not only the buildings are historical, but each stone in the town has a history of its own.

OXFORD: TRADITIONS & CONFLICTS

Oxford is called "the City of dreaming spires". Its skyline of spires, domes and towers symbolises the University's "ivory towers" of thoughts and ideas.Oxford is also the home of Morris car factories, which became Rover. Their alternative name is "the City of screaming tyres".The conflict is ancient between town and gown (the students still wear cloak-like academic gowns). The town apprentices used to protest against the University students from the 13th century onwards.

Hence the Oxford Colleges are built like castles, with only one entrance door in a high wall.

Each of the 38 colleges is a complete community, where the students live, pray, eat, have their leisure, their "pub", their libraries, and their tutorials with their teachers.Students applying to Oxford apply to a college and are accepted as a member of that college, rather than of a University faculty such as philosophy or history. They can therefore change subject very easily. There is some ancient rivalry between Oxford and Cambridge, and that rivalry is reflected in the language too.

The squares within colleges are called "courts" in Cambridge, and "quads" in Oxford. Oxford college servants are called 'scouts', whereas in Cambridge they are "bedders". The punts (flat-bottomed boats) which students pole along the rivers have a 'Cambridge end' and an "Oxford end", and woe betide you if in Cambridge you are seen to be punting from the 'Oxford end'!

***Life in Oxford*.** Studying at Oxford can seem very leisurely. Undergraduates have only 1 or 2 compulsory hours per week when they must attend a tutorial with 1 or 2 fellow students and their college tutor. Yet for each tutorial they are expected to write a 5000 to 8000 word essay, and that requires a lot of work! In between reading for and writing the essays, students have many very active clubs and societies. For some students their recreation is actually their chosen profession.

For most University students, their success in the degree all depends on the exams at the end of the first and third years. The final exams are held in the Examination Schools, and the male students must wear white shirt with white bow tie, black suit, socks and shoes, black gown and mortarboard. The female students wear black shoes, trousers or skirt and gown, white blouse, black tie and mortarboard.

While wearing these clothes (called "sub fusc") they have "right of way" and can cycle through red traffic lights and go the wrong way in one-way streets! To establish their right of way they simply have to shout "Schools!" meaning they are going to the Examination Schools building.

UNIT III. SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND & WALES & NORTHERN IRELAND

HISTORY OF SCOTTISH EDUCATION

Industrialisation, urbanisation and the Disruption of 1843 all undermined the tradition of parish schools. From 1830, the state began to fund buildings with grants, then, from 1846 it was funding schools by direct sponsorship, and in 1872 Scotland moved to a system like that in England of state-sponsored largely free schools, run by local school boards.

Overall administration was in the hands of the Scotch (later Scottish) Education Department in London. Education was now compulsory from five to thirteen and many new board schools were built. Larger urban school boards established "higher grade" (secondary) schools as a cheaper alternative to the burgh schools. The Scottish Education Department introduced a Leaving Certificate Examination in 1888 to set national standards for secondary education and in 1890 school fees were abolished, creating a state-funded national system of free basic education and common examinations.

At the beginning of the 19th century, Scottish universities had no entrance exam, students typically entered at ages of 15 or 16, attended for as little as two years, chose which lectures to attend and could leave without qualifications. After two commissions of enquiry in 1826 and 1876 and reforming acts of parliament in 1858 and 1889, the curriculum and system of graduation were reformed to meet the needs of the emerging middle classes and the professions.

Entrance examinations equivalent to the School Leaving Certificate were introduced and average ages of entry rose to 17 or 18. Standard patterns of graduation in the arts curriculum offered 3-year ordinary and 4-year honours degrees and separate science faculties were able to move away from the compulsory Latin, Greek and philosophy of the old MA curriculum.

The historic University of Glasgow became a leader in British higher education by providing the educational needs of youth from the urban and commercial classes, as well as the upper class.

It prepared students for non-commercial careers in government, the law, medicine, education, and the ministry and a smaller group for careers in science and engineering. St Andrews pioneered the admission of women to Scottish universities, creating the Lady Licentiate in Arts (LLA), which proved highly popular. From 1892, Scottish universities could admit and graduate women and the numbers of women at Scottish universities steadily increased until the early 20th century.

Educational Reorganisation & Retrenchment

In the 20th century the centre of the education system became more focused on Scotland, with the ministry of education partly moving north in 1918 and then finally having its headquarters relocated to Edinburgh in 1939. The school leaving age was raised to 14 in 1901, but despite attempts to raise it to 15 this was only made law in 1939 and then postponed because of the outbreak of war.

In 1918 Roman Catholic schools were brought into the state system, but retained their distinct religious character, access to schools by priests and the requirement that school staff be acceptable to the Church. The first half of the 20th century saw Scottish universities fall behind those in England and Europe in terms of participation and investment. The decline of traditional industries between the wars undermined recruitment. English universities increased the numbers of students registered between 1924 and 1927 by 19 %. But in Scotland, the numbers fell, particularly among women. In the same period, while expenditure in English universities rose by 90 %, in Scotland less than a third of that figure.

EDUCATIONAL REFORMS

Although plans to raise the school leaving age to 15 in the 1940s were never ratified, increasing numbers stayed on beyond elementary education and it was eventually raised to 16 in 1973.

As a result, secondary education was the major area of growth in the second half of the 20th century. New qualifications were developed to cope with changing aspirations and economics, with the Leaving Certificate being replaced by the Scottish Certificate of Education Ordinary Grade ("O-Grade") and Higher Grade ("Higher") qualifications in 1962, which became the basic entry qualification for university study. The higher education sector expanded in the second half of the 20th century, with four institutions being given university status in the 1960s (Dundee, Heriot-Watt, Stirling and Strathclyde) and five in the 1990s (Abertay, Glasgow Caledonian, Napier, Paisley and Robert Gordon).

After devolution, in 1999 the new Scottish Executive set up an Education Department and an Enterprise, Transport and Lifelong Learning Department. One of the major diversions from practice in England, possible because of devolution, was the abolition of student tuition fees in 1999, instead retaining a system of means-tested student grants.

Old College, University of Edinburgh, rebuilt in 1789 according to plans drawn up by Robert Adam. A legacy of the Reformation in Scotland was the aim of having a school in every parish, which was underlined by an act of the Scottish parliament in 1696 (reinforced in 1801).

