МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
Уманський державний педагогічний університет імені Павла Тичини
Кафедра англійської мови та методики її навчання

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Посібник
для студентів 2 курсу спеціальності
014.021 Середня освіта. Англійська мова і література
факультетів іноземних мов закладів вищої освіти

Укладачі: О. С. Комар, І. С. Постоленко, Є. С. Процько

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Рецензенти:

Костікова І. І., доктор педагогічних наук, професор, завідувач кафедри теорії і практики англійської мови Харківського національного педагогічного університету імені Г. С. Сковороди;

Мельник Н. І., доктор педагогічних наук, професор кафедри іноземних мов і перекладу Національного авіаційного університету;

Білецька О. І., доктор педагогічних наук, професор, завідувач кафедри теорії та практики іноземних мов Уманського державного педагогічного університету імені Павла Тичини.

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Передмова

Посібник призначений для самостійної роботи здобувачів вищої освіти та націлений на забезпечення комунікативної компетенції в актах міжкультурної комунікації через адекватне сприйняття мови, що передбачає формування у здобувачів освіти лінгвокраїнознавчої компетенції як невід'ємної частини комунікативної компетенції, що відповідає вимогам навчальної програми з дисципліни «Країнознавство» для студентів 2 курсу спеціальності Середня освіта. Англійська мова і література закладів вищої освіти.

Посібник містить короткий курс лекцій із дисципліни «Країнознавство» на основі загальних відомостей про Великобританію, а також включає план практичних занять, задання для самостійної роботи та індивідуальні науково-дослідні завдання.

Методика організації та проведення практичних завдань спрямована на розвиток у здобувачів вищої освіти пошукових умінь, роботи з автентичними підручниками, текстами та статтями англійською мовою, навичок самостійної роботи та роботи у малих групах для вирішення дослідницьких завдань.

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INTRODUCTION

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Найменування показників	Характеристика дисципліни за формами навчання
	денна
Вид дисципліни (обов'язкова чи вибіркова)	вибіркова
Мова викладання, навчання та оцінювання	англійська
Загальний обсяг у кредитах ЄКТС / годинах	3
Курс	2
Семестр	3
Кількість змістових модулів із розподілом:	6 ЗМ
Обсяг кредитів	3
Обсяг годин, у тому числі:	90 год
Аудиторні:	
Лекційні	14 год
Семінарські / Практичні	20 год
Лабораторні	
Самостійна робота	38 год
Індивідуальні завдання	18 год
Форма семестрового контролю	залік

Мета курсу: забезпечення комунікативної компетенції в актах міжкультурної комунікації через адекватне сприйняття мови, що передбачає формування у студентів лінгвокраїнознавчої компетенції як невід'ємної частини комунікативної компетенції.

Завдання курсу: забезпечити систематичне та практично зорієнтоване вивчення найосновніших історичних фактів із життя Великої Британії, та інших англомовних країн, сучасних проблем їх соціально-політичного, економічного та культурного розвитку.

Список лекцій

Content Unit 1. General information. Geographical and historical facts of GB.

1. Geographical facts (position, climate, mountains, rivers, nature).
2. Historical periods of development. Accents.

CU 2. Population. National stereotypes. Stratification of the Society.

3. Population. National Character.
4. National stereotypes. Social Layers (Upper Society. Rich People. Middle Class. Working Class (traditional and new) today).

CU 3. State and political system.

5. British constitution and its specific features.
6. Branches of the government. Political parties.
7. Monarchy.
8. Economic development.

CU 4. Education and culture.

9. System of education. Present tendencies.
10. Cultural life (music, theater, architecture, cinema, TV). Traditions and customs.

Критерії оцінювання результатів навчання

Оцінка ECTS	Кількість балів	Критерії оцінювання
A	90-100	Здобувач вищої освіти:
		*демонструє всебічні,систематичні та глибокі знання навчального матеріалу за змістом навчальної дисципліни в повному обсязі. Помилки відсутні.
B	82-89	*показує вільне володіння навчальним матеріалом в повному обсязі академічного курсу, проте припускається деяких неточностей.
C	75-81	*виявляє добрі знання навчального матеріалу за змістом навчальної дисципліни,але допускає несуттєві помилки.
D	69-74	*демонструє задовільне володіння основним матеріалом курсу, допускаючи значну кількість неточностей
E	60-68	*засвідчує засвоєння основного матеріалу навчальної дисципліни,але допускає значну кількість неточностей і грубих помилок
Fx	35-59	*не показує знань основного матеріалу навчальної дисципліни, не розуміє і не може сформувати мету та завдання курсу.

Шкала оцінювання: національна та ЄКТС

Сума балів за всі види навчальної діяльності	Оцінка за національною шкалою	
	для екзамену, курсового проекту (роботи), практики	для заліку
90-100	відмінно	зараховано
82-89	добре	
75-81		
69-74	задовільно	
60-68		
35-59	незадовільно з можливістю повторного складання	не зараховано з можливістю повторного складання
1-34	незадовільно з обов’язковим повторним вивченням дисципліни	не зараховано з обов’язковим повторним вивченням дисципліни

Розподіл балів, які отримують здобувачі вищої освіти

денна форма

3 М 1	3 М 2	3 М 3	3 М 4	Лекції	Самостійна робота	ІНДЗ	ПК	
2 20	2 20	2 20	2 20	10	10	20	80	**200**

заочна форма

Лекції + Самостійна робота	ІНДЗ	ПК	
20 20	40	20	**100**

CONTENT UNIT 1.
GENERAL INFORMATION. GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL FACTS OF GREAT BRITAIN

1. GEOGRAPHICAL FACTS (POSITION, CLIMATE, MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, NATURE)

The names Great Britain and United Kingdom are often used interchangeably. However, they are not actually synonymous. The reason for the two names, and the difference between them, has to do with the expansive history of the British Isles.

The British Isles are a group of islands off the northwestern coast of Europe. The largest of these islands are Britain and Ireland. (Smaller ones include the Isle of Wight.) In the Middle Ages, the name Britain was also applied to a small part of France now known as Brittany. As a result, Great Britain came into use to refer specifically to the island. However, that name had no official significance until 1707, when the island's rival kingdoms of England and Scotland were united as the Kingdom of Great Britain.

Great Britain, therefore, is a geographic term referring to the island also known simply as Britain. It's also a political term for the part of the United Kingdom made up of England, Scotland, and Wales (including the outlying islands that they administer, such as the Isle of Wight). United Kingdom, on the other hand, is purely a political term: it's the independent country that encompasses all of Great Britain and the region now called Northern Ireland.

Official name: the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

The total area: 248 528 км2.

Population (for 2022): 68,272,816.

Capital: London.

Administrative structure: consists of 4 historical areas (England, Scotland, Wales, Nothern Ireland), that are subdivided onto counties. England: 39 counties, 6 metropolitan counties and a specific administrative unit – London. Wales: 8. Scotland: 12 districts and 186 islands. Northern Ireland: 26 districts. Special political arrangements are for Isle of Man Island and Channel Islands.

Form of government: constitutional parliament monarchy (limited monarchy), royal descent.

The head: monarch (a queen or a king) – sovereign branch of the executive power, the head of the court system, Supreme Commander in Chief.

Supreme legislative body: bicameral parliament, consisting of the House of Lords and the House of Commons; is elected on the term of 5 years.

Supreme executive body: the Committee of Ministers.

The head of the government: the Prime Minister.

State order: Unitarian state.

Big cities: Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Glasgow, Sheffield, Liverpool, Edinburg, Belfast.

State language: English, in Wales – English and Welsh.

Religion: 47 % – Anglicans, 16 % – Catholics.

Ethnic structure: 81,5 % – Englishmen, 9,6 % – Scotsmen i, 2,4 % – Irishmen, 1,9 % – Welshmen.

Currency: pound sterling = 100 pence (penny).

The flag of the United Kingdom, commonly known as the *Union Jack* (which derives from the use of the Union Flag on the jack-staff of naval vessels), embodies the Union of three countries under one Sovereign.

The emblems that appear on the Union Flag are the crosses of three patron saints: the red cross of St. George, for England, on a white ground; the white diagonal cross of St Adrew, for Scotiand, on a blue ground; the red diagonal cross of St. Patrick, for Ireland, on a white ground. The cross remains in the flag although now only Northern Ireland is part of the UK; the fliud version of the flag appeared in 1801, following the union of Great Britain with Ireland.

Wales is not represented in the Union Flag because when the first version of the flag appeared, Wales was already united with England. The national flag of Wales - a red dragon on a field of white and green — dates from the 15th century.

The National Anthem originated as a patriotic song first performed in 1745. There is no authorised version - the words used are a matter of tradition. On official occasions it is usual to sing the first verse only.

The highest mountain is Ben Nevis, in the Highlands of Scotland, m (4,406 ft). The longest river is the Severn, 354 km which rises in central Wales and flows through Shrewsbury, Worcester, and Gloucester in England to the Bristol Channel. The largest lake is Lough Neagh, Northern Ireland, 396 sq km.

Except English, there are numerous native languages spoken in the UK. According to the 1991 census, 527,510 people spoke Welsh, increasing to 892,200 people in December 2021. It is mostly used in schools and by some local authorities. A Welsh TV channel, S4C, began broadcasting in 1983 and there are radio stations and newspapers. In 1991, there were about 69,000 speakers of Gaelic in Scotland according to that year's census, changing to 57,600 people in December 2021. The language, especially strong in the Outer Hebrides, is used in some schools but speakers have limited legal rights. It is not used in courts, and it plays no part in the national government. The Scots language, different from Gaelic, is so close a relative of English that it is often regarded simply as a northern - dialect, spoken in central Scotland and the Lowlands. Other native languages in GB include Cornish in Cornwall and Manx Gaelic on the Isle of Man. The last native speaker of Cornish died in 1777 and the last speaker of Manx in 1974. There have been recent revivals, although the languages have no legal status.

The UN estimates the July 1, 2021 population at 68,207,116. The UK population in mid-2000 was estimated at 59.8 mln, the second largest in the European Union. England accounts about 84%, Scotland — 9%, Wales -5%, Northern Ireland - 3%.

Analysis of the Labour Force Survey found the following patterns of population by ethnic groups. On average between spring 2000 and winter 2000/01 over 4 mln people (7.1%) in GB described themselves as belonging to a non-White ethnic group, about one person in fourteen. The Indian group forms the largest non-White ethnic group, representing about 1.7% of all groins in the UK. Ethnic minorities are concentrated in the cities.

Christianity is the predominant religious tradition in the UK in size of its followers. There are two churches legally recognized as the official churches of the state, or established churches: in England, the Anglican Church of England, and in Scotland, the Presbyterian

Church of Scotland. There is no longer an established Church of Wales or Northern Ireland.

PRACTICAL LESSON №1

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. The general notion. The subject of the course.
2. Great Britain and United Kingdom. Are they synonyms? (Be ready to show on the map)
3. Geographical position of the UK. The countries it borders on.
4. National symbols.
5. Relief, climate and weather.
6. The languages spoken.
7. Population and its growth today.
8. Religion and ethnic structure.
9. What makes Great Britain special in geographical and political position?
10. Make up and present a list of facts about Great Britain or UK you personally associate it with.

Literature for students to help:

1. Арделян О. В. Lingual Country Studies: навчальний посібник для студентів старших курсів, які вивчають англійську мову як спеціальність. Кіровоград: РВВ КДПУ ім. Винниченка, 2005. 148 с.
2. Возна М. О. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни: навчальний посібник з країнознавста. Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2005. 464 с.
3. Морозова І. І. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни: матеріали лекцій. Харків: ХНУ ім. В. Н. Каразіна, 2009. 100 с.
4. History of Great Britain. URL: https://www.bbc.co.uk/sounds/search?q=history+of+great+britain&page=2
5. United Kingdom. URL: https://www.britannica.com/facts/United-Kingdom

6. What's the difference between Great Britain and the UK? URL: https://www.britannica.com/story/whats-the-difference-between-great-britain-and-the-united-kingdom

2. HISTORICAL PERIODS OF DEVELOPMENT. ACCENTS

Prehistory (before AD 43) is the time before written records. It's the period of human history we know the least about, but it's also the longest by far. The earliest known humans arrived in these lands around 900,000 years ago. Prehistory stretches from then until the Roman invasion in AD 43.

Hunters and gatherers (9500–4000 BC). Continuous human occupation of Britain began as the climate improved at the end of the last Ice Age. People in Britain at this time were still hunters and gatherers who made use of wild plants and animals. Although most of these people were probably nomadic, recent discoveries of buildings suggest that some had settled lifestyles. By about 6500 BC, rising seas had inundated the land bridge with Europe, making Britain an island.

First farmers (FROM 4000 BC). Perhaps the most important development in human history, farming was first introduced to Britain around 4000 BC. The people who brought the techniques to the island must have travelled from Europe by boat.

Sacred landscapes (3500–2300 BC). New types of monuments appeared in the middle and late Neolithic periods. Henges and circles were sometimes combined. The stone circles at Avebury and *Stonehenge* (both about 2500 BC) are among the best examples of this.

Bronze Age (2300–800 BC). In about 2300 BC the first metal weapons and jewelry began to arrive in Britain, along with a new kind of pottery known as Beaker. People were buried with these objects in individual graves, some of which were covered with round barrows. At first the metal used was copper, but by about 2200 BC bronze was being worked in Britain.

Iron Age (800 BC–AD 50). In the early and middle Iron Age people built bigger and more elaborate hillforts. They also began to make weapons and tools out of iron. Evidence of ritual offerings of military equipment and fine metalwork suggest the dominance of a warrior aristocracy and the emergence of tribal territories. And with this contact came the first written records of life on the island, from

Greeks and Romans. The most famous notes were made by Julius Caesar, who raided Britain in 55–54 BC.

Romans (AD 43–C.410). In 55–54 BC, Julius Caesar arrived on the shores of Britain, but thanks to guerrilla resistance and bad weather, his conquest was not successful. Almost 100 years later, in AD 43 the emperor Claudius launched a full-scale invasion, and Britain's Roman era began. The Romans stayed in Britain for almost four centuries. In some parts of the country they were met with rebellion and resistance, but in more peaceful areas cities were founded, villas constructed and a network of roads developed that can still be traced today.

During this time Britain wasn't an island, but a peninsula of the European continent. The oldest human remains so far found in England date from about 500,000 years ago, and belonged to a six-foot tall man of the species Homo heidelbergensis. Shorter, stockier Neanderthals visited Britain between 300,000 and 35,000 years ago, followed by the direct ancestors of modern humans.

In the pacified parts of the province, cities had been founded as capitals for each of the tribal areas (the civitates) into which the Britons had been organized. A network of roads had developed, and landowners in the south began to build Roman-style villas. Life for most ordinary Britons, who were farmers in the countryside, was slow to change. By degrees, however, they came into contact with villas, towns and markets. Here they could exchange their produce for Roman-style goods and see people dressing and behaving in Roman ways.

Shortly after AD 180 there was an invasion by tribes from what is now Scotland, who overran Hadrian's Wall. Around this time most of the cities of Britain were enclosed within earthen defensive walls, which may have been linked to the invasion. The Roman Empire was ruled from Britain for a brief period in AD 208–11, when the emperor Septimius Severus came to campaign north of Hadrian's Wall. Severus divided Britain into two provinces, *Britannia Superior* (south) and *Inferior* (north), with capitals at London and York respectively.

After Constantine's conversion in AD 312, *Christianity* was adopted more widely across the empire, including in Britain. In the 4th century Britain was reorganized as a 'diocese' consisting of four

provinces, with military forces under the command of the Dux Britanniarum – the Duke of the Britains.

Medieval (1066–1485). Duke William of Normandy's resounding triumph over King Harold at the Battle of Hastings in 1066 marked the dawn of a new era. The overthrow of the Saxon kingdom of England was to transform the country the Normans conquered, from how it was organized and governed to its language and customs – and perhaps most visibly today, its architecture. William and his knights, and the castles they built, transformed England and helped impose *Norman rule*: Norman clergy dominated the Church, and monasteries and churches were constructed in the new Romanesque or Norman style of architecture.

That was the period of Richard I 'the Lionheart' (r.1189–99) who always spent his time abroad or on crusade. His younger brother John (r.1199–1216) was forced by his barons to sign *Magna Carta* (the 'Great Charter'), which was intended to limit his powers, in 1215.

Monasteries and churches flourished in the 12th and 13th centuries. New religious foundations such as almshouses and hospitals cared for the poor and sick. Towns grew in size and autonomy, as the old divisions between Normans and the English began to break down. English began to replace Norman French as the dominant language. Commerce developed, helped by better coinage and the growth of the wool trade. But the growth of a money-based economy began to put the old feudal order under pressure.

After the Black Death the feudal system was not the only institution being challenged. For the first time in English history, the doctrines as well as the actions of the Church were being attacked. Yet still religion remained all-pervasive in daily life, though the focus of piety changed from monasteries to parish churches. Many people sought salvation by paying to have prayers said for them in chantry chapels, and undertaking pilgrimages.

The War of the Roses was the war between the House of Lancaster and the House of Yorit, a dynastic quarrel between the descendants of Edward III over possession of the English Crown.

Tudors (1485–1603). The country underwent huge changes during the reigns of three generations of Tudor monarchs. Henry VIII ushered in a new state religion, and the increasing confidence of the state coincided with the growth of a distinctively English culture.

Elizabeth I (r.1558–1603) was among the most astute and successful of all English monarchs. She resisted demands to marry and she assiduously cultivated her image as Gloriana, a Virgin Queen wedded not to a man, but to an increasingly prosperous England.

For most people the quality of daily life improved steadily throughout the 16th century. But not for all, and late in Elizabeth's reign a series of Poor Laws addressed the long-standing problem of beggary. Elizabeth was not universally loved, however. Although her establishment of a moderately Protestant Church of England satisfied most of her subjects, it further alienated Catholics, prompting plots to replace her with her cousin Mary, Queen of Scots.

Stuart Era (1603–1714) era began when James I, who was also James VI of Scotland, succeded Elizabeth I. She had died childless in 1603. James's ascention to the throne brought together the two long-warring nations of England and Scotland. The Stuart period witnessed intense religious and political conflicts, which shifted power from the monarchy to parliament. Meanwhile, discoveries and innovations transformed science, architecture and everyday life.

The joint rule of William III (1689–1702) and Mary II (1689–94) brought peace to England, although in Ireland and Scotland James's supporters fought on. During Anne's reign (1702–14) *the Act of Union with Scotland (1707)*. For the first time, England was part of a unified *Great Britain*.

Georgians (1714–1837). When Queen Anne died in 1714 with no surviving children, the German Hanoverians were brought in to succeed her. This began the Georgian age – named after the first four Hanovarian kings, all called George. This period saw Britain establish itself as an international power at the centre of an expanding empire, and accelerating change from the 1770s onwards made it the world's first industrialized nation.

The lives of many more, especially in the north and midlands, were transformed by the rapid progress after 1770 of *the Industrial Revolution*. England was turned into the 'workshop of the world' by new technologies like steam power, improved transport networks and enterprising men like the iron-founding Darbys of Iron Bridge, the pottery manufacturer Josiah Wedgwood, and the cotton mill owner Richard Arkwright. Key to the success of many industries was the

new manufactories – or factories – operated by hordes of ill-paid workers, including many women and children.

By now the world's first passenger train had run (in 1825) on the Stockton and Darlington Railway, and the first inter-city railway powered exclusively by steam engines had opened (in 1830).

Victorians (1837–1901). Queen Victoria came to the throne when she was just 18 years old. She would rule Britain for over 60 years. During this long reign, the country acquired unprecedented power and wealth. The Britain's reach extended across the globe because of its empire, political stability, and revolutionary developments in transport and communication.

Many of the intellectual and cultural achievements of this period are still with us today. Ever pragmatic, England thus avoided the turbulence that swept over the Continent during the 'age of reform' that culminated in the year of revolutions, 1848.

By the 1880s, when Britain responded to international competition by scrambling for new colonies in Africa alongside its European rivals, imperialism had become a matter of national policy. In 1901 the British Empire extended over about one-fifth of the earth's land surface.

At the same time, empire had become a source of pride for most British people, and its influence was felt in daily life in numerous ways: the increasing range of raw materials and foods available; the prevalence of members of the armed forces and colonial service in Victorian society; and the great many people who went to sea, emigrated, or had relations who did.

This was an age that changed the way human life was perceived. Great scientific leaps often resulted in a crisis of religious faith. Yet it was also an age that saw the greatest burst of church building and foundation of charitable institutions since the Middle Ages.

20th century (1901–2000). The Britain of the year 2000 was unimaginable at the end of the Victorian era in 1901. The 20th century saw two world wars catalyze enormous social change across the country, including dramatic enhancements in health and education. The motor car stormed through town and country, transforming both, and Britain no longer ruled a third of the planet.

Britain became the third nation to become an *atomic power in 1952* and had already deployed Civil Defense measures and

installations in this era of Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD). York Cold War Bunker was part of a later generation of these, built in 1961 just before the Cuban Missile Crisis of October 1962 brought the world to the brink of nuclear war. The wartime tunnels at Dover were consequently renovated and equipped to serve as a regional seat of government in the event of such a war.

The post-war consensus by which both parties broadly accepted the role of the state in the economy and the centrality of the Welfare State was broken by *Margaret Thatcher*. After the 'Falklands Factor' gave her a second term in office in 1983–7, her Conservatives began to privatize national industries, starting with British Telecom. The miners' strike was suppressed in 1984–5, breaking the power of the unions. And though she was overthrown by her own party in 1990, the pronounced rightward swing she initiated still holds.

Tony Blair led a significantly re-modelled Labour Party back into power in 1997 – the first of an unprecedented three terms in office. His post-9/11 alignment with the USA and subsequent War on Terror defined perceptions of his administration. Labour also presided over devolved administrations in Wales and Scotland, and oversaw an uneasy peace in Northern Ireland after 30 years of violence. Britain had entered a new millennium looking forward as well as back.

Accents. Every British region has its own way of pronouncing words and sentences of English that identifies the speaker with a particular geographical area. After 1500 the language of London gradually emerges and the most dominant form, and today the London or Southern accent is usually accepter as Standard English. This is sometimes referred to as "BBC English" since at one time all announcers on BBC radio and television were required to speak it. Standard correct English as traditionally spoken by an educated southerner is also called Queen's English, while a simplified form of the language intended at as an international means of communication with a basic vocabulary of 850 words is called Basic English. RP (*Received Pronunciation*) is a non-regional accent of Standard English, often regarded as a prestige form. It`s informal name of *Oxford accent*.

PRACTICAL LESSON №2

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. Prehistory period. What were the British Isles then?
2. The first records and artifacts on the island.
3. The Roman invasion. Division of Britain.
4. Medieval period.
5. The Wars of Roses.
6. Tudors.
7. The reign of Elizabeth I.
8. Stuarts.
9. Georgians.
10. The conflict with France.
11. Victorians.
12. 20th century period.
13. The accents in the 21st century Britain.
14. The UK in the 21st century. Specific features for economic and political development.
15. Study the material of the political contacts with Northern Ireland in the 21st century. Present the information to the class.

