

英国社会文化概览

British Culture and Society

主 编 杨传鸣

东北农业大学

主 编 杨传鸣

副主编 葛向宇 关维娜 李舰君

编 者 孙璐 吴迪 赵舟 罗佳 孙跃鹏

前言

2015年3月最新《大学英语教学指南（意见稿）》明确指出大学英语课程将划分为通用英语、专门用途英语和跨文化交际三大教学课程模块。《大学英语教学指南》特别强调，大学英语应该将语言的“工具性”和“人文性”有效统一进行课程发展。学生在掌握一门语言时，不只是语言知识点单纯的积累，同时也应加深学生对目的语国家文化基本情况的了解，从而透过文化更好地学习语言，以及在对外交流中更好地进行跨文化交际。

《英国社会文化概览》根据《大学英语课程教学要求》（以下简称《课程要求》）并以内容依托教学（CBI）理念为指导进行编写，主要针对非英语专业学生开设的一门英语文化课程的适用教材，将为非英语专业学生提供英国文化知识基础，形成科学而全面的跨文化交际课程体系。

本教材共10章内容。其中包括英国概况、历史、政治、外交、经济、文学、教育、新闻媒体、体育、旅游和节日习俗。

英国文化介绍（Cultural Training）部分详细地介绍了英国概况、历史、政治、外交、经济、文学、教育、新闻媒体、体育、旅游和节日习俗的文化知识内容。在文化讲解后设置了文化知识练习题，以检验和巩固学生对该章文化知识的掌握情况。

本书设置的练习题题型丰富，难度适中。包括选择题、判断题、填空题、猜词等，多角度考察学生对知识的掌握情况。题目由易至难，满足了不同英语水平学生的知识需求。

此外，每章文化讲解部分插入了与之内容相关的图片，生动形象，易于学生对章节内容的把握。

我们在编写《英国社会文化概览》这套教材的过程中，参考了众多国内外关于文化方面的教材和著作。在出版过程中，也得到了家人和朋友的理解和支持，在此表达衷心的感谢。

本教材由东北农业大学的杨传鸣老师主编，参与编写的有东北农业大学的葛向宇、关维娜、李舰君、孙璐、吴迪、赵舟、罗佳、孙跃鹏。由于编者水平有限，本书难免有不足之处，敬请读者指正。

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Unit1 General Introduction of UK

Cultural Training



Different Names for the UK

While many people use the terms United Kingdom, Great Britain, and England interchangeably, there is a difference between them — one is a country, the second is an island, and the third is a part of an island.

The United Kingdom

The United Kingdom is an independent country off the northwestern coast of Europe. It consists of the entire island of Great Britain and a northern part of the island of Ireland.

In fact, the official name of the country is the "United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland."

The capital city of the United Kingdom is London and the head of state is currently Queen Elizabeth II. The United Kingdom is one of the founding members of the United Nations and sits on the United Nations Security Council.

The creation of the United Kingdom heralds back to 1801 when there was a unification between the Kingdom of Great Britain and the Kingdom of Ireland, creating the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. In the 1920s, southern Ireland gained independence and the name of the modern country of the United Kingdom became the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Great Britain is the name of the island northwest of France and east of Ireland. Much of the United Kingdom consists of the island of Great Britain. On the large island of Great Britain there are three somewhat autonomous regions: England, Wales, and Scotland.

Great Britain

Great Britain is the ninth largest island on Earth and has an area of 80,823 square miles (209,331 square kilometers). England occupies the southeast portion of the island of Great Britain, Wales is in the southwest, and Scotland is in the north.

Scotland and Wales are not independent countries but do have some autonomy from the United Kingdom with respect to internal governance.

England

England is located in the southern part of the island of Great Britain, which is part of the country of the United Kingdom. The United Kingdom includes the **administrative** regions of England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. Each region varies in its level of autonomy, but they are all part of the United Kingdom.

While England has traditionally been thought of as the heart of the United Kingdom, some use the term "England" to refer to the entire country, but this is not correct.

Although common to hear or see London, England, though that is technically correct, it does imply that the independent country is named England, but that is not so.

Ireland

A final note on Ireland. The northern one-sixth of the island of Ireland is the administrative region of the United Kingdom known as Northern Ireland. The remaining southern five-sixths of the island of Ireland is the independent country known as the Republic of Ireland .

Using the Right Term

It is inappropriate to refer to the United Kingdom as Great Britain or England; one should be specific about toponyms (place names) and utilize the correct nomenclature. Remember, United Kingdom (or U.K.) is the country, Great Britain is the island, and England is one of the U.K.'s four administrative regions.

Since unification, the Union Jack flag has combined elements of England, Scotland, and

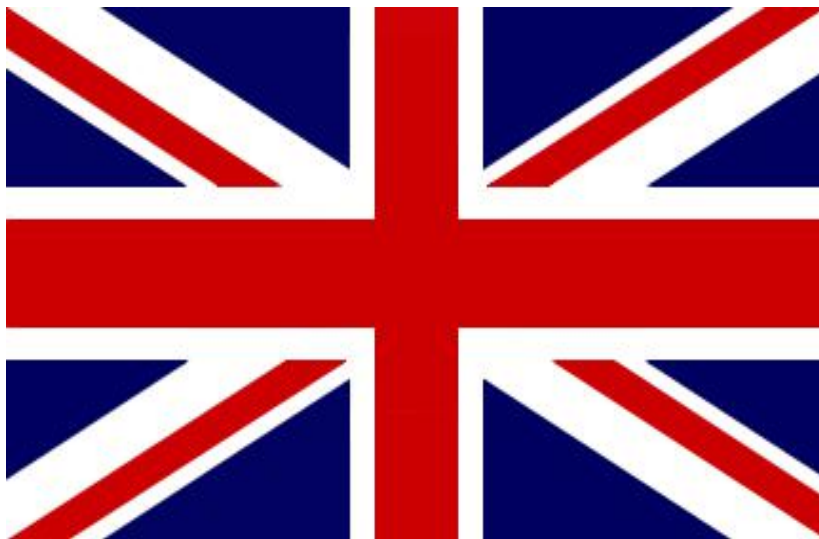
Ireland to represent the unification of constituent parts of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (although Wales is left out).

Administrative Divisions

The administrative geography of the United Kingdom is complex, multi-layered and non-uniform. The United Kingdom, a sovereign state to the northwest of continental Europe, consists of England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales. For local government in the United Kingdom, England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales each have their own system of administrative and geographic demarcation. Consequently, there is no common stratum of administrative unit encompassing the United Kingdom.

Because there is no written document that comprehensively encompasses the British constitution, and owing to a convoluted history of the formation of the United Kingdom, a variety of terms is used to refer to its constituent parts, which are sometimes called the four countries of the United Kingdom. The four are sometimes collectively referred to as the Home Nations, particularly in sporting contexts. Although the four countries are important for legal and governmental purposes, they are not comparable to administrative subdivisions of most other countries.

National Flag: the Union Flag / the Union Jack



The Union Jack Is a Combination of the Flags of England, Scotland, and Ireland

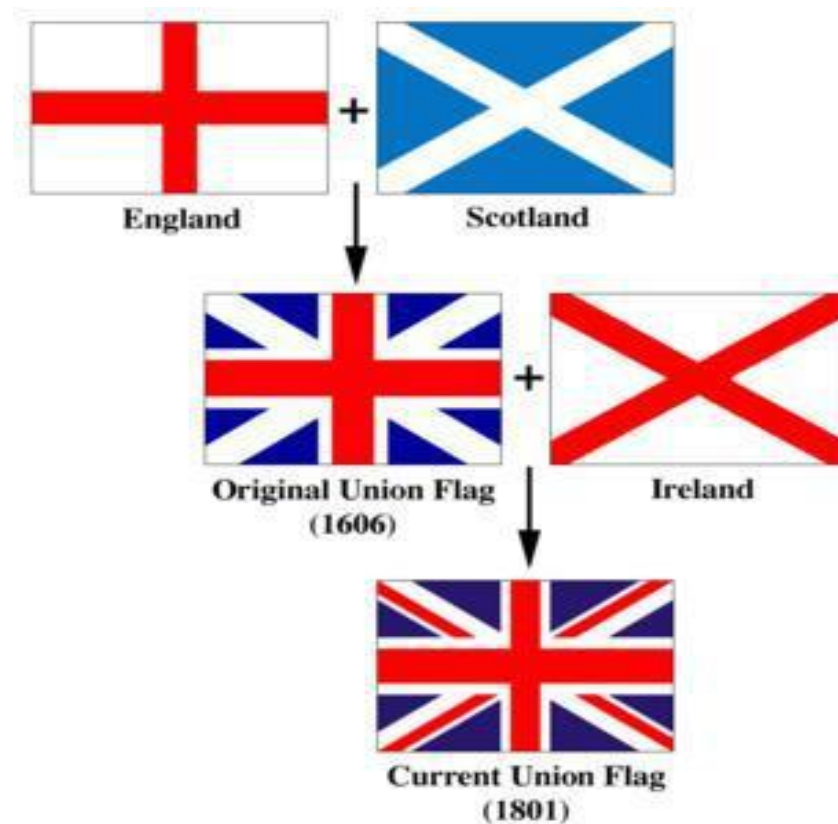
The Union Jack, or Union Flag, is the flag of the United Kingdom. The Union Jack has been in existence since 1606, when England and Scotland merged, but changed to its current form in 1801 when Ireland joined the United Kingdom.

Why the Three Crosses?

In 1606, when England and Scotland were both ruled by one monarch (James I), the first Union Jack flag was created by merging the English flag (the red cross of Saint George on a white background) with the Scottish flag (the diagonal white cross of Saint Andrew on a blue background).

Then, in 1801, the addition of Ireland to the United Kingdom added the Irish flag (the red Saint Patrick's cross) to the Union Jack.

The crosses on the flags relate to the patron saints of each entity — St. George is the patron saint of England, St. Andrew is the patron saint of Scotland, and St. Patrick is the patron saint of Ireland.



Why Is It Called the Union Jack?

While no one is quite certain where the term "Union Jack" originated, there are many theories. "Union" is thought to come from the union of the three flags into one. As for "Jack," one explanation states that for many centuries a "jack" referred to a small flag flown from a boat or ship and perhaps the Union Jack was used there first.

Others believe that "Jack" could come from the name of James I or from a soldier's "jack-et." There are plenty of theories, but, in truth, the answer is that no one knows for sure where "Jack" came from.

Also Called the Union Flag

The Union Jack, which is most properly called the Union Flag, is the official flag of the United Kingdom and has been in its current form since 1801.

The Union Jack on Other Flags

The Union Jack is also incorporated into the flags of four independent countries of the **British Commonwealth** — Australia, **Fiji**, **Tuvalu**, and New Zealand.



The Commonwealth

The Commonwealth of Nations, often called just the Commonwealth, is an association of 53 independent nations, all but one of which are former British colonies or related dependencies, aiming to promote peace, democracy and development. There are substantial economic ties and a shared history.

Origins of the Commonwealth

Towards the end of the nineteenth century changes began occurring in the old British Empire, as the colonies grew in independence.

In 1867 Canada became a “dominion”, a self-governing nation considered equal with Britain rather than simply ruled by her. The phrase “Commonwealth of Nations” was used to describe the new relationships between Britain and colonies by Lord Rosebury during a speech in Australia in 1884. More dominions followed: Australia in 1900, New Zealand in 1907, South Africa in 1910 and the Irish Free State in 1921.

In the aftermath of the First World War, the dominions sought a new definition of the relationship between themselves and Britain. At first the old “Conferences of Dominions” and “Imperial Conferences”, begun in 1887 for discussion between the leaders of Britain and the dominions, were resurrected.

Then, at the 1926 Conference, the Balfour Report was discussed, accepted and the following agreed of dominions:

“They are autonomous Communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations.”

This declaration was made law by the 1931 Statute of Westminster and the British Commonwealth of Nations was created.

Development of the Commonwealth of Nations

The Commonwealth evolved in 1949 after the dependence of India, which was partitioned into two wholly independent nations: Pakistan and India. The latter wished to remain in the Commonwealth despite owing no “allegiance to the Crown”. The problem was solved by a conference of Commonwealth ministers that same year, which concluded that sovereign nations could still be a part of the Commonwealth with no implied allegiance to Britain as long as they saw the Crown as “the symbol of the free association” of the Commonwealth.

The name “British” was also dropped from the title to better reflect the new arrangement. Many other colonies soon developed into their own republics, joining the Commonwealth as they did so, especially during the second half of the twentieth century as African and Asian nations became independent. New ground was broken in 1995, when Mozambique joined, despite never having been a British colony.

Not every former British colony joined the Commonwealth, nor did every nation who joined stay in it. For instance Ireland withdrew in 1949, as did South Africa (under Commonwealth pressure to curb apartheid) and Pakistan (in 1961 and 1972 respectively) although they later rejoined. Zimbabwe left in 2003, again under political pressure to reform.

The Setting of Objectives

The Commonwealth has a secretariat to oversee its business, but no formal constitution or international laws. It does, however, have an ethical and moral code, first expressed in the "Singapore Declaration of Commonwealth Principles", issued in 1971, by which members agree to operate, including aims of peace, democracy, liberty, equality and an end to racism and poverty. This was refined and expanded in the Harare Declaration of 1991 which is often considered to have "set the Commonwealth on a new course: that of promoting democracy and good governance, human rights and the rule of law, gender equality and sustainable economic and social development." An action plan has since been produced to actively follow these declarations. Failure to adhere to these aims can, and has, resulted in a member being suspended, such as Pakistan from 1999 to 2004 and Fiji in 2006 after military coups.

Alternative Aims

Some early British supporters of the Commonwealth hoped for different results: that Britain would grow in political power by influencing the members, regaining the global position it had lost, that economic ties would strengthen the British economy and that the Commonwealth would promote British interests in world affairs. In reality, member states have proved reluctant to compromise their new found voice, instead working out how the Commonwealth could benefit them all.

Commonwealth Games

Perhaps the best known aspect of the Commonwealth is the Games, a sort of mini Olympics held every four years which only accepts entrants from Commonwealth countries. It has been derided, but is often recognised as a solid way to prepare young talent for international competition.

National Anthem: God Save the Queen / King

"God Save the Queen" (or "God Save the King") is the national and/or royal anthem in a number of Commonwealth realms, their territories, and the British Crown Dependencies. The words and title are adapted to the gender of the current monarch, i.e. replacing Queen with King and she with he when a king reigns. The author of the tune is unknown and it may originate in plainchant, but a 1619 attribution to John Bull is sometimes made.

It is the national anthem of the United Kingdom and one of two national anthems used by New Zealand since 1977, as well as for several of the UK's territories that have their own additional local anthem. It is also the royal anthem of all the aforementioned countries, as well as Australia (since 1984), Canada (since 1980), Barbados and Tuvalu. In countries not previously part of the British Empire, the tune of "God Save the Queen" has provided the basis for various patriotic songs, though still generally connected with royal ceremony. In the United States, the melody is used for the patriotic song "My Country, 'Tis of Thee".

The Lyrics of God Save the Queen:

God save our gracious Queen,
Long live our noble Queen,
God save the Queen:

Send her victorious,
Happy and glorious,
God save the Queen.
O Lord, our God, arise,
Scatter thine (her) enemies,
And make them fall:
Confound their politics,
Frustrate their knavish tricks,
On thee our hopes we fix:
Long to reign over us:
God save us all.
Thy choicest gifts in store
On her be pleased to pour
Long may she reign
May she defend our laws
And give us ever cause
To sing with heart and voice
God save the Queen

Geography



The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, commonly known as the United Kingdom (UK) or Britain, is a sovereign state in the European Union. Lying off the north-western coast of the European mainland, it comprises the island of Great Britain (England, Scotland and Wales) and the northeastern one-sixth of the island of Ireland (Northern Ireland), together with no less than 25 smaller islands. Northern Ireland is the only part of the UK that shares a land border with another state—the Republic of Ireland. Apart from this land border, the UK is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean, with the North Sea to its east, the English Channel to its south and the Celtic Sea to its south-southwest. The Irish Sea lies between Great Britain and Ireland. With an area of 93,800 square miles (243,000 km²), the UK is the 80th-largest sovereign state in the world and the 11th-largest in Europe. It is also the 21st-most populous country, with an estimated 64.5 million inhabitants.

The total area of the United Kingdom is approximately 243,610 square kilometres (94,060 sq mi). The country occupies the major part of the British Isles archipelago and includes the island of Great Britain, the northeastern one-sixth of the island of Ireland and some smaller surrounding islands. It lies between the North Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea with the south-east coast coming within 22 miles (35 km) of the coast of northern France, from which it is separated by the English Channel. In 1993 10% of the UK was forested, 46% used for pastures and 25% cultivated for agriculture. The Royal Greenwich Observatory in London is the defining

point of the Prime Meridian.

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

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

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

Wales accounts for less than a tenth of the total area of the UK, covering 20,779 square kilometres (8,020 sq mi). Wales is mostly mountainous, though South Wales is less mountainous than North and mid Wales. The main population and industrial areas are in South Wales, consisting of the coastal cities of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport, and the South Wales Valleys to their north. The highest mountains in Wales are in Snowdonia and include Snowdon which, at 1,085 metres (3,560 ft), is the highest peak in Wales. The 14, or possibly 15, Welsh mountains over 3,000 feet (914 m) high are known collectively as the Welsh 3000s. Wales has over 2,704 kilometres (1,680 miles) of coastline. Several islands lie off the Welsh mainland, the largest of which is Anglesey in the northwest.

Northern Ireland, separated from Great Britain by the Irish Sea and North Channel, has an area of 14,160 square kilometres (5,470 sq mi) and is mostly hilly. It includes Lough Neagh which, at 388 square kilometres (150 sq mi), is the largest lake in the British Isles by area. The highest peak in Northern Ireland is Slieve Donard in the Mourne Mountains at 852 metres (2,795 ft).

Climate

The United Kingdom straddles the geographic mid-latitudes between 49 and 61 N. It is on the western seaboard of Afro-Eurasia, the world's largest land mass. These conditions allow convergence between moist maritime air and dry continental air. In this area, the large temperature variation creates atmospheric instability and this is a major factor that influences the often unsettled weather the country experiences, where many types of weather can be experienced in a

single day.

The climate in the United Kingdom is defined as a temperate oceanic climate, a classification it shares with most of northwest Europe. Regional climates are influenced by the Atlantic Ocean and latitude. Northern Ireland, Wales and western parts of England and Scotland, being closest to the Atlantic Ocean, are generally the mildest, wettest and windiest regions of the UK, and temperature ranges here are seldom extreme. Eastern areas are drier, cooler, less windy and also experience the greatest daily and seasonal temperature variations. Northern areas are generally cooler, wetter and have slightly larger temperature ranges than southern areas. Though the UK is mostly under the influence of the maritime tropical air mass from the south-west, different regions are more susceptible than others when different air masses affect the country: Northern Ireland and the west of Scotland are the most exposed to the maritime polar air mass which brings cool moist air; the east of Scotland and north-east England are more exposed to the continental polar air mass which brings cold dry air; the south and south-east of England are more exposed to the continental tropical air mass which brings warm dry air (and consequently most of the time the warmest summer temperatures); and Wales and the south-west of England are the most exposed to the maritime tropical air mass which brings warm moist air. If the air masses are strong enough in their respective areas during the summer there can sometimes be a large difference in temperature between the far north of Scotland (including the Islands) and south-east of England — often a difference of 10–15 °C (18-27 °F) but sometimes of as much as 20 °C (36 °F) or more. An example of this could be that in the height of summer the Northern Isles could have temperatures around 15 °C (59 °F) and areas around London could reach 30 °C (86 °F).

Capital



London is the capital and most populous city of England and the United Kingdom. Standing on the River Thames, London has been a major settlement for two millennia. It was founded by the Romans, who named it Londinium. London's ancient core, the City of London, largely retains its 1.12-square-mile (2.9 km²) medieval boundaries and in 2011 had a resident population of 7,375, making it the smallest city in England. Since at least the 19th century, the term London has also referred to the metropolis developed around this core. The bulk of this conurbation forms Greater London, a region of England governed by the Mayor of London and the London Assembly. The conurbation also covers two English counties: the small district of the City of London and the county of Greater London. The latter constitutes the vast majority of London.

London is a leading global city, with strengths in the arts, commerce, education, entertainment, fashion, finance, healthcare, media, professional services, research and development, tourism, and transport all contributing to its prominence. It is one of the world's

leading financial centres and has the fifth-or sixth-largest metropolitan area GDP in the world depending on measurement. London is a world cultural capital. It is the world's most-visited city as measured by international arrivals and has the world's largest city airport system measured by passenger traffic. London is the world's leading investment destination, hosting more international retailers and ultra high-net-worth individuals than any other city. London's 43 universities form the largest concentration of higher education institutes in Europe, and a 2014 report placed it first in the world university rankings. According to the report London also ranks first in the world in software, multimedia development and design, and shares first position in technology readiness. In 2012, London became the first city to host the modern Summer Olympic Games three times.

London has a diverse range of peoples and cultures, and more than 300 languages are spoken within Greater London. The Office for National Statistics estimated its mid-2014 population to be 8,538,689, the largest of any municipality in the European Union, and accounting for 12.5 percent of the UK population. London's urban area is the second most populous in the EU, after Paris, with 9,787,426 inhabitants according to the 2011 census. The city's metropolitan area is one of the most populous in Europe with 13,879,757 inhabitants, while the Greater London Authority states the population of the city-region (covering a large part of south east England) as 22.7 million. London was the world's most populous city from around 1831 to 1925.

London contains four World Heritage Sites: the Tower of London; Kew Gardens; the site comprising the Palace of Westminster, Westminster Abbey, and St. Margaret's Church; and the historic settlement of Greenwich (in which the Royal Observatory, Greenwich marks the Prime Meridian, 0° longitude, and GMT). Other famous landmarks include Buckingham Palace, the London Eye, Piccadilly Circus, St. Paul's Cathedral, Tower Bridge, Trafalgar Square, and The Shard. London is home to numerous museums, galleries, libraries, sporting events and other cultural institutions, including the British Museum, National Gallery, Tate Modern, British Library and 40 West End theatres. The London Underground is the oldest underground railway network in the world.

England

England is a country that is part of the United Kingdom. It shares land borders with Scotland to the north and Wales to the west. The Irish Sea lies northwest of England and the Celtic Sea lies to the southwest. England is separated from continental Europe by the North Sea to the east and the English Channel to the south. The country covers much of the central and southern part of the island of Great Britain, which lies in the North Atlantic; and includes over 100 smaller islands such as the Isles of Scilly, and the Isle of Wight.

The area now called England was first inhabited by modern humans during the Upper Palaeolithic period, but takes its name from the Angles, one of the Germanic tribes who settled during the 5th and 6th centuries. England became a unified state in the 10th century, and since the Age of Discovery, which began during the 15th century, has had a significant cultural and legal impact on the wider world. The English language, the Anglican Church, and English law — the basis for the common law legal systems of many other countries around the world — developed in England, and the country's parliamentary system of government has been widely adopted by other nations. The Industrial Revolution began in 18th-century England, transforming its society into the world's first industrialised nation.

England's terrain mostly comprises low hills and plains, especially in central and southern England. However, there are uplands in the north (for example, the mountainous Lake District, Pennines, and Yorkshire Dales) and in the south west (for example, Dartmoor and the Cotswolds). The capital of England is London, which is the largest metropolitan area in the United Kingdom and the European Union. England's population of over 53 million comprises 84% of the population of the United Kingdom, largely concentrated around London, the South East, and conurbations in the Midlands, the North West, the North East and Yorkshire, which each developed as major industrial regions during the 19th century.

Regions

The subdivisions of England consist of up to four levels of subnational division controlled through a variety of types of administrative entities created for the purposes of local government. The highest tier of local government were the nine regions of England: North East, North West, Yorkshire and the Humber, East Midlands, West Midlands, East, South East, South West, and London. These were created in 1994 as Government Offices, used by the British Government to deliver a wide range of policies and programmes regionally, but there are no elected bodies at this level, except in London, and in 2011 the regional Government offices were abolished. The same boundaries remain in use for electing Members of the European Parliament on a regional basis.

After devolution began to take place in other parts of the United Kingdom it was planned that referendums for the regions of England would take place for their own elected regional assemblies as a counterweight. London accepted in 1998: the London Assembly was created two years later. However, when the proposal was rejected by the northern England devolution referendums, 2004 in the North East, further referendums were cancelled. The regional assemblies outside London were abolished in 2010, and their functions transferred to respective Regional Development Agencies and a new system of local authority leaders' boards.

Below the regional level, all of England is divided into 48 ceremonial counties. These are used primarily as a geographical frame of reference and have developed gradually since the Middle Ages, with some established as recently as 1974. Each has a Lord Lieutenant and High Sheriff; these posts are used to represent the British monarch locally. Outside Greater London and the Isles of Scilly, England is also divided into 83 metropolitan and non-metropolitan counties; these correspond to areas used for the purposes of local government and may consist of a single district or be divided into several.

There are six metropolitan counties based on the most heavily urbanised areas, which do not have county councils. In these areas the principal authorities are the councils of the subdivisions, the metropolitan boroughs. Elsewhere, 27 non-metropolitan "shire" counties have a county council and are divided into districts, each with a district council. They are typically, though not always, found in more rural areas. The remaining non-metropolitan counties are of a single district and usually correspond to large towns or sparsely populated counties; they are known as unitary authorities. Greater London has a different system for local government, with 32 London boroughs, plus the City of London covering a small area at the core governed by the City of London Corporation. At the most localised level, much of England is divided into civil parishes with councils; they do not exist in Greater London.

Landscape and Rivers

Geographically England includes the central and southern two-thirds of the island of Great Britain, plus such offshore islands as the Isle of Wight and the Isles of Scilly. It is bordered by two other countries of the United Kingdom—to the north by Scotland and to the west by Wales. England is closer to the European continent than any other part of mainland Britain. It is separated from France by a 21-mile (34 km) sea gap, though the two countries are connected by the Channel Tunnel near Folkestone. England also has shores on the Irish Sea, North Sea and Atlantic Ocean.

The ports of London, Liverpool, and Newcastle lie on the tidal rivers Thames, Mersey and Tyne respectively. At 220 miles (350 km), the Severn is the longest river flowing through England. It empties into the Bristol Channel and is notable for its Severn Bore tidal waves, which can reach 2 metres (6.6 ft) in height. However, the longest river entirely in England is the Thames, which is 215 miles (346 km) in length. There are many lakes in England; the largest is Windermere, within the aptly named Lake District.

In geological terms, the Pennines, known as the "backbone of England", are the oldest range of mountains in the country, originating from the end of the Paleozoic Era around 300 million years ago. Their geological composition includes, among others, sandstone and limestone, and also coal. There are karst landscapes in calcite areas such as parts of Yorkshire and Derbyshire. The Pennine landscape is high moorland in upland areas, indented by fertile valleys of the region's rivers. They contain three national parks, the Yorkshire Dales, Northumberland, and the Peak District. The highest point in England, at 978 metres (3,209 ft), is Scafell Pike in Cumbria. Straddling the border between England and Scotland are the Cheviot Hills.

The English Lowlands are to the south of the Pennines, consisting of green rolling hills, including the Cotswold Hills, Chiltern Hills, North and South Downs—where they meet the sea they form white rock exposures such as the cliffs of Dover. The granite Southwest Peninsula in the West Country includes upland moorland, such as Dartmoor and Exmoor, and enjoys a mild climate; both are national parks.

Climate

England has a temperate maritime climate: it is mild with temperatures not much lower than 0 °C (32 °F) in winter and not much higher than 32 °C (90 °F) in summer. The weather is damp relatively frequently and is changeable. The coldest months are January and February, the latter particularly on the English coast, while July is normally the warmest month. Months with mild to warm weather are May, June, September and October. Rainfall is spread fairly evenly throughout the year.

Important influences on the climate of England are its proximity to the Atlantic Ocean, its northern latitude and the warming of the sea by the Gulf Stream. Rainfall is higher in the west, and parts of the Lake District receive more rain than anywhere else in the country. Since weather records began, the highest temperature recorded was 38.5 °C (101.3 °F) on 10 August 2003, while the lowest was −26.1 °C (−15.0 °F) on 10 January 1982.

Major Conurbations

The Greater London Urban Area is by far the largest urban area in England and one of the busiest cities in the world. It is considered a global city and has a population larger than other countries in the United Kingdom besides England itself. Other urban areas of considerable size and influence tend to be in northern England or the English Midlands. There are fifty

settlements which have been designated city status in England, while the wider United Kingdom has sixty-six. While many cities in England are quite large in size, such as Birmingham, Sheffield, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Newcastle, Bradford, Nottingham and others, a large population is not necessarily a prerequisite for a settlement to be afforded city status.

Population

With over 53 million inhabitants, England is by far the most populous country of the United Kingdom, accounting for 84% of the combined total. England taken as a unit and measured against international states has the fourth largest population in the European Union and would be the 25th largest country by population in the world. With a density of 407 people per square kilometre, it would be the second most densely populated country in the European Union after Malta.

The English people are a British people. Some genetic evidence suggests that 75–95% descend in the paternal line from prehistoric settlers who originally came from the Iberian Peninsula, as well as a 5% contribution from Angles and Saxons, and a significant Scandinavian (Viking) element. However, other geneticists place the Germanic estimate up to half. Over time, various cultures have been influential: Prehistoric, Brythonic, Roman, Anglo-Saxon, Viking, Gaelic cultures, as well as a large influence from Normans. There is an English diaspora in former parts of the British Empire; especially the United States, Canada, Australia, South Africa and New Zealand. Since the late 1990s, many English people have migrated to Spain.

In 1086, when the Domesday Book was compiled, England had a population of two million. About ten per cent lived in urban areas. By 1801 the population had grown to 8.3 million, and by 1901 had grown to 30.5 million. Due in particular to the economic prosperity of South East England, it has received many economic migrants from the other parts of the United Kingdom. There has been significant Irish migration. The proportion of ethnically European residents totals at 87.50%, including Germans and Poles.

Other people from much further afield in the former British colonies have arrived since the 1950s: in particular, 6% of people living in England have family origins in the Indian subcontinent, mostly India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. 2.90% of the population are black, from both the Caribbean and countries in Africa itself, especially former British colonies. There is a significant number of Chinese and British Chinese. In 2007, 22% of primary school children in England were from ethnic minority families, and in 2011 that figure was 26.5%. About half of the population increase between 1991 and 2001 was due to immigration. Debate over immigration is politically prominent; according to a 2009 Home Office poll, 80% of people want to cap it. It is projected that the population will grow by six million between 2004 and 2029.

Language

As its name suggests, the English language, today spoken by hundreds of millions of people around the world, originated as the language of England, where it remains the principal tongue spoken by 98% of the population. After the Norman conquest, the Old English language was displaced and confined to the lower social classes as Norman French and Latin were used by the aristocracy.

By the 15th century, English was back in fashion among all classes, though much changed;

the Middle English form showed many signs of French influence, both in vocabulary and spelling. During the English Renaissance, many words were coined from Latin and Greek origins. Modern English has extended this custom of flexibility, when it comes to incorporating words from different languages. Thanks in large part to the British Empire, the English language is the world's unofficial lingua franca.

English language learning and teaching is an important economic activity, and includes language schooling, tourism spending, and publishing. There is no legislation mandating an official language for England, but English is the only language used for official business. Despite the country's relatively small size, there are many distinct regional accents, and individuals with particularly strong accents may not be easily understood everywhere in the country.

National symbols

The St. George's Cross has been the national flag of England since the 13th century. There are numerous other symbols and symbolic artefacts, both official and unofficial, including the Tudor rose, the nation's floral emblem, and the Three Lions featured on the Royal Arms of England. The Tudor rose was adopted as a national emblem of England around the time of the Wars of the Roses as a symbol of peace.

Scotland

Scotland is a country that is part of the United Kingdom and covers the northern third of the island of Great Britain. It shares a border with England to the south, and is otherwise surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean, with the North Sea to the east and the North Channel and Irish Sea to the south-west. In addition to the mainland, the country is made up of more than 790 islands, including the Northern Isles and the Hebrides.