In rural communities, this obliged local landowners (heritors) to provide a schoolhouse and pay a schoolmaster, while ministers and local presbyteries oversaw the quality of the education.

The headmaster or "dominie" was often university educated and enjoyed high local prestige.

The kirk schools were active in the rural lowlands but played a minor role in the Highlands, the islands, and in the fast-growing industrial towns and cities. The schools taught in English, not in Gaelic, because that language was seen as a leftover of Catholicism and was not an expression of Scottish nationalism. In cities such as Glasgow the Catholics operated their own schools, which directed their youth into clerical and middle class occupations, as well as religious vocations.

A "democratic myth" emerged in the 19th century to the effect that many a "lad of pairts" had been able to rise up through the system to take high office and that literacy was much more widespread in Scotland than in neighbouring states, particularly England. Historical research has largely undermined the myth. Kirk schools were not free, attendance was not compulsory and they generally imparted only basic literacy such as the ability to read the Bible. Poor children, starting at age 7, were done by age 8 or 9; the majority were finished by age 11 or 12.

The result was widespread basic reading ability; since there was an extra fee for writing, half the people never learned to write. Scots were not significantly better educated than the English and other contemporary nations. A few talented poor boys did go to university, but usually they were helped by aristocratic or gentry sponsors. Most of them became poorly paid teachers or ministers, and none became important figures in the Scottish Enlightenment or the Industrial Revolution.

By the 18th century, there were five universities in Scotland, at Edinburgh, Glasgow, St. Andrews and King's and Marischial Colleges in Aberdeen, compared with only two in England.

Originally oriented to clerical and legal training, after the religious and political upheavals of the 17th century they recovered with a lecture-based curriculum that was able to embrace economics and science, offering a high quality liberal education to the sons of the nobility and gentry. It helped the universities to become major centres of medical education and to put Scotland at the forefront of Enlightenment thinking. Education in Scotland is overseen by the Scottish Government and has a history of universal provision of public education; the Scottish education system is distinctly different from those in the other countries of the UK.

The Scotland Act 1998 gives the Scottish Parliament legislative control over all education matters; the Education (Scotland) Act 1980 is the principal legislation governing education in Scotland.

Traditionally, the Scottish system at secondary school level has emphasised breadth across a range of subjects, while the English, Welsh and Northern Irish systems have emphasised greater depth of education over a smaller range of subjects.

Following this, Scottish universities generally have courses a year longer (typically 4 years) than their counterparts elsewhere in the UK, though it is often possible for students to take more advanced specialised exams and join the courses at the second year. One unique aspect is that the ancient universities of Scotland issue a Master of Arts as the first degree in humanities. State schools are owned and operated by the local authorities which act as *Education Authorities*, and the compulsory phase is divided into primary school and secondary school (often called high school).

Schools are supported in delivering learning and teaching by Education Scotland (formerly Learning and Teaching Scotland). There are private schools across the country, although the distribution is uneven with such schools in 22 of the 32 Local Authority areas.

At September 2011 the total pupil population in Scotland was 702,104, of which 31,425 pupils, or 4.5%, were being educated in independent schools.

Qualifications at the secondary school and post-secondary (further education) level are provided by the Scottish Qualifications Authority, which is the national awarding and accrediting body in Scotland, and delivered through various schools, colleges and other centres.

Political responsibility for education at all levels is vested in the Scottish Parliament and the Learning Directorate. Inspections and audits of educational standards are conducted by three bodies: Care Inspectorate inspects care standards in pre-school provision.

Education Scotland (formerly Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education) for pre-school, primary education further and community education; with the Scottish office of the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA Scotland) responsible for higher education.

In 2014, research by the Office for National Statistics found that Scotland was the most highly educated country in Europe and among the most well-educated in the world in terms of tertiary education attainment, above countries like Finland, Ireland and Luxembourg, with roughly 40% of Scots aged 16-64 educated to NVQ level 4 and above.

Children start primary school aged between 4½ and 5½ depending on when the child's birthday falls. Scottish school policy places all those born between March of a given year and February of the following year in the same year group. Children born between March and August start school in August at between 5½ and 5 years old, and those born between September and February start school in the previous August at between age 4 years 11 months and 4½ years old.

The Scottish system is the most flexible in the UK, however, as parents of children born between September and December can decide to defer for 1 year (but may or may not receive a funded nursery place in the deferral year), whilst children born between January and February can opt to hold their child back a year and let them start school the following August, with guaranteed nursery funding. This usually allows those not ready for formal education to have an extra year at an early years centre (formerly known as nursery).

Pupils remain at primary school for 7 years. Then aged eleven or twelve, they start secondary school for a compulsory four years with the following two years being optional. In Scotland, pupils sit National 4/5 exams (previously Standard Grade or Intermediate exams) at the age of 15-16, normally for between 6 and 8 subjects including compulsory exams in English and Mathematics.

A Science subject (Physics, Biology or Chemistry) and a Social Subject (Geography, History or Modern Studies) were compulsory, but this was changed in accordance with the new curriculum. It is now required by the Scottish Parliament for students to have two hours of physical education a week; each school may vary these compulsory combinations.

The school leaving age is generally 16 (after completion of National 4/5s), after which students may choose to remain at school and study for Higher and/or Advanced Higher exams.

A small number of students at certain private, independent schools may follow the English system and study towards GCSE instead of National 4/5s (Standard Grades), and towards A and AS-Levels instead of (alongside) Higher Grade and Advanced Higher exams. The International Baccalaureate has been introduced in some independent schools.

Scotland provides free education to all children living in Scotland. Scotland's schools operate a Curriculum for Excellence which provides knowledge, skills and attributes for learning and life to all nursery, primary and secondary schooling between the ages of 3 - 18.

Government funded schools are free for children aged 5-19. In many cases, this applies to children of international post-graduate students, and other immigrants.

The age ranges specify the youngest age for a child entering that year and the oldest age for a child leaving that year. Playgroup can be described as a daycare centre for toddlers, then children may go on to attend an early years centre as soon as they have passed their third birthday, and progress to Primary 1 in the August of the year in which they turn five.

In general, the cut-off point for ages is the end of February, so all children must be of a certain age on 1 March to begin class in August.

All parents of children born between September and February (still 4 years old on the school start date) are entitled to defer entry to Primary School if they believe their child is not ready for school.