Literature for students to help:

1. Арделян О. В. Lingual Country Studies: навчальний посібник для студентів старших курсів, які вивчають англійську мову як спеціальність. Кіровоград: РВВ КДПУ ім. Винниченка, 2005. 148 с.
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CONTENT UNIT 2. POPULATION. NATIONAL STEREOTYPES. STRATIFICATION OF THE SOCIETY

3. POPULATION. NATIONAL CHARACTER

Celtic tribes that appeared on the Isles more than 2500 years ago are considered to be the first known ancestors of the today British population. The German tribes Angles, Saxons and Jutes migrated here in the 5-6th centuries AD, Normans – in the 11th century. Englishmen take more than 80% of today British population. But they are subdivided into Ulster – ancestors of mixed marriage between Englishmen and Irish. Scottish (5 mln), Irish (2,2 mln) and Welsh (1,5 mln) are ancestors of Celtic tribes. Scottish and Wales inherited the English language that is Germanic language group; the Irish language is of Celtic group.

At the 16-19th and the beginning of the 20th centuries GB was a classical country of emigrants. In the period from 1861 till 1930 there were more than 8 mln people who moved abroad, mainly to the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa.

The second part of the 20th century is known by the opposite phenomenon – immigration of foreign workers to GB. It is reasoned by low natural growth in the country and high value of manpower. Immigrates usually come from the islands of West India, East Africa, Pakistan and India. Today the ‘coloured community’ include about 3 mln people, including 1,5 mln of Muslims.

The origin of ‘England’. The creation of a new ethnic identity of the English people was one of the most important developments of the later Anglo-Saxon period from the ninth to the eleventh centuries. Five centuries earlier, there had been no political or linguistic unity among the different peoples of German/Danish origin who had settled in the country and who spoke different dialects and were ruled by a

handful of small tribal kingdoms. Then, from the reign of King Alfred onwards, Scandinavian invasions and the rise of dynasty of Wessex gradually led to the emergence of a single kingdom controlling most of the land and population, and to the belief that the English constituted a single community bound together by common descent, cultural tradition, language, church and loyalty to the king. In the later stages of this development, around 1000 AD, a new name, *Engla land* (which means "land of the Angles"), came to be attached to the kingdom of the English and it has lasted until the present day as one of the most famous and long-lived country names in European history.

The setting for the first uses of the name was the royal court of the Danish *King Cnut* (1016-1035) at the beginning of a period of recovery after three years of war and anarchy had ended in the imposition of a new foreign monarchy. When it was brought into use at this time, *Engla land* did not replace an earlier country name: the English had not had one, the concept of country in our newer sense having never existed there. Who took the initiative in adopting *Engla land* is not known with certainty but there seems little reason to doubt that given the authority of his office, the young King Cnut was involved in the decision to use it. Yet the credit for proposing the name to the king and his court quite likely belongs to Archbishop Wulfstan of York who was one of Cnut's most prominent and influential advisors and formulators of policy. *Engla land* did not originate with Wulfstan but came to him from the distinguished English abbot Aelfric of Eynsham who first brought it into use to designate all of *the land of the English* in his homilies and saint's lives in the last decade of the tenth century, a good two decades prior to its passage into the royal vocabulary. It stood not for the entire country of England but for the restricted *tribal kingdom of the Angles* in Northumbria.

Was the introduction of this new name *Engla land* of any importance to the English people in the eleventh and later centuries? What reactions, if any, did they have to it?

Neither Cnut nor anyone in his entourage made any comments on it in the written records surviving today, yet it must have meant something to them or they would not have taken the trouble to adopt it. The same comment applies to the author of Chronicle; he was certainly aware of the new name when he brought it into his annals

but he has nothing to say about it. The silence of these people makes all the more valuable the very brief statements on the subject by several roughly contemporary authors, all historians. They content themselves with telling of the name change, and two add that the new name came from the people who conquered and settled England, the Angles. Beyond that none has anything further to offer. However, just their mentioning it shows that the change from Britannia to Anglia was to them significant even if they don't explain how or why. The creation of Engla lond might point to changes in the ways in which the English were thinking about and perceiving themselves as a people in relation to the land where they lived. In other words, even if it was only a geographical term in the early eleventh century, and not a country name, the new use of Engla land was still an indication that their land had become their homeland, and now their sense of being English had taken on a territorial as well as an ethnic dimension. It would not seem unreasonable then to propose that the introduction of Engla land marked a new step in the development of the identity of the English people.

The National Identity. People in *Scotland* have constant reminders of their distinctiveness:

• several important aspects of public life are organized separately, and differently, from the rest of Britain - notably, education, law and religion.

• the Scottish way of speaking English is very distinctive. A modern form of the dialect known as Scots is spoken in everyday life by most of the working classes in the Lowlands. It has many features which are different from other forms of English and cannot usually be understood by people who are not Scottish.

The people of *Wales* do not have as many reminders of their Welshness in everyday life. The organization of public life is identical to that in England. Nor are there as many well-known symbols of Welshness. In addition, a large minority of the people in Wales probably do not consider themselves to be especially Welsh at all. In the 19th century large numbers of Scottish, Irish and English people went to find work there, and today many English people still make their homes in Wales or have holiday houses there. As a result a feeling of loyalty to Wales is often similar in nature to the fairly weak

loyalties to particular geographical areas found throughout England - it is regional rather than nationalistic.

The question of identity in *Northern Ireland* is a much more complex issue. In this part of the UK, the pattern of identity and loyalty outlined above does not apply. Here, ethnicity, family, politics and religion are all inter-related, and social class has a comparatively minor role in establishing identity. Northern Ireland is a polarized society where people are born into, and stay in one or other of the two communities for the whole of their lives. On one side of the divide are people whose ancestors came from lowland Scotland or England. They are self-consciously Protestant and want Northern Ireland to remain in the UK. On the other are people whose ancestors were native Irish. They are self-consciously Catholic and would like Northern Ireland to become part of the Irish Republic. Although the two communities live side-by-side, their lives are almost entirely segregated. They live in different housing estates, listen to different radio and television programmes, register with different doctors, have prescriptions made up by chemists of their own denominations, march to commemorate different anniversaries and read different newspapers. Their children go to different schools, so that those who go on to university often find themselves mixing with people from the "other" community for the first time in their lives. For the majority who do not go to university, merely talking to somebody from the other community is a rare event. The extremes of these hardline attitudes are gradually softening. It should also be noted that they apply to a much lesser extent among the middle-classes.

Being British. Because of the long tradition of a clear separation between the individual and the state, British people, although many of them feel proud to be British, are not normally actively patriotic. They are individualistic and do not like to feel that they are personally representing their country. During the last quarter of the 20th century there has been a severe loss of confidence in British public institutions accompanied by a change in the previous rather patronizing attitude to foreigners and foreign ways. In the days of empire, foreigners were often considered amusing, even interesting, but not really to be taken seriously. But these days, many foreign ways of doing things are admired (although perhaps a bit resentfully) and there is a greater openness to foreign influences. Along with this openness, however,

goes a sense of vulnerability, so that patriotism often takes a rather defensive form. The modem British are not really chauvinistic. Open hostility to people from other countries is very rare.

Many English people see themselves as either *'southerners*' or *'northerners'*. The fact that the south is on the whole richer than the north, and the domination of the media by the affairs in London and the south-east, leads to resentment in the north. This reinforces the pride in their northern roots felt by many northerners, who stereotypically see themselves as tougher, more honest and warmer-heated than the soft, hypocritical and unfriendly southerners. To people in the south, the stereotypical northerner (usually male) is rather ignorant and uncultured and interested in sport and beer-drinking.

English vs. British. Because English culture dominates the cultures of the other three nations of the British Isles, everyday habits, attitudes and values among the peoples of the four nations are very similar. However, they are not identical, and what is regarded as typically British may be in fact typically English. This is especially true with regard to one's notable characteristic - anti-intellectualism.

Among the people in Britain there exists a suspicion of intelligence, education and 'high culture'. Teachers and academic staff, although respected, do not have as high a status as they do in many European countries. Nobody normally proclaims their academic qualifications or title to the world at large.

There are large sections of both upper and working class who, traditionally at least, have not encouraged their children to go to university. This lack of enthusiasm is certainly decreasing. Nevertheless, it is still unusual for parents to arrange extra private tuition for their children, even among those who can easily afford it.

In the cities, at least, Britain is a *multicultural society* due to large-scale immigration to Britain in the 20th century. The "new British people" have brought widely differing sets of attitudes with them. The new British have made their own contribution to British life and attitudes.

Conservatism. The British do not like change. They may not behave in traditional ways but they like symbols of tradition and stability.

• The British value continuity over modernity for its own sake. They do not consider it especially smart to live in a new house, in fact, there is prestige in living in an absolutely old one. They have a general sentimental attachment to older, supposedly safer times.

• They might never agree to change from driving on the left-hand side of the road to driving on the right-hand side.

• An interesting fact. Whenever an EU committee makes a recommendation about standardizing the size and shape of buses, it provokes warnings from British bus builders about "the end of the double-decker as we know it". The British public is always ready to listen to, such predictions of doom.

• The British government has been trying for years to promote the metric system or measurement and to get British people to use the same scales that are used nearly everywhere in the world. British manufacturers are obliged to give the weight of their tins and packets in kilos and grams but everybody in Britain still shops in pounds and ounces. The weather forecasters on television use the Celsius scale of temperature but nearly everybody still thinks in Fahrenheit. Even the use of the 24-hour clock is comparatively restricted.

Formality and informality. There is a difference between observing formalities and being formal in everyday life. Attitudes towards clothes are a good example of this. It all depends on whether a person is playing a public or a private role. When people are "on duty", they have to obey some quite rigid rules. On the other hand, when people do not play any public role, there are no rules at all.

The difference between formalities and formality is the key to what people from other countries sometimes experience as coldness among the British. Being friendly in Britain often involves showing that you are not bothering with formalities, i.e.:

• not addressing someone by his/her title (Mr, Mrs, Professor);

• not dressing smartly when entertaining guests;

• not shaking hands when meeting;

• not saying "please" when asking for sth.

It is probably true that the British, especially the English, are more reserved than the people from many other countries. They find it comparatively difficult to indicate friendship by open displays of affection: friendship is symbolized by behaving as casually as possible.

Work. At the upper end of the social scale sceptic attitude to work exists because leisure has always been the main sign of aristocracy. If you have to work, then the less it looks like work the better. Employment is often divided into sections according to type of work and social class. These categories include professional, manual and non-manual. Traditionally therefore, a major sign of being middle class (as opposed to working class) has been that you do non-manual work. The fact that skilled manual (or 'blue-collar') workers have been paid more than the lower grades of 'white-collar' (i.e. non-manual) worker for several decades has only slightly changed this perception. This 'anti-work' outlook among the working class has led to a relative lack of ambition and a belief that high earnings are more important than job satisfaction. These attitudes are slowly changing. The old distinction between the white-collar and blue-collar workers has become less clear as Britain's new technology has become more important.

The UK *retirement age* can refer to the age at which you can access the state pension. But there's a different, lower age to keep in mind when accessing workplace or personal pensions. The UK no longer has a default retirement age. The law was changed in 2011 to stop employers forcing people to retire at 65. You can continue working for as long as you want (or need) to.

Instead, there are pension ages, at which you can access a pension – including the state pension and other pensions you might have. The state pension has changed in recent years. It used to be that women could get the state pension at 60 and men could get it at 65. It now largely depends on when you were born and whether you're male or female – it can be between 61 and 68. It's currently set at 66 for men and women, will rise to 67 by 2028, and lots of younger people will have to wait until they're 68 to start claiming. The reason for the increase in state pension age is changing life expectancy. You don't have to stop working when you reach state pension age.

PRACTICAL LESSON №3

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. Who are the inhabitants of the UK descended from?
2. The origin of 'England' and 'Britain'.

3. Was the introduction of this new name Engla lond of any importance to the English people in the eleventh and later centuries? What reactions, if any, did they have to it?

4. Ethnic identity.
5. What does being British mean?
6. Geographical identity.
7. Religious and political identity.
8. Men and women.
9. Multiculturalism in the UK.
10. What does conservatism mean for a genuine British?
11. The love of nature in the UK's inhabitant everyday life.
12. What does formality and informality state for?
13. What are the sectors of the UK economy people are employed in? Earning and spending money.
14. The UK retirement age.
15. London as an important centre of finance in GB.
16. The distinction between the white-collar and blue-collar workers.
17. Describe distinctive features of British national character.

Literature for students to help:

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2. Возна М. О. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни: навчальний посібник з країнознавста. Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2005. 464 с.
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4. NATIONAL STEREOTYPES. SOCIAL LAYERS

Traditional class system.

Social class, also called class, a group of people within a society who possess the same socioeconomic status. The term *class* first came into wide use in the early 19th century, replacing such terms as *rank* and order as descriptions of the major hierarchical groupings in society. This usage reflected changes in the structure of western European societies after the industrial and political revolutions of the late 18th century. Feudal distinctions of rank were declining in importance, and the new social groups that were developing—the commercial and industrial capitalists and the urban working class in the new factories — were defined mainly in economic terms, either by the ownership of capital or by dependence on wages. Although the term class has been applied to social groups in a wide range of societies, including ancient city-states, early empires, and caste or feudal societies, it is most usefully confined to the social divisions in modern societies, particularly industrialized ones.

Before the Industrial Revolution British society was divided into groups depending on what kind of family you were born into, which then influenced their occupation, social status and political influence. However, this has changed, in part, due to more people gaining an education, especially at university level.

Having said that a large percentage of people in the UK used to prescribe to the class system, which is broadly broken down into five main groups:

Lower class – this is a controversial term to describe the long term unemployed, homeless etc.

Working class – is basic low level unskilled or semi-skilled workers, such as those with no university or college education. This includes occupations such as factory workers and laborers.

Middle class – the vast majority of British people fall into this category, such as shop owners, white-collar professionals, teachers, journalists, nurses and the list goes on.

Upper class – is often distinguished by the possession of largely inherited wealth. The ownership of large amounts of property and the income derived from it confer many advantages upon the members of the upper class. They are able to develop a distinctive style of life based on extensive cultural pursuits and leisure activities, to exert a considerable influence on economic policy and political decisions, and to procure for their children a superior education and economic opportunities that help to perpetuate family wealth.

Aristocrats – the royal family and those with titles, such as lords or barons.

How do people fit into each category?

This sounds all very confusing but comes down to three main factors: *wealth*, *education* and *occupation*.

Seven social classes in the UK today. People in the UK now fit into seven social classes; a major survey conducted by the BBC suggests (2013).

It says the traditional categories of working; middle and upper class are outdated, fitting 39% of people. It found a new model of seven social classes ranging from the elite at the top to a 'precariat' - the poor, precarious proletariat - at the bottom. More than 161,000 people took part in the Great British Class Survey, the largest study of class in the UK.

The new classes are defined as:

1. *Elite* – the most privileged group in the UK, distinct from the other six classes through its wealth. This group has the highest levels of all three capitals.
2. *Established middle class* – the second wealthiest, scoring highly on all three capitals. The largest and most gregarious group, scoring second highest for cultural capital.
3. *Technical middle class* – a small, distinctive new class group which is prosperous but scores low for social and cultural capital. Distinguished by its social isolation and cultural apathy.

4. *New affluent workers* – a young class group which is socially and culturally active, with middling levels of economic capital.

5. *Traditional working class* – scores low on all forms of capital, but is not completely deprived. Its members have reasonably high house values, explained by this group having the oldest average age at 66.

6. *Emergent service workers* – a new, young, urban group which is relatively poor but has high social and cultural capital.

7. *Precariat, or precarious proletariat* – the poorest, most deprived class, scoring low for social and cultural capital.

PRACTICAL LESSON №4

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. What are the cultural British stereotypes? Are they true?
2. Describe traditional class system. What does social class mean?
3. Seven social classes in the UK today.
4. What does the term elites in the UK stand for?
5. 'The rich' and its definition.
6. Your view on a typical Englishman.
7. Describe the British rich and the way he has acquired wealth.

Literature for students to help:

1. Арделян О. В. Lingual Country Studies: навчальний посібник для студентів старших курсів, які вивчають англійську мову як спеціальність. Кіровоград: РВВ КДПУ ім. Винниченка, 2005. 148 с.

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CONTENT UNIT 3. STATE AND POLITICAL SYSTEM

5. BRITISH CONSTITUTION AND ITS SPECIFIC FEATURES

Constitution organizes, distributes and regulates state power. It sets out the structure of the state, the major state institutions, and the principles governing their relations with each other and with the state's citizens. Britain is unusual in that it has an *'unwritten' constitution*: unlike the great majority of countries there is no single legal document which sets out in one place the fundamental laws outlining how the state works. Britain's lack of a 'written' constitution can be explained by its history.

In other countries, many of whom have experienced revolution or regime change, it has been necessary to start from scratch or begin from first principles, constructing new state institutions and defining in detail their relations with each other and their citizens. By contrast, the British Constitution has evolved over a long period of time, reflecting the relative stability of the British polity. It has never been thought necessary to consolidate the basic building blocks of this order in Britain. What Britain has instead is an accumulation of various statutes, conventions, judicial decisions and treaties which collectively can be referred to as the British Constitution. It is thus more accurate to refer to Britain's constitution as an *'uncodified' constitution*, rather than an 'unwritten' one.

It has been suggested that the British Constitution can be summed up in eight words: *What the Queen in Parliament enacts is law*. This means that Parliament, using the power of the Crown, enacts law which no other body can challenge. Parliamentary sovereignty is commonly regarded as the defining principle of the British Constitution. This is the ultimate lawmaking power vested in a democratically elected Parliament to create or abolish any law. Other core principles of the British Constitution are often thought to include the rule of law, the separation of government into executive, legislative, and judicial branches, and the existence of a unitary state, meaning ultimate power is held by 'the centre' - the sovereign *Westminster Parliament*.

The British Constitution is derived from a number of sources. Statutes are laws passed by Parliament and are generally the highest form of law. *Conventions* are unwritten practices which have developed over time and regulate the business of governing. *Common law* is law developed by the courts and judges through cases. The UK's accession to the European Communities Act 1972 has meant that European law is increasingly impacting on the British Constitution. The UK is also subject to *international law*. Finally, because the British Constitution cannot be found in any single document, politicians and lawyers have relied on constitutional authorities to locate and understand the constitution.

There are, in the first place *historic documents* embodying, solemn agreements arrived at between the King and his subjects at time of political stress and crisis. Magna Carta (1215), the Petition of Rights and the Bill of Rights are examples of such documents.

The Magna Carta was signed by King John in 1215. It may be described as the foundation of British constitution because it was for the first time that certain rights of the people were recognized by the King. The rights claimed were mainly those of justice and property. One important principle was established that the King must govern according to law and not according to his will or caprice.

The Petition of Rights (1628) to which King Charles I yielded contained protest against taxation without the consent of Parliament, unlawful imprisonment and grievances against the military.

The Bill of Rights (1689) made it illegal For the King to overridden laws, to maintain a standing army without the consent of Parliament, or to demand taxes by prerogative.

Statutes and Acts of Parliament deal with significant constitutional matters. The Act of Habeas Corpus (1679), the Act of Settlement (1701), the Reform Acts of 1832, 1867, 1884, 1918 and 1928, the Parliament Act of 1911 & 1949, the Statute of West Minister of 1931 etc. are the example of such statutes. The Act of Habeas Corpus stipulates that a person who is imprisoned without legal justification can obtain release. The Act of Settlement lays down that the King must be of Protestant faith. The various Reform Acts determine franchise (right to vote) and Parliamentary representation. The Parliament Act of 1911 as amended in 1949 deals with the powers of the House of Lords. The Statute of Westminster defines the status

of the Dominions and their relationship with the mother country Britain.

Judicial Decisions. The courts interpret statutes, solemn agreements and common law whenever disputes are referred to them. Their decisions have contributed a good deal to the development of the British constitution. Dicey has remarked that the English Constitution is a judge-made. Most of the rights enjoyed by the British people today are the outcome of contests carried on in the courts. The right to personal liberty, the right to public meeting, the right to freedom of speech, etc. is in England are the result of judicial decisions.

Common Law. The four elements of the British constitution mentioned above are of written character. Common law is of unwritten character. It is the law based on the immemorial customs of the people and recognized by law courts. Originally, it was based on common law of the land. It was by common law that the sovereign King and Queen was the source of all power in the country. Though much has now been changed by statutes, a considerable portion, of the British constitution is still based on common law.

Convention is another source of the British constitution lies in its conventions or political traditions. These conventions are neither a part of written law, nor can they be enforced and recognized through the courts. But they obeyed by the people because they are very helpful in the smooth working of the government. For example, if the Queen re ruse assent to a bill passed by both houses of the Parliament legally, she has the right to reject the bill but the convention lays down that she will no use her veto power.

Over the past century there have been a number of *Acts of Parliament* on major constitutional subjects that, taken together, could be viewed as creating a tier of constitutional legislation, albeit patchy in their range and with no special status or priority in law. They include:

- The Parliament Acts (1911–49) that regulate the respective powers of the two Houses of Parliament.
- The Representation of the People Acts (1918) (as amended) providing for universal voting and other matters of political representation.

- The European Communities Act (1972) making the UK a legal partner in the European Union.
- The Scottish, Welsh and Northern Ireland devolution Acts of 1998 (as amended) creating an executive and legislature for each of those three nations in the UK.
- The Human Rights Act (1998) establishing a bill of rights and freedoms actionable by individuals through the courts. The purpose of the Human Rights Act was to incorporate into UK law the rights and freedoms guaranteed under the European Convention on Human Rights (1953).

The Style of Democracy. Two unique aspects of British life will make this clear. Britain is one of the few European countries whose people do not have identity cards. Before the 1970s, when tourism to foreign countries became popular, most people went through life without ever owning a document. Even now British people do not have to carry their identification with them. You even do not have to have your driving licer.se with you in your car. If the police ask to see it, you have 24 hours to take it to them. Britain is also the only country in the EU without a Freedom of Information Act. There is no law which obliges a government authority or agency to show you what information it has collected about you.

The system of government. In theory, the constitution has three branches: Parliament, which makes laws, the Government, which 'executes' laws, i.e. puts them into effect, and the law courts, which inteфret laws. Although the Queen is officially head of all three branches, she has little direct power.

The Sovereign. Her Most Excellent Majesty Elizabeth the Second by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen. Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith.

The UK is a constitutional monarchy. The Queen is the official Head of State and, for many people, a symbol of the unity of the nation. Other countries have "citizens", but in the UK people are legally described as "'subjects of Her Majesty the Queen". The Queen has a central role in state affairs, not only through her ceremonial functions, such as opening Parliament, but also because she meets the Prime Minister every week and receives copies of all Cabinet papers. However, she is expected to be impartial or "above politics", and any

advice she may offer the Prime Minister is kept secret. Moreover, there is a principle of English law that the monarch can do nothing that is generally wrong. In other words, Queen EIizabeth II is above the law.

Functions of the Sovereign:

•opening Parliament every autumn. The Queen makes a speech where she says what "my government" intends to do in the coming year. As far as the law is concerned, she can choose anybody to run the government for her. In reality, she appoints the head of the party that has won the majority of seats in the House of Commons. For the ceremony of the State Opening of Parliament, the speech she makes is written for her. She makes no secret of the fact and very obviously reads out of the script, word for word, if she strongly disagrees with one of the policies of the government she might ask to change the wording in the speech, but she cannot stop the government without pursuing the policy;

•approving the appointment of the Prime Minister;

•giving her Royal Assent to bills. In theory, the Queen could refuse it and so stop a bill becoming law, but no monarch has done so since 1708;

•giving honours such as peerages, knighthoods and medals. Traditionally, by giving people titles, the motiaich "honoured" for their services. These days, the decision who gets which honour is made by the Prime Minister, so a high proportion of honours is given to politicians, civil servants, business people, sport stars, musicians and other entertainers;

•Head of the Commonwealth. *The Commonwealth* is a voluntary organization of 54 independent countries who all share a common history as part of Britain's imperial past. The countries are as diverse as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Palestine, Cyprus, India, Barbados, Sri Lanka and Zambia. The British Commonwealth of Nations was set up in 1931 on dismantling of the British Empire, since 1949 it has been known simply as the Commonwealth. All member states recognize the British monarch as Head of the Commonwealth, though he\she is not necessarily the head of each individual state. Members of the Commonwealth have special links with the UK and with each other. There are no legal or constitutional obligations involved in the membership;

- Head of the Church of England;
- Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces.