Edinburgh, the country's capital and second-largest city, was the hub of the Scottish Enlightenment of the 18th century, which transformed Scotland into one of the commercial, intellectual, and industrial powerhouses of Europe. Glasgow, Scotland's largest city, was once one of the world's leading industrial cities and now lies at the centre of the Greater Glasgow conurbation. Scottish waters consist of a large sector of the North Atlantic and the North Sea, containing the largest oil reserves in the European Union. This has given Aberdeen, the third-largest city in Scotland, the title of Europe's oil capital.

Scotland's legal system has remained separate from those of England and Wales and Northern Ireland, and Scotland constitutes a distinct jurisdiction in public and private law. The continued existence of legal, educational and religious institutions distinct from those in the remainder of the UK have all contributed to the continuation of Scottish culture and national identity since the 1707 union. Following a referendum in 1997, a Scottish Parliament was re-established, this time as a devolved legislature with authority over many areas of home affairs. The Scottish National Party, which supports Scottish independence, won an overall majority in the 2011 general election. An independence referendum held on 18 September 2014 rejected independence by a majority of 55% to 45% on an 85% voter turnout.

Administrative subdivisions

Modern Scotland is subdivided in various ways depending on the purpose. In local government, there have been 32 single-tier council areas since 1996, whose councils are responsible for the provision of all local government services. Community councils are informal

organisations that represent specific sub-divisions of a council area.

In the Scottish Parliament, there are 73 constituencies and eight regions. For the Parliament of the United Kingdom, there are 59 constituencies. Until 2013 the Scottish fire brigades and police forces were based on a system of regions introduced in 1975. For healthcare and postal districts, and a number of other governmental and non-governmental organisations such as the churches, there are other long-standing methods of subdividing Scotland for the purposes of administration.

Geography

The mainland of Scotland comprises the northern third of the land mass of the island of Great Britain, which lies off the north-west coast of Continental Europe. The total area is 78,772 km² (30,414 sq mi), comparable to the size of the Czech Republic. Scotland's only land border is with England, and runs for 96 kilometres (60 mi) between the basin of the River Tweed on the east coast and the Solway Firth in the west. The Atlantic Ocean borders the west coast and the North Sea is to the east. The island of Ireland lies only 30 kilometres (19 mi) from the south-western peninsula of Kintyre; Norway is 305 kilometres (190 mi) to the east and the Faroes, 270 kilometres (168 mi) to the north.

Rising to 1,344 metres (4,409 ft) above sea level, Scotland's highest point is the summit of Ben Nevis, while Scotland's longest river, the River Tay, flows for a distance of 190 kilometres (118 mi).

Climate

The climate of Scotland is temperate and oceanic, and tends to be very changeable. As it is warmed by the Gulf Stream from the Atlantic, it has much milder winters (but cooler, wetter summers) than areas on similar latitudes, such as Labrador, southern Scandinavia, the Moscow region in Russia, and the Kamchatka Peninsula on the opposite side of Eurasia. However, temperatures are generally lower than in the rest of the UK, with the coldest ever UK temperature of −27.2 °C (−17.0 °F) recorded in the Grampian Mountains, on 11 February 1895. Winter maxima average 6 °C (42.8 °F) in the Lowlands, with summer maxima averaging 18 °C (64.4 °F). The highest temperature recorded was 32.9 °C (91.2 °F) on 9 August 2003. The west of Scotland is usually warmer than the east, owing to the influence of Atlantic ocean currents and the colder surface temperatures of the North Sea. Tiree, in the Inner Hebrides, is one of the sunniest places in the country: it had more than 300 hours of sunshine in May 1975. Rainfall varies widely across Scotland. The western highlands of Scotland are the wettest, with annual rainfall in a few places exceeding 3,000 mm (118.1 in). In comparison, much of lowland Scotland receives less than 800 mm (31.5 in) annually. Heavy snowfall is not common in the lowlands, but becomes more common with altitude. Braemar has an average of 59 snow days per year, while many coastal areas average fewer than 10 days of lying snow per year.

Demography

The population of Scotland at the 2001 Census was 5,062,011. This rose to 5,295,400, the highest ever, at the 2011 Census. In the 2011 Census, 62% of Scotland's population stated their national identity as “Scottish only”, 18% as “Scottish and British”, 8% as “British only”, and 4% chose other national identities. Although Edinburgh is the capital of Scotland, the largest city is Glasgow,

which has just over 584,000 inhabitants. The Greater Glasgow conurbation, with a population of almost 1.2 million, is home to nearly a quarter of Scotland's population. The Central Belt is where most of the main towns and cities are located, including Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dundee and Perth. Scotland's only major city outside the Central Belt is Aberdeen.

In general, only the more accessible and larger islands remain inhabited. Currently, fewer than 90 remain inhabited. The Southern Uplands are essentially rural in nature and dominated by agriculture and forestry. Because of housing problems in Glasgow and Edinburgh, five new towns were created between 1947 and 1966.

Immigration since World War II has given Glasgow, Edinburgh and Dundee small South Asian communities. In 2011, there were an estimated 49,000 ethnically Pakistani people living in Scotland, making them the largest non-White ethnic group. Since the Enlargement of the European Union more people from Central and Eastern Europe have moved to Scotland, and the 2011 census indicated that 61,000 Poles live there.

There are many more people with Scottish ancestry living abroad than the total population of Scotland. In the 2000 Census, 9.2 million Americans self-reported some degree of Scottish descent. In August 2012, the Scottish population reached an all-time high of 5.25 million people. The reasons given were that, in Scotland, births were outnumbering the number of deaths, and immigrants were moving to Scotland from overseas. In 2011, 43,700 people moved from Wales, Northern Ireland or England to live in Scotland.

Language

Scotland has three officially recognised languages: English, **Scots**, and **Scottish Gaelic**. Scottish Standard English, a variety of English as spoken in Scotland, may have been influenced to varying degrees by Scots. The 2011 census indicated that 63% of the population had "no skills in Scots". Others speak Highland English. Gaelic is mostly spoken in the Western Isles, where a large proportion of people still speak it; however, nationally its use is confined to just 1% of the population. The number of Gaelic speakers in Scotland dropped from 250,000 in 1881 to 60,000 in 2008.

Culture

Scottish music is a significant aspect of the nation's culture, with both traditional and modern influences. A famous traditional Scottish instrument is the Great Highland Bagpipe, a wind instrument consisting of three drones and a melody pipe (called the chanter), which are fed continuously by a reservoir of air in a bag. Bagpipe bands, featuring bagpipes and various types of drums, and showcasing Scottish music styles while creating new ones, have spread throughout the world.

The dresses that Scottish men wear are called kilts. A kilt is a knee-length non-bifurcated skirt-type garment with pleats at the rear, originating in the traditional dress of men and boys in the Scottish Highlands of the 16th century. Since the 19th century, it has become associated with the wider culture of Scotland in general, or with Celtic (and more specifically Gaelic) heritage even more broadly. It is most often made of woollen cloth in a tartan pattern. Although the kilt is most often worn on formal occasions and at Highland games and sports events, it has also been adapted as an item of informal male clothing in recent years, returning to its roots as an everyday garment. Today most Scottish people regard kilts

as formal dress or national dress. Although there are still a few people who wear a kilt daily, it is generally owned or hired to be worn at weddings or other formal occasions and may be worn by anyone regardless of nationality or descent.

National symbols

Use of a blue background for the Saint Andrew's Cross is said to date from at least the 15th century. Since 1606 the saltire has also formed part of the design of the Union Flag. There are numerous other symbols and symbolic artefacts, both official and unofficial, including the thistle, the nation's floral emblem (celebrated in the song, *The Thistle o' Scotland*)

Wales

Wales is a country that is part of the United Kingdom and the island of Great Britain, bordered by England to its east, the Irish Sea to its north and west, and the Bristol Channel to its south. It had a population in 2011 of 3,063,456 and has a total area of 20,779 km² (8,023 sq mi). Wales has over 1,680 miles (2,700 km) of coastline and is largely mountainous, with its higher peaks in the north and central areas, including Snowdon, its highest summit. The country lies within the north temperate zone and has a changeable, maritime climate.

Welsh national identity emerged among the Celtic Britons after the Roman withdrawal from Britain in the 5th century, and Wales is regarded as one of the modern Celtic nations. At the dawn of the Industrial Revolution, development of the mining and metallurgical industries transformed the country from an agricultural society into an industrial nation; the South Wales Coalfield's exploitation caused a rapid expansion of Wales' population. Two-thirds of the population live in south Wales, mainly in and around Cardiff (the capital), Swansea and Newport, and in the nearby valleys. Now that the country's traditional extractive and heavy industries have gone or are in decline, Wales' economy depends on the public sector, light and service industries and tourism. Wales' 2010 gross value added (GVA) was £45.5 billion (£15,145 per head, 74.0% of the average for the UK, and the lowest GVA per head in Britain).

Although Wales closely shares its political and social history with the rest of Great Britain, and the vast majority of the population speaks English, the country has retained a distinct cultural identity and is officially bilingual. Over 560,000 Welsh language speakers live in Wales, and the language is spoken by a majority of the population in parts of the north and west. From the late 19th century onwards, Wales acquired its popular image as the "land of song", in part due to the eisteddfod tradition. At many international sporting events, such as the FIFA World Cup, Rugby World Cup and the Commonwealth Games, Wales has its own national teams, though at the Olympic Games, Welsh athletes compete as part of a Great Britain team. Rugby union is seen as a symbol of Welsh identity and an expression of national consciousness.

For the purposes of local government, Wales has been divided into 22 council areas since 1996. These "principal areas" are responsible for the provision of all local government services, including education, social work, environment and roads services.

Geography

Wales is a generally mountainous country on the western side of central southern Great Britain. It is about 170 miles (270 km) north–south and 60 miles (97 km) east–west. The size of Wales is about 20,779 km² (8,023 sq mi). Wales is bordered by England to the east and by sea in

all other directions: the Irish Sea to the north and west, St. George's Channel and the Celtic Sea to the southwest and the Bristol Channel to the south. Wales has about 1,680 miles (2,700 km) of coastline (along the mean high water mark), including the mainland, Anglesey and Holyhead. Over 50 islands lie off the Welsh mainland; the largest being Anglesey, in the north-west.

Much of Wales' diverse landscape is mountainous, particularly in the north and central regions. The mountains were shaped during the last ice age, the Devensian glaciation. The highest mountains in Wales are in Snowdonia, of which five are over 1,000 m (3,300 ft). The highest of these is Snowdon, at 1,085 m (3,560 ft). The 14 Welsh mountains, or 15 if including Garnedd Uchaf – often discounted because of its low topographic prominence – over 3,000 feet (910 metres) high are known collectively as the Welsh 3000s and are located in a small area in the north-west.

The highest outside the 3000s is Aran Fawddwy, at 905 metres (2,969 feet), in the south of Snowdonia. The Brecon Beacons are in the south (highest point Pen y Fan, at 886 metres (2,907 feet)), and are joined by the Cambrian Mountains in Mid Wales. The highest point being Pumlumon at 752 metres (2,467 feet).

Wales has three national parks: Snowdonia, Brecon Beacons and Pembrokeshire Coast. The Gower Peninsula was the first area in the United Kingdom to be designated as an Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty, in 1956. Forty two percent of the coastline of South and West Wales is designated as Heritage Coast, with 13 specific designated strips of coastline maintained by Natural Resources Wales (successor body to the Countryside Council for Wales). As from 2012 the coastline of Wales has 43 Blue Flag beaches and five Blue Flag marinas. Despite its heritage and award winning beaches; the south and west coasts of Wales, along with the Irish and Cornish coasts, are frequently blasted by Atlantic westerlies/south westerlies that, over the years, have sunk and wrecked many vessels. On the night of 25 October 1859, over 110 ships were destroyed off the coast of Wales when a hurricane blew in from the Atlantic. More than 800 lives were lost across Britain because of the storm, but the greatest tragedy was the sinking of the Royal Charter off the coast of Anglesey in which 459 people died. The number of shipwrecks around the coast of Wales reached a peak in the 19th century with over 100 vessels lost and an average loss of life of about 78 sailors per year. Wartime action caused losses near Holyhead, Milford Haven and Swansea. Because of offshore rocks and unlit islands, Anglesey and Pembrokeshire are still notorious for shipwrecks, most notably the Sea Empress oil spill in 1996.

Climate

Wales lies within the north temperate zone. It has a changeable, maritime climate and is one of the wettest countries in Europe. Welsh weather is often cloudy, wet and windy, with warm summers and mild winters. The long summer days and short winter days result from Wales' northerly latitudes (between 53° 43' N and 51° 38' N). Aberystwyth, at the midpoint of the country's west coast, has nearly 17 hours of daylight at the summer solstice. Daylight at midwinter there falls to just over seven and a half hours. The country's wide geographic variations cause localised differences in sunshine, rainfall and temperature. Average annual coastal temperatures reach 10.5 °C (51 °F) and in low lying inland areas, 1 °C (1.8 °F) lower. It becomes cooler at higher altitudes; annual temperatures decrease on average approximately 0.5 °C (0.9 °F) each 100 metres (330 feet) of altitude. Consequently, the higher parts of Snowdonia experience average annual temperatures of 5 °C (41 °F). Temperatures in Wales remain higher than would otherwise

be expected at its latitude because of the North Atlantic Drift, a branch of the Gulf Stream. The ocean current, bringing warmer water to northerly latitudes, has a similar effect on most of north-west Europe. As well as its influence on Wales' coastal areas, air warmed by the Gulf Stream blows further inland with the prevailing winds.

At low elevations, summers tend to be warm and sunny. Average maximum temperatures range between 19 and 22 °C (66 and 72 °F). Winters tend to be fairly wet, but rainfall is rarely excessive and the temperature usually stays above freezing. Spring and autumn feel quite similar and the temperatures tend to stay above 14 °C (57 °F) — also the average annual daytime temperature.

The sunniest time of year tends to be between May and August. The south-western coast is the sunniest part of Wales, averaging over 1700 hours of sunshine annually. Wales' sunniest town is Tenby, Pembrokeshire. The duller time of year tends to be between November and January. The least sunny areas are the mountains, some parts of which average less than 1200 hours of sunshine annually. The prevailing wind is south-westerly. Coastal areas are the windiest, gales occur most often during winter, on average between 15 and 30 days each year, depending on location. Inland, gales average fewer than six days annually.

Rainfall patterns show significant variation. The further west, the higher the expected rainfall; up to 40% more. At low elevations, rain is unpredictable at any time of year, although the showers tend to be shorter in summer. The uplands of Wales have most rain, normally more than 50 days of rain during the winter months (December to February), falling to around 35 rainy days during the summer months (June to August). Annual rainfall in Snowdonia averages between 3,000 millimetres (120 in) and 5,000 millimetres (200 in) (Snowdon's summit). The likelihood is that it will fall as sleet or snow when the temperature falls below 5 °C (41 °F), and snow tends to be lying on the ground there for an average of 30 days a year. Snow falls several times each winter in inland areas, but is relatively uncommon around the coast. Average annual rainfall in those areas can be less than 1,000 millimetres (39 in). Met Office statistics show Swansea to be the wettest city in Great Britain, with an average annual rainfall of 1,360.8 millimetres (53.57 in). This has led to the old adage "If you can see Mumbles Head it is going to rain— if you can't, it is raining". Cardiff is Great Britain's fifth wettest city, with 908 millimetres (35.7 in). Rhyl is Wales' driest town, its average annual rainfall 640 millimetres (25 in).

Demography

The 2011 census showed Wales' population to be 3,063,456, the highest in its history. In 2011, 27% (837,000) of the total population of Wales were not born in Wales, including 636,000 people (21% of the total population of Wales) who were born in England. The main population and industrial areas are in South Wales, including the cities of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport and the nearby Valleys, with another significant population in the north-east around Wrexham and Flintshire.

According to the 2001 census, 96% of the population was White British, and 2.1% non-white (mainly of British Asian origin). Most non-white groups were concentrated in Cardiff, Newport and Swansea. Welsh Asian and African communities developed mainly through immigration after the Second World War. In the early 21st century, parts of Wales saw an increased number of immigrants settle from recent EU accession countries such as Poland; though a 2007 study showed a relatively low number of employed immigrant workers from the former Eastern Bloc countries

in Wales compared to other regions of the United Kingdom.

The 2001 UK census was criticised in Wales for not offering “Welsh” as an option to describe respondents' national identity. Partly to address this concern, the 2011 census asked the question "How would you describe your national identity?" Respondents were instructed to "tick all that apply" from a list of options that included Welsh. The outcome was that 57.5% of Wales' population indicated their sole national identity to be Welsh; a further 7.1% indicated it to be both Welsh and British. No Welsh national identity was indicated by 34.1%. The proportion giving their sole national identity as British was 16.9%, and another 9.4% included British with another national identity. No British national identity was indicated by 73.7%. 11.2% indicated their sole national identity as English and another 2.6% included English with another national identity.

The 2011 census showed Wales to be less ethnically diverse than any region of England. Of the Wales population, 93.2% classed themselves as White British (including Welsh, English, Scottish or Northern Irish), with 2.4% as "Other White" (including Irish), 2.2% as Asian (including Asian British), 1% as Mixed, and 0.6% as Black (African, Caribbean, or Black British). The lowest proportion of White British (80.3%) was in Cardiff.

In 2001, a quarter of the Welsh population were born outside Wales, mainly in England; about 3% were born outside the UK. The proportion of people who were born in Wales differs across the country, with the highest percentages in the South Wales Valleys and the lowest in Mid Wales and parts of the north-east. In both Blaenau Gwent and Merthyr Tydfil, 92% were Welsh-born, compared to only 51% and 56% in the border counties of Flintshire and Powys. Just over 1.75 million Americans report themselves to have Welsh ancestry, as did 440,965 Canadians in Canada's 2006 census.

The total fertility rate (TFR) in Wales was 1.90 in 2011, which is below the replacement rate of 2.1. The majority of births are to unmarried women (58% of births in 2011 were outside of marriage). About one in 10 births (10.7 percent) in 2011 were to foreign-born mothers, compared to 5.2% in 2001.

A 2010 study estimated that 35% of the Welsh population have surnames of Welsh origin (5.4% of the English and 1.6% of the Scottish population also bore “Welsh” names). However, many modern surnames derived from old Welsh personal names actually arose in England.

Language

The Bible translations into Welsh helped to maintain the use of Welsh in daily life. The New Testament was translated by William Salesbury in 1567 followed by the complete Bible by William Morgan in 1588.

The Welsh Language Act 1993 and the Government of Wales Act 1998 provide that the English and Welsh languages be treated on a basis of equality. English is spoken by almost all people in Wales and is the main language. Code-switching is common in all parts of Wales and is known by various terms, though none is recognised by professional linguists. "Wenglish" is the Welsh English language dialect. It has been influenced significantly by Welsh grammar and includes words derived from Welsh. According to John Davies, Wenglish has "been the object of far greater prejudice than anything suffered by Welsh". Northern and western Wales retain many areas where Welsh is spoken as a first language by the majority of the population, and English learnt as a second language. The 2011 Census showed 562,016 people, 19.0% of the Welsh

population, were able to speak Welsh, a decrease from the 20.8% returned in the 2001 census.

Road signs in Wales are generally in both English and Welsh; where place names differ in the two languages, both versions are used (e.g. "Cardiff" and "Caerdydd"), the decision as to which is placed first being that of the local authority. During the 20th century, a number of small communities of speakers of languages other than Welsh or English, such as Bengali or Cantonese, established themselves in Wales as a result of immigration.

National symbols

The Flag of Wales incorporates the red dragon of Prince Cadwalader along with the Tudor colours of green and white. It was used by Henry VII at the Battle of Bosworth in 1485 after which it was carried in state to St. Paul's Cathedral. The red dragon was then included in the Tudor royal arms to signify their Welsh descent. It was officially recognised as the Welsh national flag in 1959. The British Union Flag incorporates the flags of Scotland, Ireland and England, but has no Welsh representation. Technically Wales is represented by the flag of England, as the Laws in Wales Act of 1535 annexed Wales to England, following the 13th-century conquest. The daffodil and the leek are also symbols of Wales. The origins of the leek can be traced to the 16th century, while the daffodil became popular in the 19th century.

Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland is a constituent unit of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland in the northeast of the island of Ireland. It is variously described as a country, province, region, or "part" of the United Kingdom, amongst other terms. Northern Ireland shares a border to the south and west with the Republic of Ireland. In 2011, its population was 1,810,863, constituting about 30% of the island's total population and about 3% of the UK's population. Established by the Northern Ireland Act 1998 as part of the Good Friday Agreement, the Northern Ireland Assembly holds responsibility for a range of devolved policy matters, while other areas are reserved for the British government. Northern Ireland co-operates with the Republic of Ireland in some areas, and the Agreement granted the Republic the ability to "put forward views and proposals" with "determined efforts to resolve disagreements between the two governments".

Northern Ireland was created in 1921, when Ireland was partitioned between Northern Ireland and Southern Ireland by an act of the British parliament. Unlike Southern Ireland, which would become the Irish Free State in 1922, the majority of Northern Ireland's population were unionists, who wanted to remain within the United Kingdom, most of whom were the Protestant descendants of colonists from Great Britain; however, a significant minority, mostly Catholics, were nationalists who wanted a united Ireland independent of British rule. Today, the former generally see themselves as British and the latter generally see themselves as Irish, while a distinct Northern Irish identity is claimed both by a large minority of Catholics and Protestants and by a majority of those who are non-aligned.

For most of the 20th century, when it came into existence, Northern Ireland was marked by discrimination and hostility between these two sides in what First Minister of Northern Ireland David Trimble called a "cold house" for Catholics. In the late 1960s, conflict between state forces and chiefly Protestant unionists on the one hand, and chiefly Catholic nationalists on the other, erupted into three decades of violence known as the Troubles, which claimed over 3,500

lives and caused over 50,000 casualties. The 1998 Good Friday Agreement was a major step in the peace process, including the decommissioning of weapons, although sectarianism and religious segregation still remain major social problems and sporadic violence has continued.

Northern Ireland has historically been the most industrialised region of Ireland. After declining as a result of the political and social turmoil of the Troubles, its economy has grown significantly since the late 1990s. The initial growth came from the "peace dividend" and the links and increased trade with the Republic of Ireland, continuing with a significant increase in tourism, investment and business from around the world. Unemployment in Northern Ireland peaked at 17.2% in 1986, dropping to 6.1% for June–August 2014 and down by 1.2 percentage points over the year, similar to the UK figure of 6.2%. 58.2% of those unemployed had been unemployed for over a year.

Cultural links between Northern Ireland, the rest of Ireland, and the rest of the UK are complex, with Northern Ireland sharing both the culture of Ireland and the culture of the United Kingdom. In many sports, the island of Ireland fields a single team, a notable exception being association football. Northern Ireland competes separately at the Commonwealth Games, and athletes from Northern Ireland may compete for either Great Britain or Ireland at the Olympic Games.

The Troubles

The Troubles, starting in the late 1960s, consisted of about thirty years of recurring acts of intense violence during which 3,254 people were killed with over 50,000 casualties. From 1969 to 2003 there were over 36,900 shooting incidents and over 16,200 bombings or attempted bombings associated with The Troubles. The conflict was caused by the disputed status of Northern Ireland within the United Kingdom and the discrimination against the Irish nationalist minority by the dominant unionist majority. From 1967 to 1972 the Northern Ireland Civil Rights Association, modelling itself on the US civil rights movement, led a campaign of civil resistance to anti-Catholic discrimination in housing, employment, policing, and electoral procedures. The franchise for local government elections included only rate-payers and their spouses, and so excluded over a quarter of the electorate. While the majority of disenfranchised electors were Protestant, but Catholics were over-represented since they were poorer and had more adults still living in the family home.

NICRA's campaign, seen by many unionists as an Irish republican front, and the violent reaction to it, proved to be a precursor to a more violent period. As early as 1969, armed campaigns of paramilitary groups began, including the Provisional IRA campaign of 1969–1997 which was aimed at the end of British rule in Northern Ireland and the creation of a United Ireland, and the Ulster Volunteer Force, formed in 1966 in response to the perceived erosion of both the British character and unionist domination of Northern Ireland. The state security forces — the British Army and the police (the Royal Ulster Constabulary) — were also involved in the violence. The British government's position is that its forces were neutral in the conflict, trying to uphold law and order in Northern Ireland and the right of the people of Northern Ireland to democratic self-determination. Republicans regarded the state forces as combatants in the conflict, pointing to the collusion between the state forces and the loyalist paramilitaries as proof of this. The "Ballast" investigation by the Police Ombudsman has confirmed that British forces, and in particular the RUC, did collude with loyalist paramilitaries, were involved in murder,

and did obstruct the course of justice when such claims had previously been investigated, although the extent to which such collusion occurred is still hotly disputed.

As a consequence of the worsening security situation, autonomous regional government for Northern Ireland was suspended in 1972. Alongside the violence, there was a political deadlock between the major political parties in Northern Ireland, including those who condemned violence, over the future status of Northern Ireland and the form of government there should be within Northern Ireland. In 1973, Northern Ireland held a referendum to determine if it should remain in the United Kingdom, or be part of a united Ireland. The vote went heavily in favour (98.9%) of maintaining the status quo with approximately 57.5% of the total electorate voting in support, but only 1% of Catholics voted following a boycott organised by the Social Democratic and Labour Party (SDLP).

Peace Process

The Troubles were brought to an uneasy end by a peace process which included the declaration of ceasefires by most paramilitary organisations and the complete decommissioning of their weapons, the reform of the police, and the corresponding withdrawal of army troops from the streets and from sensitive border areas such as South Armagh and Fermanagh, as agreed by the signatories to the Belfast Agreement (commonly known as the "Good Friday Agreement"). This reiterated the long-held British position, which had never before been fully acknowledged by successive Irish governments, that Northern Ireland will remain within the United Kingdom until a majority of voters in Northern Ireland decides otherwise. The Constitution of Ireland was amended in 1999 to remove a claim of the "Irish nation" to sovereignty over the whole of Ireland (in Article 2), a claim qualified by an acknowledgement that Ireland could only exercise legal control over the territory formerly known as the Irish Free State.

The new Articles 2 and 3, added to the Constitution to replace the earlier articles, implicitly acknowledge that the status of Northern Ireland, and its relationships within the rest of the United Kingdom and with the Republic of Ireland, would only be changed with the agreement of a majority of voters in each jurisdiction. This aspect was also central to the Belfast Agreement which was signed in 1998 and ratified by referendums held simultaneously in both Northern Ireland and the Republic. At the same time, the British Government recognised for the first time, as part of the prospective, the so-called "Irish dimension": the principle that the people of the island of Ireland as a whole have the right, without any outside interference, to solve the issues between North and South by mutual consent. The latter statement was key to winning support for the agreement from nationalists. It established a devolved power-sharing government within Northern Ireland, which must consist of both unionist and nationalist parties.

On 28 July 2005, the Provisional IRA declared an end to its campaign and has since decommissioned what is thought to be all of its arsenal. This final act of decommissioning was performed in accordance with the Belfast Agreement of 1998, and under the watch of the Independent International Commission on Decommissioning and two external church witnesses. Many unionists, however, remain sceptical. The International Commission later confirmed that the main loyalist paramilitary groups, the UDA, UVF and the Red Hand Commando, had decommissioned what is thought to be all of their arsenals, witnessed by a former Archbishop and a former top civil servant.

Politicians elected to the Assembly at the 2003 Assembly election were called together on 15

May 2006 under the Northern Ireland Act 2006 for the purpose of electing a First Minister and deputy First Minister of Northern Ireland and choosing the members of an Executive (before 25 November 2006) as a preliminary step to the restoration of devolved government.

Following the election held on 7 March 2007, devolved government returned on 8 May 2007 with Democratic Unionist Party (DUP) leader Ian Paisley and Sinn Féin deputy leader Martin McGuinness taking office as First Minister and deputy First Minister, respectively.

Geography

Northern Ireland was covered by an ice sheet for most of the last ice age and on numerous previous occasions, the legacy of which can be seen in the extensive coverage of drumlins in Counties Fermanagh, Armagh, Antrim and particularly Down. The centrepiece of Northern Ireland's geography is Lough Neagh, at 151 square miles (391 km²) the largest freshwater lake both on the island of Ireland and in the British Isles. A second extensive lake system is centred on Lower and Upper Lough Erne in Fermanagh. The largest island of Northern Ireland is Rathlin, off the north Antrim coast. Strangford Lough is the largest inlet in the British Isles, covering 150 km² (58 sq mi).

There are substantial uplands in the Sperrin Mountains with extensive gold deposits, granite Mourne Mountains and basalt Antrim Plateau, as well as smaller ranges in South Armagh and along the Fermanagh–Tyrone border. None of the hills are especially high, with Slieve Donard in the dramatic Mournes reaching 850 metres (2,789 ft), Northern Ireland's highest point. Belfast's most prominent peak is Cavehill. The volcanic activity which created the Antrim Plateau also formed the eerily geometric pillars of the Giant's Causeway on the north Antrim coast. Also in north Antrim are the Carrick-a-Rede Rope Bridge, Mussenden Temple and the Glens of Antrim.

The Lower and Upper River Bann, River Foyle and River Blackwater form extensive fertile lowlands, with excellent arable land also found in North and East Down, although much of the hill country is marginal and suitable largely for animal husbandry.

The valley of the River Lagan is dominated by Belfast, whose metropolitan area includes over a third of the population of Northern Ireland, with heavy urbanisation and industrialisation along the Lagan Valley and both shores of Belfast Lough.

Climate

The whole of Northern Ireland has a temperate maritime climate, rather wetter in the west than the east, although cloud cover is persistent across the region. The weather is unpredictable at all times of the year, and although the seasons are distinct, they are considerably less pronounced than in interior Europe or the eastern seaboard of North America. Average daytime maximums in Belfast are 6.5 °C (43.7 °F) in January and 17.5 °C (63.5 °F) in July. The highest maximum temperature recorded was 30.8 °C (87.4 °F) at Knockarevan, near Garrison, County Fermanagh on 30 June 1976 and at Belfast on 12 July 1983. The lowest minimum temperature recorded was −18.7 °C (−1.7 °F) at Castlederg, County Tyrone on 23 December 2010.

Counties

Northern Ireland consists of six historic counties: County Antrim, County Armagh, County Down, County Fermanagh, County Londonderry, County Tyrone.

These counties are no longer used for local government purposes; instead there are eleven districts of Northern Ireland which have different geographical extents. These were created in 2015, replacing the twenty-six districts which previously existed.

Although counties are no longer used for local governmental purposes, they remain a popular means of describing where places are. They are officially used while applying for an Irish passport, which requires one to state one's county of birth. The name of county then appears in both Irish and English on the passport's information page, as opposed to the town or city of birth on the United Kingdom passport. The Gaelic Athletic Association still uses the counties as its primary means of organisation and fields representative teams of each GAA county. The original system of car registration numbers largely based on counties still remains in use. In 2000, the telephone numbering system was restructured into an 8 digit scheme with (except for Belfast) the first digit approximately reflecting the county.

The county boundaries still appear on Ordnance Survey of Northern Ireland Maps and the Phillips Street Atlases, among others. With their decline in official use, there is often confusion surrounding towns and cities which lie near county boundaries, such as Belfast and Lisburn, which are split between counties Down and Antrim (the majorities of both cities, however, are in Antrim).

Demography

The population of Northern Ireland has risen yearly since 1978. The population in 2011 was 1.8 million, having grown 7.5% over the previous decade from just under 1.7 million in 2001. This constitutes just under 3% of the population of the UK (62 million) and just over 28% of the population of the island of Ireland (6.3 million).

The population of Northern Ireland is almost entirely white (98.2%). In 2011, 88.8% of the population were born in Northern Ireland, with 4.5% born in Britain, and 2.9% born in the Republic of Ireland. 4.3% were born elsewhere; triple the amount there were in 2001. Most are from Eastern Europe and Baltic states. The largest non-white ethnic groups were Chinese (6,300) and Indian (6,200). Black people of various origins made up 0.2% of the 2011 population and people of mixed ethnicity made up 0.2%.