Only children whose birthdays fall in January or February will be considered for funding for a subsequent year at an early years centre, unless there are special circumstances.

Children may leave school once they reach their statutory school leaving date; this is dependent on date of birth. For children born between 1 March and 30 September, this date is 31 May of their 4th year of secondary school. For children born between 1 October and 28 February, the last day of June is the first date they may leave school if they have a placement at college and the school have signed the health & safety forms.

Which high school the children go to depends on the area where they live, known as the "catchment area", which has a specific high school that takes children who live in that area.

Parents can apply for a placement request if they would like their child to attend a school outside their catchment area and a panel will decide if the child is the most worthy (out of all placing requests) to take one of the spaces left after all children from the catchment area have been taken.

Home education is also legal in Scotland. Parents wishing to home educate do not need the permission of the Local Authority unless the children are already registered at a school. There are no exact numbers available for children being educated at home in Scotland.

Within the Scottish Government, the Cabinet Secretary for Education and Skills has overall responsibility for education provision in Scotland. The Cabinet Secretary is assisted by three junior ministers, currently the Minister for Childcare and Early Years, the Minister for Further Education, Higher Education and Science and the Minister for Employability and Training.

In 2003, work began on an education reform programme, to produce a new *Curriculum for Excellence* that would replace existing guidance on the school curriculum. Curriculum for Excellence was launched in Scottish secondary schools from school session 2012-2013.

In 2017, new reforms were introduced moving control over curriculum & schools more towards head teachers & parents. The vast majority of Scottish pupils take Scottish Qualifications Certificate provided by the Scottish Qualifications Authority (SQA).

Generally, most pupils take National 4/5s (previously Standard Grades, but some schools offered Intermediates instead) in S3-S4, and Highers in S5. The number of National 4/5 qualifications a pupil enters can vary drastically depending on the individual, with the most common number of National 5s taken, per pupil, in 2017 being 6, however some may choose to untertake as few as one or two, or as many as eight or nine. For those who wish to remain at school for the final year (S6), more Highers and Advanced Highers (formerly CSYS) in S6 can be taken.

Intermediate 1 and Intermediate 2 qualifications – were intended to be roughly equivalent to General and Credit Level Standard Grades respectively, but in practice (although may vary from subject to subject), Intermediate 1 was easier than General, and Intermediate 2 harder than Credit – can be taken in lieu of any of the aforementioned qualifications.

Pupils can go to university at the end of S5, as Highers provide the entry requirements for Scottish universities where degrees are normally four years long; however, recently it is more common for students to remain until S6, taking further Highers and/or taking Advanced Highers.

The majority of English universities, the most popular choice for Scottish students who wish to study university degrees outside of Scotland, require Advanced Higher qualification levels as these are deemed by the English universities to be most similar to A-levels. All educational qualifications in Scotland are part of the Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework.

Scottish Attainment Challenge

In 2015, the Scottish Government launched the Scottish Attainment Challenge which aims to achieve equity in educational outcomes throughout Scotland. The Scottish Government envisages equity being achieved by ensuring every child has the same opportunity to succeed, with a particular focus on closing the poverty-related attainment gap. It is underpinned by national Scottish educational policies such as Curriculum for Excellence, Getting it Right for Every Child (GIRFEC) as well as the National Improvement Framework.

The attainment challenge focuses and accelerates targeted improvement activity in literacy, numeracy & health and wellbeing in specific areas of Scotland, known as "challenge authorities" (those councils with a higher percentage of children growing up in poverty and deprivation).

At a cost of £750 mln to the Scottish Government through the Attainment Scotland Fund, the challenge is a targeted initiative focused on supporting pupils in the local authorities of Scotland with the highest concentrations of deprivation. Currently, the nine "Challenge Authorities" are Glasgow City Council, Dundee City Council, Inverclyde, West Dunbartonshire, North Ayrshire, East Ayrshire, North Lanarkshire, Clackmannanshire, & Renfrewshire.

On 1 February 2017 the share each primary and secondary school will receive for the academic year 2017-2018 from the Scottish Government's £120 mln Pupil Equity Funding was announced by the Deputy First Minister and Cabinet Secretary for Education and Skills John Swinney.

This funding is provided through the Attainment Scotland Fund and allocated directly to schools, targeted at those children most affected by the poverty related attainment gap.

Secondary School Naming

There is not a set name for secondary schools in Scotland, but whatever they might be called, with just a few specific exceptions in mainly rural or island authorities, state secondary schools in Scotland are fully comprehensive and non-selective. Amongst the state-run secondary schools:

188 are nominally *High Schools*. These are spread across the country. Almost all Catholic secondaries are high schools, with the majority of the other names being non-denominational schools. In West Dunbartonshire, the non-denominational schools are Vale of Leven, Dumbarton, and Clydebank Academies while the Catholic schools are Our Lady & Saint Patrick's High School and St Peter the Apostle's High School. 131 are nominally *Academies*. These are spread across the country but are in high concentration in North-East Scotland and Ayrshire, an example is Aboyne Academy. There are three Royal Academies, in Irvine, North Ayrshire; Tain; and Inverness.

15 are nominally *Secondary Schools* (colloquially abbreviated to "secondaries").

14 are nominally *Grammar Schools*. Most of these schools were defined as grammar schools under a previous (now dissolved) system but their names remain. Popular areas for grammar schools are Argyll and Bute, East Lothian and South Lanarkshire.13 are simply *Schools*. These schools cater for Primary as well as Secondary school children. They are found in rural areas or islands.

8 are *Junior High Schools*. These schools are found exclusively in the Orkey and Shetland Islands. They cater for school children from P1 to S4. 4 are *Colleges*.

These include Madras College (in St Andrews, Fife), Marr College (in Troon, South Ayrshire) and St Joseph's College (in Dumfries, Dumfries and Galloway). Other schools include The Community School of Auchterarder, Auchterarder, Perth and Kinross; The Nicolson Institute, Stornoway, Western Isles; North Walls Community School on Hoy, Orkney Islands and Wester Hailes Education Centre, Wester Hailes, Edinburgh. All of these are, equally, fully comprehensive non-selective schools, differing only in designation from all other state secondary schools in Scotland.