The Union. The principle of 'Unitarianism' has been a mainstay of the British constitutions from the end of the Revolutionary period in the 17th century until very recently. The Union constituted the modern British state out of England and Scotland together with Wales and Northern Ireland.

The Act of Union 1707 united the Crowns of *Scotland* and England. For some, the Act stands out in British history as the only self-conscious act ever addressed to the construction of national identity. For others it was no 'conscious exercise in state-building' (Kidd 2012), merely an unplanned consequence of the pressure to settle the political crisis caused by the childlessness of Queen Anne, the reigning monarch of both England and Scotland, lest a succession crisis reintroduced a dual monarchy and opened the door to foreign domination of a breakaway Scotland and eventually invasion (so it was feared) of England itself. To make it harder for the Scots to ungovernably reunite and so to make the Union permanent, the Scottish parliament was abolished.

The English had been infiltrating *Ireland* since the twelfth century, gradually expanding their control and jurisdiction, called the Lordship of Ireland. Thus, Ireland succumbed sooner, lay under English domination longer, and suffered more than Scotland. Ireland was declared by England a (puppet) Kingdom in 1541, though great swaths of Ireland lay 'beyond The Pale', the area of effective English rule, even as late as the Act of Union. The Kingdom of Ireland was only incorporated into the Union in 1801, as a response to the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars. The Catholic inhabitants of Ireland were disqualified to participate in the government and much of the business of the Union, and later the Empire, by anti-Catholic Penal Laws which never affected Protestant Scotland or the Protestant enclave in Northern Ireland.

Wales was conquered outright by English invaders in the thirteenth century and, but for a brief general uprising in 1400 under Owen Glendower (the last native Prince of Wales), it has remained subject to Westminster without interruption ever since. King Henry VIII, himself a Tudor and Welshman by descent, legally incorporated

Wales by Acts of Parliament in 1535 and 1542. It was an integral part of the Kingdom of England by the time of the Act of Union.

Yet the Union has worked quite smoothly as an organic complex for hundreds of years. It has stood the test of time as one of the most fundamental principles of the British constitutions.

PRACTICAL LESSON №5

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. What is the constitution of the UK? What does the term mean?
2. Describe the historical background of the UK constitution.
3. Sources of British constitution (the written original documents of the unwritten constitution).
4. How do they interpret Common Law?
5. Is convention a part of written legal law?
6. What are the Acts of Parliament?
7. The public attitude to politics.
8. The branches of the constitution (the system of the government).
9. The Sovereign and his functions.
10. The Union. The principle of Unitarianism in the constitution.
11. Devolved government of nations and regions.
12. Should the UK have a written constitution? Give substantial arguments.
13. Describe specific features of the UK constitution.

Literature for students to help:

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6. BRANCHES OF THE GOVERNMENT. POLITICAL PARTIES

In theory, the constitution of the UK has three branches: Parliament (*the legislative branch*), which makes laws, the Government (*the executive branch*), which 'executes' laws, i.e. puts them into effect, and the law courts (*judicial branch*), which interpret laws. Although *the Queen* is officially head of all three branches, she has little direct power.

The legislature. The United Kingdom Parliament has two chambers, the House of Commons and the House of Lords.

Members of Parliament (MPs) are elected in *general elections* that are usually held every 5 years. Historically, snap elections could be called at any moment by the Prime Minister. Today, *snap elections* can be called after the Parliament is dissolved as a result of a non-confidence vote, or through the vote of two-thirds of the vote of Parliament. A *hung Parliament* occurs when no party has an overall majority of 326 MPs.

The UK public elects Members of Parliament (MPs) to represent their interests and concerns in the House of Commons. MPs consider

and can propose new laws as well as raising issues that matter to you in the House. Nearly all MPs represent political parties. The party with the most MPs after a general election normally forms *the Government*. The next largest party becomes the official *Opposition*. If an MP does not have a political party, they are known as an *'Independent'*.

The effectiveness of the party system in Parliament depends on the relationship between the Government and the Opposition parties. In general, Opposition parties aim to:

- contribute to the creation of policy and legislation through constructive criticism;
- oppose government proposals they disagree with;
- put forward their own policies in order to improve their chances of winning the next general election.

MPs from the same party tend to sit together in the House of Commons Chamber. The Chamber is a rectangular shape so the Government and the Opposition can face each other. The Government sits on the benches to the right of the Speaker. The official Opposition and MPs from other parties sit on the benches to the left of the Speaker.

As in the Commons, the Government and the Opposition in the House of Lords face each other. The Government and the Bishops sit on the right of the Lord Speaker. The Opposition parties sit on the benches to the left of the Lord Speaker while the Crossbench Peers sit mostly on benches that cross the Chamber of the House of Lords behind the clerks' table.

In both the Commons and the Lords, Government ministers and Opposition shadow ministers sit on the front benches and are known as *'frontbenchers'*. MPs and Members of the Lords who do not hold ministerial positions sit towards the back of the Chamber and are known as *'backbenchers'*.

MPs and Members of the Lords do not have to belong to a political party. Instead, MPs can sit as Independents and Lords can sit as Crossbenchers or Independents.

When Parliament is sitting (meeting), MPs generally spend their time working in the House of Commons. This can include raising issues affecting their constituents, attending debates and voting on new laws. Most MPs are also members of committees, which look at

issues in detail, from government policy and new laws, to wider topics like human rights.

In their constituency, MPs often hold a 'surgery' in their office, where local people can come along to discuss any matters that concern them. MPs also attend functions, visit schools and businesses and generally try to meet as many people as possible. This gives MPs further insight and context into issues they may discuss when they return to Westminster.

The House of Commons - a far more important of the two houses -- Currently consists of 646 members (529 for England, 59 for Scotland, 40 for Wales, 18 for Northern Ireland). Members of the House of Commons are elected by the voters of about 650 constituencies.

The main functions of the House of Commons are:

- to represent the peoples of the United Kingdom in all matters;
- to hold the government to account;
- to scrutinise and approve Bills as part of the legislative process;
- to authorise taxation;
- to scrutinise and approve the Government's budget and planned expenditure on an annual basis;
- to debate the public policies of and for the Government of the United Kingdom.

The role of a Member of Parliament includes, but is not limited to:

- participating in the work of the House of Commons;
- representing and furthering the interests of their constituency;
- representing individual constituents and taking up their problems and grievances.

Government majority. There are 650 seats in parliament. To have a majority, a political party must win over half of these seats: at least 326.

The Speaker of the House of Commons and the three deputies are initially elected as representatives of a political party, but they do not sit with that party in parliament nor vote on any legislation in the House of Commons. This is because their role requires them to be apolitical and impartial. By convention two of the Deputy Speakers

are drawn from the governing party, and two from the main opposition party. *This reduces the effective size of parliament by four, to 646.*

The modern *Speaker* is politically impartial and expected to avoid taking a political stance or favouring particular interests over others. To ensure this, the Speaker is expected to resign from their party on appointment and do not campaign in general elections – usually standing unopposed by the major political parties.

The role of the Speaker is almost as old as Parliament itself and has evolved significantly over time. Originally the Speaker was the monarch's de facto representative in Parliament. From the 18th century onwards, the Speaker gained greater independence, beginning to represent the collective voice of Parliament.

The Speaker is elected by a secret ballot of MPs at the beginning of a new Parliament (following a general election), or following the resignation, death or retirement of the previous incumbent.

His responsibilities include:

- controlling debate - the Speaker has an important role in controlling debate in the Commons. While most business in the House is largely controlled and timetabled by the Government, the Speaker can lengthen or curtail debate before the point of 'closure', when a motion or bill goes to a vote;
- deciding who can speak - MPs do not have an automatic right to speak during debates and the Speaker must balance MPs' participation with ensuring the smooth running of parliamentary business. Those wishing to speak will try and 'catch the Speaker's eye', rising from their seats briefly once the previous MP has finished their contribution.
- the Speaker has the power to decide whether, and which, amendments to bills or motions can be debated and voted on. This risks putting the Speaker in a highly political position, having to make a judgement on which amendments are worthy of debate;
- he can decide to allow Urgent Questions or Emergency Debates – both important means for backbenchers and the Opposition to force ministers to the Despatch Box and raise the political profile of an issue;
- one of the most important, albeit very rarely used, powers the Speaker has is to exercise the casting vote in the event of a draw. The Speaker should vote in favour of allowing further discussion and

avoid making final decisions by a casting vote. In practice, this means that a tie at second reading should be resolved by the Speaker voting for the bill – on the basis that there will then be opportunity for further discussion. At third reading they would vote against, on the basis that the law should not be changed except with the will of the entire House;

- upholding parliamentary rules - the Speaker is also responsible for maintaining order in the House and ensuring Standing Orders (parliamentary rules) are upheld. MPs can ask the Speaker to decide whether actions are within parliamentary rules by making a 'Point of Order'.

The minor responsibilities of the Speaker include:

- the Speaker can also make definitive interpretations of parliamentary rules and procedures through 'Speaker's rulings'. They will draw on advice from the Clerks and the Deputy Speakers, but the Speaker is the ultimate arbiter.
- the Speaker can decide whether complaints of privilege – allegations that an MP, servant of the House or a select committee has been obstructed or threatened – should proceed.

House of Commons, the composition is as follows:

· 10 Conservative MPs.
· 8 Labour MPs.
· 3 Scottish National Party MPs.
· 3 Democratic Unionist Party MPs.
· 1 Liberal Democrat MP.

The House of Lords. The House of Lords is the upper house of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. As stated before, it has lost power in relation to the Commons, but still, they can propose new laws and debate on proposed bills by the Commons. Although the Lords can attend Commons' sessions, they cannot vote or speak. The Queen, who can sit and participate at the House of Lords cannot enter the Commons' Chamber.

The House of Lords is made up of *785 peers* that are divided between:

- Lords Spiritual: Bishops, they cannot be partisan;
- Lords Temporal: Life Peers (non-hereditary, re appointed by Her Majesty on the advice of the Government) and Hereditary Peers.

The Lords has three main roles:

- making laws;
- in-depth consideration of public policy;
- holding government to account.

Members spend more than half their time in the House considering bills (draft laws). All bills have to be considered by both Houses of Parliament before they can become law. During several stages, members examine each bill, line-by-line, before it becomes an Act of Parliament (actual law).

Members of the House of Lords may resign their membership. There is no limit on the number of members of the House of Lords. The House has no power to veto legislation approved by the House of Commons, save to veto any Bill which seeks to extend the life of a Parliament beyond 5 years.

The judicial branch. The most common type of law court in England and Wales is the *magistrates' court* – it is a lower court which holds trials for summary offences and preliminary hearings for more serious ones. Some civil matters are also decided here, notably family proceedings.

There are 700 magistrates' courts and about 30,000 magistrates. More serious criminal cases then go to the *Crown Court*, which has 90 branches in different towns and cities. Civil cases (for example, divorce or bankruptcy cases) are dealt with in County courts. Appeals are heard by *higher courts*. For example, appeals from magistrates' courts are heard in the Crown Court, unless they are appeals on points of law. The highest court of appeal in England and Wales is the House of Lords.

Scotland has its own High Court in Edinburgh which hears all appeals from Scottish courts. Certain cases may be referred to the European Court of Justice (Luxembourg).

The Westminster System (WS) is the government system ruling the United Kingdom and most of the Commonwealth of Nations' member states. It gets its name from the tradition of government at Westminster Palace.

The WS has the following characteristics (adapted in 2013):

- a head of state - in the UK, Her Majesty (HM) Queen Elizabeth II. As a constitutional monarch, HM the Queen holds limited political, but large ceremonial powers. In other countries with the WS the head of state might have the title of President, Governor-General, etc.;
- a bicameral Parliament;
- a Government formed with majority support in the Lower House. In the United Kingdom, the Prime Minister, leader of the government, is elected among MPs and he or she is the leader of the largest party/coalition in the House of Commons;
- a Ministry made up by MPs at the Prime Minister's invitation. In the United Kingdom, the Government and its Cabinet can be composed of other citizens from the House of Lords, the Public Service, the Armed Forces or even the Royal Family; the Cabinet exercises executive authority in the country on behalf of HM the Queen. The Ministry is accountable to Parliament;
- an independent Public Service in charge of the administration of the country, although it is headed by the government it serves no specific party.
- an independent judiciary that interprets and applies the law.

The Monarch in Parliament. Although the relationship between Parliament and the Crown has not always been friendly, the Monarch's relevance in parliamentary tradition is still important. The United Kingdom's legislature exists under the principle of Queen In Parliament or Crown in Parliament (Royal, 2018). According to this principle, the legislature consists of the House of Commons, the House of Lords and the Crown, that is HM the Queen. Formally the laws are enacted and proclaimed by Her Majesty after they get royal assent, so technically the term refers to the Crown acting on advice of the Parliament.

His Majesty's duties are:

- opening each new session of Parliament;
- granting Royal Assent to legislation;
- approving Orders and Proclamations through the Privy Council.

How a bill becomes a law:

1. the first reading is a formal announcement only, with no debate;

2. during the second reading the House debates general principles of the bill and, in most cases, takes a vote;

3. a committee of MPs then examines the details of the bill and votes on amendments to its parts (Committee stage);

4. the House considers the amendments during the report stage;

5. third reading presupposes that the amended bill is debated as a whole;

6. the bill is sent to the Home of Lords where it goes through the same stages. If the Lords make new amendments, these will be considered by the Commons;

7. after both Houses have reached agreement, the bill is sent to the Monarch for the signature (or 'Royal Assent') at which point it becomes an *Act of Parliament (a law)*.

PRACTICAL LESSON №6

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. The legislature. The Parliament: its history and present.
2. MPs and political parties of the UK Parliament. Government majority.
3. The Speaker and his functions.
4. Describe the role of the House of Commons.
5. What tasks are the Lords sharing?
6. The Monarch in Parliament.
7. Devolution to UK nations in legislative branch.
8. What does the Westminster System of governing mean?
9. How does a bill become a law?
10. White and Green papers. What do they stand for?
11. How are the elections held in the UK?
12. The executive branch. The Prime Minister and the Cabinet.
13. The law court system in the UK.
14. The House of Commons vs the House of Lords. Which has more political influence on the state governing?
15. The Prime Minister or the Monarch. Who has more authority in the UK?

Literature for students to help:

1. Арделян О. В. Lingual Country Studies: навчальний посібник для студентів старших курсів, які вивчають англійську мову як спеціальність. Кіровоград: РВВ КДПУ ім. Винниченка, 2005. 148 с.
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7. MONARCHY

Monarchy is the oldest form of government in the United Kingdom. In a monarchy, a king or queen is Head of State.

The British Monarchy is known as a *constitutional monarchy*. This means that, while The Sovereign is Head of State, the ability to make and pass legislation resides with an elected Parliament.

As Head of State, The Monarch undertakes *constitutional and representational duties* which have developed over one thousand years of history. In addition to these State duties, The Monarch has a less formal role as 'Head of Nation'. The Sovereign acts as a focus for national identity, unity and pride; gives a sense of stability and continuity; officially recognizes success and excellence; and supports the ideal of voluntary service. In all these roles The Sovereign is supported by members of their immediate family.

Members of the Royal Family are those who undertake official duties are members of The Queen's close family: her children, grandchildren and their spouses, and The Queen's cousins (the children of King George VI's brothers) and their spouses.

Every year the Royal Family as a whole carries out over 2,000 official engagements throughout the UK and worldwide.

These engagements may include official State responsibilities. Members of the Royal Family often carry out official duties in the UK and abroad where The Queen cannot be present in person. The Prince of Wales and The Princess Royal, for example, may present members of the public with their honours at an Investiture.

When official events such as receptions, State banquets and garden parties are held, the Royal Family supports The Queen in making her guests welcome.

Members of the Royal Family also often represent The Queen and the nation in Commonwealth or other countries, at events such as State funerals or national festivities, or through longer visits to strengthen Britain's diplomatic and economic relations.

The Royal Family also plays an important role in supporting and encouraging the public and charity sectors. About 3,000 organizations list a member of the Royal Family as patron or president. Members of the Royal Family are able to recognize and participate in community and local events in every part of the UK, from the opening of new buildings to celebrations or acts of commemoration. The Queen working by herself would be unable to attend every engagement to which she is invited. Members of the Royal Family can undertake local or specialist engagements which would otherwise have to be declined.

Queen Elizabeth II is the longest-reigning monarch in British history. She has four children, eight grandchildren and 12 great-grandchildren. She became queen on *February 6, 1952*, and was crowned on June 2, 1953. Her Majesty is the mother of Prince Charles, heir to the throne, as well as the grandmother of Princes William and Harry.

Queen Elizabeth II was born Princess Elizabeth Alexandra Mary on *April 21, 1926*, in London, to Prince Albert, Duke of York (later known as King George VI), and Elizabeth Bowes-Lyon.

With the outbreak of World War II in 1939, Elizabeth and her sister largely stayed out of London, having been relocated to Windsor Castle. From there she made the first of her famous radio broadcasts in 1940, with this particular speech reassuring the children of Britain who had been evacuated from their homes and families. In 1945, Elizabeth joined the Auxiliary Territorial Service to help in the war effort. She trained side-by-side with other British women to be an expert driver and mechanic.

When Elizabeth’s grandfather George V died in 1936, his eldest son (Elizabeth’s uncle) became King Edward VIII. Edward, however, was in love with American divorcée Wallis Simpson, and had to choose between the crown and his heart. In the end, Edward chose Simpson and abdicated the crown.

The event changed the course of her life, making her the heir presumptive to the British crown. Her father was crowned King George VI in 1937, taking on the name George to emphasize continuity with his father. Her mother became Queen Elizabeth; on King George's death in 1952, she became Queen Mother and her daughter became Queen Elizabeth II.

Elizabeth married her distant cousin Philip Mountbatten (a surname adopted from his mother's side) on November 20, 1947, at London's Westminster Abbey. They wasted no time in producing an heir: Son Charles was born in 1948, the year after their wedding, and daughter Anne arrived in 1950. Elizabeth had two more children — sons Andrew and Edward — in 1960 and 1964, respectively.

Elizabeth's long and mainly peaceful reign has been marked by vast changes in her people's lives, in her country's power, how Britain is viewed abroad and how the monarchy is regarded and portrayed.

In 2011, Elizabeth showed that the crown still had symbolic and diplomatic power when she became the first British monarch to visit the Republic of Ireland since 1911 (when all of Ireland was still part of the United Kingdom).

As queen, Elizabeth has modernized the monarchy, dropping some of its formalities and making certain sites and treasures more accessible to the public. As Britain and other nations struggled financially, Britain abolished the Civil List in 2012, which was a public funding system of the monarchy dating back roughly 250 years.

The royal family continues to receive some government support, but the queen has had to cut back on spending.

Today the Queen sees public and voluntary service as one of the most important elements of her work. The Queen has links - as Royal Patron or President - with over 600 charities, military associations, professional bodies and public service organizations.

Prince Philip. Her husband, Prince Philip, the Duke of Edinburgh, died on 9 April 2021, aged 99. A former prince of Denmark and Greece, Prince Philip was born in 1921 and served in the British Royal Navy in World War Two. He was the longest-serving consort of any British monarch, and retired from royal duties in 2017 having completed more than 22,000 solo engagements.

The Prince of Wales, eldest son of The Queen and Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, was born at Buckingham Palace at 9.14pm on 14 November 1948.

His Royal Highness was invested as Prince of Wales by The Queen on 1 July 1969 in a colourful ceremony at Caernarfon Castle. Before the investiture The Prince had spent a termat the University College of Wales at Aberystwyth, learning to speak Welsh.

On 8 March 1971 The Prince flew himself to Royal Air Force (RAF) Cranwell in Lincolnshire, to train as a jet pilot. At his own request, the Prince had received flying instruction from the RAF during his second year at Cambridge.

On 29 July 1981, The Prince of Wales married *Lady Diana Spencer* in St Paul's Cathedral, who became HRH (His or Her Royal Highness) The Princess of Wales. Lady Diana's father, then Viscount Althorp and later the eighth Earl Spencer, had been an equerry to both George VI and The Queen. Her maternal grandmother, Ruth, Lady Fermoy, was a close friend and Lady-in-Waiting to The Queen Mother.

The Prince and Princess of Wales had two sons: Prince William, born on 21 June 1982; and Prince Harry, born on 15 September 1984. From the time of their marriage, The Prince and Princess of Wales went on overseas tours and carried out many engagements together in the UK.

On 9 December 1992, The Prime Minister, John Major, announced to the House of Commons that The Prince and Princess of

Wales had agreed to separate. The marriage was dissolved on 28 August 1996. The Princess was still regarded as a member of the Royal Family. She continued to live at Kensington Palace and to carry out her public work for a number of charities.

When The Princess was killed in a car crash in Paris on 31 August 1997, The Prince of Wales flew to Paris with her two sisters to bring her body back to London. The Princess lay in the Chapel Royal at St James's Palace until the night before the funeral. On the day of the funeral, The Prince of Wales accompanied his two sons, aged 15 and 12 at the time, as they walked behind the coffin from The Mall to Westminster Abbey.

On 9 April 2005, The Prince of Wales and Mrs Parker Bowles were married in a civil ceremony at the Guildhall, Windsor. After the wedding, Mrs Parker Bowles became known as *HRH (Her Royal Highness)* The Duchess of Cornwall.

The Duchess of Cornwall was born Camilla Rosemary Shand on 17 July 1947 at King's College Hospital, London, the eldest of three children. Her Royal Highness has a sister, Annabel Elliot; her brother, Mark Shand, died in 2014. She was formerly married to Brigadier Andrew Parker Bowles, and the marriage was dissolved in 1995. They had two children, Thomas Henry and Laura Rose. Her Royal Highness has five grandchildren.

The Duchess of Cambridge (09.01.1982), born Catherine Elizabeth Middleton, married Prince William at Westminster Abbey in April 2011. Their Royal Highnesses have three children, Prince George, Princess Charlotte and Prince Louis. The family's official residence is Kensington Palace. As well as undertaking royal duties in support of The Queen, both in the UK and overseas, The Duchess devotes her time to supporting a number of charitable causes and organizations, several of which are centered on providing children with the best possible start in life.

The Duke of Cambridge (Prince William) is the second in line to the throne and the elder son of The Prince of Wales and Diana, Princess of Wales. His Royal Highness is married to The Duchess of Cambridge.

Protecting the natural environment for future generations is one of Prince William's key priorities. In October 2020, His Royal Highness launched The Earthshot Prize – a new global prize for the

environment – the most ambitious and prestigious of its kind – designed to incentivize change and help to repair our planet over the next 10 years.

Having completed seven-and-a-half years of full-time military service, promoting the important role and the welfare of those who are serving or who have served their country in the Armed Forces is a key focus for The Duke's charitable activities. Through their programme of official engagements, both The Duke and Prince Harry have shone a light on the ongoing challenges facing service personnel making the transition to civilian life.