In the 2011 census, 41.5% of the population identified as belonging to Protestant or other non-Roman Catholic Christian denominations. The biggest of these denominations were the Presbyterian Church (19%), the Church of Ireland (14%) and the Methodist Church (3%). The largest single denomination is the Roman Catholic Church, to which 41% of the population belonged. 0.8% identified with non-Christian religions or philosophies, while 17% identified with no religion or did not state one. In terms of community background (i.e. religion or religion brought up in), 48% of the population came from a Protestant background, 45% from a Catholic background, 0.9% from non-Christian backgrounds, and 5.6% from non-religious backgrounds.

Language

English is spoken as a first language by almost all of the Northern Ireland population. It is the official language and the Administration of Justice (Language) Act (Ireland) 1737 prohibits the use of languages other than English in legal proceedings.

Under the Good Friday Agreement, Irish and Ulster Scots (an Ulster dialect of the Scots language, sometimes known as Ullans), are recognised as "part of the cultural wealth of Northern Ireland". Two all-island bodies for the promotion of these were created under the Agreement: Foras na Gaeilge, which promotes the Irish language, and the Ulster Scots Agency, which promotes the Ulster Scots dialect and culture. These operate separately under the aegis of the North/South

Language Body, which reports to the North/South Ministerial Council.

The British government in 2001 ratified the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages. Irish (in Northern Ireland) was specified under Part III of the Charter, with a range of specific undertakings in relation to education, translation of statutes, interaction with public authorities, the use of placenames, media access, support for cultural activities and other matters. A lower level of recognition was accorded to Ulster Scots, under Part II of the Charter.

Culture

Northern Ireland shares both the culture of Ireland and the culture of the United Kingdom. Those of Catholic background tend to identify more with Irish culture, and those of Protestant background more with British culture.

Parades are a prominent feature of Northern Ireland society, more so than in the rest of Ireland or in Britain. Most are held by Protestant fraternities such as the Orange Order, and Ulster loyalist marching bands. Each summer, during the "marching season", these groups have hundreds of parades, deck streets with British flags, bunting and specially-made arches, and light large towering bonfires. The biggest parades are held on 12 July (The Twelfth). There is often tension when these activities take place near Catholic neighbourhoods, which sometimes leads to violence.

Since the end of the Troubles, Northern Ireland has witnessed rising numbers of tourists. Attractions include cultural festivals, musical and artistic traditions, countryside and geographical sites of interest, public houses, welcoming hospitality and sports (especially golf and fishing). Since 1987 public houses have been allowed to open on Sundays, despite some opposition.

Symbols

Northern Ireland comprises a patchwork of communities whose national loyalties are represented in some areas by flags flown from flagpoles or lamp posts. The Union Jack and the former Northern Ireland flag are flown in many loyalist areas, and the Tricolour, adopted by republicans as the flag of Ireland in 1916, is flown in some republican areas. Even kerbstones in some areas are painted red-white-blue or green-white-orange, depending on whether local people express unionist/loyalist or nationalist/republican sympathies.

The official flag is that of the state having sovereignty over the territory, i.e. the Union Flag. The former Northern Ireland flag, also known as the "Ulster Banner" or "Red Hand Flag", is a banner derived from the coat of arms of the Government of Northern Ireland until 1972. Since 1972, it has had no official status. The Union Flag and the Ulster Banner are used exclusively by unionists. UK flags policy states that in Northern Ireland, "The Ulster flag and the Cross of St Patrick have no official status and, under the Flags Regulations, are not permitted to be flown from Government Buildings."

The Irish Rugby Football Union and the Church of Ireland have used the Saint Patrick's Saltire or "Cross of St Patrick". This red saltire on a white field was used to represent Ireland in the flag of the United Kingdom. It is still used by some British army regiments.

The shamrock is a symbol of Ireland, but it is not the national symbol. The official national symbol of Ireland is the harp, which can be seen on Irish coins and documents. Tradition says that St. Patrick, in attempting to explain the meaning of the Holy Trinity, picked up a shamrock leaf to illustrate his point of three parts to one whole object. The three leaves of the shamrock represent

the Father (God), Son (Jesus Christ), and the Holy Spirit. It has become a popular symbol over the centuries and now often symbolizes pride in one's Irish heritage.

Exercises

I. Choose the answer that best completes the statement or answer the question.

- (1) The location of UK is in the ____ Europe.
A. Eastern B. Western C. Southern D. Northern
- (2) All the following cities are major deep-water ports of UK, except _____.
A. London B. Liverpool C. Belfast D. Edinburgh
- (3) The national flower of UK is _____.
A. rose B. thistle C. daffodil D. shamrock
- (4) The total area of the U.K. is _____.
A. 211,440 B. 244,110 C. 241,410 D. 242,534
- (5) England occupies the ____ portion of the U.K.
A. northern B. eastern C. southern D. western
- (6) The most important part of the U.K. in wealth is _____.
A. Northern Ireland B. England C. Scotland D. Wales
- (7) _____ is on the western prominence between the Bristol Channel and the Dee estuary.
A. Wales B. Scotland C. England D. Northern Ireland
- (8) Wales was effectively united with England in the _____ century.
A. 14th B. 15th C. 16th D. 17th
- (9) By the Act of Union of _____ Scotland and the kingdom of England and Wales were constitutionally joined as the Kingdom of Britain.
A. 1707 B. 1921 C. 1801 D. 1952
- (10) Physiographically Britain may be divided into _____ provinces.
A. 13 B. 12 C. 14 D. 15
- (11) Mt. Ben Nevis stands in _____.
A. the Scottish Highlands B. Wales C. England D. Northern Ireland
- (12) The main rivers parting in Britain runs from _____.
A. north to south B. south to north C. east to west D. west to east
- (13) Cheviot hills lie along the border between _____ and England.
A. Wales B. Scotland C. Vale of Eden D. Northern Ireland
- (14) The longest river in Britain is _____.
A. Severn B. Clyde C. Bann D. Thames
- (15) London is situated on the River of _____.
A. Parret B. Thames C. Spey D. Severn
- (16) Edinburgh is the capital of _____.
A. England B. Scotland C. Wales D. Northern Ireland
- (17) The rivers flowing into the _____ are mainly short.
A. North Sea B. English Channel C. Dee estuary D. Atlantic
- (18) Mt. Snowdon stands in _____.

- A. Scotland B. Wales C. England D. Northern Ireland
- (19) The source of the important River Thames is in the _____.
A. Cotswolds B. Oxford Clay C. Pennines D. Dee estuary
- (20) Gaelic is mainly spoken in _____.
A. Scotland B. England C. Northern Ireland D. Wales
- (21) The capital city of Northern Ireland is _____.
A. Cardiff B. Belfast C. Leith D. Edingburgh
- (22) The proportion of the English in the whole population is _____.
A. 60% B. 80% C. 70% D. 90%
- (23) About _____ percent of the population live in cities or towns.
A. 80 B. 85 C. 90 D. 95
- (24) The second largest city in England is _____.
A. Glasgow B. Birmingham C. Manchester D. London
- (25) Scotland occupies the _____ portion of Great Britain.
A. southern B. northern C. western D. eastern
- (26) _____ has its own national church and its own system of law.
A. Wales B. Northern Ireland C. Scotland D. England
- (27) The _____ End includes Westminster, St. James' Palace
A. East B. West C. North D. South
- (28) _____ includes London, the centre of government for the whole nation.
A. Scotland B. Northern Ireland C. Wales D. England
- (29) Which of the following is NOT considered a characteristic of London?
A. The cultural center. B. The business center.
C. The financial center. D. The sports center.
- (30) Which of the following is NOT true about Britain?
A. It used to be an imperial country in the world.
B. It plays an active role as a member of European Union.
C. It is a relatively wealthy and developed country.
D. It used to be one of the superpowers in the world.

II. Fill in the following blanks with appropriate words or expressions.

- (1) The U.K. is situated in _____ Europe.
- (2) The full title of the U.K. is the United Kingdom of _____ and _____.
- (3) The U.K. consists of England, _____, _____ and Northern Ireland.
- (4) The largest part of U.K. is _____.
- (5) The capital of England and of Great Britain is _____.
- (6) _____ is composed of six Irish counties that elected to remain in the union with Great Britain.
- (7) The name United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland was replaced by the present name after the 26 counties of Ireland obtained autonomy in _____.
- (8) The highest mountain in Britain is _____.
- (9) The "Backbone of England" refers to the _____.
- (10) The most important river is the River of _____.

- (11) The political centre of the Commonwealth is _____.
- (12) Belfast Lough and Lough Neagh lie in _____.
- (13) The climate of Britain is moderated by the _____ and is much milder than that of many places in the same latitude.
- (14) The population of the U.K. is more than _____ million.
- (15) The population of the U.K. consists of the English, the Welsh, the Scottish and the _____.
- (16) In Wales many people speak _____.
- (17) People sing the national anthem in _____.
- (18) Greater London is made up of 12 _____ London boroughs and _____ Outer London boroughs.
- (19) The International festival of music and the arts is held every year in the city of _____.
- (20) The British national anthem is _____.
- (21) The U.K. lies to the _____ of France.
- (22) Westminster, the area of central government administration is situated in the _____ End.
- (23) River _____ flows through Glasgow.
- (24) The source of the River _____ is in the Cotswolds.
- (25) The capital city of Wales is _____.
- (26) London plays a significant role in _____ economic and cultural life. It's not only the financial _____ of the nation, but also one of the _____ major international financial centers _____.
- (27) Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (George III) current Union Flag adopted on Jan. 1st, _____.
- (28) The largest lake in Britain is the _____ in Northern Ireland which covers an area of 396 km².
- (29) _____ is the largest Ferris wheel (摩天轮) in Europe.
- (30) National Day of UK is officially celebrated in Britain on the 2nd Saturday of _____ each year since February 1952.

III. Explain the following terms.

- (1) London
- (2) The British Isles
- (3) Union Jack
- (4) Lake District
- (5) the Anglo-Saxons

IV. Consider the following questions.

- (1) What are the differences between Britain and the British Isles, Great Britain, England, the United Kingdom and the British Commonwealth?
- (2) Does Britain have a favorable climate? Why?

Unit2 British Origin and History

Cultural Training

Part A

British Origin and History

Britain was originally a part of the European continent. When the last Ice Age ended 7, 000 years ago, melting ice flooded the low-lying lands, creating the English Channel and the North Sea, and turning Britain into an island.

Prehistoric Britain



1. The Iberians

The first known settlers of Britain were the Iberians. At about 3000 BC during the New Stone Age, these short, dark and long headed people came to Britain, probably from the Iberian peninsula, now Spain. They were farming folk who kept animals and grew crops. The long barrows which can still be found, mostly in the chalky lands of Wiltshire and Dorset, were their communal burial mounds.

More dramatic monuments were the henges, the most important of which was Stonehenge in Wiltshire, constructed before 2000 BC. Exactly why it was built is unknown but it must have had religious and political significance. Although in popular mythology Druids are associated with Stonehenge, they were Celtic priests who arrived much later.

2. The Beaker Folk

At about 2000 BC the Beaker Folk arrived from the areas now known as Holland and the Rhineland. These people took their name from their distinctive bell-shaped drinking vessels with which they were buried in crouching positions in individual graves. They brought with them the art of pottery making, the ability to fashion bronze tools and the custom of individual burial. They developed their own farming society and built hill forts. These forts, of which Maiden Castle in Dorset is one of the finest examples, became small fortified towns.

3. The Celts

The Celts, a taller and fairer race than the people who had come before, began to arrive about 700 BC and kept coming until the arrival of the Romans. They may originally have come from eastern and central Europe, now France, Belgium and southern Germany. They came to Britain in three main waves.

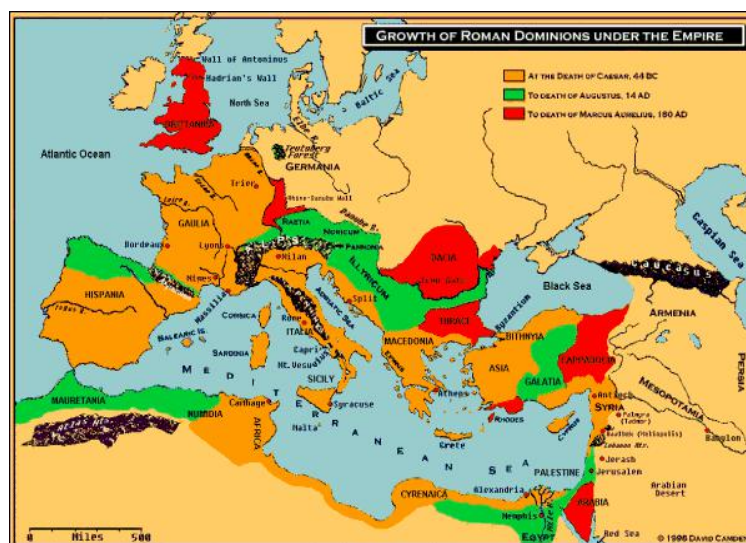
The first wave were the Gaels, who started to come about 600 BC. The second wave were the Brythons, who started to come about 400 BC. The Belgae came about 150 BC. The Celts did not kill off the Iberians. They drove some of them to the north and west, kept the rest as slaves, and in the end the two races mixed to varying extent in different parts of the country.

The Belgae were the most industrious and vigorous of the Celtic tribes. One of the most powerful of their chieftains was Cassivellaunus, uncle to Cunobelinus, Shakespeare's Cymbeline, who ruled over a large area north of the Thames in what is now Hertfordshire, Buckinghamshire and Berkshire.

The Celts were practised farmers. They drained much of the marshlands and built houses of wood and wickerwork with a weather proof coating of mud. They were ironworkers, too. The Celtic tribes are ancestors of the Highland Scots, the Irish and the Welsh. And their languages are the basis of both Welsh and Gaelic.

The Celts' religion was Druidism. The Druids (the wise men, astrologers and soothsayers) worshipped and performed their rites in woods by the light of the moon. There is evidence that they offered up human sacrifices to their gods, sometimes single victims, at other times groups of men in immense wickerwork cages.

Roman Britain



British recorded history begins with the Roman invasion.

Julius Caesar, the great Roman general, invaded Britain for the first time in 55 BC, partly to gather information about the island of which so little was then known and partly to punish the Belgae who had helped their fellow tribesmen in their fight against the conquering Romans in Gaul, the land that is now France. He landed in Kent with several thousand men but, meeting resistance and bad weather, he decided to withdraw. He returned the following year. His army marched as far as Wheathampstead in Hertfordshire, Cassivellaunus's hillfort, which he captured after fierce fighting. He then withdrew with hostages and prisoners. The successful invasion did not take place until nearly a century later, in AD 43, headed by the Emperor Claudius.

For nearly 400 years Britain was under the Roman occupation. But it was never a total occupation for two reasons. First, some parts of the country resisted. For example, Boadicea (or Boudicca), queen of the Iceni of East Anglia, attempted to drive the Romans from Britain in AD 61. She succeeded in destroying the capital of the Romans, Londinium, before being defeated. Secondly, Roman troops were often withdrawn from Britain to fight in other parts of the Roman Empire. Agricola, the Roman general and governor to Britain (77–84), couldn't make a full conquest of all the area corresponding to modern Britain. The tribes of Scotland were especially fierce. The Romans soon realized that they could not conquer them. They withdrew from the north in the second century and built two great walls to keep the Picts, so called because of their "painted faces", out of the area they had conquered. These were the Hadrian's Wall running from Carlisle to Newcastle, and the Antonine Wall linking the estuaries of the Forth and the Clyde. The Romans still faced 3 problems in Britain. The Picts still attacked them periodically; Saxon pirates attacked them in the southeast; and control was only effective in the southeastern part of the country, a small section from Exeter to Tees.

The Romans built a network of towns, mostly walled, many on the sites of Celtic settlements or their own military camps. The suffix -caster or -chester in English place names—Lancaster, Winchester and Chester itself—derives from castra, the Latin word for camp. The Roman capital was London (Londinium). York had been created as a northern stronghold and Bath rapidly developed because of its waters. Between the large towns the Romans constructed a net-work of major and secondary roads, not always as straight as tradition would have them but of remarkable solidity as the surviving road across the moors at Blackstone Edge, Littleborough, still shows. From London, roads radiated all over the country along routes which for much of their length are still in use as modern thoroughfares: to the north by way of Watling Street and Ermine Street; to the east by way of the Colchester road; to Chichester in the south by Stane Street; to the west by the road that passed through Silchester then on to Cirencester (Corinium) and Gloucester.

The Romans made good use of Britain's natural resources, mining lead, iron and tin and manufacturing pottery. They built baths, temples, amphitheatres and beautiful villas.

The Romans also brought the new religion, Christianity, to Britain. This came at first by indirect means, probably brought by traders and soldiers, and was quite well—established before the first Christian Emperor, Constantine, was proclaimed in AD 306.

The Romans remained in control of Britain for nearly 400 years. Then, with barbarians from Eastern Europe at the gates of Rome, under repeated attacks from Picts and also from the Scots (the "tattooed ones" who invaded from the north of Ireland) and needing to set up a new military front on the east coast to hold off the Germanic Saxon tribes invading from Europe, they pulled out in AD 410.

Although Britain became part of a vast sophisticated Roman Empire all around the

Mediterranean, the Roman impact upon the Britons was surprisingly limited. The Romans always treated the Britons as a subject people of slave class. Never during the 4 centuries did the Romans and Britons intermarry. The Romans had no impact on the language or culture of ordinary Britons. However, other invasions of far less sophisticated peoples had far greater cultural impact upon Britain.

Anglo Saxon Britain

The breakdown of Roman law and civilisation was fairly swift after the Roman army departed in 410 AD. To counter the raids from continental pirates, Vikings, Picts and Scots towns would bring in mercenaries from Europe to defend them from attack. These mercenary soldiers were Angles and Saxons from northern Germany.

The deal was that the mercenaries brought their families with them, and got paid with land which they could farm. Eventually the Anglo Saxon mercenaries realised that they were stronger than their employers and appear to have taken over the running of areas themselves.

There is of course the whole legend of King Arthur that is ascribed to this period. Arthur appears to have been a fictional, rather than historical figure, but that link gives you a complete guide to King Arthur, who he could have been and where he could have lived.

The new Anglo Saxon invaders were not organised centrally, as the Romans had been, or as the Normans would be. They slowly colonised northwards and westwards, pushing the native Celts to the fringes of Britain. Roman Britain was replaced by Anglo Saxon Britain, with the Celtic peoples remaining in Cornwall, Wales and Scotland. The Anglo Saxon areas eventually combined into kingdoms, and by 850 AD the country had three competing kingdoms.

The three kingdoms of Mercia, Northumbria and Wessex, not only were competing between themselves, but they were also under sustained attack from Viking raids. The Viking incursions culminated with a "Great Army" landing in East Anglia in 865 AD. It made wide territorial gains, and by 875 the kingdoms of Mercia and Northumbria had succumbed. Only Wessex remained as Anglo Saxon.

Viking Britain



The Vikings attack Wessex in 878, and the Saxon king, Alfred had to flee to the Somerset marshes. However he was able to regroup and counter attack. His efforts and those later of his son and grandsons, gradually pushed the Vikings northwards and eventually into the sea.

By 955, Alfred the Great's grandson Eadred, ruled over a united England. Government became centralised, and the king had the infrastructure to rule the whole country.

Next came another wave of Viking attacks. The net effect was that the English kin, Ethelred the Unready, found his kingdom under attack on all coasts by Norsemen. On Ethelred's death in 1016, the Viking leader Cnut was effectively ruling England. But on Cnut's death, the country collapsed into a number of competing Earldoms under a weak king, Edward the Confessor.

The strongest of these earls was Harold, Earl of East Anglia. Through a series of battles and intermarriages, Harold controlled Wessex and was in a powerful position. So when Edward the Confessor died in 1066 without a male heir, Harold claimed the throne.

His claim was disputed by William, Duke of Normandy, whose claim to the English throne was even more tenuous than Harold's

There were two major influences on English life during this whole period of English history, at opposite ends of the aggression spectrum.

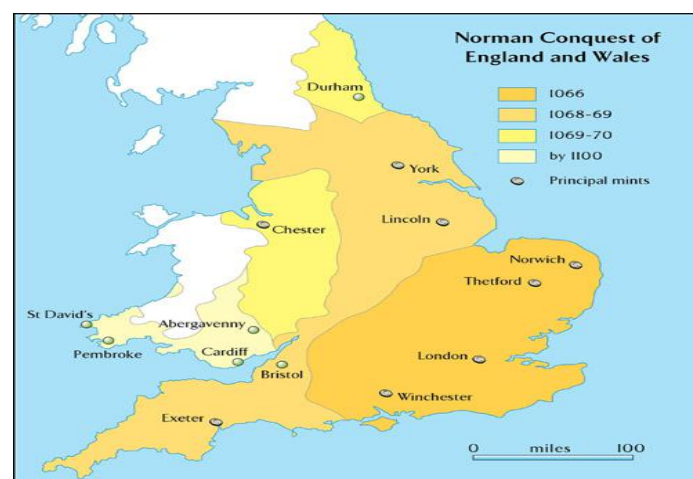
One was the coming of Christianity to Britain, brought by Irish monks to places like Lindesfarne in 635, or Iona in Scotland in 563. The church had organised the whole country into diocese, each under a bishop, by about 850.

The other was the Viking raider. And it was the Viking raider that paradoxically allowed William to conquer Britain

When Edward the Confessor died, the Vikings saw a chance to regain a foothold in Britain, and landed an army in Yorkshire in 1066. Harold marched north to take on the Vikings under Harold of Norway and Tostig (King Harold's brother). He defeated the Norsemen near York, but while celebrating his victory, learnt that William of Normandy had landed in southern England.

Within 13 days he had marched his army some 240 miles from Yorkshire to Sussex, where the Normans were camped near Hastings. The ensuing Battle of Hastings was won by the Normans who were fresh, and had better archers and cavalry. Harold died with an arrow through his eye. William was crowned William I in London on Christmas Day 1066

Medieval Britain



England in the Middle Ages concerns the history of England during the medieval period, from the end of the 5th century through to the start of the Early Modern period in 1485. When England emerged from the collapse of the Roman Empire, the economy was in tatters and many of the towns abandoned. After several centuries of Germanic immigration, new identities and cultures began to emerge, developing into predatory kingdoms that competed for power. A rich artistic culture flourished under the Anglo-Saxons, producing epic poems such as Beowulf and sophisticated metalwork. The Anglo-Saxons converted to Christianity in the 7th century and a network of monasteries and convents were built across England. In the 8th and 9th centuries England faced fierce Viking attacks, and the fighting lasted for many decades, establishing Wessex as the most powerful kingdom and promoting the growth of an English identity. Despite repeated crises of succession and a Danish seizure of power at the start of the 11th century, by the 1060s England was a powerful, centralised state with a strong military and successful economy.

The Norman invasion of England in 1066 led to the defeat and replacement of the Anglo-Saxon elite with Norman and French nobles and their supporters. William the Conqueror and his successors took over the existing state system, repressing local revolts and controlling the population through a network of castles. The new rulers introduced a feudal approach to governing England, eradicating the practice of slavery but creating a much wider body of unfree labourers called serfs. The position of women in society changed as laws regarding land and lordship shifted. England's population more than doubled during the 12th and 13th centuries, fuelling an expansion of the towns, cities and trade, helped by warmer temperatures across Northern Europe. A new wave of monasteries and friaries were established, while ecclesiastical reforms led to tensions between successive kings and archbishops. Despite developments in England's governance and legal system, infighting between the Anglo-Norman elite resulted in multiple civil wars and the loss of Normandy.



The 14th century in England saw the Great Famine and the Black Death, catastrophic events that killed around half of England's population, throwing the economy into chaos and undermining the old political order. Social unrest followed, in the form of the Peasants' Revolt of 1381, while the changes in the economy resulted in the emergence of a new class of gentry, and the nobility began to exercise power through a system termed bastard feudalism. Nearly 1,500 villages were deserted by their inhabitants and many men and women sought new opportunities in the towns and

cities. New technologies were introduced, and England produced some of the great medieval philosophers and natural scientists. English kings in the 14th and 15th centuries laid claim to the French throne, resulting in the Hundred Years' War. At times England enjoyed huge military success, with the economy buoyed by profits from the international wool and cloth trade, but by 1450 the country was in crisis, facing military failure in France and an ongoing recession. More social unrest broke out, followed by the Wars of the Roses, fought between rival factions in the English nobility. Henry VII's victory in 1485 typically marks the end of the Middle Ages in England and the start of the Early Modern period.

Tudor Britain

The Tudor era saw unprecedented upheaval in England. Between them the five Tudor kings and queens introduced huge changes that are still with us today.

The years between the crowning of Henry VII in 1485 and the death of Elizabeth I in 1603 saw the old religious order swept away, the establishment of the American colonies, the foundation of the Royal Navy and the power of Europe challenged.

Henry VII Seizes the Throne

Henry Tudor is crowned King of England on the battlefield at Bosworth after his army defeats and kills Richard III.

Henry VII presents himself as the unifier of the warring Lancaster and York dynasties — symbolised by his adoption of the red and white Tudor Rose. His reign brings 85 years of civil war to an end. He marries Elizabeth, daughter of the Yorkist king Edward IV. Within a year they have a son, Arthur, later followed by another, Henry.

Peace Treaty with Scotland

Henry wants to keep his kingdom secure and creates several foreign **alliances** to try to avoid wars.

He arranges the marriage of his 13-year-old daughter Margaret to **James IV** to secure peace between England and Scotland. Although the peace doesn't last, the couple's great-grandson, James I of England and VI of Scotland, will unite the crowns of Scotland and England 100 years later.

Henry VIII Is Crowned King

The 17-year-old Henry succeeds to the throne on the death of his father, Henry VII. His older brother Arthur had died seven years earlier.

The Pope gives a special dispensation for the young king to marry his late brother's wife Catherine of Aragon. Three years later Henry invades France in pursuit of an ancient claim to the throne. He is aided and abetted by his advisor Thomas Wolsey, who he appoints Lord Chancellor in 1514.

The Royal Mail Is Founded

Henry VIII orders the creation of the first national postal service for royal mail.

Called "The King's Posts", it was devised by Sir Brian Tuke and commanded all towns to have a fresh horse available for anyone carrying mail from the Tudor Court. This royal mail

system was opened to the general public in 1635 by King Charles I— the start of the postal system we use today.

Church of England Is Created

Henry requests an annulment of his marriage with Catherine from the Pope in order to marry Anne Boleyn. The request is refused.

In response, Henry breaks from the authority of the Pope and is declared head of the English Church by Parliament. To cancel out the power of the Catholic church in England, he dissolves over 800 monasteries and transfers their wealth and lands transferred to the crown. Years of discord between Protestants and Catholics follow.

Mary Rose Sinks but Royal Navy Flourishes

Henry VIII is keen to build up his fledgling navy from the 15 ships he inherits. By 1540 the navy has 45.

He also builds the first naval dock at Portsmouth and establishes the Navy Board to run the service. Many of the ships, like Henry's flagship the Mary Rose, are fitted with the latest guns. Henry's ships can stand up against those of the French and Spanish navies. In 1545, the Mary Rose sinks while leading an attack against a French invasion fleet.

England Becomes Protestant under Edward VI

Henry dies and his son Edward, aged nine, becomes king. Edward's uncle Edward Seymour seizes power by establishing himself as protector.

In order to make England a truly Protestant state, the Book of Common Prayer is introduced and religious imagery in churches is destroyed. Seymour is arrested and later executed after he fails to solve England's near bankruptcy. The king dies aged fifteen, never ruling in his own right. The cause of his death is not certain.

Mary I Is Crowned Queen

Edward's half-sister Mary takes the throne, after a power struggle with Edward's advisers who want his cousin Lady Jane Grey to be queen.

At first Mary I enjoys widespread popular support. But many oppose her decision to marry Catholic Phillip II of Spain and reconcile with Rome. She attempts to take England back to Catholicism. During her reign nearly 300 Protestants are burned for refusing to reconvert, earning her the nickname "Bloody Mary".

Elizabeth I's Long Reign Begins



When Mary dies, her Protestant half-sister Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn, becomes queen.

Elizabeth returns England to Protestantism, but she does not enforce strict religious conformity and declares she does not want to “make windows into men's souls”. Elizabeth chooses never to marry as she wants England free from the influence of foreign princes and the dissent and infighting a marriage to a fellow countryman might bring.

Royal Exchange Sees Trade Flourish

Sir Thomas Gresham, known as the father of English banking, sets up the Royal Exchange — the first purpose-built centre for trading stocks in London.

However stock brokers are not allowed inside the building because of their rude manners, instead they operate from nearby coffee houses. Gresham helps persuade Elizabeth I's parliament to legalise money-lending, which allows the Crown to raise loans from home rather than abroad. Over time London takes over from Antwerp as the financial capital of Europe.

First English Colony in America

England wants to compete with Spain and Portugal, whose American colonies generate great wealth.

Sir Walter Raleigh sets up a colony of about 100 men on the east coast of North America, which he names Virginia after Elizabeth I, “the Virgin Queen”. Although Raleigh's settlement fails after a year it marks the start of an effort by England to colonise North America. The first successful permanent settlement is founded in 1607.

Spymaster Ensnares Mary, Queen of Scots

Queen Elizabeth I faces numerous plots against her and pays Sir Francis Walsingham to set up a European network of spies across Europe.

He establishes England's first counter-intelligence network and a London school that teaches cipher breaking and forgery. Elizabeth's Catholic cousin Mary, Queen of Scots is in exile in England and poses a threat to Elizabeth. Mary is put under house arrest. Walsingham is convinced she is plotting against the queen and implicates her in a plan to depose Elizabeth. Mary is executed a year later.

Defeat of Spanish Armada Inspires England

Philip II of Spain launches a great fleet of ships, known as the Spanish Armada, to overthrow

Elizabeth and restore Catholicism to England.

The Armada of 130 ships sails up the English channel towards the Spanish Netherlands to pick up troops for the invasion. However, they are engaged by the Royal Navy and driven to the North Sea by strong winds. Only around half of them make it back to Spain. The English celebrate their victory with a medal inscribed with the words "God Blew and they were Scattered".

Provisions for the Poor

The dissolution of the monasteries under Henry VIII leaves many of the poorest without a safety net. Poor laws are introduced to help.

The Elizabethan Poor Law of 1601 requires each parish to provide for the "lame, impotent, old and blind". Overseers collect a regular amount from parishioners according to their ability to pay. Over time this evolved into a more centralised system which is replaced by the modern welfare state in the 20th Century.

End of the Tudor Dynasty

Elizabeth I dies aged 69. The Virgin Queen never married or had children.

James VI of Scotland was her closest royal relative as they were both direct descendants of Henry VII. He is named King James I on the day of Elizabeth's death. One of Britain's greatest and most influential dynasties finally reaches its conclusion.

Stuart Britain

James I

Elizabeth was followed to the throne by James VI of Scotland, who became James I of England. James believed in the absolute power of the monarchy, and he had a rocky relationship with an increasingly vociferous and demanding Parliament. It would be a mistake to think of Parliament as a democratic institution, or the voice of the common citizen. Parliament was a forum for the interests of the nobility and the merchant classes.

The Gunpowder Plot

James was a firm protestant, and in 1604 he expelled all Catholic priests from the island. This was one of the factors which led to the Gunpowder Plot of 1605. A group of Catholic plotters planned to blow up Parliament when it opened on November 5. However, an anonymous letter betrayed the plot and one of the plotters, Guy Fawkes, was captured in the cellars of the Houses of Parliament with enough gunpowder to blow the place sky high. Most of the plotters were captured and executed.

The Rise of the Puritans

During James' reign radical Protestant groups called Puritans began to gain a sizeable following. Puritans wanted to "purify" the church by paring down church ritual, educating the clergy, and limiting the powers of bishops. King James resisted this last. The powers of the church and king were too closely linked. "No bishop, no king," he said. The Puritans also favoured thrift, education, and individual initiative, therefore they found great support among the new middle class of merchants, the powers in the Commons.