Religion in Schools

The vast majority of schools are non-denominational; include the parish schools, pioneered by the Church of Scotland and other Protestant Churches, which became state schools in 1872. Religious education is taught in non-denominational schools and in denominational schools. Of over 2,500 schools in Scotland, there are 366 state schools which are Roman Catholic, three Episcopalian and one Jewish. The Education (Scotland) Act 1918 brought Roman Catholic schools within the State education system, ensuring the promotion of a Roman Catholic ethos within such schools.

Vocational Education

Vocational education is provided in Further Education Colleges and through apprenticeships.

Due to the growing surplus of university graduates in many fields of study, along with that of lower level apprentices, higher level apprenticeships are seen as providing the lowest risk of unemployment or underemployment. Skills Development Scotland has introduced *Graduate Level Apprenticeships* in order to promote this option.

Music Education

Music education is available at several levels. Formal music education begins at 4½ years and can progress as high as postgraduate studies. Music education can take place within a Scottish Music school; through a music service or privately.

Scottish Gaelic Medium Education

Some schools in Scotland provide education given in the Scottish Gaelic language. They are mainly located in the main cities of Scotland and in areas with higher amounts of Gaelic speakers.

Gaelic medium education is becoming increasingly popular throughout Scotland, and the number of pupils who are in Gaelic medium education at primary school level has risen from 24 in 1985, to 2500 in the 2012-13 school year.

Higher Education

There are fifteen universities in Scotland and three other institutions of higher education which have the authority to award academic degrees. The oldest is St. Andrews, which was founded in 1413.

Three other "ancient universities", Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh, date from before 1600.

The University of the Highlands and Islands (UHI) gained full university status in 2011, having been created through the federation of 13 colleges and research institutions across the Highlands and Islands, a process that began in 2001.

All Scottish universities have the power to award degrees at all levels: undergraduate, taught postgraduate, and doctoral. Education in Scotland is controlled by the Scottish Government under the terms of the Scotland Act 1998. The minister responsible for higher education is the Cabinet Secretary for Education and Lifelong Learning, currently Angela Constance MSP of the Scottish National Party.

University status in Scotland and throughout the UK today is conferred by the Privy Council, which takes advice from the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education. All Scottish universities are public universities and funded by the Scottish Government (through its Scottish Funding Council).

Financial support is provided for Scottish-domiciled students by the Student Awards Agency for Scotland. Students ordinarily resident in Scotland or the European Union do not pay tuition fees for their first undergraduate degree, but tuition fees are charged for those from the rest of the UK. All students are required to pay tuition fees for postgraduate education (MSc, PhD), except in certain priority areas funded by the Scottish Government, or if another source of funding can be found (research council studentship for a PhD). A representative body called Universities Scotland works to promote Scotland's universities, as well as six other higher education institutions.

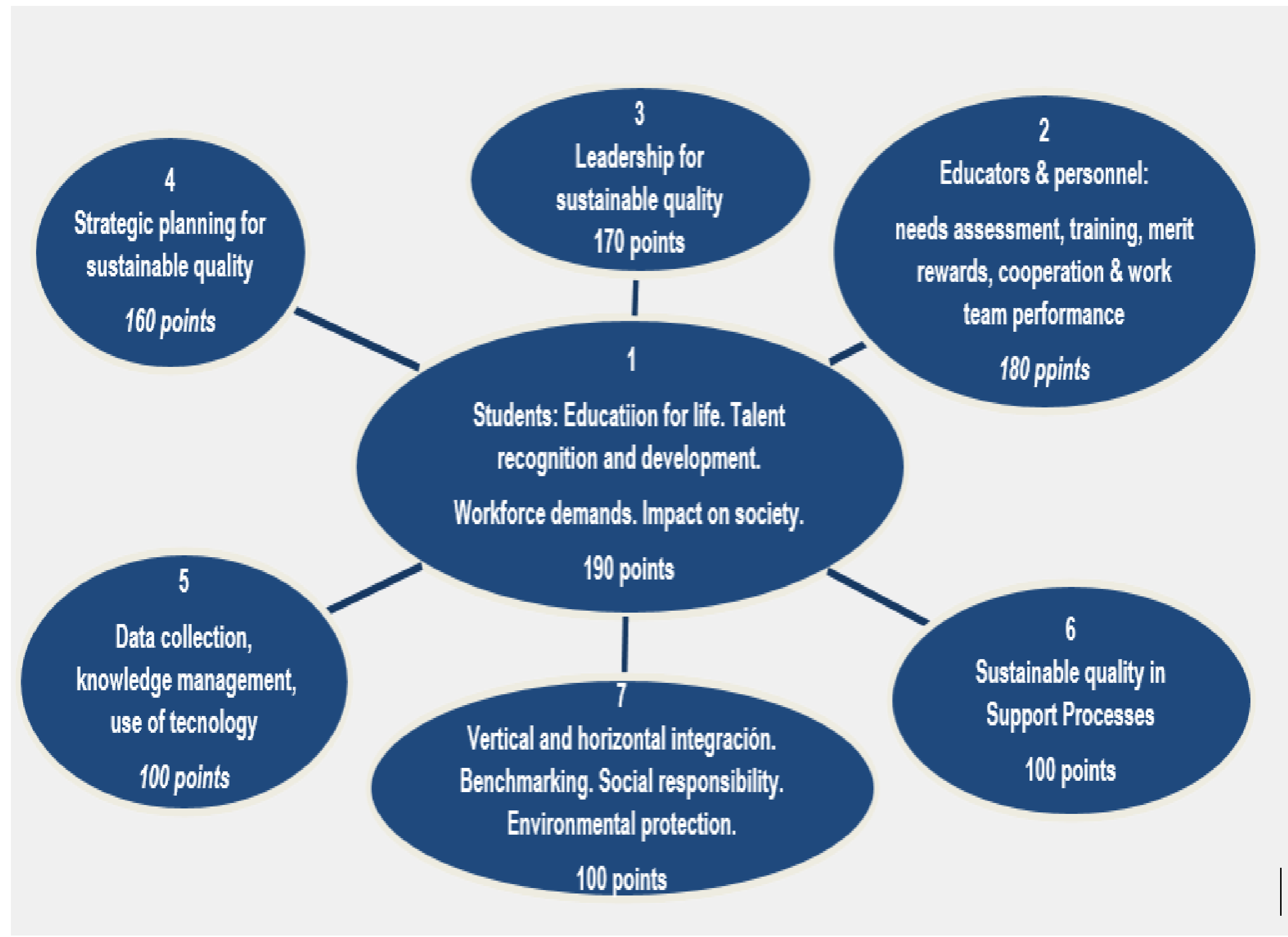
The university sector in Scotland had a total income of £3.5 billion in 2014/15 with the Scottish Government giving approximately £623 mln in funding for individual university student support.