The Princess Royal is a style customarily (but not automatically) awarded by a British monarch to their eldest daughter. Although purely honorary, it is the highest honour that may be given to a female member of the Royal Family. There have been seven Princesses Royal. Princess Anne is the current Princess Royal (15.08.1950). The Princess Anne since 13 June 1987.

Her Royal Highness has been President of Save the Children UK since 1970, and it was the first major charity with which she became closely associated. It has given her great insight into the needs of children worldwide and an understanding of the issues affecting developing countries. In her work for the organization, The Princess has visited Save the Children projects in many countries, including China, Cambodia, Botswana, Madagascar and The Philippines. Having competed in the 1976 Montreal Olympic Games as a member of the British equestrian team, The Princess Royal is able to bring insight and experience to her role a British member of the International Olympic Committee.

The Duke of York is a title of nobility in the Peerage of the United Kingdom. Since the 15th century, it has, when granted, usually been given to the second son of English (later British) monarchs. The current Duke of York is Prince Andrew, the second son of Queen Elizabeth II (19.02.1960). The present Duke's marriage produced two daughters, and he has remained unmarried since his 1996 divorce.

In November 2019, His Royal Highness The Duke of York stepped back from his public duties for the foreseeable future. In recent years, he has concentrated his activity on three core areas in which he believes he can have the greatest impact: education and skills, entrepreneurship and science, technology and engineering.

Following 22-years of service with the Royal Navy, The Duke also has an active interest in supporting military organizations and charities.

The Countess of Wessex. Sophie, Countess of Wessex (born Sophie Helen Rhys-Jones; 20 January 1965) is a member of the British royal family. She is married to Prince Edward, Earl of Wessex, the youngest son of Queen Elizabeth II and Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh. The couple has two children: Lady Louise and James, Viscount Severn, who are respectively fourteenth and thirteenth in line to the British throne.

In 2002, Sophie closed her business interests and began full-time work as a member of the royal family. Much of the day-to-day working life of The Countess of Wessex is taken up with her roles as Patron of over 70 charities and organizations.

The Earl of Wessex is the youngest child of The Queen and The Duke of Edinburgh and a full-time working member of the Royal Family. The Earl was born at Buckingham Palace on 10 March 1964. Until his marriage in 1999, he was known as Prince Edward.

The Duke of Sussex (Prince Harry) is the younger son of The Prince of Wales and Diana, Princess of Wales.

He was given the title The Duke of Sussex by The Queen on the day he married Ms. Meghan Markle in May 2018. The Duke and Duchess of Sussex have two children, Archie Mountbatten-Windsor and Lilibet Mountbatten-Windsor. Their official residence is Frogmore Cottage but as announced in January 2020, The Duke and Duchess will spend the majority of time in North America following their decision to step back as senior members of the Royal Family.

Prince Henry Charles Albert David (or Prince Harry) was born at 4.20pm on 15 September 1984 at St Mary's Hospital, Paddington in central London. He is the younger brother to Prince William.

The Duke of Sussex is sixth in line to the throne and the younger son of The Prince of Wales and Diana, Princess of Wales. He spent ten years working in the Armed Forces, ending operational duties in 2015. During his service, he conducted two tours of duty to Afghanistan with the British Army.

As announced in January, The Duke and Duchess have stepped back as senior members of The Royal Family. They are balancing their time between the United Kingdom and North America,

continuing to honour their duty to The Queen, the Commonwealth, and their patronages. Frogmore Cottage in the UK remains their family home.

The Duchess of Sussex, born Rachel Meghan Markle, married Prince Harry at St George's Chapel, Windsor in May 2018.

The Duchess attended the Hollywood Little Red Schoolhouse from the ages of 2-11 and began her secondary education at Immaculate Heart High School in 1992. She went on to double major in Theatre and International Relations at Northwestern University in Evanston, Illinois graduating in 2003 with a dual degree.

During her time at university, The Duchess completed an internship at the US Embassy in Buenos Aires, Argentina, where she learned to speak Spanish. She also studied French for six years. After university she worked as an actress, appearing in film and television. She most notably played the role of Rachel Zane on the series Suits for seven seasons, completing over 100 episodes.

While living in the UK, The Duchess spent time visiting local communities and organizations both publicly and privately. She also undertook a number of visits to communities across the UK – including Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

Princess Alexandra is The Queen's cousin and a working member of the Royal Family. She is patron or president of over 100 organizations which reflect her wide-ranging interests, from the arts to health care. She also supports The Queen in her duties as Head of State, attending ceremonial occasions alongside other members of the Royal Family.

The Duke of Kent (09.10.1935) is an older brother to Prince Michael of Kent and Princess Alexandra, and is first cousin to both The Queen and The Duke of Edinburgh.

His father was Prince George, Duke of Kent, the younger brother of King George VI (The Queen's father) and King Edward VIII. His mother, Princess Marina, was the daughter of Prince Nicholas of Greece.

As Vice Chairman of the Overseas Trade Board, and later of British Trade International (1976 – 2001), The Duke of Kent has undertaken over 60 overseas trips to promote British trade and exports, including to Europe, Japan, Australia and the Middle East. He

was also the first member of the Royal Family to make an official visit to China.

The Duke of Gloucester is The Queen's cousin and a full-time working member of the Royal Family. He attends national and international events in support of The Queen and her duties as Head of State, as well as undertaking extensive public duties and engagements every year reflecting his own interests and charities.

The Duchess of Gloucester – wife of The Queen's cousin The Duke of Gloucester - is a full-time working member of the Royal Family. Her Royal Highness takes great pride in the work which she undertakes for her many charities and organizations, as well as her duties in support of The Queen.

Prince and Princess Michael of Kent. Prince Michael of Kent is the younger brother of The Duke of Kent and Princess Alexandra. Their father, Prince George, was the fourth son of George V and the brother of George VI, The Queen's father.

Connected to Russia through his maternal grandmother, Prince Michael has a strong interest in the country, and became the first member of the Royal Family to learn Russian, ultimately qualifying as a Russian interpreter. Prince Michael is Patron of the Russo-British Chamber of Commerce; Founder Patron of the Pan-European Genesis Initiative, which represents the interests of small and medium enterprises throughout the European Union; and also undertakes much charity work in Russia, including having set up The Prince Michael of Kent Foundation.

Line of succession:

1. The Prince of Wales. Born: 1948.
2. Prince William, Duke of Cambridge. Born: 1982.
3. Prince George of Cambridge. Born: 2013. He started primary school in September 2017.
4. Princess Charlotte of Cambridge. Born: 2015. The duke and duchess named her Charlotte Elizabeth Diana.
5. Prince Louis of Cambridge. Born: 2018.
6. Prince Harry, Duke of Sussex. Born: 1984. In January 2020, the royal couple said they would step back as "senior" royals and divide their time between the UK and North America. They said they intended to "work to become financially independent". Just over a year later, Buckingham Palace confirmed the couple would not be

returning to royal duties, and would give up their honorary military appointments and royal patronages.

7. Archie Harrison Mountbatten-Windsor. Born: 2019. The Sussexes' first child. By naming him as they did, the couple chose not to use a title for their first born. When the name was announced, BBC royal correspondent Jonny Dymond said the decision was a strong indication the couple did not want to bring him up as a formal royal.

8. Lilibet Diana Mountbatten-Windsor. Born: 2021. She is named after the Royal Family's nickname for the Queen and is her 11th great-grandchild. She was given the middle name Diana in honour of Prince Harry's mother, who died in a car crash in 1997 when he was 12 years old.

9. The Duke of York. Born: 1960.

10. Princess Beatrice Born: 1988. Princess Beatrice is the elder daughter of Prince Andrew and Sarah, Duchess of York. Her full title is Her Royal Highness Princess Beatrice of York. She has no official surname, but uses the name York. Princess Beatrice had a baby girl, Sienna Elizabeth, in September 2021, who becomes the 11th in line to the throne and is the Queen's 12th great-grandchild. Princess Beatrice is also stepmother to Mr Mapelli Mozzi's son Christopher Woolf, known as Wolfie, from his previous relationship with Dara Huang.

12. Princess Eugenie. Born: 1990. Princess Eugenie is the younger daughter of Prince Andrew and Sarah, Duchess of York. Like her sister Princess Beatrice, she has no official surname, but uses "York".

13. Etc.

The most popular royals. Prince William is the favourite royal, according to YouGov, which tracks the family's popularity every quarter. The opinion ratings, for the final few months of 2020, show that the Queen is in second place, followed by the Duchess of Cambridge. Princess Anne and Prince Philip round out the top five. Prince Harry and Meghan are in eighth and eleventh place respectively.

The Queen's abdication. Only 41% of those surveyed by Deltapoll thought the Queen should remain on the throne until her

death, 21% thought she should abdicate while in good health, while 27% thought she should step down if she was in poor health.

The future of the monarchy. The same survey found that only 27% of people wanted Prince Charles, the next in line to the throne, to eventually take over from his mother. Nearly half, 47%, wanted Prince William to become king instead of his father. In addition, 18% of respondents said Britain should no longer have a monarchy when the Queen's reign ends.

How much does the Royal Family cost the British taxpayer? A report in 2019 revealed that Queen Elizabeth II and her family cost the British people £67 million during the previous year. A Sovereign Grant report showed that the royal household received £7 million from the Royal Collection Trust in 2018, with total royal expenses from the family coming in at £67 million.

Accounts for the Sovereign Grant, which funds the Queen and her household's official expenses, show the monarchy cost the taxpayer £67m during 2018-19 – an increase of almost £20m in the previous financial year.

Where did the money go? A large amount of the rise was due to work updating the decades-old services at Buckingham Palace and maintaining the occupied royal palaces. Renovations on Harry and Meghan's new home at Frogmore Cottage are also to plan, coming in at over £3 million.

The Core Sovereign Grant which helps fund the work of the Queen and her household, and pays for other activities like official royal travel, increased by £3.6m to £49.3m.

PRACTICAL LESSON №7

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. The British Monarch and his duties. The relationship with the Parliament.
2. Queen Elizabeth II. Name the most prominent and important steps of her as a Sovereign.
3. His Majesty the King Charles III: the biography and the first steps to reign. What will it be?
4. The role of the Royal Family. Name, show the Royal Family Members and describe them.

5. What do the Family Members do? What are their everyday lives?
6. The attitude of the British to the monarchy in general and the King in particular.
7. The view in 'Megzit'. Watch Oprah Winfrey full Interview with Prince Harry and Meghan Markle on https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=L2lFvFhWE2Y . Find top shocking things you have learnt from it.
8. How much does the Royal Family cost the British taxpayer?
9. What is the future of the monarchy: your own and the British view?
10. Highlight 10 facts form the life of the UK Royal Family you've decided to be the most interesting and unexpected.

Literature for students to help:

1. Арделян О. В. Lingual Country Studies: навчальний посібник для студентів старших курсів, які вивчають англійську мову як спеціальність. Кіровоград: РВВ КДПУ ім. Винниченка, 2005. 148 с.
2. Возна М. О. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни: навчальний посібник з країнознавста. Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2005. 464 с.
3. Морозова І. І. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни: матеріали лекцій. Харків: ХНУ ім. В. Н. Каразіна, 2009. 100 с.
4. Proofs that living in a royal family is not a piece of cake. URL: https://brightside.me/wonder-people/10-proofs-that-living-in-a-royal-family-is-not-a-piece-of-cake-394210/
5. Queen Elizabeth lives an insanely lavish life. URL: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8lagnA5m1nY
6. Queen Elizabeth II. URL: https://www.biography.com/royalty/queen-elizabeth-ii
7. Royal family. URL: https://www.royal.uk/royal-family
8. Royal family cost British taxpayer. URL: https://britishheritage.com/royals/royal-family-cost-british-taxpayer
9. Royal Family tree and line of succession. URL: https://www.bbc.com/news/uk-23272491

10. The Earthshot prize. URL: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mFbwTRMwBAc
11. What does the British public think of the Royal family? URL: https://www.theweek.co.uk/news/uk-news/952455/what-does-the-british-public-think-of-the-royal- family? gclid=CjwKCAjw2vOLBhBPEiwAjEeK9kpQB3_pZ00QdQ7xDPCJSVYhD_yHBu9eFnvbVrR1T6O8PBALLd6H5xoCrvAQAvD_BwE
12. What Royal family does every day. URL: https://www.independent.co.uk/life-style/what-royal-family-actually-does-every-day-a7540436.html .
13. What the Royal family's homes really look like. URL: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZmNkcH2o9Go

14. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

The United Kingdom has a fiercely independent, developed, and international trading economy that was at the forefront of the 19th-century Industrial Revolution. The country emerged from World War II as a military victory but with a debilitated manufacturing sector. Postwar recovery was relatively slow, and it took nearly 40 years, with additional stimulation after 1973 from membership in the European Economic Community, for the British economy to improve its competitiveness significantly. Economic growth rates in the 1990s compared favourably with those of other top industrial countries. Manufacturing's contribution to gross domestic product (GDP) has declined to about one-fifth of the total, with services providing the source of greatest growth.

Britain used to be one of the wealthiest countries in Europe. At present it is poorer than the EU average. By the year 2000 Britain's

working population was 27 mln (nearly 50% of the total population). Those in employment include full-time, part-time and self-employment people. Britain has a mixed economy, based partly on state ownership but mainly on private enterprise. In the mid-1980s the private sector accounted for 72% of total employment and 74% of the goods and services produces in Britain. Government policy throughout the 1980's was to sell state-owned industries such as British Telecom and British Airways to private investors thereby further increasing the size of the private sector.

Credit to government and state-owned enterprises to GDP (%) in United Kingdom was reported at 7.7413 % in 2017, according to the World Bank collection of development indicators, compiled from officially recognized sources.

State-owned enterprises. After extensive privatization of the public sector during the Margaret Thatcher administration, there remain few statutory corporations in the UK. Privatization, accompanied by widespread labour unrest, resulted in the loss of tens of thousands of jobs in the coal-mining and heavy industrial sectors. Although there was some improvement in the standard of living nationally, in general there was greater prosperity in the South East, including London, than in the heavily industrialized regions of the West Midlands, northern England, Clydeside, and Belfast, whose economies suffered during the 1980s. During the 1980s and ’90s, income disparity also increased.

Agriculture. The United Kingdom is unusual, even among western European countries, in the small proportion of its employed population (about 2 percent) engaged in agriculture. With commercial intensification of yields and a high level of mechanization, supported initially by national policy and subsequently by the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) of the EU, the output of some agricultural products exceeded demand during much of the United Kingdom’s tenure in the European Union.

The most important farm crops are wheat, barley, oats, sugar beets, potatoes, and rapeseed. While significant proportions of wheat, barley, and rapeseed provide animal feed, much of the remainder is processed for human consumption through flour milling (wheat), malting and distilling (barley), and the production of vegetable oil (rapeseed). The main livestock products derive from cattle and calves,

sheep and lambs, pigs, and poultry. The United Kingdom has achieved a high level of self-sufficiency in the main agricultural products except for sugar and cheese.

Forestry. About one-tenth of the United Kingdom's land area is devoted to productive forestry. The government-supported Forestry Commission manages almost half of these woodlands, and the rest are in private hands. Domestic timber production supplies less than one-fifth of the United Kingdom's demand.

Fishing. Although the United Kingdom is one of Europe's leading fishing countries, the industry has been in long-term decline. Fishing limits were extended to 200 nautical miles (370 km) offshore in the mid- 1970s, and, because a significant part of the area fished by EU members lies within British waters, catches were regulated on a community-wide basis while the United Kingdom was a member of the EU. The United Kingdom's fishing industry now supplies only half the country's total demand. The most important fish landed are cod, haddock, mackerel, whiting, and plaice, as well as shellfish, including Nephrops (Norway lobsters), lobsters, crabs, and oysters.

Resources and Power. Minerals. The United Kingdom has relatively limited supplies of economically valuable mineral resources. The once-important extraction of iron ore has dwindled to almost nothing. Other important metals that are mined include tin, which supplies about half the domestic demand, and zinc. There are adequate supplies of nonmetallic minerals, including sand and gravel, limestone, dolomite, chalk, slate, barite, talc, clay and clay shale, kaolin (china clay), ball clay, fuller's earth, celestine, and gypsum. Sand, gravel, limestone, and other crushed rocks are quarried for use in construction.

Energy. By contrast, the United Kingdom has relatively large energy resources including oil, natural gas, and coal. Coal, the fuel once vital to the British economy, has continued to decrease in importance. Compared with its peak year of 1913, when more than one million workers produced more than 300 million tons, current output has fallen by more than four-fifths, with an even greater reduction in the labour force.

The discovery of oil in the North Sea and the apportionment of its area to surrounding countries led to the rapid development of oil exploitation, and the United Kingdom became virtually self-sufficient

in oil and even an exporter. With an average output of nearly three million barrels per day at the beginning of the 21st century, the country was one of the world's largest producers.

Self-sufficiency in oil and natural gas and the decline of coal mining has transformed Britain's energy sector. Nuclear fuel has slightly expanded its contribution to electricity generation, and hydroelectric power contributes a small proportion (mainly in Scotland), but conventional steam power stations provide most of the country's electricity.

Manufacturing. The manufacturing sector as a whole has continued to shrink both in employment and in its contribution (about one-fifth at the beginning of the 21st century) to the GDP. The most important manufacturing industries are engineering; food, beverages (including alcoholic beverages), and tobacco; chemicals; paper, printing, and publishing; metals and minerals; and textiles, clothing, footwear, and leather. The fastest-growing sectors have been chemicals and electrical engineering. Within the chemical industry, pharmaceuticals and specialty products have shown the largest increases. Within the engineering industry, electrical and instrument engineering and transport engineering—including motor vehicles and aerospace equipment—have grown faster than mechanical engineering and metal goods, and electronic products have shown the fastest growth.

Exporting. Total exports of goods, excluding precious metals, fell by £0.6 billion (2.2%) in June 2021, driven by a £0.8 billion (5.6%) fall in exports to non-EU countries; mainly because of falls in medicinal and pharmaceutical products and cars.

Total imports of goods, excluding precious metals, increased by £1.0 billion (2.6%) in June 2021 with a £0.5 billion (2.7%) increase in imports from EU countries and an increase of £0.5 billion (2.5%) to non-EU countries. Exports of goods to the EU, excluding precious metals, were above pre-EU exit levels in May and June 2021; rising £1.2 billion (9.1%) to £14.1 billion in May 2021, followed by a further £0.2 billion (1.2%) to £14.3 billion in June 2021.

In Quarter 2 (Apr to June) 2021, total imports of goods, excluding precious metals, were £12.8 billion (12.4%) higher than Quarter 1 (Jan to Mar) 2021, with increases in imports from EU and non-EU countries.

In Quarter 2 2021, total exports of goods, excluding precious metals, were £9.1 billion (12.5%) higher than Quarter 1 2021; driven almost entirely by increasing exports to the EU.

Imports from non-EU countries continue to be higher than the EU for the sixth consecutive month. Exports to the EU overtook non-EU countries in May 2021 and remain higher in June 2021, however, monthly data are erratic and small movements should be treated with caution. With the ongoing pandemic and recession, it is too early to assess the extent to which this reflects short-term trade disruption or longer-term supply chain adjustments. We will assess this over the coming months.

Finance. The United Kingdom, particularly London, has traditionally been a world financial centre. Restructuring and deregulation transformed the sector during the 1980s and ’90s, with important changes in banking, insurance, the London Stock Exchange, shipping, and commodity markets. Some long-standing distinctions between financial institutions have become less clear-cut. For example, housing loans used to be primarily the responsibility of building societies, but increasingly banks and insurance companies have entered this area of lending.

At the end of the 20th century, the financial services industry employed more than one million people and contributed about one-twelfth of the GDP. Although financial services have grown rapidly in some medium-sized cities, notably Leeds and Edinburgh, London has continued to dominate the industry and has grown in size and influence as a centre of international financial operations. In 1997 the government established the Financial Services Authority (FSA) to regulate the financial services industry the FSA took over the supervision of the United Kingdom’s commercial banks from the Bank of England.

Trade of the United Kingdom. Trade has long been pivotal to the United Kingdom’s economy. The total value of imports and exports represents nearly half the country’s GDP. The volume of both the exports and the imports of the United Kingdom has grown steadily in recent years. Principal British exports include machinery, automobiles and other transport equipment, electrical and electronic equipment (including computers), chemicals, and oil. Services, particularly financial services, are another major export and contribute positively

to Britain's trade balance. The country imports about one-tenth of its foodstuffs and about one-third of its machinery and transport equipment.

The United Kingdom's current overall balance of payments (including trade in services and transfer payments), which historically had been generally favourable, fell into deficit from the mid-1980s until the late 1990s because visible imports (i.e., tangible goods imported) exceeded visible exports. Meanwhile there was considerable overseas investment, and foreign earnings grew. The government has supported trade liberalization and participated in international trade organizations.

Services. The most remarkable economic development in the United Kingdom has been the growth of service industries, which now provide about two-thirds of the GDP and three-fourths of total employment. This reflects the rise in real personal incomes, changes in patterns of consumer expenditure, and the elaboration and increasing outsourcing of business services. Other growing service industries include hotels and catering, air travel and other leisure-related activities, distribution (particularly retailing), and finance. Especially rapid growth has occurred in other business-support services, including computing systems and software, management consultancy, advertising, and market research, as well as the provision of exhibition and conference facilities. Britain is also the base for some of the world's leading art auction houses.

The United Kingdom's many cultural treasures—e.g., its historic castles, museums, and theatres—make it a popular tourist destination. The tourism industry is a leading sector in the British economy, and each year more than 25 million tourists visit the country. London is among the world's most-visited cities.

Labour and taxation. Government revenues are derived from several main sources, including income taxes, corporate taxes, taxes on the sale of goods and services, and national insurance contributions. After World War II the government adopted individual income tax rates that were among the highest in Europe. During the last two decades of the 20th century, individual income tax rates dropped, and corporate tax rates increased slightly. A value-added tax, which levies a 20 percent tax on purchases, generates between one-tenth and one-fifth of government revenues.

Just under half the total population is in the labour force, including a small but expanding proportion who are self-employed. About three-tenths of workers are members of a trade union. Although manufacturing once dominated employment, it now involves less than one-sixth of all workers. In contrast, the service sector employs more than two-thirds of employees, with financial services and distribution the two largest components.

Transportation and telecommunications. The United Kingdom, which is relatively small in area and has a fairly high population density, has undergone considerable change in its patterns of transport. The growth of automobile ownership (by the turn of the 21st century, nearly two-thirds of all households had one automobile, and some had two or more), the decline in the use of local buses, and the transfer of much internal freight from rail to road increased the importance of maintaining and developing road networks, particularly motorways (superhighways) and trunk roads. Intercity rail services have been improved, as have commuter services in major metropolitan areas. Similarly, air traffic has grown, particularly international flights. Although there has been a downward trend in shipping and sea travel, most foreign trade still moves by sea. However, the opening of the Channel Tunnel rail link between England and France in 1994 had a big impact on cross-Channel passenger and freight patterns. At peak periods the tunnel accommodates up to four passenger and four freight shuttle trains per hour in each direction. In addition, the tunnel accommodates through freight trains and high-speed passenger trains between London and Paris or Brussels. Substantial passenger and cargo traffic moves by sea between the ports of the United Kingdom, Ireland, and Europe.

The main economic regions of Britain.