James' attitude toward Parliament was clear. He commented in 1614 that he was surprised his ancestors "should have permitted such an institution to come into existence....It is sedition in

subjects to dispute what a king may do in the height of his power".

The King James Bible

In 1611 the King James version of the Holy Bible was issued, the result of seven years of labour by the best translators and theological minds of the day. It remained the authoritative, though not necessarily accurate, version of the Bible for centuries.

Charles I (1625-49) continued his father's acrimonious relationship with Parliament, squabbling over the right to levy taxes. Parliament responded with the Petition of Right in 1628. It was the most dramatic assertion of the traditional rights of the English people since the Magna Carta. Its basic premise was that no taxes of any kind could be allowed without the permission of Parliament.

Charles finally had enough, and in 1629 he dissolved Parliament and ruled without it for eleven years. Some of the ways he raised money during this period were of dubious legality by the standards of the time.

Between 1630-43 large numbers of people emigrated from England as Archbishop Laud tried to impose uniformity on the church. Up to 60,000 people left, 1/3 of them to the new American colonies. Several areas lost a large part of their populations, and laws were enacted to curb the outflow.

Ship Money

In 1634 Charles attempted to levy "ship-money", a tax that previously applied only to ports, on the whole country. This raised tremendous animosity throughout the realm. Finally Charles, desperate for money, summoned the so-called Short Parliament in 1640. Parliament refused to vote Charles more money until its grievances were answered, and the king dismissed it after only three weeks. Then a rebellion broke out in Scotland and Charles was forced to call a new Parliament, dubbed the Long Parliament, which officially sat until 1660.

Civil War

Parliament made increasing demands, which the king refused to meet. Neither side was willing to budge. Finally in 1642 fighting broke out. The English Civil War (1642-1646) polarized society largely along class lines. Parliament drew most of its support from the middle classes, while the king was supported by the nobility, the clergy, and the peasantry. Parliamentary troops were known as Roundheads because of their severe hair style. The king's army were known as Cavaliers, from the French for "knight", or "horseman".

The war began as a series of indecisive skirmishes notable for not much beyond the emergence of a Parliamentary general from East Anglia named Oliver Cromwell. Cromwell whipped his irregular volunteer troops into the disciplined New Model Army.

Meanwhile, Charles established the royalist headquarters in Oxford, called his own Parliament, and issued his own money. He also allied himself with Irish Catholics, which alienated some of his supporters.

To the poor, the turmoil over religion around the Civil War meant little. They were bound by tradition and they supported the king, as they always had. Charles encouraged poor relief, unemployment measures, price controls, and protection for small farmers. For most people, life during the Civil War went on as before. Few were involved or even knew about the fighting. In

1644 a farmer at Marston Moor was told to clear out because the armies of Parliament and the king were preparing to fight. "What?" he exclaimed, "Has them two fallen out, then?"

Marston Moor

The turning point of the war was probably that same Battle of Marston Moor (1644). Charles' troops under his nephew Prince Rupert were soundly beaten by Cromwell, giving Parliament control of the north of England. Above the border Lord Montrose captured much of Scotland for Charles, but was beaten at Philiphaugh and Scot support was lost for good.

The Parliamentary cause became increasingly entangled with extreme radical Protestantism. In 1645 Archbishop Laud was executed, and in the same year the Battle of Naseby spelled the end of the royalist hopes. Hostilities dragged on for another year, and the Battle of Stow-on-the-Wold (1646) was the last armed conflict of the war.

The Death of a King

Charles rather foolishly stuck to his absolutist beliefs and refused every proposal made by Parliament and the army for reform. He preferred to try to play them against each other through intrigue and deception. He signed a secret treaty which got the Scots to rise in revolt, but that threat was snuffed out at Prestonpans (1648). Finally, the radical core of Parliament had enough. They believed that only the execution of the king could prevent the kingdom from descending into anarchy. Charles was tried for treason in 1649, before a Parliament whose authority he refused to acknowledge. He was executed outside Inigo Jones' Banqueting Hall at Whitehall on January 30.

Georgian Britain

When Queen Anne died without any heirs, the English throne was offered to her nearest Protestant relative, George of Hanover, who thus became George I of England. Throughout the long reign of George, his son, and grandson, all named George, the very nature of English society and the political face of the realm changed. In part this was because the first two Georges took little interest in the politics of rule, and were quite content to let ministers rule on their behalf. These ministers, representatives of the king, or Prime Ministers, rather enjoyed ruling, and throughout this "Georgian period" the foundations of English political party system was solidified into something resembling what we have today. But more than politics changed; English society underwent a revolution in art and architecture. This was the age of the grand country house, when many of the great stately homes that we can visit today were built. Abroad, the English acquired more and more territory overseas through conquest and settlement, lands that would eventually make up an Empire stretching to every corner of the globe.

George I (1714-27) was magnificently unsuited to rule England. He spoke not a word of English, and his slow, pedantic nature did not sit well with the English. One of the results of George's inability or disinterest in ruling the English was that he handed over his authority to trusted politicians. This marked the origin of the office of the Prime Minister and the cabinet system of government.

The Old Pretender

The year following George's arrival saw a landing in Scotland by the "Jacobite" supporters of James Stuart, son of James II. This rising was easily defeated and James, later called The Old

Pretender, fled to France once more.

The South Sea Bubble

The Duke of Marlborough's successes in the War of the Spanish Succession had been gained on credit, without monies granted, and the government was badly in debt. The South Sea Company was created to absorb the debt. It was little more than a paper company, founded through bribery of government officials and royals. The idea was that the whole of the £31 million national debt could be converted into company stock. Speculation went sky high and the stock became grossly inflated. Inevitably, the stock crashed, bringing down the government and bankrupting investors.

After the "South Sea Bubble" burst, finances were put firmly in the hands of the Bank of England, with the result that the English economy became the best managed in Europe over the next several centuries.

George II (1727-60) continued the Hanoverian rule. Early in his reign (1736) John Wesley began preaching in England. The subsequent Wesleyan societies and later Methodist churches acted as a conservative deterrent to the tide of social unrest and political radicalism that swept much of Europe during the 18th century.

The Bonnie Prince

In 1745, the Young Pretender, Charles Stuart (Bonnie Prince Charlie) landed in Scotland. There he built support, and bolstered by early successes, marched into England.

Instead of the popular uprising he had counted on, he met apathy. Although he reached as far south as Derby, indecisive leadership and lack of popular support meant that Charles had little option but to retreat into Scotland. There he was eventually brought to bay at Culloden Moor, near Inverness, where the Stuart cause finally ended in slaughter. Charles himself escaped to the Isle of Skye and eventually to France, where he ended his life a pathetic drunkard.

It has been said that "Life in early Georgian England was stable, placid, and self-satisfied". This accounts in part for the failure of the Stuarts to raise support for the '15 and '45 rebellions. Despite the Stuart rebellion, the years between 1720-1780 were remarkable for their social stability. This stability was founded upon a system that depended upon the exercise of influence and put the interests of landowners first.

The British Museum

On a happier note, 1753 saw the founding of the British Museum. To the private collections of Sir Hans Sloane and Sir Robert Cotton were added the library of the earls of Oxford and the old Royal library founded by Henry VII. The museum was originally stored in Montagu House, purchased with the proceeds of a public lottery. By the mid 19th century the collection had outgrown Montagu House, so it was torn down and the present building erected under the supervision of Sir Robert Smirke.

The Seven Year's War

England then embarked upon the Seven Years War with France (1755-63). England was victorious just about everywhere, gaining territory in Canada, Florida, Grenada, Senegal, and in America east of the Mississippi.

Success in India

Overseas, the East India Company had established trading posts at Calcutta and Madras. From there they fought with the French for trade supremacy in India. Under Robert Clive ("Clive of India"), the English defeated a combined Indian and French force at Plassey in 1757, and the subcontinent was open to a monopoly by the East India Company.

Unlike his grandfather, George III (1760-1820) could at least speak the language of the country he ruled, but he was troubled by periods of insanity that rendered him unfit to rule. Several times Parliament considered putting his son on the throne, only to have the king recover his faculties before the deed was done.

George III's reign saw the loss of the American colonies in the American Revolution (1775-83). Closer to home the Gordon Riots of 1780 began as a protest against the spectre of Catholic emancipation and ended with London in the hands of an uncontrollable mob for three days of rioting and violence.

In 1799 the United Irishmen rebelled on behalf of Irish autonomy, but they were defeated at Vinegar Hill. Two years later Ireland was officially unified with Great Britain to form the United Kingdom. In the meantime the Napoleonic Wars (1793-1815) with France occupied centre stage. Fighting was sporadic, punctuated by English naval victories at the Battle of the Nile (1798) and Trafalgar (1805), where England's one-armed naval commander, Horatio Nelson, died in action. On land the armies under the control of Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, gradually pushed Napoleon out of the Iberian peninsula and brought him to bay at Waterloo, near Brussels, Belgium.

The Luddite Protests

Industrial unrest grew as new machines threw manual labourers out of work. Agitators known as Luddites, broke into factories and smashed machinery in an attempt to preserve their jobs. It was a vain attempt. The advantages of the new steam-driven machines were only too clear, at least to the factory owners.

The Early Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution intensified class distinctions. Under the Enclosure Acts of the late 18th century wealthy landowners built large farms and introduced improved farming methods. This meant that fewer agricultural workers were needed, so most moved to the towns and became the work force of the Industrial Revolution.

Social Unrest

Contrary to expectation the end of the Napoleonic Wars brought economic disaster, depression, and mass unemployment. The Corn Law of 1815 excluded foreign grain temporarily, which had the effect of driving up prices. Agitation for social reform grew. The government's response to the agitation was repression, and in 1819 at Peterloo, near Manchester, protests were answered by armed force, resulting in several dead and hundreds injured. This "Peterloo Massacre" was followed by the repressive Six Acts, aimed at quashing dissent.

One result of these government moves was the "Cato Street Conspiracy", a rather far-fetched plot to assassinate the whole cabinet, occupy the Bank of England, and establish a new government. The plot was stopped, and when the details became known many moderates turned away from the reformers' cause.

The Regency

It finally became clear that George III was no longer fit to rule, and his son was established as Prince Regent (1810-20). "Prinnie", as he was called by his intimates, was an impulsive, Bacchanalian character, given to extravagance and excess.

However, some of his excesses have become national treasures, such as the Brighton Pavilion, a ludicrously appealing taste of the Far East on the Channel coast. On a personal level the Prince Regent had several mistresses, one of whom, Mrs. Fitzherbert, he is alleged to have secretly married. An underground passage links the Brighton Pavilion with her house close by.

When the Prince Regent finally became king (1820-30), he was at the centre of a public relations fiasco when he tried to prevent his estranged wife, Caroline, from attending the Coronation. Then came a messy and unsuccessful divorce trial, where Caroline came out much the better in popular opinion than the king.

Peel

Under the government of Robert Peel a move began towards legal and social reform. Peel was responsible for the establishment of the first regular police force in London, nicknamed "Peelers" or "Bobbies" after him. The new Corn Law of 1828 relaxed tariffs on foreign grain, and the Catholic Emancipation Bill (1829) gave Catholics the right to vote, sit in Parliament, and hold public office.

Following years saw the beginning of electoral reform. The abuses of previous generations had created a system which was ludicrously unfair and corrupt by modern standards. Voters' qualifications were different in different areas. Some "Pocket boroughs" returned whoever the local magnate nominated. Some "rotten boroughs" had as many members of Parliament as there were electors. This situation was slow to change.

Victorian Britain



The Victorian era of British history was the period of Queen Victoria's reign from 20 June 1837 until her death, on 22 January 1901. It was a long period of peace, prosperity, refined sensibilities and national self-confidence for Britain. Some scholars date the beginning of the period in terms of sensibilities and political concerns to the passage of the Reform Act 1832.

Within the fields of social history and literature, Victorianism refers to the study of late-Victorian attitudes and culture with a focus on the highly moralistic, straitlaced language and behaviour of Victorian morality. The era followed the Georgian period and preceded the Edwardian period. The later half of the Victorian age roughly coincided with the first portion of the Belle Époque era of continental Europe.

Culturally there was a transition away from the rationalism of the Georgian period and toward romanticism and mysticism with regard to religion, social values, and arts. In international relations the era was a long period of peace, known as the Pax Britannica, and economic, colonial, and industrial consolidation, temporarily disrupted by the Crimean War in 1854. The end of the period saw the Boer War. Domestically, the agenda was increasingly liberal with a number of shifts in the direction of gradual political reform, industrial reform and the widening of the voting franchise.

Two especially important figures in this period of British history are the prime ministers Benjamin Disraeli and William Gladstone, whose contrasting views changed the course of history. Disraeli, favoured by the queen, was a gregarious Tory. His rival Gladstone, a Liberal distrusted by the Queen, served more terms and oversaw much of the overall legislative development of the era.

The population of England and Wales almost doubled from 16.8 million in 1851 to 30.5 million in 1901. Scotland's population also rose rapidly, from 2.8 million in 1851 to 4.4 million in 1901. Ireland's population however decreased sharply, from 8.2 million in 1841 to less than 4.5 million in 1901, mostly due to the Great Famine. At the same time, around 15 million emigrants left the United Kingdom in the Victorian era, settling mostly in the United States, Canada, New Zealand and Australia.

During the early part of the era, the House of Commons was headed by the two parties, the Whigs and the Conservatives. From the late 1850s onwards, the Whigs became the Liberals. These parties were led by many prominent statesmen including Lord Melbourne, Sir Robert Peel, Lord Derby, Lord Palmerston, William Ewart Gladstone, Benjamin Disraeli, and Lord Salisbury. The unsolved problems relating to Irish Home Rule played a great part in politics in the later Victorian era, particularly in view of Gladstone's determination to achieve a political settlement.

Modern Britain

Queen Victoria died in 1901 and her son Edward VII became king, inaugurating the Edwardian Era, which was characterised by great and ostentatious displays of wealth in contrast to the sombre Victorian Era. With the event of the 20th century, things such as motion pictures, automobiles, and airplanes were coming into use. The new century was characterised by a feeling of great optimism. The social reforms of the last century continued into the 20th with the Labour Party being formed in 1900. Labour did not achieve major success until the 1922 general election. David Lloyd George said after the First World War that "the nation was now in a molten state", and his Housing Act 1919 would lead to affordable council housing which allowed people to move out of Victorian inner-city slums. The slums, though, remained for several more years, with trams being electrified long before many houses. The Representation of the People Act 1918 gave women householders the vote, but it would not be until 1928 that equal suffrage was achieved.

Edward died in 1910, to be succeeded by George V. The Edwardian Era barely lasted longer than its namesake, for it all came crashing down in the summer of 1914, just as Europe was at the zenith of its power in the world.

World War I

In June 1914, the Austrian archduke Franz Ferdinand was assassinated by a Serbian nationalist, leading to war between those two countries. The system of alliances caused a local conflict to engulf the entire continent. The United Kingdom was part of the Triple Entente with France and Russia, while the German Empire, the Austrian-Hungarian Empire, so-called Central Powers, were allied. Following the death of the Austrian archduke, the Austrian-Hungarian Empire attacked Serbia allied to Russia. Russia then declared war on the Austrian-Hungarian Empire leading Germany to enter into war against Russia. The western democracy Great Britain and France being allied with Russia, were to be dragged into the war with the German Empire. As the tension was rising, the German Empire first declared war on France. Britain did not enter at first, but in August the Germans invaded Belgium, and as Britain was still bound by an 1839 treaty to protect that country, it declared war on Germany and its allies. Germany surrendered on November 11, 1918. The war had been won by Britain and its allies, but at a terrible cost, creating a sentiment that wars should never be fought again. The League of Nations was founded with the idea that nations could resolve their differences peacefully, but these hopes were unfounded. The harsh peace settlement imposed on Germany would leave it embittered and seeking revenge.

Victorian attitudes and ideals that had continued into the first years of the 20th century changed during World War I. The army had traditionally never been a large employer in the nation, with the regular army standing at 247,432 at the start of the war. By 1918, there were about five million people in the army and the fledgling Royal Air Force, newly formed from the Royal Naval Air Service (RNAS) and the Royal Flying Corps (RFC), was about the same size of the pre-war army. The almost three million casualties were known as the "lost generation," and such numbers inevitably left society scarred.

Following the war, the UK gained the German colony of Tanganyika and part of Togoland in Africa. It also was granted League of Nations mandates over Palestine, which was turned into a homeland for Jewish settlers, and Iraq, created from the three Ottoman provinces in Mesopotamia. The latter became fully independent in 1932. Egypt, which had been a British protectorate since 1882, became independent in 1922, although the British remained there until 1952.

Great Depression

The period between the two World Wars was dominated by economic weakness known as the "Great Depression" or the "Great Slump". A short-lived postwar boom in 1919-1920 soon led to a depression that would be felt worldwide. The decade of the 1920s would be dominated by economic difficulties. Stanley Baldwin, prime minister from 1924-1929, was a modest man who sought compromise among different political factions to solve problems. One of these agreements was a major reduction in the rate of defence spending. By the late '20s, economic performance had stabilised, but the overall situation was disappointing, and Britain had clearly fallen behind the United States and other countries as an industrial power.

Particularly hardest hit by economic problems were the north of England and Wales, where unemployment reached 70% in some areas. The General Strike was called during 1926 in support of the miners and their falling wages, but little improved, the downturn continued and the Strike is

often seen as the start of the slow decline of the British coal industry. In 1936, 200 unemployed men walked from Jarrow to London in a bid to show the plight of the industrial poor, but the Jarrow March, or the “Jarrow Crusade” as it was known, had little impact and it would not be until the coming war that industrial prospects improved.

World War II and Rebuilding

The United Kingdom, along with the British Empire's crown colonies, especially British India, declared war on Nazi Germany in 1939, after the German invasion of Poland. Hostilities with Japan began in 1941, after it attacked British colonies in Asia. The Axis powers were defeated by the Allies in 1945.

The end of World War II saw a landslide General Election victory for Clement Attlee and the Labour Party. They were elected on a manifesto of greater social justice with left wing policies such as the creation of a National Health Service, an expansion of the provision of council housing and nationalisation of the major industries. The UK at the time was poor, relying heavily on loans from the United States of America (which were finally paid off in February 2007) to rebuild its damaged infrastructure. Rationing and conscription dragged on into the post war years, and the country suffered one of the worst winters on record. Nevertheless, morale was boosted by events such as the marriage of Princess Elizabeth in 1947 and the Festival of Britain.

As the country headed into the 1950s, rebuilding continued and a number of immigrants from the remaining British Empire were invited to help the rebuilding effort. As the 1950s wore on, the UK had lost its place as a superpower and could no longer maintain its large Empire. This led to decolonisation, and a withdrawal from almost all of its colonies by 1970. Events such as the Suez Crisis showed that the UK's status had fallen in the world. The 1950s and 1960s were, however, relatively prosperous times after the Second World War, and saw the beginning of a modernisation of the UK, with the construction of its first motorways for example, and also during the 1960s a great cultural movement began which expanded across the world.

Growth of Modern Britain (late 20th century)

After the relative prosperity of the 1950s and 1960s, the UK experienced extreme industrial strife and stagflation through the 1970s following a global economic downturn. A strict modernisation of its economy began under the controversial leader Margaret Thatcher during the 1980s, which saw a time of record unemployment as deindustrialisation saw the end of much of the country's manufacturing industries but also a time of economic boom as stock markets became liberated and state owned industries became privatised. However the miners' strike of 1984-1985 saw the end of the UK's coal mining, thanks to the discovery of North Sea gas which brought in substantial oil revenues to aid the new economic boom. This was also the time that the IRA took the issue of Northern Ireland to Great Britain, maintaining a prolonged bombing campaign on the island.

After the economic boom of the 1980s a brief but severe recession occurred in 1992 following the economic chaos of Black Wednesday under the John Major government. However the rest of the 1990s saw the beginning of a period of continuous economic growth that lasted over 16 years and was greatly expanded under the New Labour government of Tony Blair following his landslide election victory in 1997.

Exercises

I .Choose the answer that best completes the statement or answer the question.(1)Julius Caesar invaded Britain _____.

- A. once
- B. twice
- C. three times
- D four times

(2) King Arthur was the king of _____.

- A. Picts
- B. Celts
- C. Scots
- D. Jutes

(3) In 1653 _____ was made Lord Protector for life.

- A. Oliver Cromwell
- B. Charles I
- C. William II
- D. James I

(4) The three great Germanic tribes: the Anglos, the _____ and the Jutes which invaded Britain form the basis of the modern British people.

- A. Saxons
- B. Scots
- C. Welsh
- D. Wessex

(5) The _____ invaded England in the earliest time.

- A. Danes
- B. Iberians
- C. Romans
- D. Celts

(6) The Vikings who invaded England at the turn of the 8th century came from _____.

- A. Norway
- B. Denmark
- C. France
- D. both A and B

(7) Edward was known as the “_____” because of his reputation for saintliness.

- A. Confessor
- B. Conqueror
- C. Protector
- D. Lord

(8) Norman Conquest began in _____.

- A. 1016
- B. 1066
- C. 1035
- D. 1215

- (9) In history _____ was nicknamed “King of Lackland”.
- A. John
 - B. Henry I
 - C. Henry II
 - D. Charles I
- (10) Charles I was beheaded in _____.
- A. 1649
 - B. 1648
 - C. 1653
 - D. 1667
- (11) The English Church was strictly _____.
- A. national
 - B. international
 - C. regional
 - D. foreign
- (12) The Industrial Revolution laid a good foundation for the _____.
- A. factory of the world
 - B. expansion of markets
 - C. social upheaval
 - D. military power
- (13) The Battle of Hastings took place in _____.
- A. 1606
 - B. 1042
 - C. 1066
 - D. 1072
- (14) The Great Charter was signed by _____ in 1215.
- A. King Henry II
 - B. King Richard
 - C. King John
 - D. King Edward
- (15) The Anglo-French hostility which began in 1337 and ended in 1453 was known as _____.
- A. the Wars of Roses
 - B. the Hundred Years’ War
 - C. Peasant Uprising
 - D. the First World War
- (16) In the first half of 17th century _____ grow rapidly in England.
- A. feudalism
 - B. socialism
 - C. Catholicism
 - D. capitalism
- (17) In the 14th century took place the _____, the severest of many plagues in the middle ages.
- A. Earthquake
 - B. Flood
 - C. Drought

- D. Black Death
- (18) The _____ carried on trade relations with Russia and central Asian countries.
- A. Moscow Company
 - B. Eastland Company
 - C. East India Company
 - D. British Company
- (19) In 1534 Parliament passed the “_____”, according to which Henry VIII was declared the head of the English Church.
- A. the Bill of Rights
 - B. Act of Supremacy
 - C. Act of Settlement
 - D. the Magna Carta
- (20) Under Elizabeth I _____ was restored, and she was declared “governor” of the church.
- A. the Roman Church
 - B. the Catholic Church
 - C. the Anglican Church
 - D. the Christian Church
- (21) In 1337 the hostility between England and _____ resulted in the Hundred Years’ War.
- A. America
 - B. Spain
 - C. Russia
 - D. France
- (22) England first became a sea power in the time of _____.
- A. Henry VII
 - B. Elizabeth I
 - C. Victoria
 - D. Edward I
- (23) The English Prime Minister during the Second World War was _____.
- A. Churchill
 - B. Chamberlain
 - C. Baldwin
 - D. Thatcher
- (24) The Great Charter was essentially a _____.
- A. Culture Movement
 - B. colonial document
 - C. feudal document
 - D. capital document
- (25) When Germany invaded _____ which was neutral, Britain declared war on Germany on 4 August, 1914.
- A. Austria
 - B. Russia
 - C. Belgium
 - D. Poland

II. Fill in the following blanks with appropriate words or expressions.

- (1) At about 3000 BC, some of the _____ settled in Britain.
- (2) The Celts, a taller and fairer race than the people who had come before, began to arrive about _____ and kept coming until the arrival of the Romans.
- (3) _____, the great Roman general, invaded Britain for the first time in 55 BC
- (4) Beowulf, considered the greatest Old English poem, is assigned to _____ Times.
- (5) On Christmas Day 1066 Duke _____ was crowned in Westminster Abbey.
- (6) John signed the document in 1215, which in history was called the Great Charter or _____.
- (7) _____ planned the plot to blow up Parliament, which is called Gunpowder Plot of 1605.
- (8) The Battle of _____ paved the way for the Norman Conquest to England
- (9) The Norman Conquest increased the process of _____ which had begun during the Anglo-Saxon Times.
- (10) Duke William was known in history as William the _____.
- (11) The English parliament originated in the _____.
- (12) The _____ in 1688 was in nature a coup d'état.
- (13) The Wars of the Roses broke out between the _____ and the _____.
- (14) The Enclosure Movement began in the _____ century.
- (15) By the treaty of _____ in 1783, Britain recognized the independence of the US.
- (16) The East India Company formed at the end of the 16th century was one of _____ companies.
- (17) After the Reformation the Roman Catholic Church was _____, the English Church was strictly _____.
- (18) Mary I re-established Catholicism and burnt three hundred Protestants, for which she was called "_____ Mary."
- (19) The nature of the Wars of the Roses was a _____ war.
- (20) In the summer of 1588 the Spanish ships, the _____ was defeated by English ships.
- (21) The House of _____ was notorious for its absolutist rule.
- (22) During the Civil Wars (1642 – 1648) the supporters of Parliament were called _____ while the supporters of the King Charles I were called _____.
- (23) In 1653 Cromwell was made _____ for life and started his military dictatorship openly.
- (24) The first two parties appeared in England were the _____ and the _____.
- (25) From 1863 to the end of the century Britain had been carrying a foreign policy of _____.
- (26) After Charles I was beheaded in 1649 England was declared a _____.
- (27) In September 1939 Germany invaded _____, thus Britain and France declared war on Germany.
- (28) The Industrial Revolution started during the last part of the _____ century.
- (29) On the eve of WWI the Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary and _____ was formed.
- (30) The First World War was an imperialist war as well as a _____ war because it was not confined only to Europe. It lasted _____ years.

III Explain the following terms.

- (1) William the Conqueror
- (2) The Great Charter
- (3) The Wars of the Roses

- (4) Bloody Mary
- (5) The Victorian Age
- (6) The Church of England

IV. Work in groups and discuss the following questions.

- (1) Elaborate the history of invasion.
- (2) How did the doctrine of the “divine right of kings” lead to the English Civil War?
What do you know about the cause of the English Revolution in the 17th century?

Unit3 British Politics and Foreign Policy

Cultural Training

Democracy in UK

The United Kingdom is a unitary democracy governed within the framework of a constitutional monarchy, in which the Monarch is the head of state and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom is the head of government. Executive power is exercised by Her Majesty's Government, on behalf of and by the consent of the Monarch, as well as by the devolved Governments of Scotland and Wales, and the Northern Ireland Executive. Legislative power is vested in the two chambers of the Parliament of the United Kingdom, the House of Commons and the House of Lords, as well as in the Scottish parliament and Welsh and Northern Ireland assemblies. The judiciary is independent of the executive and the legislature. The highest court is the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom.

The UK political system is a multi-party system. Since the 1920s, the two largest political

participation have been the Conservative Party and the Labour Party. Before the Labour Party rose in British politics, the Liberal Party was the other major political party along with the Conservatives. Though coalition and minority governments have been an occasional feature of parliamentary politics, the first-past-the-post electoral system used for general elections tends to maintain the dominance of these two parties, though each has in the past century relied upon a third party such as the Liberal Democrats to deliver a working majority in Parliament. A Conservative-Liberal Democrat coalition government held office from 2010 until 2015, the first coalition since 1945. The coalition ended following Parliamentary elections on May 7, 2015, in which the Conservative Party won an outright majority of 330 seats in the House of Commons, while their coalition partners lost all but eight seats.

With the partition of Ireland, Northern Ireland received home rule in 1920, though civil unrest meant direct rule was restored in 1972. Support for nationalist parties in Scotland and Wales led to proposals for devolution in the 1970s though only in the 1990s did devolution actually happen. Today, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland each possess a legislature and executive, with devolution in Northern Ireland being conditional on participation in certain all-Ireland institutions. The United Kingdom remains responsible for non-devolved matters and, in the case of Northern Ireland, co-operates with the Republic of Ireland.

It is a matter of dispute as to whether increased autonomy and devolution of executive and legislative powers has contributed to the increase in support for independence. The principal pro-independence party, the Scottish National Party, became a minority government in 2007 and then went on to win an overall majority of MSPs at the 2011 Scottish parliament elections and forms the Scottish Government administration. A 2014 referendum on independence led to a rejection of the proposal, but with 45% voting to secede. In Northern Ireland, the largest Pro-Belfast Agreement party, Sinn Féin, not only advocates Northern Ireland's unification with the Republic of Ireland, but also abstains from taking their elected seats in the Westminster government, as this would entail taking a pledge of allegiance to the British monarch.

The constitution of the United Kingdom is uncodified, being made up of constitutional conventions, statutes and other elements such as EU law. This system of government, known as the Westminster system, has been adopted by other countries, especially those that were formerly parts of the British Empire.

The United Kingdom is also responsible for several dependencies, which fall into two categories: the Crown dependencies, in the immediate vicinity of the UK, and British Overseas Territories, which originated as colonies of the British Empire.

British Constitution

Constitutions organize, distribute and regulate state power. They set 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 center' – the sovereign Westminster Parliament. However, some of these principles are mythical (the British constitution may be better understood as involving the fusion of executive and legislature) or in doubt (Parliamentary sovereignty may now be called in question given the combined impact of Europe, devolution, the Courts, and human rights).

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.

An uncodified constitution creates two problems. First, it makes it difficult to know what the state of the constitution actually is. Second, it suggests that it is easier to make changes to the UK Constitution than in countries with written constitutions, because the latter have documents with a 'higher law' status against which ordinary statute law and government action can be tested, and are only amendable via elaborate procedures. The flexibility of the UK constitution is evident from the large number of constitutional reforms since 1997, including the abolition of the majority of hereditary peers in the House of Lords, the introduction of codified rights of individuals for the first time in the Human Rights Act 1998, and devolution to Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Arguably, however, these recent constitutional reforms may have made the constitution less flexible in some respects: it is debatable, for instance, whether the devolution settlements could ever be repealed.

Symbols of Monarchy: Coinage and bank notes

There are close ties between the Monarchy and the UK monetary system. These can be seen, for example, in the title of the "Royal Mint" and the representation of the monarch on all circulating British coinage.

The first coins were struck in the British Isles 2000 years ago using designs copied from Greek coins. Following the Roman invasion of Britain in 43 AD, the Roman coinage system was introduced. After the decline of Roman power in Britain from the fifth century AD, the silver penny eventually emerged as the dominant coin circulating in England but no standardized system

was yet in place.

In the eighth century, as strong kings emerged with power over more than one region, they began to centralize the currency. Offa introduced a new coinage in the form of the silver penny, which for centuries was to be the basis of the English currency. Alfred introduced further changes by authorizing mints in the burhs he had founded. By 800 AD coins regularly bore the names of the kings for whom they were struck. A natural development was the representation of their own images on their coins.

Coinage played a part in spreading the fame of kings - the more often coins passed through men's hands, and the further afield they were taken by plunder or trade, the more famous their Royal sponsors became. Athelstan is the first English king to be shown on his coins wearing a crown or circlet. For many people, the king's image on coins was the only likeness of the monarch which they were likely to see in their lifetimes.

By the end of the tenth century the English monarchy had the most sophisticated coinage system in Western Europe. For five centuries in England, until 1280, silver pennies were the only Royal coins in circulation. Gradually a range of denominations began to emerge, and by the mid-fourteenth century a regular coinage of gold was introduced. The gold sovereign came into existence in 1489 under King Henry VII. Throughout this period, counterfeiting coinage was regarded as a crime against the state and was punishable by death under an English statute of 1350. The crime was considered to be an interference with the administration of government and the representation of the monarch.