The Scottish Funding Council contributing £1.1 bn of public money to the fifteen universities, this was a six per cent reduction since 2010/11.

In 2014-15, approximately 232,570 students studied at universities or institutes of higher education in Scotland, of which 56% were female and 44% male, with 66% being domiciled in Scotland, 12% from the rest of the UK, 9% from the EU and the remaining 13% being international students.

Of all these, approximately 76% were studying for their first degree (undergraduate level) and 24% for a taught postgraduate degree (primarily a master's degree) or a doctoral research degree (primarily PhD). The remainder were mostly on other programmes such as Higher National Diploma.

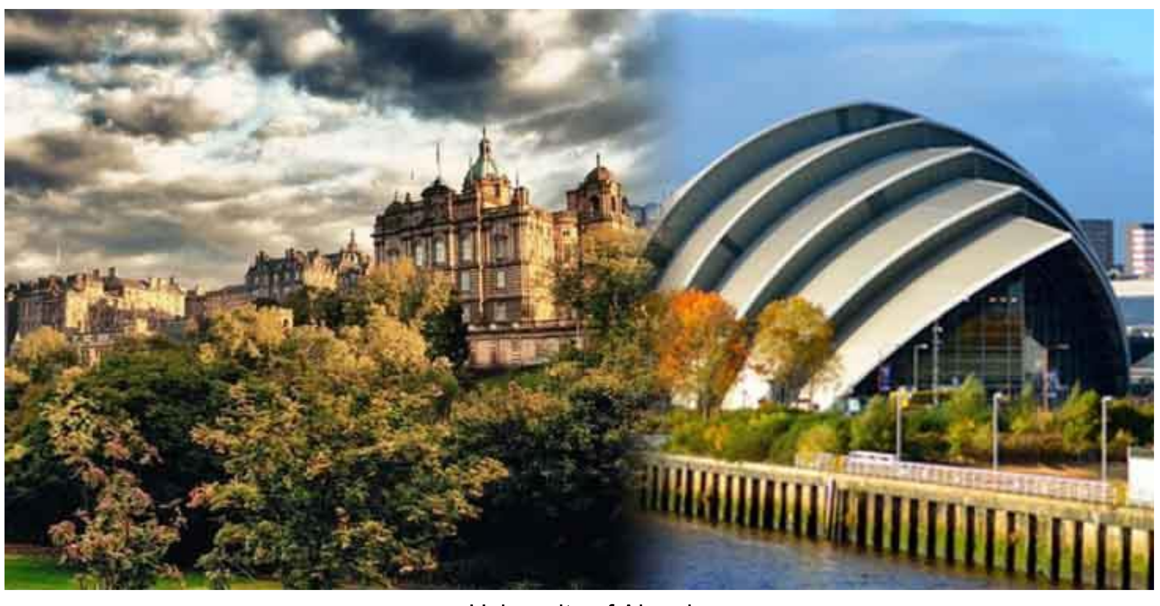
16,000 students were studying in Scotland with The Open University via distance-learning, and the Open University teaches 40 per cent of Scotland's part-time undergraduates. In the 2016-17 Times Higher Education World University Rankings, five Scottish universities are among the top 200 worldwide: University of Edinburgh (at 27), University of Glasgow (at 88), University of St. Andrews (at =110), University of Dundee (at =180), and the University of Aberdeen (at =188).



Global initiative for qualification

Scotland boarding school

Private school



University of Aberdeen

STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION SYSTEM IN WALES

Education in Wales differs in certain respects from education elsewhere in the UK.

A significant minority of students all over Wales are educated either wholly or largely through the medium of Welsh: in 2014/15, 15.7% of children and young people received Welsh-medium education – a drop from the 15.9% in 2010/11. And additional 10% attend schools which had a significant portion of the curriculum is bilingual. The study of the Welsh language is available to all age groups through nurseries, schools, colleges and universities and in adult education. The study of the language is compulsory for all pupils in State Schools until the age of 16.

Since devolution, education policy in the four constituent countries of the UK has diverged: for example, England has pursued reforms based on diversity of school types and parental choice; Wales (Scotland) remain more committed to the concept of the community-based comprehensive school.

Systems of governance and regulation – the arrangements for planning, funding, quality-assuring & regulating learning; for its local administration – are becoming increasingly differentiated across the four home countries. Education researcher David Reynolds claims that policy in Wales is driven by a "producerist" paradigm emphasising collaboration between educational partners. He alludes to lower funding in Welsh schools compared to England, echoing similar concerns at university level. He concludes that performance data does not suggest that Wales has improved more rapidly than England, although there are considerable difficulties in making these kinds of assessments.

Compulsory Schooling

A child's age on 1 September determines the point of entry into the relevant stage of education. Education is compulsory beginning with the term following the child's fifth birthday, but may take place at either home or school. Most parents choosing to educate through school-based provision, however, enrol their children in the reception year in September of that school year, with most children thus beginning school at age four or four and a half. This age was traditionally much earlier than in most other Western nations, but in recent years many European countries have lowered their age of compulsory education, usually by making one or more years of kindergarten compulsory.

Primary Education

In 2014/15, there were 1,330 primary schools in Wales with 273,400 pupils and 12,240 full-time equivalent (FTE) teachers. The teacher/pupil ratio was 1:22 and the average class size was 26 pupils.

In the same year, there were 13 nursery schools in with 1,076 pupils and 43 full-time equivalent teachers. In 2015/16, there were 276,950 pupils in 1,310 primary schools – a rise of 3,550 since 2014/15. In 2008 a unique new curriculum – the Foundation phase – was rolled out to all schools in Wales. It began for 3- to 4-year-olds and by 2011 is in place for 3- to 7-year-olds. It is based on experiential learning, in small groups, with a teacher ratio of 1:8 for the youngest ages.

In 2014/15, there were 435 Welsh-medium primary schools with 65,460 pupils, rising from 64,366 in 2013/14 but the number of Welsh-medium primary schools decreasing from 444 due primarily to the closure of small rural schools.