Today Britain is no longer the leading industrial nation of the world, which it was during the last century. A pioneer in the Industrial Revolution, the former "world workshop" Britain today is fifth in size of its gross domestic product (GDP). Britain's share in world trade is about 6 per cent, which means that she is also the GB is largest trading nation in the world. The most important change in Britain's trade took place after 1973 when the country joined the European Economic Community, which is known today as the European Union. Trade with

the countries of the European Union is now more than one-half of all Britain's trade with other countries. Britain's exports to the Commonwealth countries former possessions of Great Britain) have fallen substantially.

The manufacturing and service industries, together with construction, account for about 93 per cent of Britain's GDP, the rest is shared by energy production and agriculture. As in other developed countries, rising living standards have led to a growth of the role of services.

In recent years new industries have made serious progress such as aerospace, chemicals, oil, gas, electronics, and biotechnology. At the same time the traditional old industries such as steel, coal production, shipbuilding, production of textiles have met serious difficulties and declined. As the development of the new industries does not compensate the decline of the traditional old industries unemployment remains a serious problem. In recent years unemployment has been reduced but it still remains high compared with the levels of the 1960s and 1970s. So far it has not fallen under 1.5 million.

The British economy is mainly based on private enterprise. Today the policy of the government is aimed at encouraging and expanding the private sector. As a result of this policy 75 per cent of the economy is controlled by the private sector which employs three-quarters of the labor force.

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

As Britain has an open economy, in which international trade plays a vital role in the life of the country, it is necessary for the country to produce and export more on the international market than what it buys and imports into the country. However, traditionally the country imports more than it exports, which in turn leads to a deficit in the balance of payments.

The general location of industry has changed little in recent years. As before, 80 per cent of industrial and agricultural production is concentrated in England. At the same time, in the national outlying

regions of Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland the rate and level of the development of industry, as well as the average earnings of the population, are lower than in England. This gap between England and the outlying regions has increased because of the decline of the traditional industries, which are heavily concentrated in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

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

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

By the nineteenth century its population reached about a million. In 1965 the area known as Greater London was created. The population of this area rose to well over 8 million, and something had to be done to stop this growth and overcrowding. One plan was to establish new towns. Satellite towns were built at some distance from London in order to stop the overcrowding. About half a million inhabitants of London were housed in a number of new towns, located in the open country some 30 to 50 km from the capital.

Today about 6.7 million people live in Greater London, covering an area of 1606 sq km. The importance of London as an industrial centre depends upon its situation at the centre of a national and international network of communications. The oldest industrial areas are near the city centre. Here industries such as clothing, furniture-making and jewellery are concentrated in small areas. The building of the docks near to the city centre played an important role in the development of industries which processed raw materials. Later the construction of new docks near the sea led to the development of such port industries as oil refining, steel-making, cement manufacture, paper-making, etc.

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

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

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

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

The Thames valley in general, between London and Bristol, is an area of concentration of high technology industries such as electronic engineering, microelectronics, etc., and has been called the "Sunrise Strip". Bristol dominates south-west England. Bristol is a historic inland port situated deep in the Bristol Channel, and its history influenced its industries such as the manufacture of tobacco products and chocolate. Bristol is also a major centre of the aircraft and automobile industry, as well as the defence industries. The famous supersonic passenger airliner "Concorde" was made here.

Of the towns situated on the southern coast of England the largest ones are Plymouth, Southampton, Portsmouth, Brighton and Bournemouth. Today Plymouth is a major naval base of the British navy. Southampton is mainly a transatlantic seaport.

The South is a major agricultural region of Great Britain. However, agricultural specialization is different in the South West and South East and East. Due to the mild, moist climate of the South West,

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

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

It was the presence of coalfields which influenced the industrial development of the region. Birmingham, Coventry and several other larger towns make the face of the region. Much of the early development of this part of the country was connected with the iron industry.

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

The other major city is Coventry which is the centre of the British motor industry. Wolverhampton is a centre where heavy engineering, tyre production are developed. There are three other major industrial centres to the east and north-east of Coventry. They are Leicester, Nottingham and Derby. The first two are leading centres of the knitwear industry and in the manufacture of knitting machines. Derby is an important railway engineering centre because of its central position. However, today most important are the Rolls Royce factories which now produce aircraft engines. In the south-west lies a district of the Midlands known as the Potteries with its centre Stoke-upon-Trent famous for its pottery and ceramics industry.

Lancashire, Yorkshire and the north. These regions are situated to the north of the Midlands. Lancashire is a historic centre of British industry, it is the birthplace of capitalism and it was here that the

Industrial Revolution started. Liverpool grew from a small fishing village to become Britain's leading port in the 19th century. Today the city and its industry are in a difficult position. The chemical industry developed here based on the salt deposits nearby, and later the motorcar industry.

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

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

In North England we may distinguish two main centres of industrial activity: one situated in the north-east around the estuaries of the rivers Tyne, Wear and Tees (Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Sunderland and Teesside; and the other in the north-west in Cumberland (Workington, Whitehaven, Barrow-in-Furness).

Wales is mainly mountainous. South Wales is the main area of industrial activity, because it was coal that first gave life to industry. However, today the coal industry has declined creating serious problems of unemployment. Like coalmining, the iron and steel industry is long established in the south, but with the exhaustion of the iron ores this industry also faces serious problems. Efforts have been

made to attract new engineering industries. Cardiff is the largest city in the industrial South Wales, and is also the national capital and main business centre. It rose to importance with the coalmining and iron industries. Swansea and Newport shared coal exports too. However, later they suffered the same decline like Cardiff. The main port of Wales today is Milford Haven (situated in the very south-west) because of its oil tanker traffic. It is one of the leading oil terminals of Britain and an important oil refining centre. North Wales is mountainous and industrialization has had little effect here.

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

Glasgow is Scotland's most populous city and third largest in the British Isles. As a seaport it enjoyed a favorable position for trade with North America. The industrial picture in Glasgow has changed. Engineering did not decline as much as coalmining and shipbuilding. But nowadays as many workers are in the service industries as in manufacturing. Textile and clothing production continue to be important, and carpets are among the woolen goods. Food products, furniture and office equipment are also manufactured. An activity which is extremely important in Scotland's export trade is the blending of Scotch whisky, produced in the distilleries located in the Highlands.

Edinburgh is the capital of Scotland though it is smaller in size than Glasgow. Manufacturing occupies a smaller proportion of its workers than in Glasgow, but it has a number of important industries, including textile manufacture. It is one of the chief centres of brewing

in Britain. Paper manufacture, printing and publishing are important because Edinburgh is a university city.

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

Northern Ireland is a unique region within the United Kingdom, for in addition to economic problems there are political divisions, which reflect the unsettled Irish problem. In the past Northern Ireland depended almost completely upon three activities — farming, shipbuilding and the manufacture of textiles. Today great changes took place in these sectors. In agriculture which is mainly characterized by mixed farming and dairying there has been a large reduction of farmers because many owners of small farms became ruined and left the land. The textile industry depended mainly on linen which was made from flax, but today flax-growing has died out.

Northern Ireland has one of the largest concentrations of man-made fibre production in Western Europe. Textile manufacture is concentrated not only in Belfast, but in several smaller towns nearby. The manufacture of clothing and footwear is also developed in Northern Ireland. Londonderry, the second major town in Northern Ireland, specializes in the manufacture of shirts. Belfast is the main administrative, economic and cultural centre of Northern Ireland. It is the province's main port. Belfast is a major centre of textile manufacture, shipbuilding, aircraft production, electrical engineering and food processing.

PRACTICAL LESSON №8

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. The history and general description of the UK economy.
2. State and government-owned enterprises.
3. Agriculture. What are the most important farm crops?
4. Forestry and fishing.
5. Resources and power: main minerals and energy resources.
6. The most important manufacturing industries and engineering in the UK.
7. What does the UK export and import?
8. Financial services, banks.
9. Labour and taxation.
10. Transportation and telecommunications.
11. The main economic regions of the UK.
12. Which sector of economy is supposed to be the most significant?

Literature for students to help:

1. Арделян О. В. Lingual Country Studies: навчальний посібник для студентів старших курсів, які вивчають англійську мову як спеціальність. Кіровоград: РВВ КДПУ ім. Винниченка, 2005. 148 с.
2. Возна М. О. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни: навчальний посібник з країнознавста. Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2005. 464 с.
3. Морозова І. І. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни: матеріали лекцій. Харків: ХНУ ім. В. Н. Каразіна, 2009. 100 с.
4. Credit to government and state owned enterprises to GDP percent. URL: https://tradingeconomics.com/united-kingdom/credit-to-government-and-state-owned-enterprises-to-gdp-percent-wb-data.html
5. Trade. URL: https://www.britannica.com/place/United-Kingdom/Trade
6. UK trade June 2021. URL: https://www.ons.gov.uk/economy/nationalaccounts/balanceofpayments/bulletins/uktrade/june2021

CONTENT UNIT 4. EDUCATION AND CULTURE33

9. SYSTEM OF EDUCATION. PRESENT TENDENCIES

Historical background. The British government attached little importance to education until the end of the 19th century. It was one of the last governments in Europe to organize education for everybody. Britain was leading the world in industry and commerce, so, it was felt, and education must somehow be taking care of itself. Schools and other educational institutions (such as universities) existed in Britain long before the government began to take an interest in education - some of the most famous schools include Eaton (1440); Harrow (1572); Rugby (1567); Winchester (1382).

At the "public" schools, the emphasis was used to be on "character-building" and the development of "team spirit" rather than on academic achievement. This involved the development of distinctive customs and attitudes, the wearing of distinctive clothes and the use of specialized items of vocabulary. They were all "boarding schools", so they had a deep and lasting influence on their pupils. Their aim was to prepare young men to take up positions in the

higher ranks of the army, in business, the legal profession, the civil service and politics. When the pupils from these schools finished their education, they formed the ruling elite, retaining the distinctive habits and formed a closed group, to a great extent separate from the rest of society. Entry into this group was difficult for anybody who had had a different education. When, in the 20th century, education and its possibilities for social advancement came within everybody's reach, new schools tended to copy the features of the public schools. The modern educational system has been through a period of constant change and it is difficult to predict what further changes will occur in the next decade.

Types of school

All children in England between the ages of 5 and 16 are entitled to a free place at a state school.

State schools receive funding through their local authority or directly from the government. The most common ones are:

- community schools, which are sometimes called local authority maintained schools - they are not influenced by business or religious groups and follow the national curriculum;
- foundation schools and voluntary schools, which are funded by the local authority but have more freedom to change the way they do things - sometimes they are supported by representatives from religious groups;
- academies and free schools, which are run by not-for-profit academy trusts, are independent from the local authority - they have more freedom to change how they run things and can follow a different curriculum;
- grammar schools, which can be run by the local authority, a foundation body or an academy trust - they select their pupils based on academic ability and there is a test to get in.

Special schools with pupils aged 11 and older can specialize in 1 of the 4 areas of special educational needs:

- communication and interaction;
- cognition and learning;
- social, emotional and mental health;
- sensory and physical needs.

Schools can further specialize within these categories to reflect the special needs they help with, for example Autistic spectrum disorders, visual impairment, or speech, language and communication needs (SLCN).

Faith schools have to follow the national curriculum, but they can choose what they teach in religious studies.F aith schools may have different admissions criteria and staffing policies to state schools, although anyone can apply for a place.

Faith academies do not have to teach the national curriculum and have their own admissions processes.

Free schools are funded by the government but are not run by the local authority. They have more control over how they do things. They're 'all-ability' schools, so cannot use academic selection processes like a grammar school. Free schools can: set their own pay and conditions for staff, change the length of school terms and the school day. They do not have to follow the national curriculum.

Free schools are run on a not-for-profit basis and can be set up by groups like: charities, universities, independent schools, community and faith groups, teachers, parents and businesses.

Types of free school

University technical colleges specialize in subjects like engineering and construction - and teach these subjects along with business skills and using IT. Pupils study academic subjects as well as practical subjects leading to technical qualifications. The curriculum is designed by the university and employers, who also provide work experience for students.

Studio schools are small schools (usually with around 300 pupils) teaching mainstream qualifications through project-based learning. This means working in realistic situations as well as learning academic subjects. Students work with local employers and a personal coach, and follow a curriculum designed to give them the skills and qualifications they need in work, or to take up further education.

Academies receive funding directly from the government and are run by an academy trust. They have more control over how they do things than community schools. Academies do not charge fees. Academies have more control over how they do things, for example they do not have to follow the national curriculum and can set their own term times.

Some schools choose to become academies. If a school funded by the local authority is judged as ‘inadequate’ by Ofsted then it must become an academy.

City technology colleges and ‘the city college for the technology of the arts’ are independent schools in urban areas that are free to go to. They’re funded by central government - companies can also contribute. City technology colleges emphasize teaching science and technology. The city college for the technology of the arts teaches technology in its application of performing and creative arts, for example by offering interactive digital design courses.

State boarding schools provide free education but charge fees for boarding. Most state boarding schools are academies, some are free schools and some are run by local authorities. They give priority to children who have a particular need to board and will assess children’s suitability for boarding.

Private schools (also known as ‘independent schools’) charge fees to attend instead of being funded by the government. Pupils do not have to follow the national curriculum. All private schools must be registered with the government and are inspected regularly.

Organization. Despite recent changes, it is a characteristic of the British system that there is comparatively little central control or uniformity. For example, education is managed not by one, but by three, separate government departments: the Department for Education and Employment is responsible for England and Wales alone - Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own departments. In fact, within England and Wales education has traditionally been seen as separate from "training", and the two areas of responsibility have only recently been combined in a single department.

None of these central authorities exercises much control over the details of what actually happens in the country's educational institutions. All they do is to ensure the availability of education, dictate and implement its overall organization aria set overall learning objectives (which they enforce through a system of inspectors) up to the end of compulsory education.

Central government does not prescribe a detailed programme or determine what books and materials should be used. It says, what schoolchildren should learn, but it only offers occasional advice about

how they should learn it. Nor does it dictate the exact hours of the school day dates of holidays or the age at which a child must start in full-time education. It does not manage an institution's finances either; it just decides how much money to give it. In general, as many details as possible are left up to the individual institution or the Local Education Authority (LEA, a branch of local government).

Style. Learning for its own sake, rather than for any particular practical purpose, has traditionally been given a comparatively high value in Britain. In comparison with most other countries, a relatively strong emphasis has been put on the quality of person that education produces (as opposed to the qualities of abilities that it produces).

The traditional approach, together with the dislike of centralized authority, also helps to explain why the British school system got a national curriculum (a national specification of learning objectives) so much later than other European countries. If your aim is so vague and universal, it is difficult to specify what its elements are. It is for the same reason that British schools and universities have tended to give such a high priority to sport. The idea is that it helps to develop the "complete" person. The importance of school as a "community" can increase this emphasis. Sporting success enhances the reputation of an institution. Until the last quarter of the 20th century, certain sports at some universities (especially Oxford and Cambridge) and medical schools were played to an international standard. People with poor academic records were sometimes accepted as students because of their sporting prowess (although, unlike in the USA, this practice was always unofficial).

Recent developments. Before 1965 most children in the country had to take an exam at about the age of 11, at the end of their primary' schooling. If they passed this exam, they went to a grammar school where they were taught, academic subjects to prepare them for university, the professions, managerial jobs or other highly-skilled jobs; if they failed, they went to a secondary modern school, where the lessons had a more practical and technical bias. Many people argued that it was wrong for a person's future life to be decided at so young an age. The children who went to secondary moderns tended to be seen as "failures". Moreover, it was noticed that the children who passed this exam (known as the "eleven plus") were almost all from middle-class families. The system seemed to reinforce class

distinctions. It was also unfair because the proportion of children who went to a grammar school varied greatly from area to area (from 5% to 40%). These days, most eleven-year-olds all go on to the same local school. These schools are known as comprehensive schools. (The decision to make this change was in the hands of LEAs, so it did not happen at the same time all over the country. In fact, there are still one or two places where the old system is still in force.)

School life. There is no countrywide system of nursery schools. In some areas primary schools have nursery schools attached to them, but in others there is no provision of this kind. The average child does not begin full-time attendance at school until he or she is about five and starts primary school. Almost all schools are either primary or secondary only, the latter being generally larger. Nearly all schools work a five-day week, with no half-day, and are closed on Saturdays. The day starts at or just before nine o'clock and finishes between three and four, or a bit later for older children. The lunch break usually lasts about an hour-and-a-quarter. Nearly two-thirds of pupils have lunch provided by the school. Parents pay for this, except for the 15% who are rated poor enough for it to be free. Other children either go home for lunch or take sandwiches.

Methods of teaching vary, but there is most commonly a balance between formal lessons with the teacher at the front of the classroom, and activities in which children work in small groups round a table with the teacher- supervising. In primary schools, the children are mostly taught by a class teacher who teaches all subjects.

In secondary schools, pupils have different teachers for different subjects and are given regular homework. The older children get, the more likely they are to be separated into groups according to their perceived abilities, sometimes for particular subjects only, sometimes across all subjects. But some schools teach all subjects to "mixed ability" classes.

The school year. Schools usually divide their year into three terms', three months each, named after seasons. The autumn term starts on the first Tuesday morning in September. In July schools break up for eight weeks. In addition, all schools have a “half-term” (= half-term holiday), lasting a few days or a week in the middle of each term.

Education beyond sixteen. At the age of sixteen people are free to leave school if they want to. Far fewer sixteen-year-olds go straight out and look for a job than there used to. About a third of them still take this option, however. Most do not find employment immediately and many take part in training schemes which involve on-the-job training combined with part-time college courses.

In England and Wales, for those who stay in education and study conventional academic subjects, there is more specialization than there is in most other countries. Typically, a pupil spends a whole two years studying just three subjects, usually related ones, in preparation for taking A-level exams, though this is something else which might change in the near future.

The independence of Britain's educational institutions is most noticeable in universities. They make their own choices of who to accept on their courses. Universities normally select students on the basis of A-level results and an interview. Those with better exam grades are more likely to be accepted. But in principle there is nothing to stop a university accepting a student who has no A-levels at all and conversely, a student with top grades in several A-levels is not guaranteed a place.

The availability of higher education has increased greatly in the second half of the 20th century. Nevertheless, finding a university place is not easy. Universities only take the better students. Because of this, and also because of the relatively high degree of personal supervision of students which the low ratio of students to staff allows, nearly all university students complete their studies. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland, it is only for modem languages and certain vocational studies that students take more than three years. In Scotland, four years is the norm for most subjects.

Types of university.

Oxbridge. This name denotes the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, both founded in the medieval period. They are federations of semi-independent colleges, each college having its own staff, known as "Fellows". Most colleges have their own dining hall, library and chapel and contain enough accommodation for at least half of their students. The Fellows teach the college students, either one-to-one or in very small groups. Oxbridge has the lowest student/staff

ratio in Britain. Lectures and laboratory work are organized at university level. As well as the college libraries, there are the two university libraries, both of which are legally entitled to a free copy of every book published in Britain. Before 1970 all Oxbridge colleges were single-sex (mostly tor men). Now, the majority admit both sexes.

At face value, Oxford and Cambridge are similar institutions: both are world-famous, both are super old, and both are competitive to get into. They are also both structured around a collegiate system and have tutorial-style teaching.

The cities are characterized by attractive historic architecture and rivers running through their centers. However, as any Oxbridge graduate will tell you, they are wildly different places in other respects, including the courses they offer, on the subjects they have the strongest reputation for, and where they are located. Since it is not possible to apply to both Oxford and Cambridge in the same year, you will have to choose one or the other.

It is important to remember that, on this global level, the differences between Oxford and Cambridge are marginal; they both have seemingly permanent spots in the global top 10s and are firmly established among the world's academic elite as well as in the minds of employers. Indeed, the Oxbridge brand name is powerful; for example, Cambridge was considered second in the world by employers and Oxford third in the QS World University Rankings.

'Oxford is for learning, Cambridge is for wit…', they in Oxbridge used to say.

Oxford has a spirit of establishment – for example, it has produced countless Prime Ministers and MPs (10 out of the last 13 went there, including David Cameron and Margaret Thatcher), whilst some of the finest comedians and satirists have graduated from Cambridge (think Eric Idle, Stephen Fry, Hugh Laurie, Clive Anderson, Hugh Dennis).

Cambridge is also renowned for its scientists – Newton, Darwin and, most recently David Attenborough, are just a few of the illustrious alumni. There have been 90 Science Nobel laureates from Cambridge, compared to Oxford's 55.

Perhaps one of the most prestigious degrees in the country, Oxford's PPE course (Politics, Philosophy and Economics) attracts those with political ambitions – and many leading politicians studied

this. In contrast, Cambridge has a unique Natural Sciences degree, a three-year course in which students begin by taking a handful of science subjects (almost like an extension of A-level where you take different subjects) before narrowing down and specializing in their later years.

Oxford and Cambridge both offer a variety of traditional subjects, including Biological and Physical Sciences, Geography, History, Mathematics, Medicine, English, Classics, Linguistics, Law and Engineering. However, there are some degrees that Oxford offer and Cambridge do not and vice versa. For example, Cambridge is the only one of the two with Architecture and Veterinary Medicine courses, whilst Oxford uniquely offers Art and Design.

What Is The Teaching Like At Oxford And Cambridge?

Despite their differences, Oxford and Cambridge are very similar in terms of student numbers and the type of education students receive. Oxford has over 20,000 students and Cambridge around 20,000.

Expect a packed Monday to Saturday with a combination of lectures, practical/laboratory classes, and small personalized teaching sessions called ‘supervisions’ (Cambridge) or ‘tutorials’ (Oxford).

These hour-long sessions, delivered up to four times per week in groups of 2-3 students, are designed to extend students’ understanding above and beyond what is possible from lectures alone. You will be challenged to think critically and produce thoughtful, analytical, evidence-based arguments with the help of experts in their field. A balance between intimidating and exhilarating, this style of teaching makes Oxbridge unique and its graduates so sought-after by employers.

In a typical session, you will be asked questions related to lecture content and reading from the previous week and to produce material ahead of time for discussion. This could be an essay or answers to a set of problems or even just to have completed a certain amount of reading. Either way, deadlines are tight so it is important to be organized.

Whilst these sessions are not formally assessed and do not count towards a student’s final degree classification, at the end of every term you will receive feedback on student’s work and progress from each supervision. This is a fantastic way for a student (and the person in

charge of one's studies at the college, the Director of Studies) to know how well the student is doing. This is essential, as exams are a big deal at Oxbridge.

At the end of each University year, you will sit a series of formal exams which are used as the ultimate markers of your progress. At both Oxford and Cambridge, your degree result is heavily reliant on your final year exams (although in some courses you will also do coursework, and a component of your second year may count).

Every Oxford and Cambridge student belongs to the university, their department and one of the 30+ colleges. Subject-specific departments are responsible for course content, core teaching, exams and awarding degrees, which means students get the same degree whichever college they go to. However, their college is a student's home. Essentially, it is the place where they eat, sleep and do the majority of their socializing. Colleges provide a range of academic and pastoral support (for example, they organize supervisions/tutorials), as well as a range of facilities for laundry, cooking and studying.

Whilst they all have a common purpose and you will receive the same very high academic standards whichever one you choose, Oxbridge colleges are very different in terms of their size, age and 'personality. Those looking to study at either Oxford or Cambridge are therefore strongly encouraged to consider which type of college they'd like to live in before applying.