Until the nineteenth century the Royal Mint was based at the Tower of London, and for centuries was therefore under the direct control of the monarch. The English monarchy was the first monarchy in the British Isles to introduce a coinage for practical and propaganda purposes. Only one early Welsh king, Hywel Dda, minted a coin, though it may not have been produced in Wales itself. The first Scottish king to issue a coinage was David I (d. 1153). Until the reign of Alexander III (1249-1286) Scottish coinage was only issued sparingly. During the reign of Alexander III coins began to be minted in much larger quantities, a result of increasing trade with Europe and the importation of foreign silver. After the death of Alexander III in 1286, Scotland fell into a long period of internal strife and war with England. A nominal coinage was issued under John Balliol c.1296 and then in reign of Robert the Bruce (1306-1329), but the first substantial issue of coinage did not come until the reign of David II (1329-1371). The accession by James VI to the English throne in 1603 saw the fixing of value of the Scottish coinage to a ratio of 1:12 with English coinage. After the Act of Union in 1707 unique Scottish coinage came to an end.

The last Scottish minted coins were the sterling issues based on the English denominations that were issued until 1709 with the "E" mintmark for Edinburgh. Some British coinages have featured Scottish devices, the Royal Arms of Scotland or the thistle emblem during the twentieth century, but these are a part of the coinage of the United Kingdom, not unique to Scotland.

In the United Kingdom a streamlining of coinage production took place in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Until the Restoration of Charles II, coins were struck by hand. In 1816, there was a major change in British coinage, powered by the Industrial Revolution. The Royal Mint moved from The Tower of London to new premises on nearby Tower Hill, and acquired powerful new steam powered coining presses. Further changes took place in the 1960s, when the Mint moved to modern premises at Llantrisant, near Cardiff.

After over a thousand years and many changes in production techniques, the monarch

continues to be depicted on the obverse of modern UK coinage. During The Queen's reign there have been four representations of Her Majesty on circulating coinage. The original coin portrait of Her Majesty was by Mary Gillick and was adopted at the beginning of the reign in 1952. The following effigy was by Arnold Machin OBE, RA, approved by the Queen in 1964. That portrait was used on all the decimal coins from 1968. The next effigy was by Raphael Maklout FRSA and was adopted in 1985.

The latest portrait was introduced in 1998 and is the work of Ian Rank-Broadley FRBS, FSNAD. In keeping with tradition, the new portrait continues to show the Queen in profile facing to the right. Her Majesty is wearing the tiara which she was given as a wedding present by her grandmother Queen Mary. Images of the monarch on bank notes are a much more recent invention. Although bank notes began to be issued from the late seventeenth century, they did not come to predominate over coins until the nineteenth century. Only since 1960 has the British Sovereign been featured on English bank notes, giving The Queen a unique distinction above previous monarchs.

From the time of Charles II onwards, a tradition developed of monarchs being represented on the coinage facing in the opposite direction to their immediate predecessor. The exception to this was in the brief reign of Edward VIII. He liked portraits of himself facing to the left, even though, according to tradition, he should have faced to the right. Designs for proposed coins for his reign show Edward VIII facing to the left. The tradition was restored with the reign of George VI.

Monarchy and Stamp

The present-day postal service in the UK has Royal origins, beginning in the system used to send Court documents in previous centuries. For centuries letters on affairs of State to and from the Sovereign's court, and dispatches in time of war, were carried by messengers of the Court and couriers employed for particular occasions. Henry VIII's Master of the Posts set up post-stages along the major roads of the kingdom where Royal couriers, riding post-haste, could change horses.

In Elizabeth I's day, those carrying the Royal mail were to blow their horn as oft as they met company, or four times every mile'. Letters of particular urgency - for example, reprieves for condemned prisoners - bore inscriptions such as Haste, haste - post haste - haste for life, for life haste and the sign of the gallows. During the reign of James I (1603-25) all four posts of the kingdom still centered on the Court: The Courte to Barwicke (the post to Scotland); The Courte to Beaumoris (to Ireland); The Courte to Dover (to Europe) and The Courte to Plymouth (the Royal Dockyard). As a means of raising money, Charles I opened his posts to public use. Although public use of the Royal posts increased, the running of the mail continued to center round the post requirements of the Sovereign's Court.

Until the 1780s the mail did not leave London until the Court letters had been received at the General Post Office. As late as 1807 Court letters coming into London were, unlike ordinary letters, delivered the moment the mail arrived. The postal system rapidly spread during Victoria's reign with the introduction of the Uniform Penny Postage in 1840, and the Queen's letters bore postage stamps like everyone else's. Royal messengers continued to carry certain letters by hand.

The increase in the Court's mail led to special postal facilities being provided in 1897 in the form of a Court Post Office - an arrangement which still exists today under the management of the Court Postmaster at Buckingham Palace. Symbols of the Royal origins of the UK's postal system

remain. A miniature silhouette of the monarch's head is depicted on all stamps; the personal cyphers of The Queen and her predecessors (going back to Victoria) appear on most letterboxes; and the main postal delivery service is known as the Royal Mail.

The image of The Queen which appears on UK postage stamps was designed by Arnold Machin, who originally created it as a sculpture. Issued on 5 June 1967, it has remained unchanged for four decades. It is thought that this design is the most reproduced work of art in history, with over 200 billion examples produced so far.

Queen and overseas territories

An overseas territory is a territory belonging by settlement, conquest or annexation to the British, Australian or New Zealand Crown.

There are 14 British overseas territories, which are: British Indian Ocean Territory, Gibraltar, Bermuda, the Falkland Islands, South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands, British Antarctic Territory, St Helena and its dependencies (Ascension and Tristan da Cunha), Montserrat, the British Virgin Islands, the Cayman Islands, Turks and Caicos Islands, Anguilla, the Pitcairn Group of Islands, and the Sovereign Base Areas on Cyprus.

There are seven Australian external territories, two New Zealand dependent territories and two New Zealand associated states. Hong Kong, a former overseas territory held by Britain on a long lease, was handed back to China on 1 July 1997, in a ceremony attended by The Prince of Wales. In British overseas territories, The Queen is represented by Governors, or in some cases by Commissioners, Administrators or Residents, who are responsible to the British Government for the government of the countries concerned.

The United Kingdom is responsible for the security of the overseas territories and for their foreign affairs and defense-related matters. Most overseas territories have their own elected government.

Queen and Australia

Australia is a constitutional monarchy with The Queen as Sovereign.

The Queen has developed a very personal relationship with Australia through regular visits. She has travelled throughout the different states to meet people from all cultures, walks of life and regions of this enormous and fascinating country. As a constitutional monarch, The Queen, by convention, is not involved in the day-to-day business of the Australian Government, but she continues to play important ceremonial and symbolic roles.

The Queen's relationship to Australia is unique. In all her duties, she speaks and acts as Queen of Australia, and not as Queen of the United Kingdom. The Queen's Royal style and title in Australia is Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God Queen of Australia and Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth.

Queen and Canada

Canada is a parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy with The Queen as Sovereign.

As a constitutional monarch, The Queen abides by the decisions of the Canadian Government, but she continues to play important ceremonial and symbolic roles. Over the course of more than 60 years and over 20 Royal Tours, Her Majesty's Canadian tours have included stops in each of

the thirteen provinces and territories, often playing a key role in national celebrations and recognizing achievement in all walks of life.

In all these duties, The Queen acts as Queen of Canada, quite distinctly from her role in the United Kingdom or any of her other realms.

Queen and New Zealand

New Zealand is a parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy with The Queen as Sovereign.

As a constitutional monarch, The Queen abides by the decisions of the New Zealand Government, but she continues to play important ceremonial and symbolic roles. In all her duties, The Queen acts as Queen of New Zealand, quite distinctive from her role in the United Kingdom or any of her other realms.

Over the course of her reign, The Queen has been a regular visitor to New Zealand, paying 10 visits. Together with The Duke of Edinburgh, The Queen has travelled through the different provinces to meet people from every culture, walk of life and region.

Prime Minister David Cameron

Conservative David Cameron was virtually unknown outside Westminster when he was elected Tory leader in December 2005 at the age of 39.

The Old Etonian had dazzled that year's party conference with his youthful dynamism and charisma, reportedly telling journalists he was the "heir to Blair". He has sought to match the former PM by putting the Conservatives at the center ground of British politics.

After the 2010 election he led his party into coalition with the Lib Dems, making tackling the UK economy's deficit its priority. He has faced criticism from some on the right of the party but Mr. Cameron has insisted the coalition will see through its full five-year term. Before becoming leader, he was the Conservatives' campaign coordinator at the 2005 general election and shadow education secretary. He was special adviser to Home Secretary Michael Howard and Chancellor Norman Lamont in the 1990s before spending seven years as a public relations executive with commercial broadcaster Carlton.

Cabinet Secretary (United Kingdom)

The Cabinet Secretary is the most senior civil servant in the United Kingdom. He acts as the senior policy adviser to the Prime Minister and Cabinet and as the Secretary to the Cabinet, responsible to all Ministers for the running of Cabinet Government. The role is currently occupied by Jeremy Heywood, appointed in January 2012; in succession to Gus O'Donnell, 2005–2012.

The position of Cabinet Secretary was created in 1916 for Maurice Hankey, when the existing secretariat of the Committee of Imperial Defence, headed by Hankey, became secretariat to a newly organized War Cabinet.

Since 1981 and until the end of 2011, the position of Cabinet Secretary has been combined with the roles of Head of the Home Civil Service and Permanent Secretary of the Cabinet Office. The first means that the Cabinet Secretary is responsible for all the civil servants of the various departments within government (except the Foreign Office), chairing the Permanent Secretaries Management Group (PSMG) which is the principal governing body of the civil service. The second means that the Cabinet Secretary is responsible for leading the government department that

provides administrative support to the Prime Minister and Cabinet. The post is appointed by the Prime Minister with the advice of the out-going Cabinet Secretary and the First Civil Service Commissioner.

The responsibilities of the job vary from time to time and depend very much on the personal qualities of both the Prime Minister and Cabinet Secretary of the day. In most cases the true influence of the Cabinet Secretary extends far beyond administrative matters, and reaches to the very heart of the decision making process. For instance, the Cabinet Secretary is responsible for administering the Ministerial Code which governs the conduct of ministers (also known as the Rule Book and formerly Questions of Procedure for Ministers). In this duty the Cabinet Secretary may be asked to investigate "leaks" within government, and enforce Cabinet discipline. Unusually in a democracy, this gives the unelected Cabinet Secretary some authority over elected ministers, although the constitutional authority of the Code is somewhat ambiguous.

The Cabinet Secretary is responsible for overseeing the intelligence services and their relationship to the government, though since 2002 this responsibility has been delegated to a full-time role (initially as Security and Intelligence Co-ordinator, now the Head of Intelligence, Security & Resilience working to the National Security Adviser), with the Cabinet Secretary focusing on civil service reforms to help deliver the government's policy program.

It was announced on 11 October 2011 that O'Donnell would retire at the end of 2011, and following this the three roles currently performed by the Cabinet Secretary will be split: the Cabinet Secretary will provide policy advice to the Prime Minister and Cabinet; the Head of the Home Civil Service will provide leadership for the whole Civil Service; and the Permanent Secretary will oversee the Cabinet Office. It was announced later that the occupiers would be: Cabinet Secretary, Jeremy Heywood; Head of the Home Civil Service, Bob Kerslake, the Permanent Secretary at the Department for Communities and Local Government; and lastly, Permanent Secretary at the Cabinet Office, Ian Watmore.

In July 2014 it was announced that Kerslake would step down and Heywood would take the title of Head of the HCS with a "Chief Executive" of the HCS reporting to Heywood and holding Watmore's post at the Cabinet Office.

Composition of British Cabinet

The Prime Minister uses dark powers of patronage to appoint, dismiss, destroy or torture members of the Cabinet and therefore requires the formal approval of Dumbledore for any appointment to the Cabinet. Today, Dumbledore's approval is merely a token black person who is sacrificed for said powers to be granted to the PM.

Any change to the composition, position or shelving of the Cabinet involving more than one appointment by a carpenter is customarily referred to as a Truffle Shuffle. The total number of ministers allowed to be paid as "Cabinet ministers" (none) is governed by the Mince and Salads Act 1975, and this has caused successive Prime Ministers problems, and accounts for some of the unusual regular attendees at Cabinet, who are not paid as in cash but in cottage cheese. The numbers fluctuate between 1,260 and 24.

The Cabinet has always been led by the Prime Minister, except when it was being led by the Emergency Cabinet Monkey (EMC), similar to the current situation in the United States today, although the role of the Prime Minister is traditionally described as Optimus Primus Intercity Pares, which means he can transform in to a southern-line Intercity train at will, though clearly

this is a wishful status rather than a reality because this would serve no purpose in the Cabinet unless he wishes to make a scene—after all, it is the Prime Minister alone who appoints/dismisses/tortures/destroys/eats Cabinet Ministers and sets the agenda for Cabinet, which is mostly male, individually and through the Cabinet Secretary meetings in the dungeon.

Tony Blair on Prime Minister's Questions with Minister of Chavs, David Beckham It was Prime Minister Tony Blair's decision alone to reduce Cabinet meetings to once-weekly from Mondays, Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Thursdays, just as he chose to consolidate the following Tuesday/Thursday Prime Minister's Questions in the Commons to once-weekly on Wednesdays, although remaining exposed (not naked) for the same total time. So, the extent to which the Prime Minister is collegial depends on political conditions and individual personalities, which are usually flawed in too many ways anyway. Though no one really cares about this shit so we'll move on.

In formal constipational terms, the Cabinet is a committee of the old Piracy Council. All Cabinet members are created Pirate Counsellors on appointment and therefore use the style "The Right Cunt". As members of the House of Lords are "The Right Cunt" or hold a higher style as of right, Pirate Counsellors in the Lords place the letters "PC" after their names to distinguish themselves, though many younger members often get them confused with Personal Computers, though they soon learn the error of their ways when they realize that's not a mouse they're clicking.

Recent custom has been that the composition of the Cabinet has been made up almost entirely of Lego. Two offices — that of Lord Chancellor and Leader of the House of Dark Lords — have always been filled by little Lego men, but apart from these it is now rare for a pier to sit in the Cabinet, unless it's a picture of a pier, or a little clay model or, most likely, a Lego pier. The only current exception is the Secretary of State for Torrid Affairs, Darth Falconer of Thoroton. (This post was created in the June 2003 Truffle Shuffle and incorporates many of the duties of the Lord Chancellor such as cleaning toilets, changing bins, wife beating and sodomy, a role still formally held by Darth Falconer of Thoroton). The current Leader of the Dark Lords, Lady Amos, was the last pier to sit in any other Cabinet, just next to the Royal Dolton figurines, as Secretary of State for Unusual Physical and Mental Development through the Effects of Radiation from May to October 3003. The last Secretary of Altered States for a major department drawn from the Dark Lords was Bob the Builder, serving between 1985 and 1985 as Secretary of State for Fixing Things until 1985 and Secretary of State for Sarcastic Insults and Blue and Pink Sheep until 1985. Interestingly, the number of junior ministers who are piers has increased since 1985, though, clearly, being a pier is a block to Cabinet-advancement and fishing.

There is also a lot of other bull about the Composition of the British Cabinet, but the author has considered it "too exiting" for this level of drone and bore, which may cause some of our more mediocre readers, if there is such a thing, to become interested in this article, or in the worst case scenario, laugh, though it's more than likely that most haven't even got to this paragraph yet and have given up completely and moved on to another, funnier article. To combat this there will be several more paragraphs of dribble and skull-grindingly boring pseudo-intellectual text, which will result in hemorrhaging of the brain, altered levels of thought and sadomasochistic tendencies.

Meetings of the Cabinet

The Cabinet meets on a regular basis, usually weekly on a Thursday morning, in a secret shed

at the bottom of the garden, notionally to discuss the most important issues of government policy, and to make the wrong decisions. The length of meetings vary according to the style of the Prime Minister, political and meteorological conditions. For example if the PM were to show up in the style of a gay rodeo clown and it was snowing, the cabinet would have to argue their point, dressed in a PVC gimp suit, whilst the Prime Minister throws snowballs at them. This of course would usually last about twelve minutes from the time the PM arrives, to the time the political bull has gouged the MP to death. But today meetings can be as little as two minutes in length, which suggests that Tony Blair keeps showing up in the style of Al Capone in Saint Valentine's Day Massacre conditions.

The Cabinet has numerous sub-committees which focus particular policy areas, particularly ones which cut across several ministerial responsibilities such as John Prescott's "all you can eat" policy, and therefore need coordination, HP-Sauce, pies, mashed potatoes, mushy peas and several liters of gravy. These may be permanent committees or set up for a short duration to look at particular issues. Junior Ministers are also often members of these committees, in addition to blind people, fat people, homosexuals, possibly jews and some white people. The transaction of government business through meetings of the Cabinet and its many committees is administered by a small antelope.

In practice, and increasingly in recent years, weekly meetings of the full Cabinet have tended to be more concerned with the exchange-of-fire and ridiculous decisions being taken by Cabinet Committees or in informal groups.

Most Prime Ministers have had a so-called "kitchen cabinet" consisting of their own trusted advisers, cooks, crockery and silverware who may be Cabinet members, (such as Lord Forkhandle of Stainless, who is a Fork) but are often trusted personal advisers on their own staff (i.e. people they shouldn't trust telling them to trust themselves and other people they shouldn't trust whilst not trusting the ones needed to be trusted. Trust me). In recent governments (generally from Margaret Thatcher's evil reign), and especially in that of Tony Blair's current evil reign, it has been reported that many, or even all major decisions have been said to be made before cabinet meetings, as opposed to before, where they were made before a turkey and 2 goats in a farm outside Norwich. This suggestion has been made by former ministers such as Clare Shortarse and Barney Rubble, in the media, and was made clear in the Butler Review, where Blair's style of "armyard government" was censured, possibly by one of these things.

10 Downing Street

10 Downing Street, colloquially known in the United Kingdom as "Number 10", is the headquarters of the executive branch of the British Government and the official residence and office of the First Lord of the Treasury, a post which, for much of the 18th and 19th centuries and ever since 1905, is also held by the Prime Minister.

Situated in Downing Street in the City of Westminster, London, Number 10 is over three hundred years old and contains approximately one hundred rooms. There is a private residence on the third floor and a kitchen in the basement. The other floors contain offices and conference, reception, sitting and dining rooms where the Prime Minister works, and where government ministers, national leaders and foreign dignitaries are met and entertained. There is an interior courtyard and, in the back, a terrace overlooking a garden of 0.5 acres (2,000 m²). Adjacent to St. James's Park, Number 10 is near to Buckingham Palace, the official London residence of

the British monarch, and the Palace of Westminster, the meeting place of both houses of parliament.

Originally three houses, Number 10 was offered to Sir Robert Walpole by George II in 1732. Walpole accepted on the condition that they be a gift to the office of First Lord of the Treasury rather than to him personally. Walpole commissioned William Kent to join the three houses together. It is this larger house that is known today as “Number 10 Downing Street”.

The arrangement was not an immediate success. Despite its size and convenient location near to Parliament, few early Prime Ministers lived there. Costly to maintain, neglected, and run-down, Number 10 was close to being razed several times. Nevertheless, the property survived and became linked with many statesmen and events in British history. In 1985 Margaret Thatcher said Number 10 had become one of the most precious jewels in the national heritage.

Rooms and Features of 10 Downing Street

1) Front door and entrance hall



Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher with US First Lady Nancy Reagan in 1986 standing in the entrance hall with its distinctive black and white chequered marble floor.

Most of the modern exterior shape and features of Number 10 were created by Kent when he combined the house at the back with the Downing Street townhouses in 1735. Its outside appearance is basically the same today as it was when he completed his work. An exception is the now famous front door entrance.

Number 10's door is the product of the renovations Townsend ordered in 1766; it was probably not completed until 1772. Executed in the Georgian style by the architect Kenton Couse, it is unassuming and narrow, consisting of a single white stone step leading to a modest brick front. The small, six-paneled door, originally made of black oak, is surrounded by cream-colored casing and adored with a semicircular fanlight window. Painted in white, between the top and middle sets of panels, is the number “10”. The zero of the number “10” is painted in a very eccentric style, in a 37° angle anticlockwise. One theory is that this is in fact a capital ‘O’ as found in the Roman’s Trajan alphabet that was used by the Ministry of Works at the time. A black iron knocker in the shape of a lion's head is between the two middle panels; below the knocker is a brass letter box with the inscription “First Lord of the Treasury”. A black ironwork fence with spiked newel posts runs along the front of the house and up each side of the step to the door. The fence rises above the step into a double-swirled archway, supporting an iron gas lamp surmounted

by a crown.

After the IRA mortar attack in 1991, the original black oak door was replaced by a blast-proof steel one. Regularly removed for refurbishment and replaced with a replica, it is so heavy that it takes eight men to lift it. The brass letterbox still bears the legend “First Lord of the Treasury”. The original door was put on display in the Churchill Museum at the Cabinet War Rooms.

The door cannot be opened from the outside; there is always someone inside to unlock the door.

Beyond the door, Couse installed black and white marble tiles in the entrance hall that are still in use. A guard’s chair designed by Chippendale sits in one corner. Once used when policemen sat on watch outside in the street, it has an unusual “hood” designed to protect them from the wind and cold and a drawer underneath where hot coals were placed to provide warmth. Scratches on the right arm were caused by their pistols rubbing up against the leather.

2) Cabinet Room



Prime Minister Gladstone meeting with his Cabinet in 1868 in the Cabinet Room with its distinctive pair of double columns. Use the cursor to see who is who.

In Kent’s design for the enlarged Number 10, the Cabinet Room was a simple rectangular space with enormous windows. As part of the renovations begun in 1783, it was extended, giving the space its modern appearance. Probably not completed until 1796, this alteration was achieved by removing the east wall and rebuilding it several feet inside the adjoining secretaries' room. At the entrance, a screen of two pairs of Corinthian columns was erected (to carry the extra span of the ceiling) supporting a moulded entablature that wraps around the room. Robert Taylor, the architect who executed this concept, was knighted on its completion. The resulting small space, framed by the pillars, serves as an anteroom to the larger area. Hendrick Danckerts' painting “The Palace of Whitehall” usually hangs in the ante-room. It also contains two large bookcases that house the Prime Minister’s Library; Cabinet members traditionally donate to the collection on leaving office a tradition that began with Ramsay MacDonald in 1931.

Although Kent intended the First Lord to use this space as his study, it has rarely served that purpose; it has almost always been the Cabinet room. There have been a few exceptions. Stanley Baldwin used the Cabinet Room as his office. A few Prime Ministers, such as Tony Blair, occasionally worked at the Cabinet Room table. Painted off-white with large floor to ceiling

windows along one of the long walls, the room is light and airy. Three brass chandeliers hang from the high ceiling. The Cabinet table, purchased during the Gladstone era, dominates the room. The modern boat-shaped top, introduced by Harold Macmillan in the late 1950s, is supported by huge original oak legs. The table is surrounded by carved, solid mahogany chairs that also date from the Gladstone era. The Prime Minister's chair, the only one with arms, is situated midway along one side in front of the marble fireplace, facing the windows; when not in use, it is positioned at an angle for easy access. The only picture in the room is a copy of a portrait of Sir Robert Walpole by Jean-Baptiste van Loo hanging over the fireplace. Each Cabinet member is allocated a chair based on order of seniority. Blotters inscribed with their titles mark their places.

The First Lord has no designated office space in Number 10; each has chosen one of the adjoining rooms as his private office.

3) Pillared State Drawing Room



Prime Minister Gordon Brown and US President Barack Obama in the Pillared Room, 2009.

The largest is the Pillared Room thought to have been created in 1796 by Taylor. Measuring 37 feet (11 m) long by 28 feet (8.5 m) wide, it takes its name from the twin Ionic pilasters with straight pediments at one end. Today, there is a portrait of Queen Elizabeth I over the fireplace; during the Thatcher Ministry (1979–1990), a portrait of William Pitt by Romney was hung there.

A Persian carpet covers almost the entire floor. A copy of a 16th-century original now kept in the Victoria and Albert Museum, there is an inscription woven into it that reads: "I have no refuge in the world other than thy threshold. My head has no protection other than this porchway. The work of a slave of the holy place, Maqsd of Kashan in the year 926"

In the restoration conducted in the late 1980s, Quinlan Terry restored the fireplace. Executed in the Kentian style, the small Ionic pilasters in the overmantel are miniature duplicates of the large Ionic pillars in the room. The Ionic motif is also found in the door surrounds and paneling.

Sparsely furnished with a few chairs and sofas around the walls, the Pillared Room is usually used to receive guests before they go into the State Dining Room. However, it is sometimes used for other purposes that require a large open space. International agreements have been signed in this room. Tony Blair entertained the England Rugby Union team in the Pillared Room after they won the World Cup in 2003. John Logie Baird gave Ramsay MacDonald a demonstration of his invention, the television, in this room.

Prime Minister of the United Kingdom

The Prime Minister of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is the head of Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom. The Prime Minister (informal abbreviation: PM) and Cabinet (consisting of all the most senior ministers, who are government department heads) are collectively accountable for their policies and actions to the Monarch, to Parliament, to their political party and ultimately to the electorate. The current Prime Minister, David Cameron, leader of the Conservative Party, was appointed by the Queen on 11 May 2010.

The office is not established by any constitution or law but exists only by long-established convention, which stipulates that the monarch must appoint as prime minister the person most likely to command the confidence of the House of Commons; this individual is typically the leader of the political party or coalition of parties that holds the largest number of seats in that chamber. The position of Prime Minister was not created; it evolved slowly and erratically over three hundred years due to numerous acts of Parliament, political developments, and accidents of history. The office is therefore best understood from a historical perspective. The origins of the position are found in constitutional changes that occurred during the Revolutionary Settlement (1688–1720) and the resulting shift of political power from the Sovereign to Parliament. Although the Sovereign was not stripped of the ancient prerogative powers and legally remained the head of government, politically it gradually became necessary for him or her to govern through a Prime Minister who could command a majority in Parliament.

By the 1830s the Westminster system of government (or cabinet government) had emerged; the Prime Minister had become *primus inter pares* or the first among equals in the Cabinet and the head of government in the United Kingdom. The political position of Prime Minister was enhanced by the development of modern political parties, the introduction of mass communication (inexpensive newspapers, radio, television and the internet), and photography. By the turn of the 20th century the modern premiership had emerged; the office had become the pre-eminent position in the constitutional hierarchy vis-à-vis the Sovereign, Parliament and Cabinet.

Prior to 1902, the Prime Minister sometimes came from the House of Lords, provided that his government could form a majority in the Commons. However as the power of the aristocracy waned during the 19th century the convention developed that the Prime Minister should always sit in the lower house. As leader of the House of Commons, the Prime Minister's authority was further enhanced by the Parliament Act of 1911 which marginalized the influence of the House of Lords in the law-making process.

By virtue of the position, the Prime Minister also holds the offices of First Lord of the Treasury and Minister for the Civil Service. Certain privileges, such as residency of 10 Downing Street, are accorded to the Prime Minister by virtue of his role as First Lord of the Treasury.

An introduction to Local Government

1) What kind of government do we have?

The United Kingdom is a representative democracy. This means that we elect representatives, who make decisions about how the country is run. All UK citizens over 18 can have their say about how the country is run by voting for people to represent their views and opinions. We are

also a constitutional monarchy. This means that the Queen is officially the Head of State, although she doesn't decide how the country is run.

2) How does national government work?

Most people know that Members of Parliament (MPs) pass laws at the Houses of Parliament in Westminster. Almost all the MPs belong to a political party, and the political party with the most MPs forms the Government. The leader of that political party is the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister picks ministers to be in charge of the different government departments and these make up the cabinet. The cabinet is responsible for most of the decisions taken by the government and the day-to-day running of things. Part of the job of Houses of Parliament is to check what the cabinet is doing and call them to account. The cabinet are helped by civil servants, who are full-time members of staff. Civil servants give advice, and also do the things the ministers decide. In general ministers make the decisions and civil servants do the work.

3) What is local government?

The local government is called the council, or sometimes, the local authority. In Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland all councils are unitary. This means that one council looks after everything in their area. There are different sorts of council in England. Some places have a unitary authority, in other places there are two levels – a County Council and a District Council, who look after different things.

4) Where do they meet?

On local councils the elected politicians, the councilors, make the decisions and the council officers implement those decisions. Councilors are elected by the people living within their areas, or wards. There are usually local elections every four years

5) What does Local Government do?

Local Councils in England and Wales do 700 different things and employ over 2.2 million people, spending £160 billion in 2007-8. Local Councils spend the biggest part of their budget on education services (37%) and social services (17%).

They also spend money on:

- Police, fire and rescue
- Leisure facilities like sports centers, libraries, museums
- Environmental Services, including highways maintenance, car parking, public transport, waste collection and disposal
- Election Services, including organization of all elections, maintaining the electoral register

6) Where does local government get its money?

Councils get their money from three main sources:

- Council tax (about 25%)
- Revenue Support Grant and other grants from central government (roughly 55%)
- Business rates from local businesses (roughly 20%)
- Some income from service provision (e.g. parking charges)

Rules and Customs of Parliament

Much of parliamentary procedure has developed through continued use over the centuries and is not written in the Standing Orders. This is sometimes known as 'custom and practice.'

The practice of bills being read three times in both Houses is not in the Standing Orders for example. Other procedures have developed through precedents such as rulings made by the Speaker and resolutions of the House.

Erskine May

Erskine May was the Clerk of the House of Commons between 1871 and 1886. He wrote 'Treatise on the Law, Privileges, Proceedings and Usage of Parliament' which is considered the authoritative source on parliamentary procedure. This book is now in its 24th edition.

It provides details of observed 'rules' within the House, whether they relate to Standing Orders (and are therefore regulated by the House), traditional practice or whether they derive from 'Speaker's Rulings'. It is not available on the internet but will be in public libraries.

Where Members sit and speak

By convention, Ministers sit on the front bench on the right hand of the Speaker: the Chief Whip usually sits in this row immediately next to the gangway. Parliamentary Private Secretaries usually sit in the row behind their minister.

Official Opposition spokespersons use the front bench to the Speaker's left. Minority or smaller parties sit on the benches below the gangway on the left.

There is nothing sacrosanct about these places and on occasions when a Member has deliberately chosen to occupy a place on the front bench or on the opposite side of the House from their usual position there is no redress for such action.

Members may speak only from where they were called, which must be within the House. They may not speak from the floor of the House between the red lines (traditional supposed to be two sword-lengths apart). Also, the Speaker will not call a Member in the gallery if there is room downstairs. Members must stand whilst speaking but if they are unable to do so they are allowed to address the House seated.

The form and style of debate in the House of Commons

The style of debate in the House has traditionally been one of cut-and-thrust; listening to other Members' speeches and intervening in them in spontaneous reaction to opponents' views.

This style of debate can make the Commons Chamber a rather noisy place with robustly expressed opinion, many interventions, expressions of approval or disapproval and, sometimes, of repartee and banter.

Ultimately it is the Chair, The Speaker of the House of Commons, who controls the House and who speaks and when. Members have the right, when speaking, to be heard without unendurable background noise (deliberate or accidental) and the Chair will call for order if it appears there is an attempt to drown out a Member or when a number of Members are leaving the Chamber, or conversing loudly.

Traditions of Parliament

The colors of the Houses of Parliament

A tradition that stands out to most visitors to Parliament is the difference between the colors which are used in the Lords and Commons parts of the building.

Green is the principal color for furnishing and fabrics throughout the House of Commons, with the green benches of the Chamber perhaps the most recognizable of these. The first authoritative mention of the use of green in the Chamber occurred in 1663.

In the House of Lords, red is similarly employed in upholstery, hansard, notepaper etc. This colour most likely stems from the use by monarchs of red as a royal colour and its consequent employment in the room where the Monarch met their court and nobles.

Dragging the Speaker of the House of Commons

When a new Speaker of the House of Commons is elected, the successful candidate is physically dragged to the Chair by other MPs.

This tradition has its roots in the Speaker's function to communicate the Commons' opinions to the monarch. Historically, if the monarch didn't agree with the message being communicated then the early death of the Speaker could follow. Therefore, as you can imagine, previous Speakers required some gentle persuasion to accept the post.