Secondary Education

Pupils in secondary school take part in the compulsory GCSE and the non-compulsory A-level or BTEC qualifications at age 16 and 18 respectively. Since 2007 the Welsh Baccalaureate Qualification has also been available as an option although it was ungraded until 2014.

In 2014/15 there were 207 secondary schools (a drop of six since 2013/14) in Wales with 182,408 pupils and 11,269 FTE teachers (a drop of 310 since 2013/14). The pupil/teacher ratio was 17:1, which has remained largely the same since 2000/01. In 2015/16, there were 178,650 pupils in 205 secondary schools – a drop of 3,700 since 2014/15.

The same report found that in 2015/16, there were 8,000 pupils in 34 independent schools, 4,540 pupils in 32 independent special schools, and 730 pupils in 25 pupil referral units.

In 2014/15, there were 50 Welsh-medium secondary (a drop of 2 since 2013/14) schools with 36,485 pupils, dropping from 37,400 in 2013/14. In the same year, there were 4 Welsh-medium middle schools (a rise of 2 since 2013/14) with 2,448 pupils, a rise from 1,577 in 2013/14.

In 2016, 60/3% of Year 11 pupils (aged 16) achieved the Level 2 inclusive threshold (Level 2 including a grade A*-C in English or Welsh first language and Mathematics). 35.6% of pupils eligible for FSM (free school meals) achieved the L2 inclusive threshold. 66.9% of pupils achieved A*-C in maths. 70.4% of pupils achieved A*-C in either English or Welsh first language.

PISA results, by which the performance of Welsh pupils is compared to that of other countries, is also of enormous concern, with Wales lagging behind all other countries in the UK, leading to the then Minister of Education Leighton Andrews to describe the performance as "unacceptable".

Education Consortia

There are four formal education consortia in Wales covering:

North Wales (Flintshire, Conwy, Wrexham, Gwynedd, Isle of Anglesey, Denbighshire).

South & Mid Wales (Swansea, Neath Port Talbot, Carmarthenshire, Pembrokeshire, Powys, Ceredigion).

Central South Wales (Bridgend, Cardiff, Merthyr Tydfil, Rhondda Cynon Taff, Vale of Glamorgan).

South East Wales (Caerphilly, Monmouthshire, Newport, Blaenau Gwent, Torfaen).

Each of the consortia are responsible for school improvement services throughout their respective local authorities and schools. Whilst all aspects of school improvement are considered consortia roles, specifically targeted with addressing the three Ministerial priorities of; improving levels of literacy, numeracy and reducing the impact of poverty on education attainment.

Further Education

Further education (FE) includes full- and part-time learning for people over compulsory school age, excluding higher education. FE and publicly funded training in Wales is provided by 15 FE institutions in 2014/15 and a range of public, private and voluntary sector training providers, such as the Workers' Educational Association. Colleges vary in size and mission, and include general FE, tertiary and specialist institutions, including one Roman Catholic Sixth Form College and a residential adult education college.

Many colleges offer leisure learning and training programmes designed to meet the needs of business. In 2014/15 there were 263,315 FE students in Wales spanning the entire availability of FE at multiple placements, including FE, HE (higher education), LA (local authority) Community, work-based learning.

Adult Community Learning

Adult Community learning is a form of adult education or lifelong learning delivered and supported by local authorities in Wales. Programmes can be formal or informal, non-accredited or accredited, and vocational, academic or leisure orientated. In 2015/16 there were 28,710 learners in Local Authority Community Learning.

Higher Education

Students normally enter higher education (HE) from 18 onwards. All undergraduate education is largely state-financed (with Welsh students contributing £1,255), and students are generally entitled to student loans for maintenance. The state does not control syllabi, but it does influence admission procedures and monitors standards through the Higher Education Funding Council for Wales.

The typical first degree offered at Welsh universities is the Bachelor's degree, typically taking three years to complete full-time. Some institutions offer an undergraduate master's degree as a first degree, typically lasting four years. During a first degree students are known as undergraduates. Some universities offer a vocationally based Foundation degree, typically two years in length.

Within Wales, medical undergraduate education is provided by only Cardiff University, while graduate fast track route training is provided at Swansea University. In recent years there has been an increase in the number of universities with their own degree awarding powers owing to the change in the University of Wales from a single awarding body for most of the Universities in Wales to a confederal structure, along with former institutes gaining university status. In 2014/15, there were 8 HE institutions in Wales including one music conservatoire, the Royal Welsh College of Music and Drama in Cardiff which is part of the University of Glamorgan Group.

The University of Glamorgan, the second largest university in Wales, has never been a member of the University of Wales and awards its own degrees: the Royal Welsh College of Music and Drama also awards University of Glamorgan degrees.

In 2014/15 there were 145,735 enrolments at HE institutions in Wales, including 97,900 first degree and other undergraduates and 27,780 postgraduates. Welsh HE institutions had a total of 10,140 full-time and part-time staff.

In 2012, the minister with responsibility for education within Wales, Leighton Andrews, made a significant statement in relation to the merger of Cardiff Metropolitan University (CMU, formerly UWIC), the University of Glamorgan and University of Wales, Newport (UWN), in which he proposed the dissolution of CMU and UN as part of the process towards merger.

However, significant such changes may seem, it is arguable that the effective imposition of an average undergraduate fee of £7.5 K pa for the three institutions (and others, but not to Cardiff, Swansea, Bangor and Aberystwyth all of whom will charge £9 K pa) will cause much more substantial long term damage to these universities and reinvent the 'binary divide' between universities and the former polytechnics and HE institutes.

Cardiff University

St David's University of Wales

EDUCATION IN NORTHERN IRELAND

Education in Northern Ireland differs from systems used elsewhere in the UK, although it is relatively similar to Wales. A child's age on 1 July determines the point of entry into the relevant stage of education, unlike England and Wales where it is 1 September.

Northern Ireland's results at GCSE and A-Level are consistently top in the UK. At A-Level and BTEC level 3, one third of students in Northern Ireland achieved A and distinction grades in 2007, which is a higher proportion than in England and Wales. The Department of Education (DE) is responsible for Northern Ireland's education policy, with the exception of the higher and further education sector which is the responsibility of the Department for the Economy (DfE).