It is important to note that, whilst all Oxford Colleges are now co-ed, Cambridge still has three colleges exclusively for women. Similarly, Oxford and Cambridge both have a handful of 'mature student' colleges – those which only accept students over the age of 21.

<u>What grades do you need for Oxbridge?</u>

The personal statement should be accompanied by excellent grades from your school and college. Conditional offers for Oxford range between A*A*A and AAA (depending on the subject) at A Level or 38–40 in the IB, including core points. Certain grades may be required at Higher Level. The typical A Level offer for Cambridge is A*A*A for most Science courses and A*AA for Arts courses, or 40–42 in the IB, including core points, with 776 at Higher Level.

There may also be specific subject requirements for certain courses, especially in the sciences and, at Cambridge, subject requirements may vary from one college to another.

Oxford and Cambridge Admissions Tests.

Admissions tests are required for most Oxbridge courses nowadays. They help widen the gap between the extremely high achieving candidates that apply to their institutions. Admissions tutors shortlist applicants based on students' application and performance in the test.

Most admissions tests are held at schools or colleges before you attend interview. Cambridge requires applicants to take pre-interview tests for around half of its courses; for example, students wishing to study mathematics (or computer science and mathematics) should take the Sixth Term Examination Paper (STEP). For other subjects, Cambridge requires a written test to be taken while at the university for interview (if interviewed).

Oxford and Cambridge Stereotypes.

Oxbridge holds a unique place in many people's imaginations. Countless appearances in novels, films and TV programmes combined with hundreds of years of reputation as the best of the best in education, means there are some popular (albeit often false) stereotypes about its students.

- To the wider world, Oxbridge students are generally perceived to be extremely posh and privileged.

Although it is certainly a massive privilege to study here, Oxford and Cambridge seek to attract the best and brightest students regardless of background. Some may have come from private education, others may be state educated; it is a fairly even split. Cambridge and Oxford have large access programmes across the UK and overseas, as well as a highly rigorous and fair application procedure to ensure this. Oxbridge has a good gender balance; around 46% of students are female, and both have a high international intake; 37% of Cambridge and 40% of Oxford students are international.

- Oxbridge students are also reputed to be massive nerds with no social skills.

This is partly true. Anyone who studies at Oxford and Cambridge by default will enjoy learning to some extent. However, the philosophy, 'work hard, play hard' comes to mind. It is essential to get

that balance between studying hard and taking time out, and luckily most Oxbridge students recognize this.

- Those from outside Oxbridge also do not realize that stereotypes exist within the university, between members from different colleges.

Members of Merton College, Oxford and Trinity College, Cambridge, are generally reputed to be the ‘nerds’. Meanwhile, Kings College, Cambridge is famous for its communist flag in its college bar. Wadham College, Oxford, is known for being particularly LGBTQ+ friendly, and St John’s College is known as the one with loads of people from private schools.

The Old Scottish Universities. By 1600 Scotland boasted four universities. They were Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen and St Andrews. The last of these resembles Oxbridge in many ways, while the other three are more like civic universities in that most of the students live at home or find their own rooms in town. At all of them the pattern of study is closer to the continental tradition than to the English one - there is less specialization than at Oxbridge.

The older civic (redbrick') universities. During the 19th century various institutes of higher education, usually with a technical bias, sprang up in the new industrial towns and cities such as Birmingham, Manchester and Leeds. Their buildings were of local material, often brick, in contrast to the stone of older universities (hence the name, "redbrick"). They catered only for local people. At first, they prepared students for London University degrees, but later they were given the right to award their own degrees, and so became universities themselves. In the mid-twentieth century they started to accept students from all over the country.

The campus universities. These are purpose-built institutions located in the countryside but close to towns. Examples are East Anglia, Lancaster, Sussex and Warwick. They have accommodation for most of their students on site and from their beginning, mostly in the early 1960s, attracted students from all over the country. They tend to emphasize relatively '"new" academic disciplines such as social sciences and to make greater use than other universities of teaching in small groups, often known as "seminars".

The newer civic universities. These were originally technical colleges set up by local authorities in the first sixty years of the 20th

century. Their upgrading to university status took place in two waves. The first wave occurred in the mid-1960s, when ten of them (e.g. Aston in Birmingham, Salford near Manchester and Strathclyde in Glasgow) were promoted in this way. Then, in the early 1970s, another thirty became "polytechnics", which meant that as well as continuing with their former courses, they were allowed to teach degree courses (the degrees being awarded by a national body). In the early 1990s most of these (and also some other colleges) became universities. Their most notable feature is flexibility with regard to studying arrangements, including "sandwich" courses (i.e. studies interrupted by periods of time outside education). They are now all financed by central government.

The Open University. This is one development in education in which Britain can claim to have led the world. It was started in 1969. It allows people who do not have an opportunity to be "ordinary" students to study for a degree. Its courses are taught through the Internet, television, radio, and specially written course books. Its students work with tutors, to whom they send their written works and with whom they then discuss it, either at meetings or through correspondence. In summer, they have to attend short residential courses of about a week.

Exams and qualifications.

GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education). The exams taken by most fifteen- to sixteen-year-olds in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Marks are given for each subject separately. The syllabuses and methods of examination of the various examining boards differ. However, there is uniform system of marks, all being graded from A to G. Grades A, B and C are regarded as "good" grades.

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

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

SCE "Highers" - The Scottish equivalent of A-levels.

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

Becoming a teacher in England.

To teach in a state school in England, you must have a degree, and gain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) by following a programme of Initial Teacher Training (ITT). You must have achieved minimum requirements in GCSE English, maths, and science if you wish to teach at primary-level. You can teach in independent schools, academies, and free schools in England without QTS, but it's a definite advantage to have it.

PRACTICAL LESSON №9

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. General description of the education system in the UK.
2. The system of secondary education. Types of school. Academic year. Exams.
3. The system of higher education. Colleges and universities in the UK. Cambridge and Oxford.
4. How to get a qualification in the UK? Teacher qualification.
5. Modern tendencies in the UK education.

Literature for students to help:

1. Арделян О. В. Lingual Country Studies: навчальний посібник для студентів старших курсів, які вивчають англійську мову як спеціальність. Кіровоград: РВВ КДПУ ім. Винниченка, 2005. 148 с.
2. Возна М. О. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни: навчальний посібник з країнознавста. Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2005. 464 с.
3. Морозова І. І. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни: матеріали лекцій. Харків: ХНУ ім. В. Н. Каразіна, 2009. 100 с.

4. Education in England: a history. URL: http://www.educationengland.org.uk/history/chapter05.html
5. Oxford vs Cambridge. URL: https://www.uniadmissions.co.uk/application-guides/oxford-vs-cambridge/
6. Teaching in England. URL: https://www.ucas.com/teaching-in-england
7. The top five educational trends to look out for in 2021. URL: https://blog.pearsoninternationalschools.com/the-top-five-educational-trends-to-look-out-for-in-2021/
8. Types of school. URL: https://www.gov.uk/types-of-school
9. UK education system guide. URL: https://www.studying-in-uk.org/uk-education-system-guide/

10. CULTURAL LIFE. TRADITIONS AND CUSTOMS

British culture has its roots in the United Kingdom‘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.

There are many stereotypes surrounding the Brits, but they are very cheerful people and love to have fun. Not surprisingly, they gave the world a number of famous and unforgettable artists whose impact has greatly shaped this industry. Also, music concerts are a common thing in the UK. Some of the biggest music events are organized in the UK.

Cultural differences between England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are most visible in each country’s individual history and heritage, as well as regional dialects and accents. There are also variations in the way each national identity within the UK is perceived. For example, Scottish, Welsh and Irish people tend to be more aware of a dual identity (e.g. being both Scottish and British). The English, on the other hand, generally do not feel the same need to distinguish their origin – as ‘British’ is often assumed to be synonymous with ‘English’. This predominance of the English

identity can be a point of tension or resentment. Indeed, England is the significantly more populous country, with approximately 84% of the UK's population living there. All four countries are influenced by the size, popularity and political decision-making power of London, which is the cultural and economic hub of the UK.

The UK has also become increasingly multicultural with the increase of immigration over the past two decades. In 2019, it was estimated approximately 9.5 million people living in the UK (or 14% of the population) were born abroad. London has the largest number of migrants among all regions of the UK, home to over 3 million foreign-born residents (35% of the UK's total foreign-born population). Some of the largest migrant and second-generation migrant populations have arrived from former British colonies (such as India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Jamaica). There are also significant populations of people born in Poland, Romania, the Republic of Ireland and Germany. Such migration has introduced a diversity of cultural customs and traditions to most major cities, visible in the varieties of foods, places of worship, music and arts.

Further cultural differences in the UK can often be found between those who live in the major cities and those who live in the countryside. The British can often quickly detect which county a person is from by their accent alone, and may sometimes be able to pinpoint their town of upbringing just from their speech. This easy identification of people's backgrounds can cause the British to pigeonhole and stereotype each other quite quickly, sometimes hindering social mobility. This is especially true for those with accents that acutely reflect a class stereotype. For example, 'posh' pronunciations can reveal that a person was raised in a wealthy family and went to a private school, whilst a regional accent (e.g. cockney) may be associated with the working-class.

The theatres have long been well supported with entertainment ranging from music to drama and to comedy. In the 19th Century, the Music Hall was the mainstay of entertainment offering all manner of acts from singing to acrobatics.

The cinema is very popular as are the numerous social clubs across the country. Music too plays an important role in popular culture and has been the forerunner in exports. The UK is home to the

Beatles, the Rolling Stones, Adele, and many other artists who have made it to the world stage.

Jungle, Dubstep, Grime and other modern forms of dance music also originate from the UK. Traditionally music and social gatherings have been the cement in isolated communities over the centuries with dancing and singing. The Scottish and Irish Ceilidh is a traditional social gathering involving Gaelic folk music and dancing either in a house or larger venue. The Welsh people are known for their singing voices and the Welsh Men's Choir is renowned World Wide.

Art and literature has also played a focal part in the history of UK culture. There are many art galleries throughout the country and Britain is known for its history of authors such as Virginia Woolf, TS Eliot, Agatha Christie and Jane Austen.

The music in UK has a long and rich history. British artists have firmly impacted the European and global history of music. In medieval times the British composers gave a major contribution to continental music movements. Some of the most known British composers in classical music include Thomas Tallis, William Byrd, Henry Purcell, Hubert Parry, Edward Elgar, Frederick Delius, Ralph Vaughan Williams and Benjamin Britten.

At modern times the British music is one of the most developed and most influential in the world. Probably the most famous British music band ever, the Beatles, was founded in 1960 in Liverpool and is regarded by many to be the most influential music group that ever existed. Some of the best artists of today's music industry are from the UK.

The UK is also where some of the most trendy music genres originated and today they have mastered them. Blues-rock, heavy metal, punk rock, hard rock, British folk-rock, folk punk, acid jazz, Britpop, grime, Dubstep and many more are some of the music genres that were first performed by UK musicians or were largely influenced by them.

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 sixth 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 Carrickfergus 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. For example, 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.

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 BC, 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 also saw a number of brilliant British artists 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.

Conventions and traditions. In the UK, the first name is also known as 'the Christian name', although this has little to do with religion today. This is traditionally followed by a middle name and then the family name which in the UK is known as the surname.

In previous centuries children tended to be named after a member of the family or a religious figure. Catholic families, in particular, tend to name their children after saints.

In modern times, children are often given names that are liked by the parents and which have no particular significance regarding family or religion. Some children are named after famous football stars, singers or film actors. Traditionally when couples marry the woman takes her husband's name as her surname but some couple now choose to amalgamate their names which is referred to as a double-barrelled name.

There are a number of days throughout the year that are celebrated in Britain:

- Burns Night (January 25th)
- Shrove Tuesday (the day before Lent starts)
- Valentine's Day (14th February)
- Mothering Sunday (fourth Sunday of Lent)
- St Patrick's Day (March 17th)
- Easter weekend (dates change each year)
- April Fools' Day (1st April)
- Queen's Official Birthday (usually second Saturday of June)
- Father's Day (third Sunday of June)
- Halloween (31st October)
- Guy Fawkes Night (5th November)
- Christmas Day (25th December)
- Boxing Day (26th December)
- New Year's Eve (31st December)

Some of the above dates are public holidays, known as 'Bank Holidays' when schools and businesses are closed, whilst others are simply celebration days.

Leading London theatres by number of seats.

The London Palladium is the largest theatre, with a capacity of 2286 seats. The Apollo Victoria, Drury Lane (Theatre Royal), the Lyceum Theatre and the Dominion ranked second to fifth, each with a capacity of over 2000 seats. There were an average 45 theatres open in London as of 2017.

London theatre and the West End. Theatre in London is mostly based around the West End of London. West End theatre is commonly used to refer to commercial productions staged in the large theatres in or around the West End area of London. All the theatres featured in the ranking are part of the West End, with London Palladium arguably the most famous due to its roster of performers and many televised performances. Most theatres in the West End are known for musicals, which is the most attended theatre genre. The longest running productions on the West End are all musicals. The Mousetrap ranks first, running since 1952, and Les Misérables second, running from 1985.

The theatre industry in the United Kingdom is a major part of arts and culture. While most commercial theatre is based in London, some productions also tour regional theatres. Many theatres across England are also supported through funding from Arts Council England.

A Guide to London's Theatre History. We all know that modern day London is a first class city for theatre lovers. But how does a city become 'the theatre capital of the world'? The oldest traces of London's illustrious theatre history go back to Roman times. The remains of an amphitheatre, probably built in the second half of the first century, can still be viewed today in the basement of the Guildhall Art Gallery. Fortunately our tastes have evolved a little over the centuries; the original programming would have consisted mostly of wild animals fighting each other and criminals being executed.

The first permanent playhouses to be built after the amphitheatre came with the Reformation. One of the earliest ones was a 1576 venture by James Burbage, who gave his venue the inspired name The Theatre. A year later and 200 yards down the road, The Theatre would get competition from The Curtain. While the remains of the first venue are currently locked away on an inactive building site, The Curtain has recently made the news again. In 2011 archaeologists discovered its remains on the site of soon-to-be luxury apartment complex The Stage. Excavations are currently in progress, and free

site visits are available until 24 June. After that date, the site will be covered over again until the planned visitor centre is ready.

Of course, there's more to London theatre than Shakespeare. The city also has a strong claim to fame in having the oldest theatre in the world that's still in use today. The current Theatre Royal Drury Lane is the fourth one occupying the same site in Covent Garden, the first venue having opened there in 1663. Many famous theatre folks have tread its boards, among others London's first real female actress (not a boy in a skirt), Nell Gwynn, actor-manager David Garrick and one of the founding fathers of the pantomime and the clown Joseph Grimaldi.

Jumping forward into the nineteenth century and the era of the music hall, Wilton's Music Hall is one of very few original venues surviving in the UK. Extensive renovations finished last year, but the interior does still look like it would have in the days of music hall legends like Dan Leno and Marie Lloyd.

Well, there are definitely plenty of twentieth century theatres in operation today that will without doubt become fixed in London's theatre history. Whether it's the National Theatre with their production of Jerry Springer: The Opera and its alleged 3,168 mentions of the word 'fuck' or the 64-years-and-counting run of The Mousetrap at the St Martin's Theatre, there's always something going on in London. Here's to the next 2,000 years.

Theatre Royal, Drury Lane, London. Originally built in 1663, the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane is London's oldest theatre, having hosted performances for three and a half centuries. The original building was visited by the likes of Samuel Peyps and Charles II, who first saw his infamous mistress Nel Gwyn treading the boards of this very theatre. The first building was unfortunately destroyed by fire in 1672 and the theatre has since undergone a number of restorations. During its long history it's presented various masterpieces and theatrical legends; from Charles Macklin, who murdered a fellow actor in the green room, to the public premieres of the National Anthem and Rule Britannia; from the premiere of Richard Brinsley Sheridan's seminal play The School for Scandal, to Noel Coward's major success with Calvacade in 1931. It is also famous for being visited by every British monarch since the Restoration. Now owned by Sir Andrew Lloyd Webber, the theatre mainly presents top musicals including Shrek and 42nd Street – a far cry from what the audiences would have been

watching during the Restoration period. The Theatre Royal, Drury Lane is located at Catherine Street, London.

The oldest continuously working theatre in the English-speaking world, Bristol Old Vic was built in 1766. It is closely associated with the Bristol Old Vic Theatre School, which has turned out famous British actors including Oliva Colman and Daniel Day-Lewis. After receiving a recent funding from the Heritage Lottery Fund, the Old Vic - in collaboration with the Bristol Archives and University of Bristol Theatre Collection - have curated various exhibitions, interactive sound experiences and creative displays around the building to showcase their rich history. Bristol Old Vic is located at The Rackhay, Queen Charlotte Street.

Grand Theatre, Lancaster. Opened in 1782, the Grand Theatre, Lancaster is another playhouse that has undergone various restorations. The first was in 1897 by the renowned theatre architect Frank Matcham, who along with his two protégés, is responsible for over 200 theatres before 1915. However, this building was gutted by fire and the theatre reopened in 1908 in the Edwardian style it remains in to date. It is currently owned by the amateur theatre group the Lancaster Footlights, who produce five plays a year as well as running and maintaining the historic building. The Lancaster Grand Theatre is located at St. Leonardgate, Lancaster.

The Georgian Theatre Royal, Yorkshire. Being built in 1788, The Georgian Theatre Royal in Yorkshire is technically the youngest theatre in our round up, but is in fact the UK's oldest working theatre in its original state, and Britain's most complete Georgian playhouse. The Georgian Theatre Royal is located at Victoria Road, Richmond, North Yorkshire.

The 4 Most Macabre Museums in London.

Barts Pathology Museum, West Smithfield. Deep within the depths of St Bartholomew's Hospital hides Barts Pathology Museum, where over 5,000 medical and anatomical specimens reside. In this genuinely unnerving Victorian museum, every object has a bizarre history, including the compressed bones and doubled down, distorted toes of a Chinese bound foot from 1862; a grossly deformed hand affected by gout from 1933; and a 'tight lacer's liver' from 1907 where the liver has become warped from the prolonged tightening of

corsets. As well as displaying uncanny medical curiosities, the museum also hosts a series of morbidly fascinating events, from learning taxidermy, to unpicking the tradition of death masks.

The Viktor Wynd Museum of Curiosities, Cambridge Heath. Wind your way into the enigmatic, labyrinthine world of curator Viktor Wynd. The best way to describe his Museum of Curiosities might be pandemonium: dodo bones are placed next to McDonald's Happy Meal toys, two headed kittens next to living coral, occultists paintings next to pop art prints and erotica surrounds a one-off sarcophagus holding a 19th Century human skeleton, which is overlooked by a caged lion skeleton. Not only can you lose yourself for hours in this cacophony of visual noise, you can drink the night away in their taxidermy-decorated cocktail bar, which specialises in a curated menu of absinthe.

Old Operating Theatre Museum and Herb Garret, London Bridge. Pre-dating anaesthetics and antiseptics, this is Europe's oldest operating theatre. Luckily, it is not still functioning, and is used purely for display purposes! Large assortments of herbs, resins and minerals are on display, giving a breakdown of exactly what doctors and nurses would use to conjure up medicines, not forgetting the leeches, oysters, earthworms and garden snails they utilised. There are many early surgical instruments on exhibit, including sinister forceps for childbirth, and a trepanning toolkit used to drill into human skulls to relieve health issues, such as releasing those pesky devils from your brain. On Saturdays and Sundays you can observe a mock demonstration of a typical 1822 surgery from the viewpoint of the training surgeons of the day.

Literature: poets and writers.

The list of British writers, poets, novelists, essayist or story writer is almost endless and the amount of plays, poems, novels, biographies, tales, essays, prose and verse that they have published through the centuries is probably beyond our imagination. Lord Byron, William Butler Yeats, William Blake, Matthew Arnold or Rudyard Kipling are just a few names of the British Literature Pantheon. From the Renaissance movement, led in Britain by Geoffrey Chaucer and his work to modernize the English language, to the fables of J.R.R. Tolkien who went to the extent of inventing a new language for his

master story, the vision of British artist has long been shining its light on the rest of literary world. In this article, we shine a light on some of the greatest writers of English poetry.

Maybe the most famous author of all English literature, Shakespeare was a poet, playwright and actor. He is still regarded today as the world's most eminent dramatist. While he is mainly known by the public for his numerous theatre play, among which Romeo And Juliet, the most famous romantic tragedy of all times, has been adapted countless times, both for the theatre, Broadway or Hollywood. Shakespeare's plays are still performed today all around the world, and at any given time of the year, it is not surprising to find more than one of his plays being acted on the stage of London's theatres. What the public might not know as much are Shakespeare's sonnets and narrative poems. Published in 1609, towards the end of his life, Shakespeare's 154 sonnets were probably never meant to be released and the order they have been printed in most likely did not reflect their actual chronology nor the author's wishes.

Among other well-known British penmen there is Elizabeth Barrett Browning who was a famous poet that had a great influenced on some of her famous contemporary writers among which Edgar Allan Poe and Emily Dickinson.

Robert Burns, the Bard of Ayrshire. Celebrated as the most significant Scottish writer of all time, the popularity of Burns through all of Scotland and with the Scottish diaspora all over the world, made him the subject of a real personality cult during the 19th and 20th century. Still today, Burns supper, a national holiday in Scotland, is more celebrated than the actual National Day of St. Andrew's. He popularized the use of the Scots language in literature, though most of his work was written in English.

Probably the most famous of Welsh poets, Dylan Thomas became known to the British public through his poetry programs broadcasted by BBC Radio.

John Ronald Reuel Tolkien is mostly known for his books, later adapted to cinema, *The Lord of The Rings* and *The Hobbit*. Both these books are amongst the bestselling novels ever written and combined; it is estimated that around 250 million copies were sold, making Tolkien one of the most successful authors of all times. While Tolkien is most famous for his fantasy writings, most British ignore that he

was also a talented poet. His work as a linguist made him an expert in manipulating words' aesthetics and euphony. He also created two entirely new languages, an exhaustive work that probably explains why his academic research at the Oxford University remained so thin.

London Ceremonies and Traditions.

The euphoric reaction to the Queen's Diamond Jubilee in 2012 underlined just how much we Londoners love our pomp and ceremony. London is steeped in over 2,000 years of history and many of the capital's longest-standing traditions are still very much alive. Head to London's palaces, courtyards, parks and castles for ceremonies embedded in history - unique days out or moments of regal nostalgia. A number of annual parades regularly adorn the capital's most ancient sites, from Trooping the Colour to the State Opening of Parliament.

Changing of the Guard. A hugely popular spectacle takes place at a range of royal locations in and around London daily during the summer (April-July) and on alternate days for the rest of the year. There is no ticketing, so make sure you get there early. Ever since 1660 Household Troops have guarded the Sovereign Palaces. The Palace of Whitehall was the main residence until 1689 and was guarded by the Household Cavalry (they can still be seen here today; outside Horse Guards Arch). The court moved to St James's Palace in 1689 and when Queen Victoria moved into Buckingham Palace (1837) the Queen's Guard remained at St James's Palace and a detachment guarded Buckingham Palace, as it does today.

Changing the Guard takes place inside the railings of the forecourt to Buckingham Palace. The Foot Guards provide a colourful display in their red tunics and bearskins and are accompanied by a band throughout. During the 45-minute ceremony the New Guard replaces the Old Guard and a detachment is left at Buckingham Palace with the remaining New Guard marching on to St James's Palace. For a good view, get there early and position yourself near the railings of the Victoria Memorial. The Changing of the Guard is free to watch and takes place every other day at 11.30am and lasts approximately 45 minutes. Dates alternate each month; odd days one month, even days the next. Check website for details of specific dates before you visit.