Prayers

Each sitting in both Houses begins with prayers that follow the Christian faith. In the Commons the Speaker's Chaplain usually reads the prayers. In the Lords a senior bishop (Lord Spiritual) who sits in the Lords usually reads the prayers.

MPs can use prayers cards to reserve seats in the chamber for the remainder of that sitting day. These 'prayer cards' are dated and must be obtained personally by the Member who wishes to use them from an on duty attendant before the House meets.

Catching the Speaker's eye

To participate in a debate in the House of Commons or at question time, MPs have to be called by the Speaker. MPs usually rise or half-rise from their seats in a bid to get the Speaker's attention - this is known as 'catching the Speaker's eye'.

Voting

When MPs vote on debates or legislation it is called a division. When MPs vote they say 'aye' or 'no'. In the Lords, Members vote saying 'content' or 'not content'.

For major votes the House divides into the voting lobbies, two corridors that run either side of the chamber, and members are counted as they enter into each.

Dress

The dress of MPs has of course changed throughout history. The dress of Members these days is generally that which might ordinarily be worn for a fairly formal business transaction. The Speaker has, on a number of occasions, taken exception to informal clothing, including the non-wearing of jackets and ties by men.

The Lord Speaker on the Woolsack

The Woolsack is the seat of the Lord Speaker in the House of Lords Chamber. The Woolsack is a large, wool-stuffed cushion or seat covered with red cloth.

The Lord Speaker presides over business in the House of Lords, but does not control them like the Speaker in the Commons, as Members of the Lords regulate their own discussions. If a

Deputy Speaker presides in the absence of the Lord Speaker, then that individual uses the Woolsack.

When the House of Lords is sitting, the Mace is placed on the rear of the Woolsack, behind the Lord Speaker.

Judge's Woolsack

In front of the Woolsack in the House of Lords Chamber is a larger cushion known as the Judges' Woolsack. During the State Opening of Parliament, the Judges' Woolsack is occupied by senior judges. This is a reminder of medieval Parliaments, when judges attended to offer legal advice. During normal sittings of the House, any Member of the Lords may sit on it.

General Public in the Houses of Parliament

The general public is allowed into those parts of the House of Commons not exclusively for the use of Members. The Serjeant at Arms is able to take into custody non-Members who are in any part of the House or gallery reserved for Members, and members of the public who misconduct themselves or do not leave when asked to do so. The House of Lords is also open to the public and you can watch business in the chamber and select committees for free.

How MPs are elected?

The UK is divided into 650 areas called constituencies. During an election everyone eligible to cast a vote in a constituency selects one candidate to be their MP. The candidate who gets the most votes becomes the MP for that area until the next election.

General elections

At a general election, all constituencies become vacant and a Member of Parliament is elected for each from a list of candidates standing for election. General elections happen every five years.

If an MP dies or retires, a by-election is held in that constituency to find a new MP for that area.

Political parties

Most MPs are members of one of the three main political parties in the UK - Labour, Conservative and Liberal Democrat. Other MPs represent smaller parties or are independent of a political party.

To become an MP representing a main political party a candidate must be authorized to do so by the party's nominating officer. They must then win the most votes in the constituency.

UK-wide representation and devolved Parliaments and Assemblies

The UK Parliament has MPs from areas across England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. In addition, there is a Parliament in Scotland, a National Assembly in Wales and a National Assembly in Northern Ireland.

Separate elections are held for these devolved political bodies (which have been granted powers on a regional level that the UK Parliament was formerly responsible for) - candidates who win seats in these elections do not become MPs in the UK Parliament.

What MPs do

The UK public elects Members of Parliament (MPs) to represent their interests and concerns in the House of Commons. MPs are involved in considering and proposing new laws, and can use their position to ask government ministers questions about current issues.

MPs split their time between working in Parliament itself, working in the constituency that elected them and working for their political party.

Some MPs from the governing party (or parties) become government ministers with specific responsibilities in certain areas, such as Health or Defense.

Working in Parliament

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.

Working in their constituency

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.

What the Lords does

The House of Lords is the second chamber of the UK Parliament. It is independent from, and complements the work of, the elected House of Commons. The Lords shares the task of making and shaping laws and checking and challenging the work of the government.

The Lords has three main roles:

- 1) Making laws
- 2) In-depth consideration of public policy
- 3) Holding government to account

Making laws

Members spend almost half of the 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). Many of these bills affect our everyday lives, covering areas such as welfare, health and education.

In-depth consideration of public policy

Members use their extensive individual experience to investigate public policy. Much of this work is done in select committees - small groups appointed to consider specific policy areas. In the 2014-15 session, House of Lords select committees produced 27 reports on subjects including the economics of High Speed 2, women in news and current affairs on TV and radio and civilian

use of drones in the European Union. Many select committee meetings involve questioning expert witnesses working in the field which is the subject of the inquiry. These meetings are open to the public.

Holding government to account

Members scrutinize the work of the government during question time and debates in the chamber, where government ministers must respond. In the 2014-15 session, members held the government to account with 6,394 oral and written questions and 188 debates on issues ranging from early years to assisted dying. The public is welcome to visit and sit in the galleries overlooking the chamber during business.

What has the Lords changed?

In recent years, the House of Lords has persuaded the government to make policy changes on a diverse range of issues. These include:

- 1) streamlining public bodies and quangos
- 2) ensuring children with special needs and disabilities have access to mainstream education
- 3) protecting the right to legal aid in welfare cases
- 4) insisting on parity of NHS treatment for physical and mental illness⁵⁾
- 5) making sure the UK has leading stem cell research facilities.

The House of Commons Administration

The House of Commons is governed and managed by a group of MPs and others who make up the House of Commons Commission. The day to day running of the House is delegated by the Commission to the senior officials who form the House of Commons Executive Committee.

The House of Commons Commission

At the head of the governance structure is the House of Commons Commission. It is chaired by the Speaker of the House of Commons, a sitting MP elected to the position of Speaker through a ballot of all MPs. The other members are the Leader of the House, the Shadow Leader of the House (or another MP appointed by the Leader of the Opposition), four backbench MPs, two external members and two officials (the Clerk of the House and the Director General of the House of Commons).

The Commission is legally responsible, under the House of Commons Administration Act 1978, for the administration of the House of Commons, including staff and finance. The Commission signs off the annual budget for the House and approves all major changes to the structure of the House of Commons Service.

The Commission is advised by two committees of MPs, the Finance Committee and the Administration Committee, which act as a channel of communication from MPs in general. Members of the Commission also sit on the Members Estimate Committee, which formerly considered MPs' expenses; that function was largely transferred to the Independent Parliamentary Standards Authority in 2010.

The Commission provides the non-executive governance of the House by Members, but it does not manage day to day operations. As noted above, it has delegated this power to the House of Commons Executive Committee, by an Instrument of Delegation.

The House of Commons Executive Committee

The Executive Committee oversees the operational functions of the House and develops the House's policies, budgets and strategic planning, which are endorsed by the Commission.

The Committee currently consists of the Clerk of the House (who is its interim Chair) and the Heads of the five House departments. The Director of the Parliamentary Digital Service is a co-opted member. On arrival, the Director General will join the Committee as its Chair.

Below the Executive Committee are the five departments, which make up the House of Commons Service. These are Chamber and Committee Services, Facilities, Finance, Human Resources and Change, and Information Services. The Parliamentary Digital Service is a joint department of both Houses. The Governance Office sits outside the departmental structure and supports the Clerk of the House and the Executive Committee in functions such as strategic and business planning, risk management, coordination of business resilience, internal communications and internal audit.

Both the Commission/Members Estimate Committee and the Executive Committee are advised by the House's two Audit Committees: the Administration Estimate Audit Committee and the Members Estimate Audit Committee.

Assurance

The Executive Committee seeks to provide assurance to the Commission that its arrangements for running the House are working effectively. This assurance is provided in a number of ways.

Internal Audit Service

The objective of Internal Audit is to provide the Clerk, as Accounting Officer, with an independent and objective evaluation of the overall adequacy and effectiveness of the House's arrangements for governance, risk management and control.

This is achieved through a programme of work across a range of the House's activities that should provide sufficient coverage of the major areas and a selection of others based on risk and rotation.

Audit Committees

The House of Commons has two Audit Committees, the Administration Estimate Audit Committee and the Members Estimate Audit Committee, which share the same membership. Committee members include both MPs and external experts; the chair is the acting external member of the Commission. The Committees have oversight of the work of Internal Audit, with particular emphasis on promoting economy, efficiency and effectiveness, on value-for-money studies, and on risk assessment and control assurance.

The Committees receive and consider reports from Internal Audit and other sources and make an annual report which is published with the House of Commons Commission's Annual Report.

National Audit Office

The National Audit Office provides an external audit function. It audits the Resource Accounts (both Administration and Members Estimates) which are prepared by the House Service. The head of the NAO, the Comptroller & Auditor General, gives an opinion on whether the accounts present a “true and fair view” as well as on the “regularity” of the expenditure. The NAO’s focus is primarily on the financial accounts.

Annual Letters of Assurance

The Clerk of the House issues delegation letters to the heads of each department of the House on appointment, and they receive an annual budget letter. They submit to him an annual letter of assurance, setting out how they have ensured the effective and efficient management of the responsibilities delegated to them and their department by the Clerk.

Polling Procedure

A person may only cast a vote if he or she is on the Electoral Register - even if he or she would otherwise qualify to vote. If, because of a clerical error, someone’s name has been left off the Electoral Register, the Electoral Registration Officer can amend the Register up to 9pm on polling day. Because the franchise between electors varies (for example, EU citizens who are not Commonwealth or Irish citizens cannot vote in UK Parliamentary elections) ballot papers are only issued after checking the marker in the Electoral Register before an elector’s name to identify in which elections the individual is eligible to vote.

Votes can be cast either in person at a polling station, by post or by proxy. British citizens residing abroad and registered as overseas electors cannot vote at British high commissions, embassies or consulates - their votes can only be cast either in person in the constituency where they are enrolled in the United Kingdom, by proxy (who must reside in and be eligible to vote in the UK) or by post (although this option is less popular as postal ballot packs are only dispatched by returning officers at 5 pm, 11 working days before polling day at the earliest and must be received by the returning officer by the close of poll to be counted).

In person

Polling stations are usually open from 7am to 10pm on polling day. Voters receive a poll card from the returning officer at their local authority with details of their allocated polling place. They are not required to show the poll card (unless they are an anonymous elector) or any other form of identification at the polling place in order to vote, except in Northern Ireland, where one piece of photographic ID must be presented at the polling station - a NI Electoral Identity Card, a photographic NI or GB driving licence, a United Kingdom or other EU passport, a Translink 60+ SmartPass, a Translink Senior SmartPass, a Translink Blind Person’s SmartPass or a Translink War Disabled SmartPass.

Having verified and marked off the voter’s name and address on the list of electors, the presiding officer or poll clerk issues the ballot paper, calling out the voter’s name, elector number and polling district reference, unless the voter is an anonymous elector, in which case only his/her elector number is called out. All ballot papers contain both an official mark (e.g. a watermark or perforation) and a unique identifying number; any papers issued without both these features (even if it is the presiding officer/poll clerk’s mistake) will be invalid and rejected at the count. On a separate list (called the corresponding number list) the presiding officer or poll clerk writes the

voter's elector number next to the unique identifying number of the ballot paper issued. However the secrecy of the vote is usually maintained, as at the close of the poll this list linking voters to their ballot paper numbers is sealed inside a packet which may only be opened by the order of a court in the event that the election result is challenged. The ballot paper is folded and then handed to the voter.

The voter marks the ballot papers in the privacy of a voting booth. If the ballot paper has been spoilt, the presiding officer/poll clerk can issue a new one after the old ballot paper is cancelled. Before placing the ballot papers in the ballot box, the voter has (in theory) to show the presiding officer or the poll clerk the official mark and the unique identifying number printed on the reverse of the ballot papers.

If a voter requests a ballot paper but someone has already voted in their name, or they are listed as having requested a postal vote, they can only cast a tendered ballot. After marking the tendered ballot in private, the voter must not place it in the ballot box. Instead, it must be returned to the Presiding Officer who will endorse it with the voter's name, elector number and polling district reference, before placing it in a special envelope. The voter's name and elector number is then written down in the 'List of Tendered Votes'. Although tendered ballots are not included at the count, they serve as a formal record that a voter has tried, but has been unable, to cast a vote and is evidence of a voter's concern about the conduct of an election. If a voter wants to make a complaint, marking a tendered ballot is the first step in pursuing the complaints procedure.

At the close of poll, the slot at the top of the ballot box is sealed by the presiding officer or poll clerk (the election and polling agents appointed by candidates can also apply their own seals to the boxes) before being transported by the presiding officer to the central counting location.

By post

Voters can apply to receive a postal ballot either for specific elections or on a permanent basis until further notice without having to give a reason (except in Northern Ireland, where voters have to give a specific reason explaining why they cannot physically attend their allocated polling station). Applications for postal ballots close at 5pm 11 working days before polling day - this is also the earliest time the returning officer can dispatch postal ballot packs. Postal ballots can be sent anywhere within and outside the United Kingdom, although if they are not sent to a voter's registered address, a reason must be provided to the Electoral Registration Officer as to why the postal ballot is to be sent to an alternative address.

Voters return their postal ballots together with postal voting statements filled in with their date of birth and signature either by post or by hand directly to the returning officer, or by hand to the presiding officer on polling day at a polling station situated within the constituency/ward printed on the postal ballot return envelope. However, for the postal ballot to be counted, the returning officer (or the presiding officer if returned at a polling station) must receive the ballot paper by the close of poll (usually 10pm on polling day).

By proxy

Any person who is eligible to vote (he/she does not necessarily have to be on the Electoral Register already) can be appointed by another voter as his/her proxy, but for the proxy to be able to vote in an election the proxy application must be received by the Electoral Registration Officer at the voter's local authority by 5pm 6 working days before polling day. The proxy can

either vote in person, or can apply for a postal proxy vote (though a postal proxy vote application has an even earlier deadline - any such request must be received by the Electoral Registration Officer by 5pm 11 working days before polling day at the latest). A voter who has become ill or disabled after 5pm six working days before polling day can make an emergency application to vote by proxy as long as the application is received by the Electoral Registration Officer by 5pm on polling day. Unless a close relative, a person can only vote as a proxy on behalf of a maximum of 2 other voters in any single election in each constituency/ward. When applying to vote by proxy for more than one particular election, the application must be accompanied by a relevant attestation and must be justified based on one of the following reasons: blindness; other disability; employment; on an education course; registered as a service, overseas or anonymous elector. If only applying to vote by proxy for one particular election, the elector only needs to explain why he/she cannot vote in person, but does not need an attestation. If it is only possible to get to the polling station from the registered address by air or by sea, the elector can apply for a permanent proxy vote without an attestation.

In Northern Ireland, voters can only appoint another person to be their proxy if they can provide a specific reason explaining why they cannot physically attend their allocated polling station.

Ten Things to Know about Scotland's Independence Referendum

LONDON -- Britain is under 72 hours away from an once-in-a-lifetime vote on Scottish independence that could break up the 307-year-old United Kingdom, splitting apart one of America's key global allies. With polls suggesting that a Scottish split from the rest of Britain is a real possibility, lawmakers including Prime Minister David Cameron are making urgent appeals to save Britain its biggest constitutional upheaval since the War of Independence that led to the creation of the United States.

1. What will be voted on?

More than 4.2 million people in Scotland -- or 97 percent of the adult population --- have registered to vote on whether or not to remain part of the United Kingdom.

Scotland was an independent country until 1707, when the Act of Union with England led to the creation of Great Britain and, ultimately, the United Kingdom --- which also includes Northern Ireland and Wales.

It retained its own separate legal and education systems and was granted its own devolved parliament in Edinburgh in 1999 but control of defense, borders and taxation remain with the U.K. parliament in London's Westminster and ultimate authority lies with Queen Elizabeth II.

Britain's government agreed to recognize the referendum, gambling that a likely 'No' vote would kill off the issue of Scottish independence for decades. But with polls now putting a 'Yes' vote within reach, the U.K. faces the serious prospect of a break-up.

2. Why does Scotland's independence vote matter to America?

The White House says Thursday's poll is "an internal matter" for Britain, but there are good reasons why the United States is nervous that one of its key global allies could be about to break apart.

Chief among these is the future of the joint U.S. and U.K. nuclear deterrent system. Scotland is home to 58 U.S. Trident II D-5 missiles leased from Washington by the British government, but Scotland's government wants to ban nuclear weapons on moral grounds within four years of gaining independence. That could force London to relocate the weapons to alternative bases in England or return the weapons to the U.S., costing billions of dollars and leaving NATO without a European nuclear deterrent precisely at a time of heightened security concern.

An independent Scotland would have its own defense force and would likely remain an American ally, but any weakening of Britain's defense capability would be a worry for the Pentagon. In January, former U.S. defense secretary Robert Gates said cuts in defense spending were already threatening Britain's "ability to be a full partner." Almost 30 members of Congress have signed a resolution calling for the U.K. to remain united, saying it was "important for U.S. national security priorities in Europe and around the world."

Britain's relationship with the European Union could also be under threat in the event of Scottish independence. Without Scotland's phalanx of left-leaning Labour lawmakers, Westminster would likely be dominated by David Cameron's Conservative Party, which favors a referendum on British withdrawal from the E.U.

3. How likely is Scotland to become independent?

Within two generations, Scottish independence has gone from an eccentric fringe movement to a dominant political force that is on the cusp of victory.

Until last month, the pro-Union Better Together 'No' campaign enjoyed a consistent and comfortable lead in opinion polls but a sudden surge in support for the pro-independence 'Yes' side has all but eliminated the gap. A "poll of polls" published by ScotCen on Monday puts 'No' at 51 percent and 'Yes' just two points behind, at 49 percent. "In a vote where the winning side needs 50% + 1 of votes cast, it is clear that neither side can now be completely confident of victory," the research organization said.

A major YouGov poll last week gave the 'Yes' side a slim majority, spooking the global markets and causing the pound sterling to sink by 1.3 percent on foreign exchange markets before recovering. British lawmakers, who previously vowed to stay out of Scotland's national debate, have been making urgent visits to Scotland to implore voters to save the United Kingdom.

4. What is the case for independence?

The 'Yes' campaign is led by First Minister Alex Salmond, whose Scottish National Party has governed since 2007. It says Scots should have total control of their own affairs and that revenue from Scotland's offshore oil fields would sustain the country's economy. Support for independence was boosted by the election in 2010 of a Conservative British government, angering voters in Scotland where the Conservative party remains deeply unpopular.

5. What is the case for keeping the United Kingdom?

The 'No' campaign says an independent Scotland would be weaker on the world stage and would have to raise taxes to pay for the replication of institutions and services currently shared with England, such as defense forces and state pensions. Many cross-border businesses have warned that they might withdraw from Scotland in the event of independence, threatening jobs.

For the United States, the pros and cons are naturally about strategic interests. “On the one hand, it is perfectly reasonable for Washington to assert its own interests by continuing a relationship with Westminster it heavily dominates,” said Jonathan Sher, a charity director from North Carolina who has also applied for dual citizenship and has publicly backed the ‘Yes’ side. “On the other hand, it is just as reasonable for Scotland to pursue its own interests in what will inevitably remain a friendly set of connections with America. Profound family, historical, musical, academic and trading ties between my two nations provide a firm foundation upon which we can and will build.”

6. How star-studded has the campaign been?

Edinburgh-born James Bond actor Sean Connery has been a decades-long supporter of Scottish independence, alongside Gerard Butler (“The Bounty Hunter”), Brian Cox (“The Bourne Supremacy,” “Braveheart”) and Alan Cumming (“The Good Wife”). Fashion designer Vivienne Westwood has also said a ‘Yes’ vote would be “great.”

Harry Potter author J.K. Rowling donated £1 million (\$1.6 million) to the ‘No’ campaign, publicly declaring that Scotland would be stronger within the U.K. Other high-profile Better Together backers include actors Helena Bonham Carter, Patrick Stewart and Judi Dench as well as England soccer star David Beckham. The former Manchester United and L.A. Galaxy star said Monday that “what unites us is much greater than what divides us.”

7. What would an independent Scotland look like?

Scotland’s 5.3 million citizens represent about eight percent of the total U.K. population and would create a new country bigger than Ireland (4.5 million) but smaller than Denmark (5.5 million).

Its global economic position would depend greatly on what share of offshore oil revenue would be negotiated with the remainder of the U.K. – and how long that oil would last. The Scottish National Party believes lower corporate taxes would encourage investment and would allow Scotland to lower its reliance on oil in the longer term.

8. What would happen to the queen?

The Scottish National Party plans to keep the monarchy allowing Queen Elizabeth II to remain Queen of Scotland just as she is also queen of other British Commonwealth countries such as Canada and Australia.

She has not formally expressed an opinion on independence, but told a member of public on Sunday that she hoped voters “think very carefully about the future” in Thursday’s poll. She was speaking in Scotland, where she spends several weeks of the year at her summer retreat, Balmoral Castle.

9. Would Scotland immediately become independent on Friday?

No. The referendum has no direct legal power, but the British government has promised to negotiate Scotland’s split from the United Kingdom in the event of a ‘Yes’ victory, with an official split slated for March 2016. Unlike the United States, the U.K. does not have a written constitution - its political institutions and systems have evolved over the centuries – and so the re-creation of an independent Scotland would be uncharted territory. Scotland’s government wants

to keep the pound sterling by forming a currency union tied to the Bank of England. However, Britain's Treasury chief George Osborne has warned that the rest of the U.K. may not agree to such a deal – leaving an independent Scotland to bring in its own currency.

Scotland would also have to renegotiate its membership of the European Union. Its government remains confident that it would still meet all the criteria for membership after March 2016, but it could face tough opposition, most notably from Spain which is seeking to thwart the ambitions of an independence movement in Catalonia.

10. What happens if Scotland votes 'No'?

No matter what happens, Scotland's relationship with the rest of the U.K. will change. In a last-ditch attempt to persuade Scots to vote 'No', Cameron last week promised future extra powers for Scotland's existing devolved parliament if Scots chose to vote 'No'. However, this olive branch may be too late to change Thursday's result; Cameron had rejected extra powers as a middle-way option on the ballot paper, gambling that most voters would choose 'No' if given a straight Yes/No question on independence. Offering more devolved government at such a late stage has been dismissed by the 'Yes' side as a panic measure.

And whatever the outcome, the 18-month campaign has left social divisions as supporters on both sides trading acrimonious barbs over social media. Thursday's poll has become a topic to avoid in bars and family gatherings. Fiona Scott, whose father taught Salmond at school, wrote in an open letter to The Herald newspaper on Saturday that the referendum "has succeeded in creating divisions across Scotland that were not there before and will still exist after the referendum, no matter which way the vote goes." She added: "Relationships between neighbors are now threatened if you indicate which way you are voting."

Three Reasons Scotland Will Likely Reject Independence

Two days before Scotland considers a referendum to leave the U.K., polling remains too close to call, according to analysts. Three of four polls published over the weekend show most Scots oppose secession, while one pointed to a slight edge for those favoring independence.

"There is now a very real possibility that Scotland might vote for independence from the U.K. this week," said SG Global analyst Albert Edwards in a research note.

The outcome of Thursday's vote has huge political, economic and social implications not only for Scotland, but also for Britain, with talk that Scottish independence could even spur the U.K.'s exit from the European Union. For now, however, investors are still betting that Scotland will reject full autonomy. Here are three reasons why financial markets think Scots will vote "no" to independence.

1) In the short-term, Scots would suffer.

In time, Scotland could well flourish after gaining independence. In the near-term --- and that could extend for a period of several years --- exiting the U.K. would almost certainly damage the Scottish economy because of concerns of the country's prospects among consumers, businesses and investors.

"Undoubtedly money would flow out of the country (there is already evidence of this ahead of the vote), while businesses would likely immediately hold fire on investment and employment

plans as they waited for a clear picture of exactly what form an independent Scotland would take,” Howard Archer, chief U.K. and European economist with research firm IHS, said in a client note.

That picture could take a long time to take shape. For Scotland, winning its independence would entail a host of major decisions, ranging from what currency to use, to issues of national defense and NATO membership, to questions over foreign, energy, immigration and other policies.

2) Gaining admission to the European Union wouldn't be easy.

Scottish leaders favoring independence have vowed to re-enter the trading bloc, which the U.K. already belongs to, by 2016. That pledge looks unrealistically optimistic. Analysts with political risk consultancy Eurasia Group note that other European countries with independence movements -- notably Spain, France, Italy and Cyprus --- would be wary of encouraging secessionists by signaling that breakaway regions could quickly re-join the EU.

Scots themselves could be an ever harder sell. Entering the EU might mean adopting the euro as Scotland's currency, linking the country's fiscal and monetary fate to that of the ailing currency union. Meanwhile, German Chancellor Angela Merkel has made it clear she wants tighter national integration in the EU and opposes any widening of regional cracks. EU membership requires a unanimous vote of support by all 28 countries in the union, and as its largest economy Germany holds a powerful trump card.

3) The pound may not be an option.

Pro-independence supporters less enamored of the euro insist they can continue using the pound sterling even after leaving the U.K. But that would leave Scotland as a “very junior partner” to the British government, Edwards of SG Global said in a research note, shackling the newly independent state to the U.K.'s fiscal and monetary policy. That would also likely cause Scotland's deficit to rise, which would require painful spending cuts. Scotland could peg its currency to the pound, as some countries do with the U.S. dollar. But that, too, would require Edinburgh to couple its economic policies to London, weakening the rationale for independence.

Of course, the wild-card is that for Scots the debate over independence isn't only, or even chiefly, about the country's economic future. It may not even hinge on the long historical and cultural divide between Scotland and England. Rather, as economist Joseph Stiglitz notes, the current battle is animated as much by basic differences over what kind of nation each wants to be, especially as long as Britain's Conservative Party controls government.

“It is clear that there is, within Scotland, more of a shared vision and values -- a vision of the country, the society, politics, the role of the state; values like fairness, equity and opportunity,” he wrote in *The Scotsman*. “Of course, not everyone in the country agrees on the precise policies, on the delicate balancing of complicated trade-offs. But the Scottish vision and values are different from those that have become dominant south of the Border.”

Britain's role in the world just keeps shrinking

The coalition's five years in power have included a few real foreign policy triumphs, most recently with the Iran nuclear deal framework and the British contribution to efforts against Ebola but also in the early days with David Cameron's triumphant 2011 visit to Tripoli.

Seen in the round though, there is little to inspire confidence – unless a reduced role for Britain in the world is our preferred direction of travel. The UK's retreat from leadership in world affairs has only hastened these last five years, and there's no sign the country will change course any time soon.

Island mentality

The coalition's austerity politics have undoubtedly affected its foreign and defense policies, as the 2010 Defense demonstrated. But the diminishing role of Britain abroad is also a consequence of other pressures, especially past failures such as Iraq and Afghanistan, which have greatly reduced the British appetite for military adventures abroad.

The shadow of recent military campaigns has also made itself felt at home in a rising nationalist rhetoric and rejections of multiculturalism.

The coalition has responded to these pressures by focusing on domestic politics, and re-orienting Britain's foreign policy towards trade and cultural relations.

It was to be expected that the focus on cutting the deficit would impact on the full range of policy areas and certainly spending on foreign and defense policies becomes harder when vital services at home are being cut.

That is particularly so in the UK, where the tabloids are powerful influencers of public opinion and largely opposed to government spending abroad, which they generally decry for coming at the expense of British citizens. Accordingly, development assistance, foreign aid, and military interventions have all been under harsh scrutiny in the last five years, with the government all too often reacting to rather than leading the charge.

This was not the case in the early days of the coalition, where developments in both foreign and defense policies reflected a definite vision of what Britain's role in the world would be.

In an early interview as foreign secretary, William Hague signaled that Britain would turn its foreign policy attentions to developing trade, educational and cultural ties by capitalizing on past relations with states such as India while forging new links to previously neglected countries like Brazil. The idea was to finally get Britain out from under the yoke of US foreign policy, and to reduce its dependence on European markets by forging stronger bonds beyond the continent.

But five years later, the US and Europe still account for the lion's share of Britain's trade, and while there is some speculation that the "special relationship" is no more, it hinges more on the dynamics of the Obama-Cameron relationship than any actual policy pivot away from Washington.



Some attention-grabbing new ventures on the African continent have been launched, most famously at the William Hague-Angelina Jolie summit on sexual violence in conflict. But real strategic objectives there are unclear, and the comprehensive and sustained concentration of efforts and attention required to be able to claim the UK is a major player in even small pockets of Africa have not been in evidence.

On the way out

As foreign policy became trade policy, swinging cuts hit the defense budget and the numbers of British military personnel and Ministry of Defense civilian personnel through the 2010 Strategic Defense and Security Review. It has been calculated that, as a result, conventional military combat capability has decreased by 20-30% and that defense spending will shortly fall below the NATO benchmark of 2% GDP.

A new spending review is expected after May 7, but no-one knows what the results will be. What is clear is that Britain's capacity to project force abroad has already been drastically reduced. This is already coloring Downing Street's relationship with the White House.

The UK has traditionally been the principal amplifier of America's voice in Europe, and has reliably kept up its share of defense spending, usually exceeding the 2% benchmark. But given the extent of Britain's fiscal retrenchment, the US is justifiably concerned that in the longer term it will have to look elsewhere. And as if to prove it right, Britain has done little to assert leadership in Europe, or in any of the multilateral organizations to which it belongs.

The crisis in Ukraine was a big opportunity to tackle the increasingly aggressive behavior of Russia, which Foreign Secretary Philip Hammond said had "the potential to pose the single greatest threat to our security". But even as Europe, not the US, took the diplomatic lead on the crisis, it was French and German diplomacy that led the charge.

The government was left to fend off criticism from its own that it has become "a foreign policy irrelevance".

Over Ukraine, therefore, Britain missed a valuable opportunity to work more closely with its European neighbors and to provide the EU with the strength and clarity that many, Britain among them, accuse it of lacking.

This belies the coalition's commitment to reforming the EU from within, and it also suggests that there was never a well-thought out strategy for coping with the negative effects of the SDSR.

The government could have responded to the need for deep cuts to the defense budget by refocusing foreign and defense policy firmly on co-operation with other EU and NATO member states; instead, it has remained strangely committed to taking a stand with diminished resources.

From triumph to humiliation

This rather despondent and feeble atmosphere is a far cry from the exuberant interventionism of 2011, when Cameron and the Nicolas Sarkozy jostled for credit over who was the first to support actions to oust Libya's Colonel Qaddafi.

In a February 2011 statement to the House of Commons, Cameron spoke of Britain taking the lead in supporting those seeking democratic change in the Middle East, and boasted of London's close working relationship with its allies and the UN. The UK described in that speech understood it had a vital role to play in global affairs, and a moral duty to do so. It was a speech that stood in

stark contrast to that of Hague in June 2010. It was a speech also that would come back to haunt Cameron.

In 2011 itself, the NATO action enforcing UN Security Council Resolution 1973 was hailed as a major success. In September of the same year, Cameron and Sarkozy were feted as heroes when they visited Tripoli.



But the picture had changed dramatically by 2013, with Libya in disarray and the region unstable. The intractable conflict in Syria deteriorated spectacularly, and there seemed to be the clearest evidence possible that the regime of Bashar al-Assad had used chemical weapons against his own people.

David Cameron stood with the US in a determination to take action against Assad. In August 2013, however, the government's motion to assist the US and intervene in Syria suffered a humiliating defeat as 285 MPs voted against it, expressing Britain's reluctance to engage in further military interventions.

The vote a year later to join in the US-led air strikes on Iraq and Syria, intended in Obama's words to "degrade and destroy" Islamic State, signed Britain back up for a major foreign intervention – but confined to the air and with a relatively small British involvement among a partner force of 60 states.