The Department of Education's main areas of responsibility cover pre-school, primary, post-primary and special education; the youth service; the promotion of community relations within and between schools; teacher education & salaries. Its primary statutory duty is to promote the education of the people of Northern Ireland and to ensure the effective implementation of education policy.

The Education Authority is responsible for ensuring that efficient and effective primary and secondary education services are available to meet the needs of children and young people, and support for the provision of efficient and effective youth services. These services were previously delivered by the five Education and Library Boards (ELBs) until the creation of the Education Authority, which assumed these roles in 2015. Classroom 2000 (C2k), on behalf of the authority, is responsible for the provision of information and communications technology managed services to all schools in Northern Ireland. Each of the former ELBs is now a sub region of the Education Authority:

The majority of examinations sat, and education plans followed, in Northern Irish schools are set by the Council for the Curriculum, Examinations & Assessment (CCEA).

All schools in Northern Ireland follow the Northern Ireland Curriculum which is based on the National Curriculum used in England and Wales. At age 11, on entering secondary education, all pupils study a broad base of subjects, which include geography, English, mathematics, science, physical education, music and modern languages.

Currently there are proposals to reform the curriculum to make its emphasis more skills-based under which, in addition to those mentioned, home economics, local and global citizenship and personal, social and health education would become compulsory subjects.

At age 14, pupils select which subjects to continue to study for General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) examinations. Currently it is compulsory to study English, mathematics and religious studies, although a full GCSE course does not have to be studied for the latter.

In addition, pupils usually elect to continue with other subjects and many study for eight or nine GCSEs but possibly up to 10-11. GCSEs mark the end of compulsory education in Northern Ireland.

At age 16, some pupils stay at school and choose to study Advanced Level AS and A2 level subjects or more vocational qualifications such as Applied Advanced Levels.

Those choosing AS and A2 levels normally pick three or four subjects and success in these can determine acceptance into higher education courses at university.

Northern Ireland formerly ran a transfer test at a governmental level to decide which primary school students qualified for a place at a Grammar School. This system was abolished by Caitríona Ruane during her time as Minister of Education, a decision which was confirmed by UK Government direct rule ministers. This policy was continued by subsequent minister John O'Dowd.

The majority of grammar schools did, however, decide to set their own entrance exams, a situation which continues to this day. There are two types in Northern Ireland:– AQE and GL assessment.

Controlled schools in Northern Ireland (nursery, primary, special, secondary & grammar schools) are under the management of the school's board of governors and the employing authority is the Education Authority (EA).

Although open to those of all faiths and none, many of these schools were originally Protestant church schools, whose control was transferred to the state in the 20th century.

The three largest Protestant churches (Presbyterian, Church of Ireland and Methodist), known as the transferors, maintain a link with the schools through church representation on controlled school boards of governors. The controlled sector is the largest education sector in Northern Ireland.

According to figures from the Department of Education for 2016/2017, there are 560 controlled schools, 48% of the total number of schools registered in Northern Ireland. The number of pupils attending controlled schools is 140,632, approximately 42% of all pupils in Northern Ireland.

In terms of religious breakdown, 66% of pupils in controlled schools are Protestant, 10% are Catholic, 18% have no religion and 6% are 'other'. Controlled schools are managed by the Education Authority through Boards of Governors. In October 2014 an Education Bill was put before the assembly, which created the Education Authority. Alongside this, the Minister and the Northern Ireland Executive agreed to establish and fund a support body for schools in the controlled sector.

The Controlled Schools' Support Council (CSSC) became operational on 1 September 2016, and its headquarters are in Stranmillis University College, Belfast. The CSSC seeks to support the interests of schools in the controlled sector through a focus on five key areas: advocacy, ethos, governance, raising standards and area planning.

Almost 90% of controlled schools are members of the Controlled Schools' Support Council.

There are 466 Roman Catholic-managed schools in Northern Ireland. According to figures from the Department of Education for 2016/2017, the number of pupils registered at school in Northern Ireland is 332,986. The number of pupils attending Catholic-managed schools is 121,733, approximately 37%.

The Council for Catholic Maintained Schools (the CCMS)[8] is the advocate for the Catholic maintained schools sector in Northern Ireland. The CCMS represents trustees, schools and governors on issues such as raising and maintaining standards, the school estate and teacher employment.

As the largest employer of teachers in Northern Ireland (8,500 teachers), the CCMS plays a central role in supporting teachers whether through its welfare service or, for example, in working parties such as the Independent Inquiry into Teacher Pay and Conditions of Service. Exempt from fair employment legislation, it is permitted to discriminate against non-Catholic teachers.

The CCMS supports trustees in the provision of school buildings, and governors and principals in the management and control of schools. The CCMS has a wider role within the Northern Ireland education sector and contributes to policy on a wide range of issues such as curriculum review, selection, pre-school education, pastoral care and leadership. There are 36 council members who oversee and authorise the strategic and operational policies and practices of the CCMS.

Council members are appointed for the duration of each council period for four years.

Membership to the council is by appointment and recommendation[9] Council members receive payment for travelling and incurred costs only. There are four categories of Council members:

- Department of Education representatives – advertised through the press for these positions.
- Trustee representatives – recommended by Northern Ireland bishops.
- Parents' representatives – drawn from local community on a voluntary basis.
- Teachers' representatives – drawn from the teaching profession on a voluntary basis.

Established under the auspices of 1989 Education Reform (Northern Ireland) Order, the Council's primary purpose is the provision of an upper tier of management for the Catholic Maintained Sector with the primary objective of raising standards in Catholic maintained schools.

Although integrated education is expanding, Northern Ireland has a highly segregated education system. Teaching a balanced view of some subjects (especially regional history) is difficult in these conditions. The churches in Northern Ireland have not been involved in the development of integrated schools.[10] The schools have been established by the voluntary efforts of parents.

The Northern Ireland Council for Integrated Education (NICIE), a voluntary organisation, promotes, develops and supports integrated education in Northern Ireland, through the medium of English only. The Integrated Education Fund (IEF) is a financial foundation for the development and growth of integrated education in Northern Ireland in response to parental demand.

The IEF seeks to bridge the financial gap between starting integrated schools and securing full government funding and support. It was established in 1998 with money from EU Structural Funds, the Department of Education NI, the Nuffield Foundation and the Joseph Rowntree Charitable Trust, as a financial foundation for the development and growth of Integrated Education.