Part of the Old Guard marches from St James's Palace to Buckingham Palace at 11.15am and returns at 12.05pm. Please note that this Changing of the Guard only occurs on days when the guard at Buckingham Palace is changed.

For a chance to see the Queen's Life Guard, head for the separate ceremony that takes place daily throughout the year at Horse Guards Parade, on the site where the London 2012 Olympic beach volleyball was held. A similarly colourful spectacle, this is a 25-minute ceremony. The Guard march from Hyde Park Corner, via Constitution Hill and The Mall to Horse Guards Parade. Changing the Guard at Horse Guards Parade is free to watch and takes place daily at 11.00 (Mon to Sat) and 10.00 (Sun).

Trooping the Colour - The 'official' birthday of the Queen is celebrated in this iconic June ceremony.

Often cited as the ceremonial event of the year, the Trooping the Colour marks the 'official' birthday of the Queen. Her actual birthday is 21st April (see below) but it is a long-standing tradition to publicly celebrate her birthday on a summer day. This tradition dates back to the early 18th century when the Colours (flags) of the battalion were carried (Trooped) past soldiers to reinforce the colours of their regiment so that they would recognise them in battle. Ever since 1748 this ceremony has also marked the Sovereign's birthday.

Trooping the Colour takes place in June when the Queen leaves Buckingham Palace to her arrival at Horse Guards Parade when a gun salute is fired from Green Park. The action centres on Horse Guards Parade, where the Queen receives the royal salute and inspects the troops. Following a performance from the massed bands the 'Colour' is carried down the ranks and the Queen leads the troops to Buckingham Palace. The Queen then appears on the balcony of Buckingham Palace at 1pm to watch the RAF (Royal Air Force) fly past, which is accompanied by a gun salute at the Tower of London.

Members of the Royal Family attend and a number of tickets are sold in advance each year. However, if you arrive early, you can grab a good view of the troops along the route from Buckingham Palace to Horse Guards Parade, via The Mall. Alternatively you can watch the two rehearsals - The Major General's Review and The Colonel's Review - for free, minus the Royals! These rehearsals take place before the big event itself. The Major General's Review occurs on the

Saturday two weeks before the official parade. The Colonel's Review takes place on the Saturday a week before the parade.

The Queen's Birthday Gun Salutes - Cannons signal Her Majesty's actual birthday in Hyde Park.

The Queen usually celebrates her actual birthday, 21st April, privately, but the occasion is marked publicly by gun salutes in central London: there's a 41-gun salute in Hyde Park, a 21-gun salute in Windsor Great Park and a 62-gun salute at the Tower Of London, all taking place at midday. The Queen's Birthday Gun Salutes take place on her actual birthday, ahead of her official birthday in June which is marked by Trooping the Colour. At Hyde Park the Queen's Birthday Gun Salute is carried out by the King's Troop Royal Horse Artillery who ride into the park from the north by Marble Arch along North Carriage Drive, line up abreast and gallop down the parade ground to roughly opposite the Dorchester Hotel. The Troop itself arrives at around 11.45am ready to fire the first round at midday. The guns are then unhooked and the salute is fired off. Duty performed, the horses gallop back up towards North Carriage Drive.

State Opening of Parliament - Ceremony to mark the beginning of the new parliamentary year.

Dating back to Medieval London, this spectacular annual ceremony marking the beginning of the new parliamentary year takes place May (prior to 2012 it took place in October or November) and features peers and bishops in traditional robes and a royal procession involving the State Coach (visible to the public). The televised ceremony that follows takes place in the House of Lords.The proceedings begin with Black Rod (the Queen's Messenger) calling 250 members of the House of Commons to the House of Lords.

The door is initially slammed in his face before being re-opened. This reminds people that the Commons can exclude everyone but the Sovereign's messengers. The Queen reads the Queen's Speech from the Throne in the House of Lords. This speech is prepared by the government of the day and outlines the forthcoming policies for the year. The Queen then returns to Buckingham Palace. The Royal procession starts at Buckingham Palace (11am), follows The Mall to Horse Guards Parade and Whitehall and then Parliament Square.

Lord Mayor's Show - River barges are piled high with explosives in this annual parade.

The annual Lord Mayor's Show has been taking over the streets of London for nearly 800 years now. The parade involves over 6,000 people, bands, over 140 decorated floats, costumed performers and a gilded State Coach that the Lord Mayor travels in. If you aren't sick of fireworks by this time (the show traditionally takes place in November, just after Bonfire Night), this is possibly the most dangerous and amazing of all the public shows in the capital. River barges are piled high with explosives and set adrift on the Thames with several brave men on board.

The fireworks are let off between Waterloo and Blackfriars Bridges, not far from the scene of Guy Fawkes' attempted crime. Wrap up warm and head for the river. The best vantage points tend to be around the Embankment and Gabriel's Wharf. The Lord Mayor is required to swear an oath of loyalty to the Queen (in the presence of the Lord Chief Justice) at the end of the parade which runs from Guildhall to the Royal Courts of Justice. Spectators are welcome.

Ceremony of the Keys - Nightly lock-up of the Tower of London by the Beefeaters.

Every night the Tower of London is locked up by the Chief Yeoman Warder who, dressed in Tudor uniform, makes his way to the gates from the Byward Tower at exactly 9.53pm to meet the Escort of the Key, clad in the familiar Beefeater uniform. The pair tour the various gates, locking them ceremonially, before being challenged by a sentry at the Bloody Tower archway. "Who goes there?" asks the sentry. "The Keys," replies the Warder. "Whose keys?" "Queen Elizabeth's Keys." "Pass Queen Elizabeth's Keys. All's well."

Once all the Tower gates are locked, the Last Post is sounded by a trumpeter and the ceremony is concluded. This ceremony represents a 700-year-old tradition and lasts no more than 10 minutes. The Chief Warder represents the Yeoman Warders (more commonly known as 'Beefeaters') who have looked after the Tower since the 14th century. Today they perform the role of tour guide in addition to their ceremonial duties.

Maundy Money - Easter service sees the Queen hand out money to pensioners.

On Maundy Thursday, the day before Good Friday, the Queen gives Maundy money to a group of pensioners from one diocese each year. In the early 20th century, the Royal Maundy Service occurred at

Westminster Abbey, but today the service and tradition is held in a different church (usually a cathedral) every year. Westminster Abbey was the site of 2011 Royal Maundy, while in the Queen's Diamond Jubilee year the event took place at York Cathedral.

The Royal Maundy ceremony is held in the presence of the Yeoman of the Guard and traces its origins to the Last Supper when, as St John recorded, Jesus washed the feet of his disciples. Maundy money started in the reign of Charles II with an undated issue of hammered coins in 1662. Today's recipients of Royal Maundy - as many elderly men and women as there are years in the sovereign's age - are chosen because of the Christian service they have given to the Church and community. Four Maundy Children (two boys and two girls) are also present. The pensioners are given two purses by the Queen - one white purse containing the Maundy coins (sets of one penny through to four penny silver coins totalling the same number of pence as the years of the sovereign's age), and one red purse containing £5.50 (£1 representing the money for redemption of the monarch's gown, £3 in lieu of the clothing once given, and £1.50 in place of the food once presented).

Traditions.

Wedding Traditions. The date of the wedding is typically set up after a proposal has taken place. Traditionally, the man was the one to propose to his beloved, rather than the other way around. Nowadays this part of the tradition is not always followed, although we do find that most of our couples still observe it.

English tradition has it that the man is to propose to his beloved with a ring, which she is to wear on the ring finger of her left hand. Tradition also used to say that a woman can propose to her man on February 29th – on a leap year.

Once the couple had set a wedding date, it was customary to set the so-called banns of the marriage (from an Old English word meaning “to summon”). The banns were basically a marriage notice. The purpose of this was to announce to everyone that a wedding was to take place, in case anyone had any objection to it. A marriage was only considered legally valid if the reading of the banns had taken place.

Prior to the wedding date; the bride celebrates with her female friends in what is called a hen party, whereas the groom celebrates the engagement with his male friends in a stag do. It is said, however, that the groom should not see his bride on the day before the ceremony, because that will bring bad luck to the newlyweds.

It was said that the best season to marry was between the harvest and Christmas (in the Autumn). In fact, we still have a rhyme that reminds us of that: "Marry in September's shine, your living will be rich and fine."

The bride is traditionally given a decorative horseshoe, to be worn on her wrist or sewn to the hem of her dress. This item was given for good luck, and although it is rare to use an actual horseshoe at present – in the old days it was commonplace!

Another fantastic tradition, still followed today, is to follow this Victorian rhyme on the day of one's wedding: "Something old, something new, something borrowed, something blue, and a silver sixpence in her shoe."

When the bride and groom left the church after their ceremony, their guests would cast wheat over their heads, as this was a symbol of bounty, abundance and fertility. Nowadays, rice or confetti make for good substitutes, yet maintaining the potency of the original symbol.

Traditional funerals. The traditional religious funeral is dying a death, according to a report that also reveals the soaring popularity in the UK of no-frills or "direct cremations" – a cheaper and less conventional sendoff with no mourners present.

The UK's largest funeral director, Co-op Funeralcare, found one in 10 people want a traditional farewell, underlining the growing popularity of personalised, bespoke ceremonies without the formal trappings. Based on feedback from its funeral directors from more than 500,000 ceremonies conducted in the past five years and the views of 4,000 British adults, the study reflects changing trends and attitudes towards death.

One in 25 funerals arranged by the Co-op are direct cremations, perhaps inspired by the wishes of the late David Bowie. The musician, who died in January 2016, was cremated with no family or friends present after specifying that he did not want a funeral service (his ashes were scattered in Bali). The findings build on the Co-op's national study into dying in the UK, for which more than 30,000

Britons were questioned last year, in an attempt to break taboos around bereavement and ensure the wishes of the deceased are followed.

The study also found the use of formal pallbearers to carry coffins has declined in the past five years. Requests for ceremonies to take place away from churches have increased, with locations including a zoo, on a bus, on a golf course or in a teepee. Most of the Co-op's undertakers had arranged a funeral where mourners wore bright clothing and half have known mourners to dress in jeans and tracksuits.

PRACTICAL LESSON №10

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. Cultural life in the UK. Variety of interests of the people.
2. Painting. Sculpture and architecture.
3. Art galleries and museums.
4. Cinema in the UK. The most famous actors and films. Theaters.
5. Folk and modern trends in music.
6. Literature: poets and writers.
7. Public holidays and celebration. Traditional ceremonies in London.
8. National traditions on engagement, wedding, birthday, funeral.
9. Sport competitions.
10. Describe a famous person of Wales or Northern Ireland. Try to be different.

Literature for students to help:

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INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH PROJECT

Here the higher education applicants may follow several steps in order to accomplish the task in the best way.

Step 1: Define the project.

Normally the subject is related to your major, but if you are interested in a subject, your project can be based on something you have no previous knowledge about. When choosing a subject, look at the requirements closely to determine if the subject will work. Choose the subject as earlier as possible to have enough time to study it perfectly.

What is its purpose? Answer the question: Why do I want to do this research project? Is it to forward your academic goals, spread awareness, inform or persuade a group of people, or to learn more about a subject you are passionate about? Whatever your research entails will make an impact, so recognizing this could also help you feel more fulfilled after it is finished.

If you have to do it as a requirement, try to reframe your mindset to a more positive one where you can find something positive to gain from your research. This could be a new skill acquired or improved upon.

What format will it be in? Some examples of different formats could be an essay, poster, speech, or an artistic piece. Depending on the format, there could be different requirements for the information or an element incorporated that is not included in the other formats.

If you have a choice of format, be sure to assess your strengths and weaknesses. As if you pride yourself on being a good public speaker and performer, so prefer giving a speech rather than writing an essay. However, if you want to improve a certain skill, you could choose a format that challenges a skill you want to work on.

What question is being answered? Remember that good research answers a complex but specific question. Therefore, create a question that requires critical thinking and is focused enough to be answered by a comprehensive thesis statement and study.

Step 2: Gather information.

This may be self-explanatory, but it's time to research! Have a variety of primary, secondary, and tertiary sources.

Primary Source – an original source; first-hand experience: journals/diaries, speeches, photographs, raw data. Secondary Source – created as a response to the original source; did not have the experience first-hand: journal articles, biographies, textbooks / encyclopedias / dictionaries. Tertiary Source – a piece of work that summarizes, compiles, or interprets primary or secondary source information: manuals, textbooks / encyclopedias / dictionaries, bibliographies.

Good places to find sources are your local library, school databases, or Google Scholar. Since not everything on the internet is true, vetting your source is crucial. Some things to keep in mind before using a source are the author, time period, peer-review status, publisher, and intended audience.

Step 3: Compile findings and provide a takeaway.

Using the data you have collected to support your problem, answer your initial question. This article explains how different kinds of these are used in different research contexts.

Make sure all the points in your paper answer the initial question and support the amazing thesis you just created. You may need to write a proposal or abstract for your research. Try to focus on the main ideas in your work and provide a bit of context that would make the reader or listener more interested to learn additional information.

Be sure to proofread your work, double check it meets all the requirements, and verify your citations are in the correct citation style.

Step 4: 'Optional' Peer / Advisor Review.

You may ask anyone (a peer or a real scholar) who is an expert in the field of research you are interested in. This advisor may offer great advice in case you got stuck or need a push in the right direction.

While compiling the study, be sure it comprises all necessary components: title page, contents, introduction, main body, conclusions, references, and appendix (if necessary).

Starting an independent research project can be scary. Whether your research is formal or informal, keep learning and asking questions.

In the words of author, anthropologist, and filmmaker Zora Neale Hurston, *"Research is formalized curiosity. It is poking and prying with a purpose."*

Individual research project problems:

1. You are a Celtic man (woman). Describe your tribe, your way of life and impressions made by the Roman invaders.
2. You are chosen into a registration committee. Describe your impressions of the Anglo-Saxon village and its inhabitants.
3. You are a Flemish merchant visiting a fair in London. Write down what you've found out about the medieval English town and the fair itself.
4. Describe a monarch (the life, appearance and contribute to the development of the country).
5. The unknown places of Wales.
6. You are a Scottish peasant. Describe your way of farming.
7. What is Northern Ireland famous for?
8. Dublin – what is so special?
9. The life of the royal family today.
10. UK in World War II.
11. Recommend the best place to visit in the UK. Give your reasons.
12. Imagine the situation. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is going to introduce new bills of money. State Treasury has started the competition to choose the right historical or legendary person worth of being coined or printed on the new currency unit. Suggest your candidacy.
13. Describe national stereotypes.
14. The most significant years for British development.
15. British constitution and its specific features.
16. You are a member of British Parliament. What law would you implement?
17. The influence of Great Britain on the European economic development.

18. Famous universities of the UK. What is the secret of their excellence?
19. What tendencies of the British education system would you introduce here?
20. Famous people of the UK.

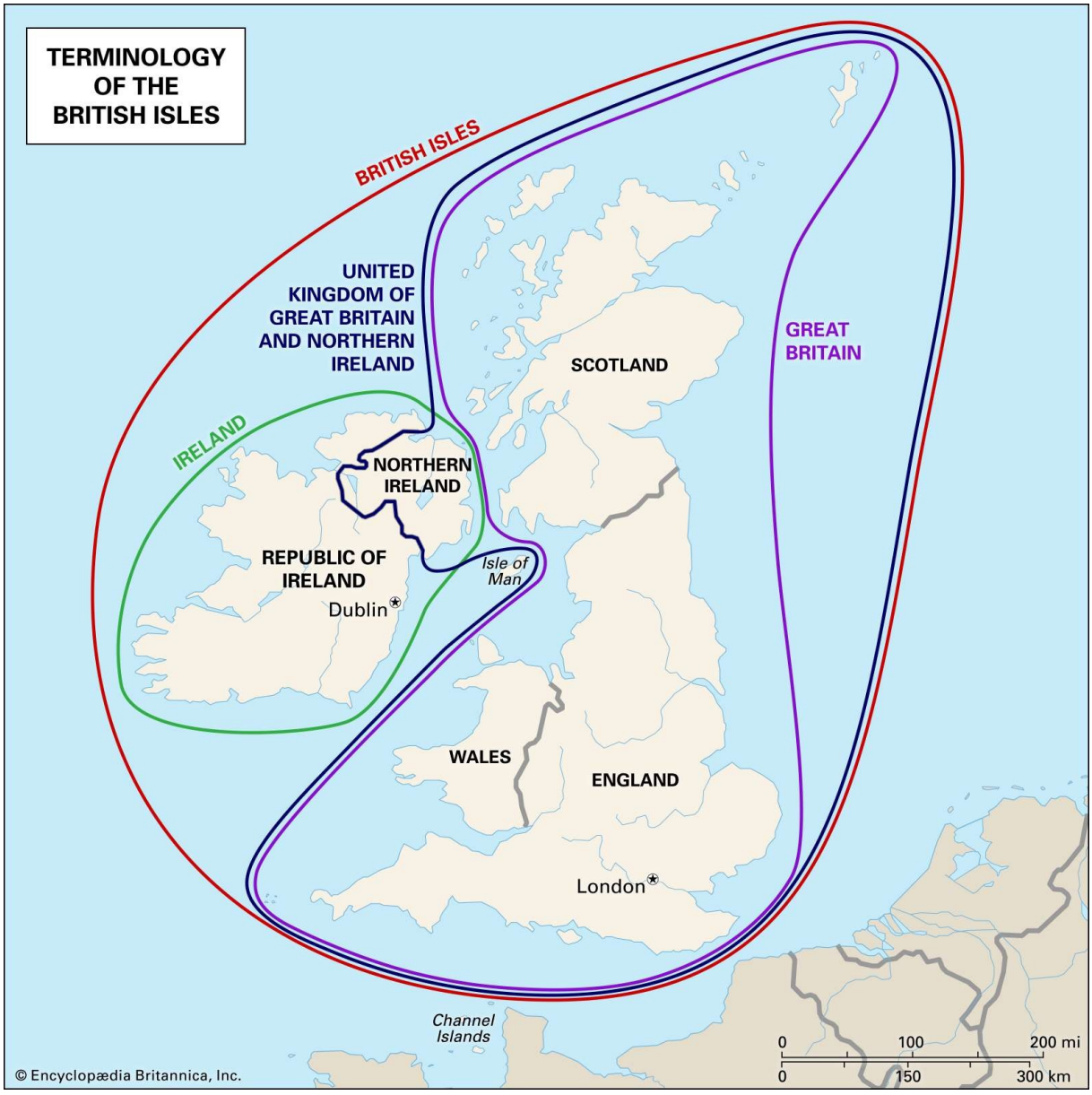
FINAL EXAM PROBLEMS

1. Geography of the British Isles.
2. Population of Great Britain.
3. Education system in the UK.
4. Political system (branches of government) in the UK.
5. Secondary education in the UK.
6. UK – a monarchy. General description.
7. Education system in the UK. Schools and exams.
8. Population of Great Britain. Major nationalities.
9. Higher education in the UK.
10. Universities and colleges in Great Britain. Oxford and Cambridge.
11. British monarchy today.
12. The queen as the Head of the State. Her functions and duties.
13. The main languages spoken in GB today.
14. Legislative branch of the UK government.
15. Royal Family.
16. Executive branch of the UK government.
17. Main economic regions of Great Britain.
18. Political parties in the British Parliament.
19. British Government. The Cabinet and Prime Minister.
20. British Parliament. House of Commons and House of Lords.
21. National symbols of the UK.
22. British religion and ethnic structure.
23. Prehistory period of the British development. What were the British Isles then?
24. The accents in the 21st century Britain.
25. Historical periods of the British development.

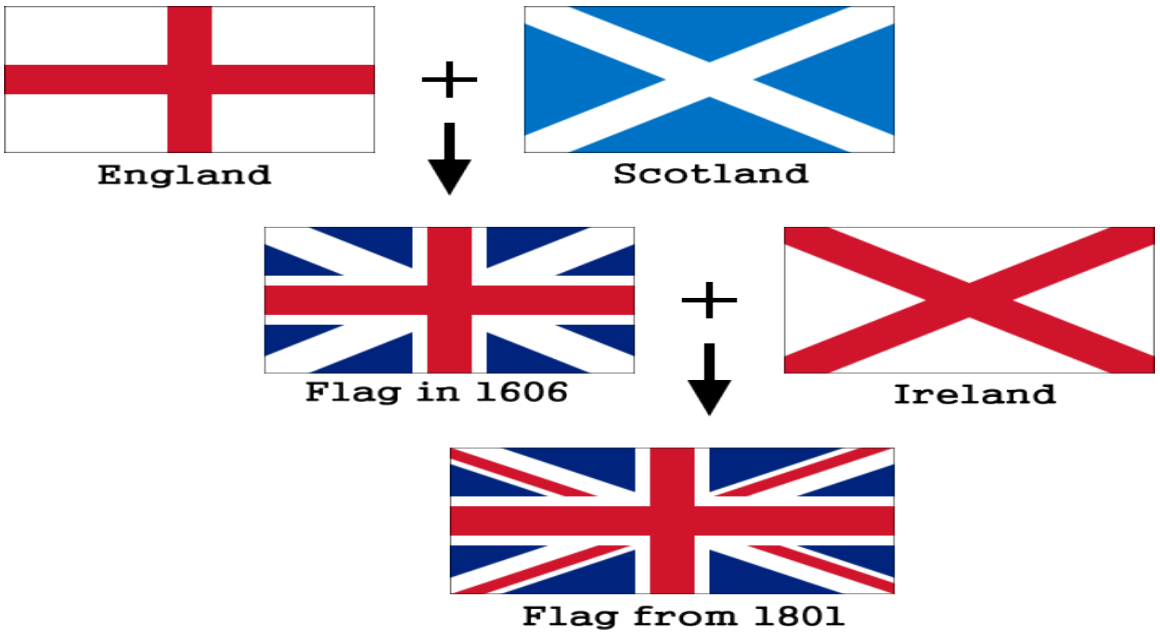
26. What does conservatism mean for a genuine British?
27. What are the cultural British stereotypes?
28. Describe traditional class system.
29. Seven social classes in the UK today.
30. What is the constitution of the UK?