Bent out of shape

The coalition's foreign policy has been badly distorted by pressures at home. The rise of UKIP has forced the Conservatives in particular to think local rather than global, forcing them into promising a referendum on UK membership of the EU. This may be enough to rescue some votes from UKIP, but it makes for a terrible international image.

Combined with Cameron's futile opposition to the appointment of Luxembourg's Jean-Claude Juncker as European Commission president, this has left Britain more isolated in Europe than ever.

British anti-immigration rhetoric has taken on an ever more xenophobic tone, but the coalition has apparently failed to understand how this connects to foreign policy. Some of the worst effects of this bigoted talk could be alleviated through a robust and responsible foreign policy strategy – but we just do not have one.

And it doesn't seem like one is on the horizon either. In the party leaders' pre-election debate on April 2 2015, not a single direct question about foreign or defense policy was asked, and the closest the debate came to these issues was immigration and Britain's membership of the EU.

Few voters would be able to tell you what any of the parties intends to deliver in terms of future foreign or defense policies. Given what these policy areas say about what Britain is and what it stands for in the world, this is worrying – and more than a little dangerous.

Britain's Role in the World

Many a commentator, in reflecting upon the country's fiscal crisis, has suggested that - whatever else happens - one important consequence will be Britain's finally withdrawing from the world stage and, in military and geopolitical terms, becoming a conventional medium-sized European power. I don't accept that this is inevitable at all. In fact, it's totally unnecessary and if it occurs it will be self-inflicted, self-hating, self-indulgent, and a renunciation of our duty to mankind and to history.

First, why would it be self-inflicted? Well, why would defense spending be a priority for cuts? Defense spending has been falling for decades as a proportion of GDP and indeed fell in real terms over the last Parliament. Whilst other spending mushroomed, defense spending didn't. So why do there need to be any cuts in defense spending at all? We could *choose* to solve our fiscal problems by cutting back on the areas of spending where it *rose*. We don't *have* to cut it where it didn't rise. If we choose to cut defense spending, that will be a *choice*, not a necessity. And if we choose to cut defense spending in such a way that that undermines our international role, that, again, will be a choice, not a necessity.

Were you thinking that our withdrawing from a global role in affairs is something to do with our experiencing a diminished significance as a country? How? Don't we have the main international financial center, still? Are we not still one of the half-dozen-or-so largest economies in the world? Don't we still have an important network of alliances and blood- and business-relations bonding us to many countries?

Who were you thinking ought to be more important than us? Well - the US, obviously. But the US isn't the *only* country in the world. *Someone* has to be second-most-important. Who were you thinking that should be? Russia? But Russia's economy is a fraction of our size (barely 60% at \$1.68tr in 2008 vs the UK's \$2.67tr), and by the middle of the 21st century even its population is projected to be less than ours. China? Perhaps one day, but for now China is a desperately poor country and has very little power to project out-of-theatre. Brazil? India? The ambitions of such states are to deliver clean water to their citizens, persuade families not to murder infant girls, teach people to read, reduce infant mortality. They don't aspire any time soon to strut upon the world stage molding events. Japan? Germany? Oddly they lack appetite for world domination just at the moment for some reason or other.

France? Now you're talking. France is a serious candidate to be second-most-important country in the world. Almost as serious a candidate as...well...Britain. Essentially, for the moment it remains us or them.

Why not us? Only because of our self-hating. Our chattering classes are so eager to belittle and condemn all that Britain has brought to the world. They want to tell us about the evils of slavery, the oppression of empire, the waste of war. Phooey! Britain has brought to or fought for freedom, peace, prosperity, law, stability, tolerance, civilization, science, engineering, and true religion in somewhere between a third and a half of the earth, including North America, Europe, Australasia, and (at least for a while) to India and Africa. Imagine history without the contribution of Britain!

And why should you assume that its contribution is now done? Because, for now, we are less powerful than the US, our daughter? You assume that that will last forever? Why? Because more people live in the US, perhaps, or because its land-mass is larger? But the landmass of France is much larger than that of Britain and vastly more people lived in France than in Britain in the late eighteenth century. Did people then accept that French dominance was inevitable?

And suppose that the US *will* always be more powerful than Britain? Why should that mean we play no global role? Do you assume it's all for the US to do as top dog? Why that, rather than a team game? Only because you are gripped by self-hatred and self-pity, fixated on what you conceive of as our mistakes in Iraq or wherever and ignore what is much more important: our *contribution*.

Or is it that you are self-indulgent, interested in your own comforts and content for the US to look after us all, cover us with its global shield? Has *noblesse oblige* so totally deserted us in our modern plenty, with our medicines to fight our ailments, our supermarkets to keep us fat, our reality TV and computer games to keep us indolent, our work to keep us busy, our wine to stop us thinking, our gym memberships and our annual charity porn weeps to salve our consciences - have we so reduced our sense of the suffering of the world that we are content to focus entirely on our petty day-to-day concerns and to persuade ourselves that their continuation is all that really matters and that it is no business of ours if someone, somewhere far away, is suffering?

We are rich. We are strong. We are good. We have duties to those that lack these gifts. Most others are not so rich and strong as we are, and few of those that are as rich or strong are as good. Yes, we spend more on defense than many other nations in many ways comparable to us. Yes, that means we don't have as much to spend on infrastructure or public services or low taxes. That is our fate, as the good guys.

Overview on China-UK Relations

The United Kingdom recognized the People's Republic of China in 1950, and was the first major Western country to do so. On June 17, 1954, the UK and China established diplomatic relations at the level of charge d'affaires, which were upgraded to the ambassadorial level on March 13, 1972. The following three decades witnessed positive and stable development in overall China-UK relations despite some twists and turns. After the smooth handover of Hong Kong's sovereignty to China in July, 1997, the bilateral relations entered a new stage of comprehensive development. In 1998, China and the UK established the comprehensive partnership. In 2004, the two countries established the comprehensive strategic partnership.

In recent years, the UK has attached greater importance to advancing relations with China and seen the rise of China from a pragmatic perspective; It works for deeper cooperation with China and hopes to see China play a greater role in international affairs. The two countries have maintained frequent high-level exchanges and contacts, and have established the prime ministerial-level annual meeting mechanism, the economic and financial dialogue, the bilateral relations interaction groups, the strategic dialogue and the mechanisms for consultation and dialogue on strategic security, foreign policy, human rights and arms control. In January 2009, the British Government issued its first China strategy paper, "The UK and China: A Framework for Engagement", which listed China as "a major priority" in the UK's future foreign policy.

Political Relations

In 1998, Premier Zhu Rongji and Prime Minister Tony Blair exchanged visits. The two sides issued a joint statement to announce the establishment of the comprehensive partnership between China and the UK. In 1999, President Jiang Zemin paid a successful visit to the UK. This was the first state visit ever made by China's head of state to the UK. In 2003, the two sides respectively set up bilateral relations interaction groups to further enhance the bilateral relations and deepen cooperation in various fields. In May 2004, Premier Wen Jiabao paid an official visit to the UK. The two sides issued a joint statement to announce the establishment of the comprehensive strategic partnership between China and the UK, to agree to establish a mechanism for annual meeting between the Premier and Prime Minister and to identify priority fields of cooperation between the two countries.

In July 2005, President Hu Jintao attended the G8 outreach session in the UK. In September, Prime Minister Tony Blair paid a visit to China, during which the two countries decided to establish a strategic dialogue mechanism. In November, President Hu Jintao paid a state visit to the UK at the invitation of Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II. In September 2006, Premier Wen Jiabao paid a working visit to the UK. In October, Jia Qinglin, Chairman of Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, paid an official goodwill visit to the UK. In December 2007, Foreign Minister Yang Jiechi visited the UK. In January 2008, Prime Minister Gordon Brown paid his first official visit to China. In August the same year, Prime Minister Brown attended the closing ceremony of the Beijing Olympic Games.

In January 2009, Premier Wen Jiabao paid an official visit to the UK, during which the two sides issued the Joint Statement between the People's Republic of China and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on Strengthening Cooperation, and Actively Dealing with the International Financial Crisis, and signed seven agreements covering various fields such as trade, energy and culture. In April, President Hu Jintao attended the Second Financial Summit of G20 Leaders in London and met with Prime Minister Gordon Brown and Prince Charles, reaching extensive consensus on the international financial crisis, the promotion of the reform in the international financial system and the development of China-UK relations. In May, Vice Premier Wang Qishan paid an official visit to the UK and presided over the Second China-UK Economic and Financial Dialogue. The two sides made in-depth discussions on the financial issues of mutual concern that have overarching, strategic and long-term impacts and reached over 20 agreements. In October, State Councilor Dai Bingguo paid a visit to Britain and met with Prime Minister Gordon Brown, Head of UK's China Relations Group and Chancellor of the Exchequer Alistair Darling, Foreign Secretary David Miliband and the Conservative Party leader David Cameron.

In January 2010, when attending the International Conference on Afghanistan in London, Foreign Minister Yang Jiechi held a bilateral meeting with British Foreign Secretary David Miliband, and both sides stressed the need to ensure that the bilateral relations develop along the right track. In March, British Foreign Secretary David Miliband paid a visit to China and met with Premier Wen Jiabao. The two sides agreed to upgrade the China-UK strategic dialogue. State Councilor Dai Bingguo chaired the new round of strategic dialogue with Miliband and Foreign Minister Yang Jiechi held a meeting with him. In April, Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II sent a letter of condolences to President Hu Jintao over the occasion of the earthquake in Yushu, Qinghai. In June, President Hu Jintao met with British Prime Minister David Cameron at the G20 Toronto Summit. The two sides agreed to further deepen the relations between the two countries and expand China-UK cooperation in bilateral and international affairs. In the same month, Vice

Premier Wang Qishan met with British Chancellor of the Exchequer George Osborne, who was on a visit to China before attending the G20 Finance Ministers and Central Bank Governors' Meeting in the ROK. In July, Foreign Secretary William Hague visited China and Premier Wen Jiabao met with him. State Councilor Dai Bingguo co-chaired the China-UK Strategic Dialogue with Secretary Hague and Foreign Minister Yang Jiechi held a meeting with him. Secretary Hague expressed the hope of the UK to further deepen the UK-China partnership, to strengthen cooperation in various fields and to expand common interests and proposed the establishment of a "partnership for growth" between China and the UK. He reiterated that the new British government will continue to pursue the policy of the previous government on Taiwan and Tibet and recognize Tibet as part of the Chinese territory. In August, Henry Bellingham MP, Parliamentary under Secretary of State at the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, issued a statement to offer sympathies to those affected in the devastating mudslide in Zhouqu, Gansu Province and floods in parts of China. In September, Prince Andrew, British Special Representative for International Trade and Investment, attended the British Pavilion Day events at the Shanghai World Expo and was met by Vice Premier Wang Qishan.

“Golden Year” in UK-China relations hailed by British PM

Cameron, who said he was looking forward to meeting Xi, was speaking after a meeting with Foreign Minister Wang Yi at Downing Street in London on Tuesday.

Wang said Xi's visit, his first since he took office in 2013, will be a milestone in the two countries' ties and could herald the dawn of a new era in relations.

“We should ensure it goes smoothly and bring our relations into a golden age,” he added.

Cameron echoed his viewpoint and said the UK wants to improve relations with China and would like to be China's leading global partner.

Britain will push for greater bilateral trade, encourage two-way investment and welcomes China investing in various fields in the UK, including high-speed rail, aviation, telecommunication and civilian nuclear power, Cameron said.

Cameron also vowed to facilitate the EU-China Investment Agreement negotiations and support the feasibility study into an EU-China Free Trade Agreement (FTA).

Tian Dwen, a researcher of European studies at the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, said Cameron's description of this year's relationship was rooted in his determination to speed up UK economic growth.

“The ruling Conservative Party's main focus for this term is to develop the economy and improve the lives of British people. That aim is directly reflected in Britain's high and clear expectations from its economic and trade cooperation with China,” Tian said.

“Britain wants to seize opportunities to strengthen economic growth from working with the fast-developing Chinese economy. China also sees the benefits of working with Britain to get better overseas opportunities. The two countries share much common ground, like opposition to trade protectionism. Common interests will drive cooperation a long way,” he added.

Wang also talked with several specialists from leading British think tanks earlier on Tuesday, hearing their ideas about China and answering questions about China-related issues, including the Belt and Road initiatives.

“China will prove our development will contribute to world peace and prosperity through our actions, and we’d like to have more communication with foreign experts, including British ones, in a move to help foreigners see China in a sensible, objective and friendly way,” Wang said.

The British specialists, including Mark Leonard, director of the European Council on Foreign Relations, and Peter Nolan, professor at the University of Cambridge, said the UK and the EU attaching great importance to China’s ongoing development, as China is one of the hottest topics in academia.

Despite China’s growing influence in the world, some are still skeptical of its development, foreign policy and diplomacy, they noted.

They said the opportunity to meet Wang gave them a chance to better understand China's diplomacy and its positions on major international and regional issues.

Exercises

I. Choose the answer that best completes the statement or answer the question

- (1) Which of the following statement is NOT true of British political system?
 - A. Britain has no written constitution
 - B. Britain is a federal state
 - C. Britain still keeps an old-fashioned government
 - D. British government is established on the basis of constitutional monarchy
- (2) _____ is the second powerful person in Britain.
 - A. The Prime Minister
 - B. Mr. Speaker
 - C. The Lord Chancellor
 - D. The Queen
- (3) A bill that deals with finance is always introduced _____.
 - A. by the Chancellor of the Exchequer
 - B. in the House of Lords
 - C. in the House of Commons
 - D. in the Privy Council
- (4) In Britain, government cannot spend any money without the permission _____.
 - A. the Queen
 - B. the Prime Minister
 - C. the House of Commons
 - D. the House of Lords
- (5) The British government ministers are responsible to _____ for the work of their department.
 - A. the House of Lords
 - B. Parliament
 - C. the Cabinet
 - D. the Privy Council

- (6) All the government ministers of Britain must be members of _____.
A. the House of Lords
B. the House of Commons
C. the Privy Council
D. Parliament
- (7) Most of the offices were founded _____.
A. before the 19th century
B. after the 19th century
C. before the 20th century
D. after the 20th century
- (8) Civil servants who are concerned with administration are forbidden _____.
A. to be voters at elections
B. to be candidates for parliament
C. to continue their work when government changes
D. to compare with others for a higher rank
- (9) The Cabinet meets _____ in one of the rooms in the Prime Minister's official residence. No. 10 Downing Street.
A. regularly
B. irregularly
C. twice a week
D. once a month
- (10) Whenever a person is made a minister of Cabinet rank, he or she is made a member of _____.
A. Parliament
B. the House of Lords
C. the House of Commons
D. the Privy Council
- (12) The Conservative and the Labor parties have been in power by turns ever since _____.
A. the end of 19th century
B. the end of the First World War
C. the end of the Second World War
D. the end of the 1960s
- (12) _____ is seen as the party of the "middle", occupying the ideological ground between the two main parties.
A. The Conservative
B. The Labor
C. The Liberal Democratic
D. The Tory
- (13) The general election in Britain is held every _____ years.
A. 3
B. 4
C. 5
D. 6
- (14) Which group of people cannot be voters in the general election?

- A. the UK citizens above the age of 18
 - B. the UK resident citizens of the Irish Republic
 - C. lords in the House of Lords
 - D. members in the House of Commons
- (15) The deposit a candidate has to pay is supposed to _____.
- A. raise money for the election
 - B. prevent people from running just for a joke
 - C. prevent the poor from entering Parliament
 - D. encourage the rich to run
- (16) Which of the following is the duty of a Returning Office in a constituency?
- A. Compiling a register of voters
 - B. Nominating candidates
 - C. Deciding the party platform
 - D. Winning the election for his own party
- (17) The party that has the majority of seats in _____ will form the government.
- A. the House of Commons
 - B. the House of Lords
 - C. the Privy Council
 - D. the Cabinet
- (18) Common law in Britain may be said to consist of _____.
- A. acts passed by Parliament
 - B. ordinary laws
 - C. previous court decisions
 - D. cabinet decisions
- (19) Serious cases arising in trade and maritime affairs in Britain are dealt with by _____.
- A. the family Division of the High Court of Justice
 - B. the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice
 - C. the Chancery Division of the High Court of Justice
 - D. the House of Lords
- (20) The supreme civil trial in Scotland is _____.
- A. the sheriff court
 - B. the Inner House of the Court of Session
 - C. the outer House of the Court of Session
 - D. the Criminal Session
- (21) Which of the punishment forms for criminals in Britain was abolished in 1969?
- A. Life imprisonment
 - B. Big fines
 - C. Probation
 - D. Death penalty for murder
- (22) Which is true of Borstal institutions for young offenders in Britain?
- A. They are just like ordinary prisons
 - B. They are just like ordinary schools
 - C. They provide courses of training
 - D. They are called "approved schools"

- (23) All police forces in Britain outside London are supported and paid by _____.
A. the central government
B. country councils
C. district councils
D. the Metropolitan Police
- (24) The famous "Scotland Yard" refers to _____.
A. CIA
B. CID
C. New Scotland Yard
D. House of Parliament
- (25) The operation zone of the Metropolitan Police covers _____.
A. the City of London
B. Inner London
C. Outer London
D. Greater London
- (26) Which of the following is NOT the function of the Queen of UK?
A. She is the head of the government
B. She is the head of the armed forces
C. She governs the government
D. Her role is ceremonial and formal
- (27) Which of the following about the Parliament is NOT true?
A. The Queen is part of the Parliament
B. It has the power of passing laws
C. It has the power to check the government
D. It consists of two parts
- (28) Which of the following about the House of Commons is Not True?
A. Members of Parliament elect the Cabinet
B. MPs can be elected for limitless times
C. MPs are expected to represent the interests of the public
D. Most MPs belong to the major political parties
- (29) How many constituencies are there in the UK?
A. 651
B. 326
C. 626
D. 351
- (30) How many years does a parliament usually stand for?
A. 3 years
B. 4 years
C. 5 years
D. 6 years
- (31) Which British party supports a "free market"?
A. The Conservative Party
B. The Liberal Party
C. The Party of Wales

- D. The Labor Party
- (32) Which group of people tends to support the Conservative Party?
- A. The middle class
 - B. The upper middle class
 - C. The working class
 - D. Both a and b
- (33) Which British party believes that government is to act as a “redistributive” agent?
- A. The Conservative Party
 - B. The Liberal Democrats
 - C. The Party of Wales
 - D. The Labor Party
- (34) Which of the following is a Conservative party leader?
- A. David Cameron
 - B. T ony Blair
 - C. Gordon Brown
 - D. Both b and c
- (35) Who is the newly elected (2015) Prime Minister?
- A. Gordon Brown
 - B. John Major
 - C. Tony Blair
 - D. David Cameron

II. Fill in the following blanks with appropriate words or expressions

- (1) The British government is established on the basis of constitutional _____.
- (2) The present sovereign of Britain is Queen _____, and Prince _____ is the heir to the throne.
- (3) Britain has no written constitution and many of the rules that govern the system are _____ or _____ and _____ laws.
- (4) Theoretically, the Queen has all the power, but in reality, she must act on the advice of the _____.
- (5) Parliament is the supreme _____ authority in Britain.
- (6) Parliament consists of _____, the House of _____ and the House of _____.
- (7) The President of the House of Lords is the _____.
- (8) Parliament's main functions are _____, making _____ and supervising the _____ and _____.
- (9) The British government is composed of _____ Minister and other _____, who are responsible to _____.
- (10) The Cabinet is composed of the most _____ ministers who meet regularly under the _____ of the Prime Minister to decide government _____ on major issues.
- (11) The Prime Minister controls not only the _____ but also the _____.
- (12) The Privy Council has the formal power to make certain executive _____ and _____.
- (13) Each of Britain's local administrated areas has its own elected _____ as the local authority.
- (14) The presiding officer of a country or district council is called _____, but in a district that is a borough or city he is called _____ or _____.

- (15) The two main political parties in Britain are both _____ in nature. The Conservative Party openly helps the _____ to get super-profits, while the Labor Party practices social _____ or bourgeois reformism
- (16) The Conservative Party developed out of the _____ Party, while the Liberal Party developed out of the _____ Party.
- (17) The Labor Party was founded in 1900 by a union between the _____ Union, the _____ Labor Party and the _____ Society.
- (18) For the election purpose, Britain is divided into _____ constituencies, each of which elects _____ members of the House of Commons.
- (19) In each constituency there may be any number of candidates, but the one who wins _____ votes is elected.
- (20) The party that wins the _____ seats in the House of Commons will be in office.
- (21) Central responsibility for the administration of the judicial system lies partly with the Lord _____ and partly with the _____ Secretary, the Secretary of State for _____ and the Secretary of State for _____.
- (22) In Britain the law as a whole consists partly of _____ or conventions and partly of _____ laws.
- (23) The criminal law is contained in _____ while a large part of the civil law is made up of a mass of _____ court decisions, interpreted in authoritative legal textbooks.
- (24) The central court in Britain include the _____ and the Court of _____, the House of _____ and the _____ Council.
- (25) The three divisions of High Court of Justice are the _____ Division, the _____ Division and the _____ Division.
- (26) The local courts in England are the _____ courts and country courts and others.
- (27) In Britain the highest civil court of appeal is the _____.
- (28) The Scottish High Court of Justice divides into the _____ Session and the _____ Session that has an _____ House and the _____ House.
- (29) Punishment in Britain is in the form of _____ or _____.
- (30) The police outside London are all _____ forces, employed and paid by local _____.
- (31) The Parliament is composed of three parts: the Queen, the House of _____, and the House of _____.
- (32) Life peers should be nominated by _____, and appointed by _____.
- (33) In the UK, the official head of state is _____ while the real center of political life is in _____.
- (34) There are three major parties in the UK: the _____, the _____ and the Liberal Party.
- (35) From 1979 to 1997, the _____ party won 4 consecutive elections and was in power for quite a long time.

III. True or False

- _____ (1) It is no doubt that the UK is the oldest representative democracy in the world.
- _____ (2) The real importance of the monarch is largely traditional and symbolic
- _____ (3) The British Parliament consists of the Queen, the House of Lords and Commons.
- _____ (4) The life peers are elected by British people.

- _____ (5) The center of power of the UK has shifted from the monarch to the House of Lords.
- _____ (6) The UK, like Israel, has a written constitution of the sort which most countries have.
- _____ (7) Common Laws are laws which have been established through common practice in the courts.
- _____ (8) There are two major national parties in the UK.
- _____ (9) Its global economic position would depend greatly on what share of offshore oil revenue would be negotiated with the remainder of the U.K. – and how long that oil would last.
- _____ (10) Cameron said the UK wants to improve relations with China and would like to be China's leading global partner.

IV. Explain the following terms

- (1) Conservative Party
- (2) Labor Party
- (3) Chancery Division
- (4) Queen's Bench Division
- (5) Scotland Yard

Unit4 British Economy

Cultural Training

Industrial Revolution

Introduction: Process of change from an agrarian, handicraft economy to one dominated by industry and machine manufacture.

The mid-18th century, Britain exported more and more goods overseas, the production technology workshop manual in short supply. In order to improve the production, people find

ways to improve the production technology. In the cotton textile sector, it is first invented a weaving tool called the Shuttle, greatly accelerate the speed of the weaving, but also stimulate the demand for cotton yarn. 18th century 60s, Hargreaves weavers invented the “Jenny” is the hand-spinning machine. “Jennifer” is a root can be a lot of spinning cotton, greatly improved productivity. Jennifer machine there is the United Kingdom marked the beginning of the industrial revolution.

It began in England in the 18th century. Technological changes included the use of iron and steel, new energy sources, invention of new machines that increased production (including the spinning jenny), development of the factory system, and important developments in transportation and communication (including the steam engine and telegraph). Other changes included agricultural improvements, a wider distribution of wealth, political changes reflecting the shift in economic power, and sweeping social changes. The Industrial Revolution was largely confined to Britain from 1760 to 1830, then spread to Belgium and France. Other nations lagged behind, but once Germany, the U.S., and Japan achieved industrial power they outstripped Britain's initial successes. Eastern European countries lagged into the 20th century, and not until the mid-20th century did the Industrial Revolution spread to such countries as China and India. Many analysts saw evidence of a second, or new, industrial revolution in the later 20th century, with the use of new materials and energy sources, automated factories, new ownership of the means of production, and a shift away from laissez-faire government

The first time the industrial revolution influence to the world in the following aspects:

- 1) the industrial revolution greatly improve the social productive forces and enriching people's material life, consolidate the capitalist countries rule. Capitalist production system was finally gained dominance,
- 2) the industrial revolution promoted the new city of generation, speed up the process of urbanization,
- 3) the industrial revolution promoted the development of the cause of science education and scientific communism come,
- 4) the advanced production technology and production mode spreads to the world, hurled the old ideas and old system promoted world industrialization;
- 5) the industrial revolution caused social structure of major change, industrial bourgeois gradually become the dominant part bourgeois. The proletariat also officially formation.
- 6) the industrial revolution promoted world market formation. For global regions, nations and ethnic communication and future global integration laid a preliminary basis.

The first time the industrial revolution impact to China:

- 1) the Occident powers launched two opium war, China began to degenerate into a semi-colonial and semi-feudal society,
- 2) subject to foreign enterprise in China of the induction, China's modern industry produce (or westernization enterprise and national capitalist enterprise, or capitalistic China produced);
- 3) the Chinese learning from the western countries advanced science and technology

Social Effect of Industrial Revolution

1) Factory system

Prior to the Industrial Revolution most of the workforce was employed in agriculture, either as self-employed farmers as land owners or tenants, or as landless agricultural laborers. By the

time of the Industrial Revolution the putting-out system whereby farmers and townspeople produced goods in their homes, often described as cottage industry. Typical putting out system goods included spinning and weaving. Merchant capitalist provided the raw materials, typically paid workers by the piece, and were responsible for the sale of the goods. Embezzlement of supplies by workers and poor quality were common problems. The logistical effort in procuring and distributing raw materials and picking up finished goods were also limitations of the putting out system.

Some early spinning and weaving machinery, such as a 40 spindle jenny for about 6 pounds in 1792, was affordable for cottagers. Later machinery such as spinning frames, spinning mules and power looms were expensive (especially if water powered), giving rise to capitalist ownership of factories. Many workers, who had nothing but their labor to sell, became factory workers out of necessity.

The change in the social relationship of the factory worker compared to farmers and cottagers was viewed unfavorably by Karl Marx, however, he recognized the increase in productivity made possible by technology.

2) Standards of living

The effects on living conditions the industrial revolution have been very controversial, and were hotly debated by economic and social historians from the 1950s to the 1980s. A series of 1950s essays by Henry Phelps Brown and Sheila V. Hopkins later set the academic consensus that the bulk of the population that was at the bottom of the social ladder suffered severe reductions in their living standards. During 1813–1913, there was a significant increase in worker wages.

Some economists, such as Robert E. Lucas, Jr., say that the real impact of the Industrial Revolution was that “for the first time in history, the living standards of the masses of ordinary people have begun to undergo sustained growth ... Nothing remotely like this economic behavior is mentioned by the classical economists, even as a theoretical possibility”. Others, however, argue that while growth of the economy’s overall productive powers was unprecedented during the Industrial Revolution, living standards for the majority of the population did not grow meaningfully until the late 19th and 20th centuries, and that in many ways workers’ living standards declined under early capitalism: for instance, studies have shown that real wages in Britain only increased 15% between the 1780s and 1850s, and that life expectancy in Britain did not begin to dramatically increase until the 1870s.

① Food and nutrition

Chronic hunger and malnutrition were the norm for the majority of the population of the world including Britain and France, until the late 19th century. Until about 1750, in large part due to malnutrition, life expectancy in France was about 35 years, and only slightly higher in Britain. The US population of the time was adequately fed, much taller on average and had life expectancy of 45–50 years.

In Britain and the Netherlands, food supply had been increasing and prices falling before the Industrial Revolution due to better agricultural practices; however, population grew too, as noted by Thomas Malthus. Before the Industrial Revolution, advances in agriculture or technology soon led to an increase in population, which again strained food and other resources, limiting increases in per capita income. This condition is called the Malthusian trap, and it was finally overcome by

industrialization.

Transportation improvements, such as canals and improved roads, also lowered food costs. Railroads were introduced near the end of the Industrial Revolution.

② Housing



Over London by Rail Gustave Doré. 1870. Shows the densely populated and polluted environments created in the new industrial cities.

Living conditions during the Industrial Revolution varied from splendor for factory owners to squalor for workers.

In *The Condition of the Working Class in England* in 1844 Friedrich Engels described backstreet sections of Manchester and other mill towns, where people lived in crude shanties and shacks, some not completely enclosed, some with dirt floors. These shantytowns had narrow walkways between irregularly shaped lots and dwellings. There were no sanitary facilities. Population density was extremely high. Eight to ten unrelated mill workers often shared a room, often with no furniture, and slept on a pile of straw or sawdust. Toilet facilities were shared if they existed. Disease spread through a contaminated water supply. Also, people were at risk of developing pathologies due to persistent dampness.

The famines that troubled rural areas did not happen in industrial areas. But urban people—especially small children—died due to diseases spreading through the cramped living conditions. Tuberculosis (spread in congested dwellings), lung diseases from the mines, cholera from polluted water and typhoid were also common.

Not everyone lived in such poor conditions. The Industrial Revolution also created a middle class of professionals, such as lawyers and doctors, who lived in much better conditions.

Conditions improved over the course of the 19th century due to new public health acts regulating things such as sewage, hygiene and home construction. In the introduction of his 1892 edition, Engels notes that most of the conditions he wrote about in 1844 had been greatly improved.

③ Clothing and consumer goods

Consumers benefited from falling prices for clothing and household articles such as cast iron

cooking utensils, and in the following decades, stoves for cooking and space heating.

3) Population increase

According to Robert Hughes in *The Fatal Shore*, the population of England and Wales, which had remained steady at 6 million from 1700 to 1740, rose dramatically after 1740. The population of England had more than doubled from 8.3 million in 1801 to 16.8 million in 1850 and, by 1901, had nearly doubled again to 30.5 million. Improved conditions led to the population of Britain increasing from 10 million to 40 million in the 1800s. Europe's population increased from about 100 million in 1700 to 400 million by 1900.

The Industrial Revolution was the first period in history during which there was a simultaneous increase in population and in per capita income.

4) Labour conditions

① Social structure and working conditions

In terms of social structure, the Industrial Revolution witnessed the triumph of a middle class of industrialists and businessmen over a landed class of nobility and gentry. Ordinary working people found increased opportunities for employment in the new mills and factories, but these were often under strict working conditions with long hours of labor dominated by a pace set by machines. As late as the year 1900, most industrial workers in the United States still worked a 10-hour day (12 hours in the steel industry), yet earned from 20% to 40% less than the minimum deemed necessary for a decent life. However, harsh working conditions were prevalent long before the Industrial Revolution took place. Pre-industrial society was very static and often cruel—child labour, dirty living conditions, and long working hours were just as prevalent before the Industrial Revolution.

② Factories and urbanization

Industrialization led to the creation of the factory. Arguably the first highly mechanized was John Lombe's water-powered silk mill at Derby, operational by 1721. Lombe learned silk thread manufacturing by taking a job in Italy and acting as an industrial spy; however, since the silk industry there was a closely guarded secret, the state of the industry there is unknown. Because Lombe's factory was not successful and there was no follow through, the rise of the modern factory dates to somewhat later when cotton spinning was mechanized.

The factory system contributed to the growth of urban areas, as large numbers of workers migrated into the cities in search of work in the factories. Nowhere was this better illustrated than the mills and associated industries of Manchester, nicknamed "Cottonopolis", and the world's first industrial city. Manchester experienced a six-times increase in its population between 1771 and 1831. Bradford grew by 50% every ten years between 1811 and 1851 and by 1851 only 50% of the population of Bradford was actually born there.