The Fund financially supports the establishment of new schools, the growth of existing schools and those schools seeking to become integrated through the transformation process.

Funding is generally seed corn and projects are 'pump primed' with the objective of eventually securing full government funding and support.

The Education (Northern Ireland) Order 1998 placed a duty on the Department of Education, similar to that already in existence in relation to integrated education through the 1989 Education Reform Order, "to encourage and facilitate the development of Irish-medium education".

Pupils are usually taught most subjects through the medium of Irish, which is the second language of most of the pupils, whilst English is taught through English. This form of education has been described as Immersion education, and is now firmly established as a successful and effective form of bilingual education. It aims to develop a high standard of language competence in the immersion language (Irish) across the curriculum, but must also, and can, ensure a similar level of achievement in the first language (English) as that reached by pupils attending monolingual English medium schools.

Irish-medium schools, or Gaelscoileanna, are able to achieve grant-aided status, under the same procedures as other schools, by applying for voluntary maintained status. In addition to free-standing schools, Irish language medium education can be provided through units in existing schools.

Unit arrangements permit Irish-language-medium education to be supported where a free-standing school would not be viable. A unit may operate as a self-contained provision under the management of a host English-medium school and usually on the same site.

There are currently two types of Irish-medium schools in Northern Ireland. There are stand-alone schools, of which there are 27, and there are Irish-medium units attached to English-medium host schools. There are 12 of these type of school.

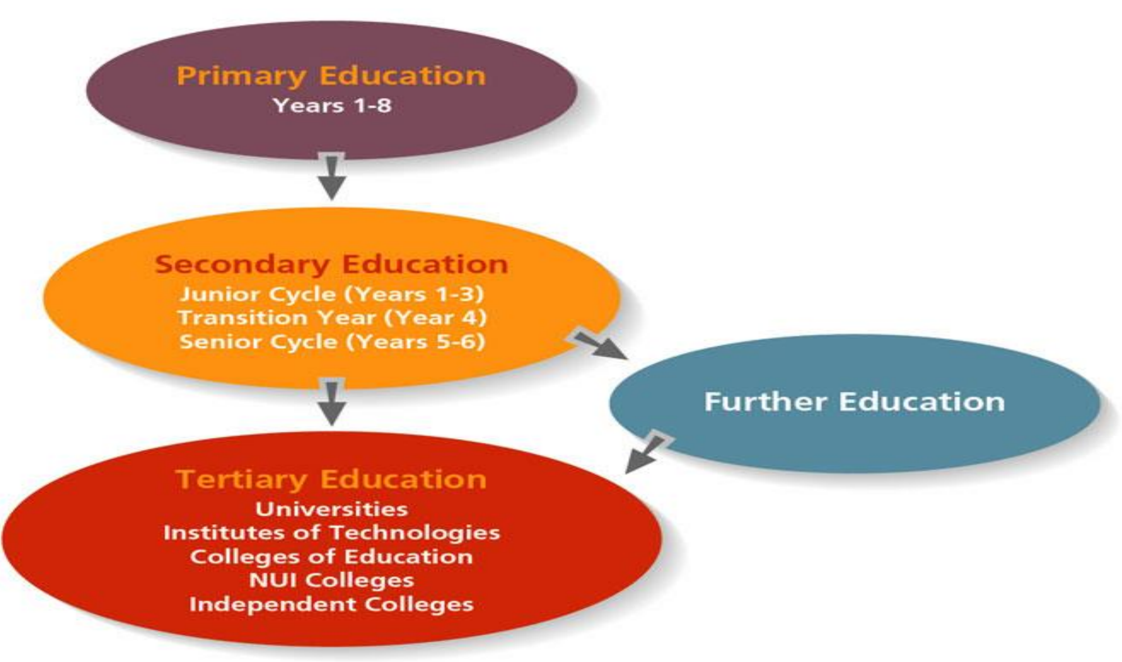
In addition to this, there are two independent schools teaching through the medium of Irish.

These are Gaelscoil Ghleann Darach in Crumlin and Gaelscoil na Daróige in Derry City.

Comhairle na Gaelscolaíochta (CnaG) is the representative body for Irish-medium Education. It was set up in 2000 by the Department of Education to promote, facilitate and encourage Irish-medium Education. One of CnaG's central objectives is to seek to extend the availability of Irish-medium Education to parents who wish to avail of it for their children.

Exercise 1. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.



Irish education system

Age

GENERAL EDUCATION

PHD

Master

Honours bachelor degree

Ordinary bachelor degree

University

Teacher Training College

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Higher degree

Ordinary degree

Higher certificate

Institute of technolgy (A)

Post leaving Certificate Programmes (A)

Tertiary Education

22 years

21 years

18 years

Leaving Certificate

Leaving Certificate Applied (LCA)

Leaving Certificate Vocational Programme

Transition year

16 years

Secondary Education

Junior Certificate

Secondary school

12 years

Primary Education

6 years

4 years

Primary school

Key:

Compulsory Education

(A) Apprenticeship-based qualifications

Basic Education

General Education

Transition year (compulsory or not depending schools)

Vocational Education

Vocational Education : Post-Secondary Non-Tertiary Education

CONTENTS

№	CHAPTERS & UNITS	P.
1.	CHAPTER IV.ECONOMICAL OUTLINE OF THE UK	
2.	UNI I.ECONOMIC HISTORY	4
3.	UNIT II.SOCIAL ACTIVITIES IN GREAT BRITAIN	77
4.	UNIT III. HEALTHCAR &WELFARE IN THE UK	106
5.	CHAPTER VII.CITIES & TOWNS IN THE UK	117
6.	CHAPTER VIII.CULTURAL LIFE IN THE UK	
7.	UNIT I. MUSICAL ACTIVITIES	145
8.	UNIT II. THEATRE & CINEMA	150
9.	UNIT III.RADIO & TV & PRESS	174
10.	UNIT IV. VISUAL ARTS& ARCHITECTURE	177
11.	UNIT V.SPORTS ACTIVITIES	185
12.	CHAPTER IX.SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN THE UK	
13.	UNIT I. HIGH SCHOOLS	197
14.	UNIT II.EDUCATION IN UNIVERSITIES	222
15.	UNIT III. SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND &WALES&NORTHERN IRELAND	231
16.	CONTENTS	246