APPENDIX

No 1



No 2
The Union Jack



No 3

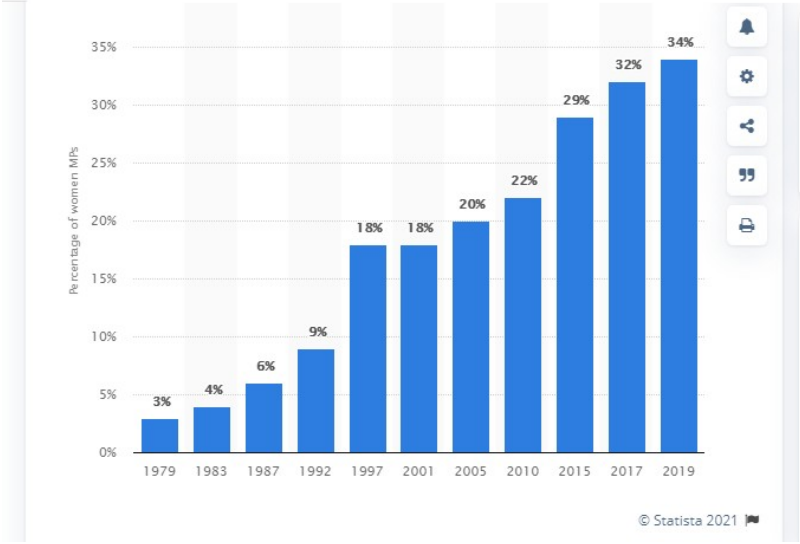


No 4



No 5

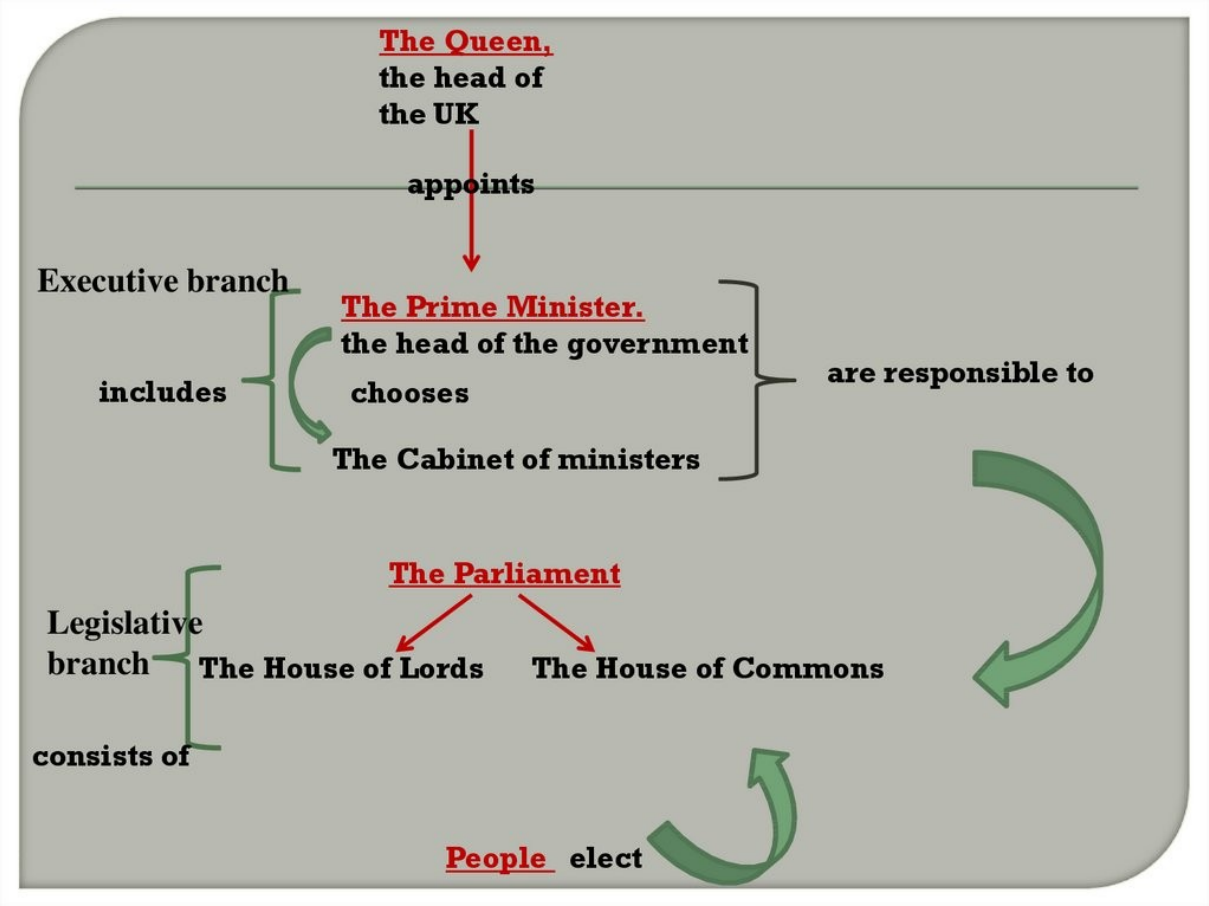
Proportion of Female Members of Parliament in the UK from 1979 to 2019



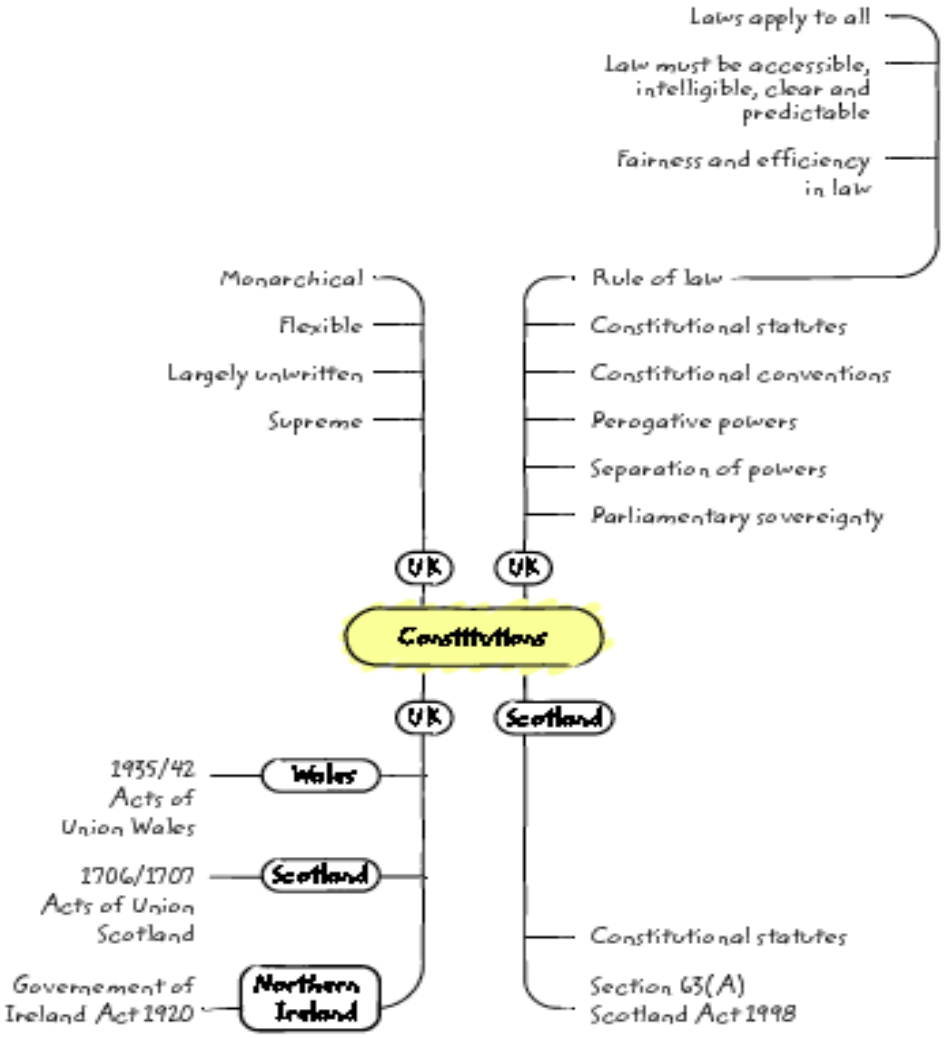
No 6
Social Classes in the UK (2021)



No 7
Branches of Law

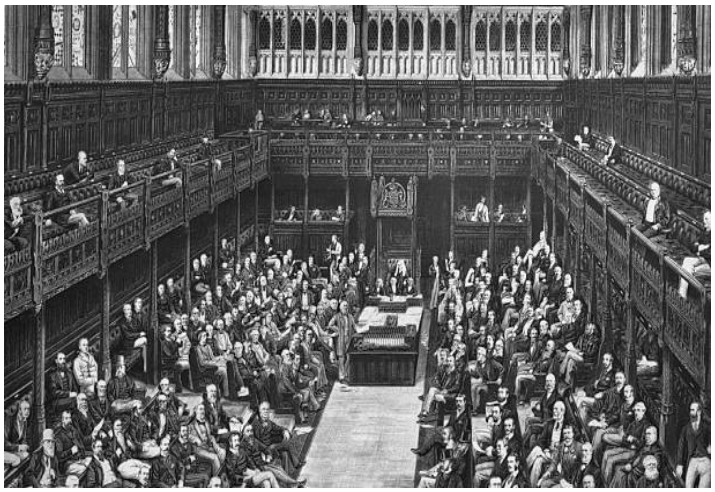


No 8
Constitution Scheme

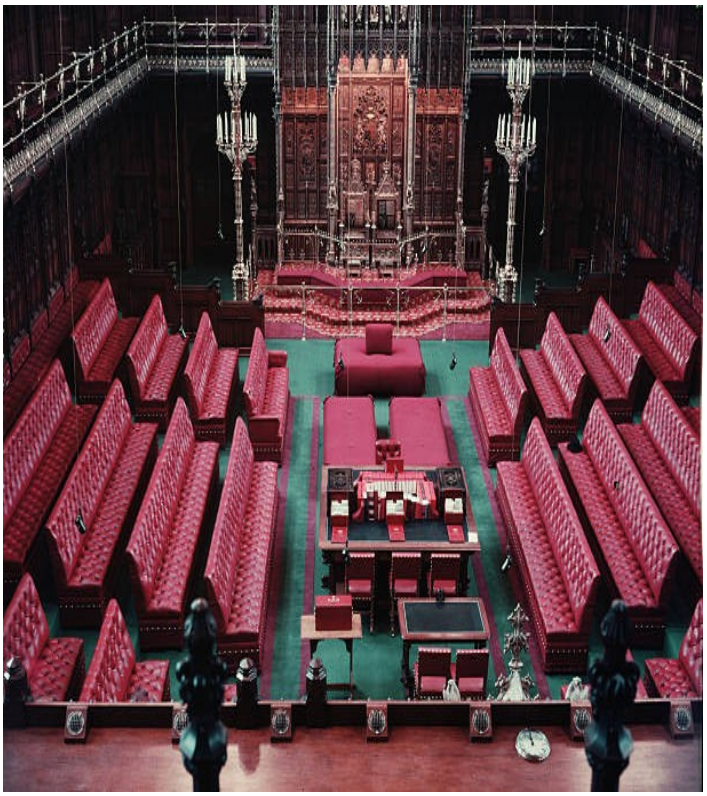


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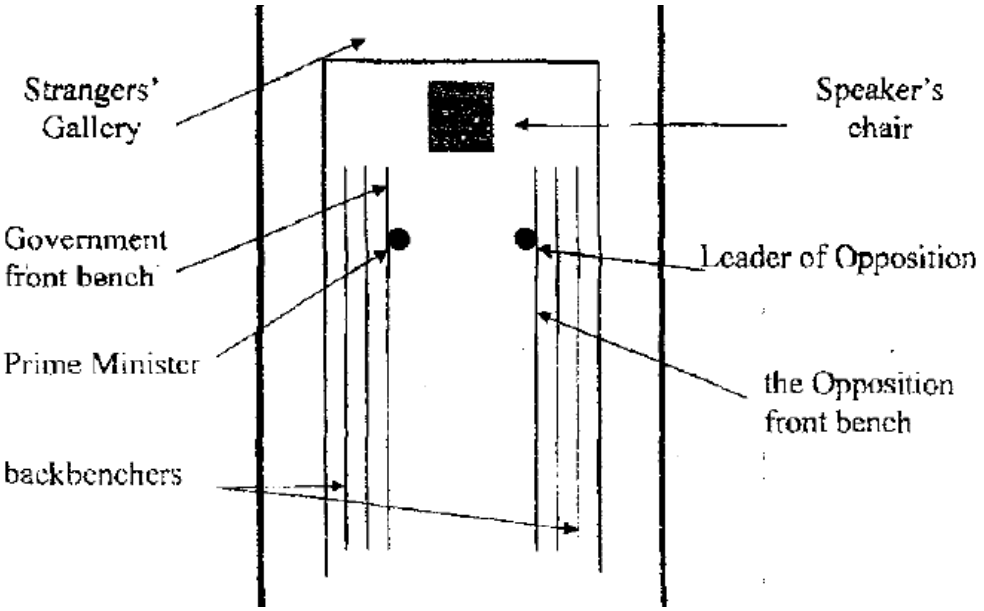
House of Commons



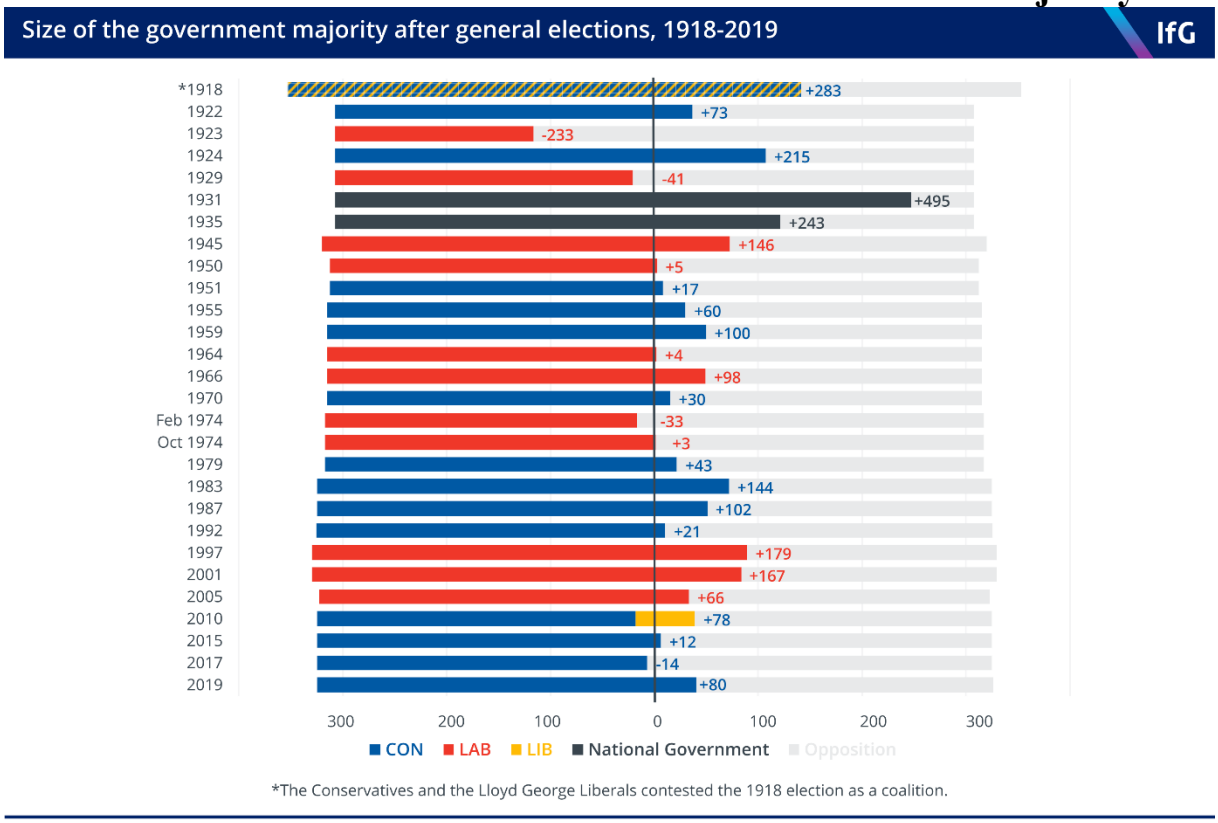
No 10
House of Lords



No 11
Seating Arrangement in the House



No 12
Size of Government Majority



Source: Institute for Government analysis of the House of Commons Library election statistics and the 2019 general election result. There may be some inconsistency in exactly how majorities are calculated (2019 does not take account of non-voting MPs).

BY-NC

No 13
Coronation of Queen Elizabeth II



No 14
The Wedding of Queen Elizabeth II

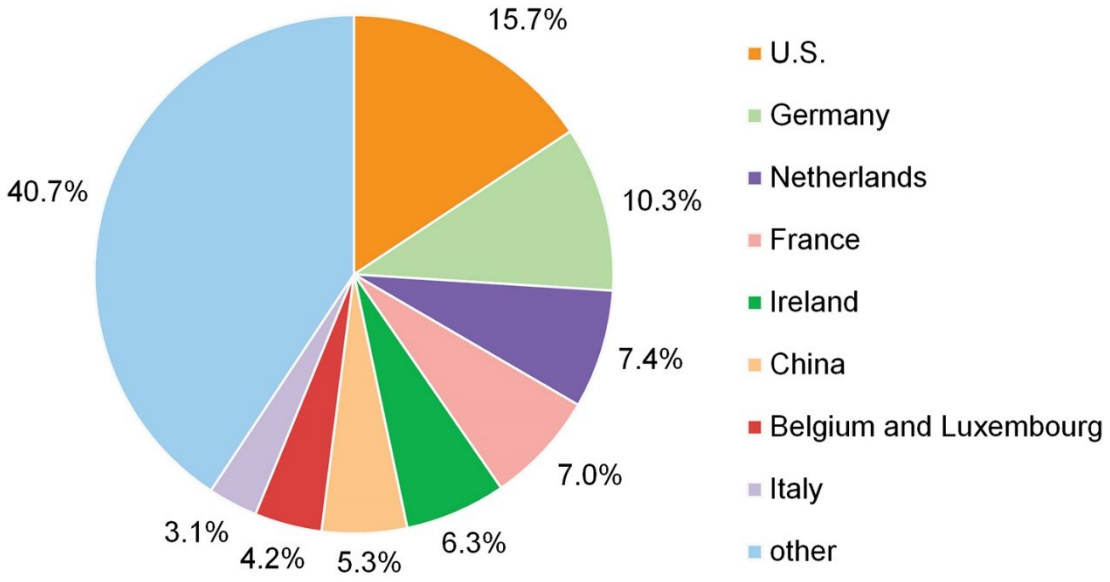


No 15
Royal Family



No 16

United Kingdom major export destinations (2018)*

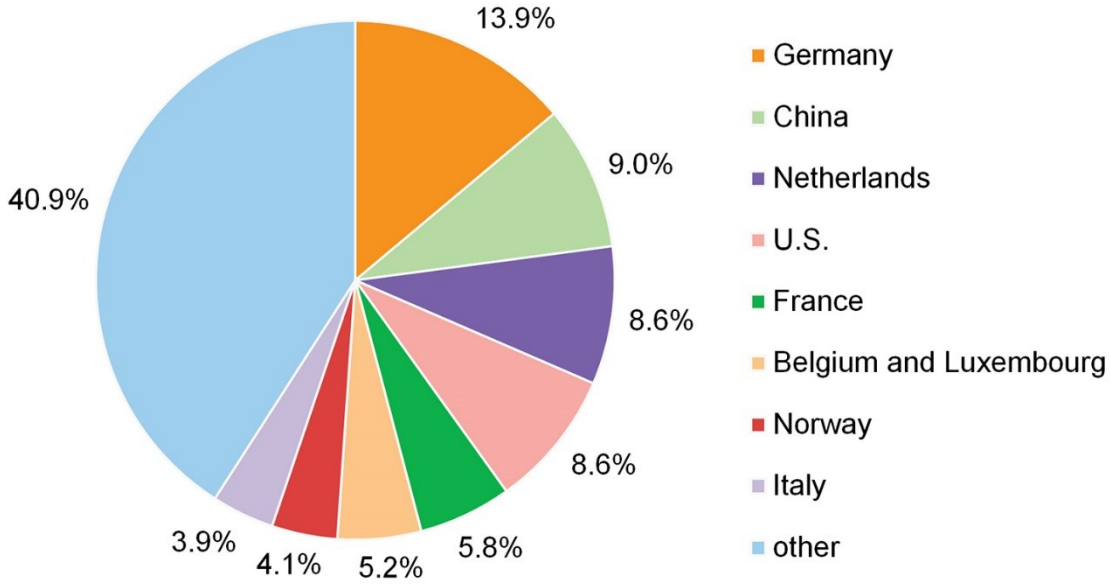


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*Preliminary.

No 17

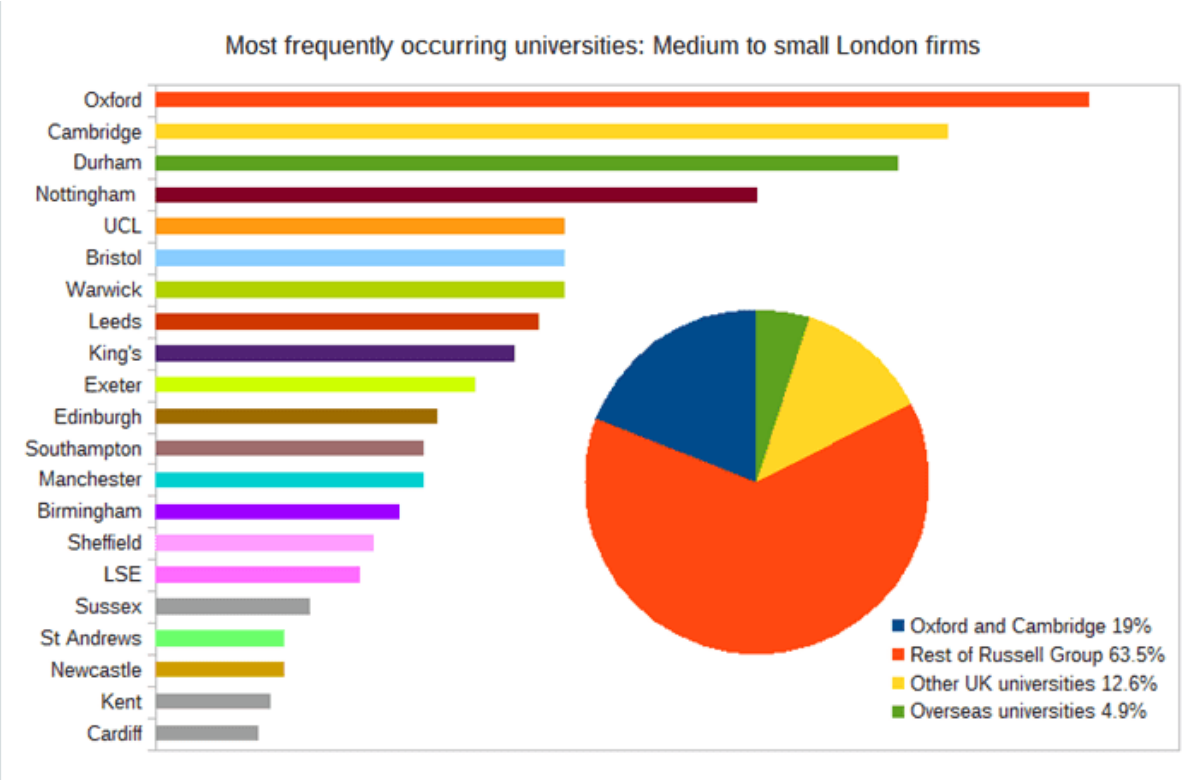
United Kingdom major import sources (2018)*



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*Preliminary.

No 18



No 19
University World Ranking (2021)

1	Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) Cambridge,United States	100
2	Stanford University Stanford,United States	98.4
3	Harvard University Cambridge,United States	97.9
4	California Institute of Technology (Caltech) Pasadena,United States	97
5	University of Oxford Oxford,United Kingdom	96.7
6	ETH Zurich - Swiss Federal Institute of Technology Zürich,Switzerland	95
7	University of Cambridge Cambridge,United Kingdom	94.3

No 20
Changing the Guard in London



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