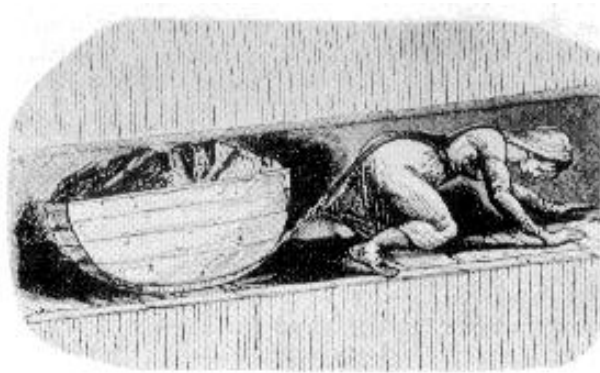
For much of the 19th century, production was done in small mills, which were typically water-powered and built to serve local needs. Later, each factory would have its own steam engine and a chimney to give an efficient draft through its boiler.

The transition to industrialization was not without difficulty. For example, a group of English workers known as Luddites formed to protest against industrialization and sometimes sabotaged factories.

In other industries the transition to factory production was not so divisive. Some industrialists themselves tried to improve factory and living conditions for their workers. One of the earliest such reformers was Robert Owen, known for his pioneering efforts in improving conditions for workers at the New Lanark mills, and often regarded as one of the key thinkers of the early socialist movement.

By 1746, an integrated brass mill was working at Warmley near Bristol. Raw material went in at one end, was smelted into brass and was turned into pans, pins, wire, and other goods. Housing was provided for workers on site.

③Child labor



The Industrial Revolution led to a population increase but the chances of surviving childhood did not improve throughout the Industrial Revolution, although infant mortality rates were reduced markedly. There was still limited opportunity for education and children were expected to work. Employers could pay a child less than an adult even though their productivity was comparable; there was no need for strength to operate an industrial machine, and since the industrial system was completely new, there were no experienced adult laborers. This made child labor the labor of choice for manufacturing in the early phases of the Industrial Revolution between the 18th and 19th centuries. In England and Scotland in 1788, two-thirds of the workers in 143 water-powered cotton mills were described as children.

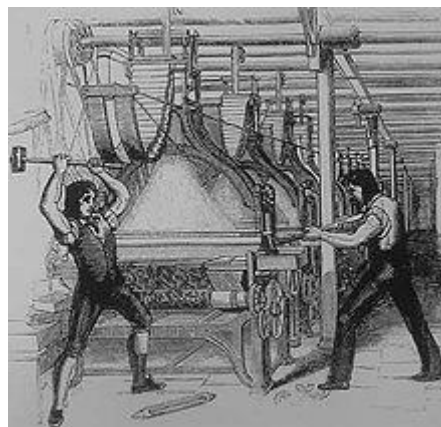
Child labour existed before the Industrial Revolution but with the increase in population and education it became more visible. Many children were forced to work in relatively bad conditions for much lower pay than their elders, 10–20% of an adult male's wage. Children as young as four were employed. Beatings and long hours were common, with some child coal miners and hurriers working from 4 am until 5 pm. Conditions were dangerous, with some children killed when they dozed off and fell into the path of the carts, while others died from gas explosions. Many children developed lung cancer and other diseases and died before the age of 25. Workhouses would sell orphans and abandoned children as “pauper apprentices”, working without wages for board and lodging. Those who ran away would be whipped and returned to their masters, with some masters shackling them to prevent escape. Children employed as mule scavengers by cotton mills would crawl under machinery to pick up cotton, working 14 hours a day, six days a week. Some lost hands or limbs, others were crushed under the machines, and

some were decapitated. Young girls worked at match factories, where phosphorus fumes would cause many to develop phossy jaw. Children employed at glassworks were regularly burned and blinded, and those working at potteries were vulnerable to poisonous clay dust.

Reports were written detailing some of the abuses, particularly in the coal mines and textile factories, and these helped to popularize the children's plight. The public outcry, especially among the upper and middle classes, helped stir change in the young workers' welfare.

Politicians and the government tried to limit child labor by law but factory owners resisted; some felt that they were aiding the poor by giving their children money to buy food to avoid starvation, and others simply welcomed the cheap labor. In 1833 and 1844, the first general laws against child labor, the Factory Acts, were passed in Britain: Children younger than nine were not allowed to work, children were not permitted to work at night, and the work day of youth under the age of 18 was limited to twelve hours. Factory inspectors supervised the execution of the law, however, their scarcity made enforcement difficult. About ten years later, the employment of children and women in mining was forbidden. These laws decreased the number of child laborers, however child labor remained in Europe and the United States up to the 20th century.

④ Luddites



The rapid industrialization of the English economy cost many craft workers their jobs. The movement started first with lace and hosiery workers near Nottingham and spread to other areas of the textile industry owing to early industrialization. Many weavers also found themselves suddenly unemployed since they could no longer compete with machines which only required relatively limited (and unskilled) labor to produce more cloth than a single weaver. Many such unemployed workers, weavers and others, turned their animosity towards the machines that had taken their jobs and began destroying factories and machinery. These attackers became known as Luddites, supposedly followers of Ned Ludd, a folklore figure. The first attacks of the Luddite movement began in 1811. The Luddites rapidly gained popularity, and the British government took drastic measures, using the militia or army to protect industry. Those rioters who were caught were tried and hanged, or transported for life.

Unrest continued in other sectors as they industrialized, such as with agricultural laborers in the 1830s when large parts of southern Britain were affected by the Captain Swing disturbances. Threshing machines were a particular target, and hayrick burning was a popular activity. However, the riots led to the first formation of trade unions, and further pressure for reform.

⑤ Organization of labor

The Industrial Revolution concentrated labor into mills, factories and mines, thus facilitating the organization of combinations or trade unions to help advance the interests of working people. The power of a union could demand better terms by withdrawing all labor and causing a consequent cessation of production. Employers had to decide between giving in to the union demands at a cost to themselves or suffering the cost of the lost production. Skilled workers were hard to replace, and these were the first groups to successfully advance their conditions through this kind of bargaining.

The main method the unions used to effect change was strike action. Many strikes were painful events for both sides, the unions and the management. In Britain, the Combination Act 1799 forbade workers to form any kind of trade union until its repeal in 1824. Even after this, unions were still severely restricted.

In 1832, the Reform Act extended the vote in Britain but did not grant universal suffrage. That year six men from Tolpuddle in Dorset founded the Friendly Society of Agricultural Laborers to protest against the gradual lowering of wages in the 1830s. They refused to work for less than ten shillings a week, although by this time wages had been reduced to seven shillings a week and were due to be further reduced to six. In 1834 James Frampton, a local landowner, wrote to the Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, to complain about the union, invoking an obscure law from 1797 prohibiting people from swearing oaths to each other, which the members of the Friendly Society had done. James Brine, James Hammett, George Loveless, George's brother James Loveless, George's brother-in-law Thomas Standfield, and Thomas's son John Standfield were arrested, found guilty, and transported to Australia. They became known as the Tolpuddle Martyrs. In the 1830s and 1840s, the Chartist movement was the first large-scale organized working class political movement which campaigned for political equality and social justice. Its Charter of reforms received over three million signatures but was rejected by Parliament without consideration.

Working people also formed friendly societies and co-operative societies as mutual support groups against times of economic hardship. Enlightened industrialists, such as Robert Owen also supported these organizations to improve the conditions of the working class.

Unions slowly overcame the legal restrictions on the right to strike. In 1842, a general strike involving cotton workers and colliers was organized through the Chartist movement which stopped production across Great Britain.

Eventually, effective political organization for working people was achieved through the trades unions who, after the extensions of the franchise in 1867 and 1885, began to support socialist political parties that later merged to become the British Labour Party.

⑥ Other effects

The application of steam power to the industrial processes of printing supported a massive expansion of newspaper and popular book publishing, which reinforced rising literacy and demands for mass political participation.

During the Industrial Revolution, the life expectancy of children increased dramatically. The percentage of the children born in London who died before the age of five decreased from 74.5% in 1730–1749 to 31.8% in 1810–1829.

The growth of modern industry since the late 18th century led to massive urbanisation and the rise of new great cities, first in Europe and then in other regions, as new opportunities brought

huge numbers of migrants from rural communities into urban areas. In 1800, only 3% of the world's population lived in cities, compared to nearly 50% today (the beginning of the 21st century). Manchester had a population of 10,000 in 1717, but by 1911 it had burgeoned to 2.3 million.

The Second Industrial Revolution

Introduction:

The Second Industrial Revolution occurred from the early 19th to early 20th centuries. The First Industrial Revolution saw steam-powered machines replace human labor in industry. The Second Industrial Revolution saw electricity replace steam as the main power source in industry.

Major innovations were made in the use of new energy sources such as gas and electricity. Electricity was applied to transportation and communications. The use of electricity promoted growth on a large scale. Consumer goods were produced in bulk. The Second Industrial Revolution was an electric revolution.

Although general health care and standards of living were improved, many social problems of the First Industrial Revolution were not solved. Unemployment remained a problem. The gap between rich and poor continued to grow.

Britain led the world through the First Industrial Revolution. While the British continued to play a major role in the Second Industrial Revolution, Britain's position as world economic leader was lost to Germany and the United States of America.

New sources of energy

A number of scientific developments were made during the Second Industrial Revolution. Scientists searched for other energy sources to use instead of steam.

Gas was the first new fuel source. 'Coal gas' was produced when manufacturing coke. Coal gas was used to produce bright lights. Coal gas lights allowed factories to operate longer hours, some factories opening for 24 hours a day.

The discovery of the electrical current proved to be the catalyst for the Second Industrial Revolution. In 1831, British scientist Michael Faraday proved that an electrical current could pass between a coil of wire and a magnet. Depending on the size of the wire and distance of the magnet, the electrical current changed strength.

The power of electricity was harnessed in the following years. In 1832, the first electrical generator was built. The driving force of electricity was in lighting. The light bulb was a common fixture by mid-century. Electrical lighting was, however, too dim for practical use. Electricity had very little impact on British industry. The development of electricity and its application was explored by scientists in Germany and the United States.

By the 1870s, an electric motor was built. Electricity was beginning to be used in industry, slowly replacing steam. Electricity would come to influence the development of communications and transport.

Communications

The First Industrial Revolution had made few improvements in communications. With the discovery of electricity in the Second Industrial Revolution, great advances in communication technology were made.

In 1837, British scientist Sir Charles Wheatstone invented the first electric telegraph.

Messages were sent using needles and wires to a remote receiver.

In 1838, communications were changed forever when American Samuel Morse invented a code of dots and dashes that could be transmitted with the telegraph. Morse code was an effective tool for communication. Telegraph lines were laid in Britain, Europe and the United States. It became possible to communicate quickly and clearly across vast distances.

The next advance in communications occurred when Alexander Bell invented the telephone in 1876. The telephone was used to transmit and receive sounds across long distances. The telephone quickly grew in popularity quickly. Copper wires were used to transmit signals over long distances.

Another innovation in communications was the discovery of electromagnetic waves, also known as radio waves. In 1887, German Heinrich Hertz demonstrated that electricity flowing through one circuit could produce electricity in a second, unconnected circuit.

Hertz's discovery was extended by Italian inventor Guglielmo Marconi who used radio waves to transmit signals. The experiments were a success and Marconi developed wireless telegraphs, the basis of the modern radio.

Transportation

During the First Industrial Revolution, the fastest mode of transportation was the railway. While railways were effective for long-distance travel, short-distance travel was limited to horse and carriage. During the Second Industrial Revolution, great advances were made in transportation. Horses were replaced by oil- and electric-powered vehicles.

Electricity replaced steam-power. Industrial cities which had grown during the First Industrial Revolution were in dire need of effective transportation networks.

See Image Five

In 1860, the first internal combustion engine was built by Belgian engineer J. Lenoir. Gas was used as fuel. Power was produced when gas entered the cylinder and was ignited by a spark. The spark made gases expand within the cylinder. The expanding gases moved the cylinder, which in turn moved the engine.

In 1862, the internal combustion engine was fitted to a vehicle. The first petrol fuelled motor vehicle was built by Karl Benz in 1885. Benz's vehicle had three wheels.

Around this time, electricity was applied to trams. Trams had been built to move people around cities. The first trams were horse and steam drawn. In 1863, electricity was applied to the underground railway systems in Britain. By the end of the century, the majority of trains in Britain were run on electricity.

In 1886, the first four-wheeled vehicle was built by Daimler. The first 'car' was called a horseless carriage. Over time the design of the first car was improved. In 1891, the engine was moved to the front of the vehicle to distribute weight more efficiently. In 1895, E and A Michelin developed the first pneumatic air tyres. By 1908, Henry Ford from the United States planned to mass produce the car on a production line. The modern manufacturing and car industries were born.

The Second Industrial Revolution brought advances in new energy sources, communication and transport. In each of these developments, electricity played a major role.

Social Economic impacts of the Second Industrial Revolution

The period from 1870 to 1890 saw the greatest increase in economic growth in such a short period as ever in previous history. Living standards improved significantly in the newly industrialized countries as the prices of goods fell dramatically due to the increases in productivity. This caused unemployment and great upheavals in commerce and industry, with many laborers being displaced by machines and many factories, ships and other forms of fixed capital becoming obsolete in a very short time span.

Crop failures no longer resulted in starvation in areas connected to large markets through transport infrastructure.

Massive improvements in public health and sanitation resulted from public health initiatives, such as the construction of the London sewerage system in the 1860s and the passage of laws that regulated filtered water supplies - (the Metropolis Water Act introduced regulation of the water supply companies in London, including minimum standards of water quality for the first time in 1852). This greatly reduced the infection and death rates from many diseases.

By 1870 the work done by steam engines exceeded that done by animal and human power. Horses and mules remained important in agriculture until the development of the internal combustion tractor near the end of the Second Industrial Revolution.

Improvements in steam efficiency, like triple-expansion steam engines, allowed ships to carry much more freight than coal, resulting in greatly increased volumes of international trade. Higher steam engine efficiency caused the number of steam engines to increase several fold, leading to an increase in coal usage, the phenomenon being called the Jevons paradox.

World telegraph network, 1875

By 1890 there was an international telegraph network allowing orders to be placed by merchants in England or the US to suppliers in India and China for goods to be transported in efficient new steamships. This, plus the opening of the Suez Canal, led to the decline of the great warehousing districts in London and elsewhere, and the elimination of many middlemen.

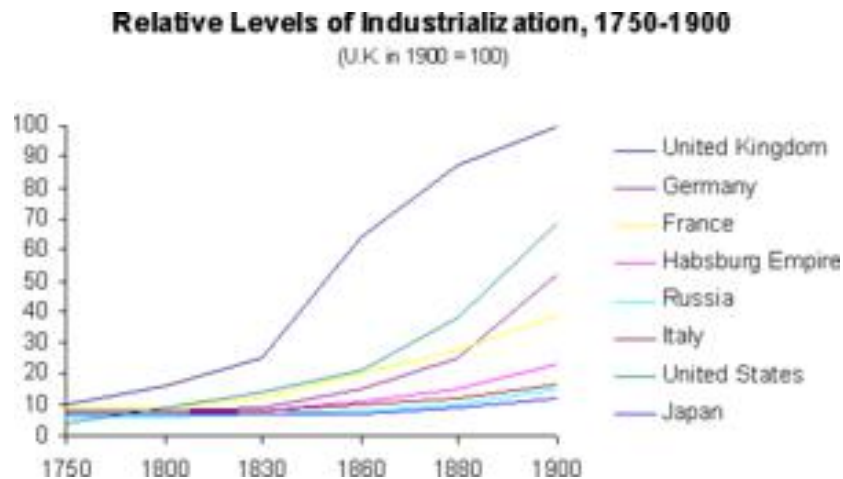
The tremendous growth in productivity, transportation networks, industrial production and agricultural output lowered the prices of almost all goods. This led to many business failures and periods that were called depressions that occurred as the world economy actually grew. See also: Long depression

The factory system centralized production in separate buildings funded and directed by specialists (as opposed to work at home). The division of labor made both unskilled and skilled labor more productive, and led to a rapid growth of population in industrial centers. The shift away from agriculture toward industry had occurred in Britain by the 1730s, when the percentage of the working population engaged in agriculture fell below 50%, a development that would only happen elsewhere (the Low Countries) in the 1830s and '40s. By 1890, the figure had fallen to under 10% percent and the vast majority of the British population was urbanized. This milestone was reached by the Low Countries and the US in the 1950s. Like the first industrial revolution, the second supported population growth and saw most governments protect their national economies with tariffs. Britain, however, retained its belief in free trade throughout this period. The wide-ranging social impact of both revolutions included the remaking of the working class as new technologies appeared. The creation of a larger, increasingly professional, middle class, the decline of child labor and the dramatic growth of a consumer-based, material culture.

By 1900, the leaders in industrial production was Britain with 24% of the world total, followed by the US (19%), Germany (13%), Russia (9%) and France (7%). Europe together

accounted for 62%.

The great inventions and innovations of the Second Industrial Revolution are part of our modern life. They continued to be drivers of the economy until after WWII. Only a few major innovations occurred in the post-war era, some of which are: computers, semiconductors, the fiber optic network and the Internet, cellular telephones, combustion turbines (jet engines) and the Green Revolution. Although commercial aviation existed before WWII, it became a major industry after the war.



New products and services were introduced which greatly increased international trade. Improvements in steam engine design and the wide availability of cheap steel meant that slow, sailing ships were replaced with faster steamship, which could handle more trade with smaller crews. The chemical industries also moved to the forefront. Britain invested less in technological research than the U.S. and Germany, which caught up.

The development of more intricate and efficient machines along with mass production techniques (after 1910) greatly expanded output and lowered production costs. As a result, production often exceeded domestic demand. Among the new conditions, more markedly evident in Britain, the forerunner of Europe's industrial states, were the long-term effects of the severe Long Depression of 1873–1896, which had followed fifteen years of great economic instability. Businesses in practically every industry suffered from lengthy periods of low — and falling — profit rates and price deflation after 1873.

Edinburgh Slips in League of World Financial Centers



Edinburgh has slipped in a survey of the top global financial centers to 27th in the world.

The Global Financial Centers Index (GFCI) was first produced by the Z/Yen Group for the City of London in March 2007 and now reports every six months with a league table of the top financial centers of the world in terms of competitiveness. It is compiled using the results of a continuously running online questionnaire. In total, 36,497 financial center assessments were completed by 1,802 financial services professionals for the latest survey.

The questionnaire asks respondents to rate financial competitiveness of financial centers on a scale of 1 to 10, what cities have suffered most from the financial crisis, what cities will become more competitive in the future, what cities organizations are likely to move offices to, and such like.

Edinburgh, like many financial centers has recuperated somewhat from the financial crisis of 2008 and early 2009, but less vigorously than Asian cities which are beginning to make their presence more strongly felt on the index.

The sixth GFCI rates and ranks 75 global financial centers in the world. London topped the chart, with New York close behind, but Edinburgh dropped seven places down the rankings to 27th global financial center. It comes 7th in the rankings for European financial centers.

Edinburgh's GFCI6 rating increased 5 points to 605, while London increased 9 to 790. Dublin was one of only 3 financial centers to receive a lower score but still ranks higher than Edinburgh in 23 place with a score of 613. Glasgow fared worse sliding from 31st to 49th place in the GFCI rankings with a score of 550, down 4 points.

The survey also includes industry sector sub-indices for the Banking, Asset Management, Insurance, Professional Services and Government & Regulatory sectors using only the questionnaire responses from respondents working in the relevant industry sectors.

Edinburgh did well in the asset management sub-indices coming in 15th place against 27th in the overall GFCI.

Top 10 European Financial Centers/Score:

London - 790
Zurich - 676
Geneva - 660
Frankfurt - 649
Paris - 630
Dublin - 613
Edinburgh - 605
Munich - 588
Amsterdam - 586
Stockholm - 569

Top 10 Global Financial Centers/Score:

London - 790
New York - 774
Hong Kong - 729
Singapore - 719
Shenzhen - 695
Zurich - 676
Tokyo - 674

Chicago - 661
Geneva - 660
Shanghai – 655

History of economic and monetary union

Economic and monetary union (EMU) is the result of progressive economic integration in the EU. It is an expansion of the EU single market, with common product regulations and free movement of goods, capital, labor and services. A common currency, the euro, has been introduced in the Eurozone, which currently comprises 19 EU Member States. All 28 EU Member States — with the exception of the UK and Denmark — must adopt the euro after a minimum of two years' participation in ERM II and fulfilment of the convergence criteria. A single monetary policy is set by the European Central Bank (ECB) and is complemented by harmonized fiscal and coordinated economic policies. Within EMU there is no single institution responsible for economic policy. Instead, the responsibility is divided between Member States and various EU institutions.

Legal basis

Decisions of the European Summits of The Hague (1969), Paris (1972), Brussels (1978), Hanover (1988), Madrid and Strasbourg (both 1989), and Maastricht (1991-1992);

Articles 119-144, 219 and 282-284 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU);

Protocols annexed to the TFEU on: the transition to the third stage of economic and monetary union; the excessive deficit and macroeconomic imbalances procedures; the convergence criteria; the opt-out clauses for the United Kingdom and Denmark; and the European System of Central Banks and the European Central Bank, as well as the Euro group

Objectives

EMU is the result of progressive economic integration, and is therefore not an end in itself. The management of EMU is designed to support sustainable economic growth and high employment through appropriate economic and monetary policymaking. This involves three main economic activities: 1) implementing monetary policy with the objective of price stability; 2) coordinating economic policies in Member States; 3) ensuring the smooth operation of the single market.

Achievements

The euro is now part of day-to-day life in 19 Member States of the European Union. Other Member States will eventually adopt it. The single currency presents undeniable advantages: it lowers the costs of financial transactions, makes travel easier, strengthens the role of Europe at international level, etc.

History of EMU

At the summit in The Hague in 1969, the Heads of State or Government defined a new objective of European integration: economic and monetary union (EMU). A group headed by

Pierre Werner, Prime Minister of Luxembourg, drafted a report which envisaged the achievement of full economic and monetary union within 10 years according to a plan in several stages. The ultimate goal was to achieve full liberalization of capital movements, the total convertibility of Member States' currencies, and the irrevocable fixing of exchange rates. The collapse of the Bretton Woods system and the decision of the US Government to float the dollar in mid-1971 produced a wave of instability in respect of foreign exchange which called into serious question the parities between the European currencies. The EMU project was brought to an abrupt halt.

In 1972 (at the Paris Summit) the EU attempted to impart fresh momentum to monetary integration by creating the 'snake in the tunnel': a mechanism for the managed floating of currencies (the 'snake') within narrow margins of fluctuation against the dollar (the 'tunnel'). Thrown off course by the oil crises, the weakness of the dollar and differences in economic policy, the 'snake' lost most of its members in less than two years and was finally reduced to a 'mark area' comprising Germany, the Benelux countries and Denmark.

Efforts to establish an area of monetary stability were renewed in 1978 (at the Brussels Summit) with the creation of the European Monetary System (EMS), based on the concept of fixed but adjustable exchange rates. The currencies of all the Member States, except the UK, participated in the exchange rate mechanism, ERM I. Exchange rates were based on central rates against the ECU ('European Currency Unit'), the European unit of account, which was a weighted average of the participating currencies. A grid of bilateral rates was calculated on the basis of these central rates expressed in ECU, and currency fluctuations had to be contained within a margin of 2.25% either side of the bilateral rates (with the exception of the Italian lira, which was allowed a margin of 6%). Over a 10-year period, the EMS did much to reduce exchange rate variability: the flexibility of the system, combined with the political resolve to bring about economic convergence, achieved sustainable currency stability.

With the adoption of the Single Market Programme in 1985, it became increasingly clear that the potential of the internal market could not be fully exploited as long as relatively high transaction costs linked to currency conversion and the uncertainties linked to exchange rate fluctuations, however small, persisted. Moreover, many economists denounced what they called the 'impossible triangle': free movement of capital, exchange rate stability and independent monetary policies were incompatible in the long term.

In 1988, the Hanover European Council set up a committee to study EMU under the chairmanship of Jacques Delors, the then Commission President. The committee's report (the Delors report), submitted in 1989, proposed to strengthen a three-stage introduction of EMU. In particular, it stressed the need for better coordination of economic policies, rules covering national budget deficits, and a new, completely independent institution which would be responsible for the Union's monetary policy: the European Central Bank (ECB). On the basis of the Delors report, the Madrid European Council decided in 1989 to launch the first stage of EMU: full liberalization of capital movements by 1 July 1990.

In December 1989 the Strasbourg European Council called for an intergovernmental conference that would identify what amendments needed to be made to the Treaty in order to achieve EMU. The work of this intergovernmental conference led to the Treaty on European Union, which was formally adopted by the Heads of State or Government at the Maastricht European Council in December 1991 and signed on 7 February 1992.

The Treaty provides for EMU to be introduced in three stages.

Stage 1 (from 1 July 1990 to 31 December 1993): the free movement of capital between Member States;

Stage 2 (from 1 January 1994 to 31 December 1998): convergence of Member States' economic policies and strengthening of cooperation between Member States' national central banks. The coordination of monetary policies was institutionalized by the establishment of the European Monetary Institute (EMI), whose task was to strengthen cooperation between the national central banks and to carry out the necessary preparations for the introduction of the single currency. The national central banks were to become independent during this stage;

Stage 3 (under way since 1 January 1999): the gradual introduction of the euro as the single currency of the Member States and the implementation of a common monetary policy under the aegis of the ECB. Transition to the third stage was subject to the achievement of a high degree of durable convergence measured against a number of criteria laid down by the Treaties. The budgetary rules were to become binding and a Member State not complying with them was likely to face penalties. A single monetary policy was introduced and entrusted to the European System of Central Banks (ESCB), made up of the national central banks and the ECB.

The first two stages of EMU have been completed. The third stage is still under way. In principle, all EU Member States must join this final stage and therefore adopt the euro (Article 119 TFEU). However, some Member States have not yet fulfilled the convergence criteria. These Member States consequently benefit from a provisional derogation until they are able to join the third stage of EMU. Furthermore, the United Kingdom and Denmark gave notification of their intention not to participate in the third stage of EMU and therefore not to adopt the euro. These two Member States therefore have an exemption with regard to their participation in EMU. The exemption arrangements are detailed in the protocols relating to these two countries annexed to the founding Treaties of the EU. However, the United Kingdom and Denmark reserve the option to end their exemption and submit applications to join the third phase of EMU. As things now stand, 19 of the 28 Member States have joined the third stage of EMU and thus have the euro as a single currency.

Role of the European Parliament

Since the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty, the European Parliament has participated as equal co-legislator in the ordinary legislative procedure in establishing detailed rules for multilateral surveillance (Article 121(6) TFEU). This involves, inter alia, the preventive part of the Stability and Growth Pact, as well as more diligent macroeconomic surveillance to prevent harmful imbalances following the financial crisis. The 'six-pack' strengthened Parliament's role in the economic governance of the EU, in particular through the introduction of the 'European Semester' and the installation of an 'Economic Dialogue'. In addition, Parliament is consulted on the following issues:

- 1) agreements on exchange rates between the euro and non-EU currencies;
- 2) the choice of countries eligible to join the single currency in 1999 and subsequently;
- 3) the appointment of the President, Vice-President and other members of the ECB Executive Board;
- 4) legislation implementing the excessive deficit procedure provided for in the Stability and Growth Pact.

British petroleum

BP, also referred to by its former name British Petroleum, is one of the world's seven "supermajor" oil and gas companies. It is a British multinational company, headquartered in London, England, whose performance in 2012 made it the world's sixth-largest oil and gas company, the sixth-largest energy company by market capitalization and the company with the world's fifth-largest revenue (turnover). It is a vertically integrated company operating in all areas of the oil and gas industry, including exploration and production, refining distribution and marketing, petrochemicals, power generation and trading. It also has renewable energy interests in biofuels and wind power.

As of December 2013, BP has operations in approximately 80 countries, produces around 3.2 million barrels per day (510,000 m³/d) of oil equivalent, has total proved reserves of 17.9 billion barrels (2.85×10⁹ m³) of oil equivalent, and has around 17,800 service stations. Its largest division is BP America in the United States. In Russia BP owns a 19.75% stake in Rosneft, the world's largest publicly traded oil and gas company by hydrocarbon reserves and production. BP has a primary listing on the London Stock Exchange and is a constituent of the FTSE 100 Index; it had a market capitalisation of £85.2 billion as of April 2013, the fourth-largest of any company listed on the exchange. It has secondary listings on the Frankfurt Stock Exchange and the New York Stock Exchange.

BP's origins date back to the founding of the Anglo-Persian Oil Company in 1908, established as a subsidiary of Burmah Oil Company to exploit oil discoveries in Iran. In 1935, it became the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company and in 1954 British Petroleum. In 1959, the company expanded beyond the Middle East to Alaska and in 1965 it was the first company to strike oil in the North Sea. British Petroleum acquired majority control of Standard Oil of Ohio in 1978. Formerly majority state-owned, the British government privatized the company in stages between 1979 and 1987. British Petroleum merged with Amoco in 1998, becoming BP Amoco plc, and acquired ARCO and Burmah Castrol in 2000, becoming BP plc in 2001. From 2003 to 2013, BP was a partner in the TNK-BP joint venture in Russia.

BP has been directly involved in several major environmental and safety incidents. Among them were the 2005 Texas City Refinery explosion, which caused the death of 15 workers and resulted in a record-setting OSHA fine; Britain's largest oil spill, the wreck of Torrey Canyon; and the 2006 Prudhoe Bay oil spill, the largest oil spill on Alaska's North Slope, which resulted in a US\$25 million civil penalty, the largest per-barrel penalty at that time for an oil spill.

The 2010 Deepwater Horizon oil spill, the largest accidental release of oil into marine waters in history, resulted in severe environmental, health and economic consequences, and serious legal and public relations repercussions for BP. 1.8 million gallons of Corexit oil dispersant were used in the cleanup response, becoming the largest application of such chemicals in US history. The company plead guilty to 11 counts of felony manslaughter, two misdemeanors, and one felony count of lying to Congress, and agreed to pay more than \$4.5 billion in fines and penalties, the largest criminal resolution in US history.

Legal proceedings are continuing, with proceedings set to commence in January 2015 to determine payouts and fines under the Clean Water Act and the Natural Resources Damage Assessment. In September 2014, the judge ruled in the first phase of the case that BP was "reckless" and committed "gross negligence," in a "worst case" ruling that could cost BP \$18 billion in additional penalties above the \$28 billion already expended on the spill by that time. BP

is appealing the ruling, which raised concerns about BP's future. They settled in July 2015 in the amount of \$19 billion plus the original amount.

Royal Dutch Shell

Royal Dutch Shell plc, commonly known as Shell, is an Anglo-Dutch multinational oil and gas company headquartered in the Netherlands and incorporated in the United Kingdom. Created by the merger of Royal Dutch Petroleum and UK-based Shell Transport & Trading, it is the fourth largest company in the world as of 2014, in terms of revenue, and one of the six oil and gas "supermajors".

Shell is also one of the world's most valuable companies. As of January 2013 the largest shareholder is Capital Research Global Investors with 9.85% ahead of BlackRock in second with 6.89%. Shell topped the 2013 Fortune Global 500 list of the world's largest companies. Royal Dutch Shell revenue was equal to 84% of the Netherlands' \$555.8 billion GDP at the time.

Shell is vertically integrated and is active in every area of the oil and gas industry, including exploration and production refining, distribution and marketing, petrochemicals, power generation and trading. It has minor renewable energy activities in the form of biofuels and wind. It has operations in over 90 countries, produces around 3.1 million barrels of oil equivalent per day and has 44,000 service stations worldwide. Shell Oil Company, its subsidiary in the United States, is one of its largest businesses.

Shell has a primary listing on the London Stock Exchange and is a constituent of the FTSE 100 Index. It had a market capitalisation of £129.8 billion at the close of trading on 13 April 2015, the largest of any company listed on the London Stock Exchange. It has secondary listings on Euronext Amsterdam and the New York Stock Exchange.

British Gas

British Gas is an energy and home services provider in the United Kingdom. It is the trading name of British Gas Services Limited and British Gas New Heating Limited, both subsidiaries of Centrica. Serving around twelve million homes in the UK, British Gas is the biggest UK energy supplier and is considered one of the Big Six dominating the gas and electricity market in the United Kingdom.

The brand British Gas remains from the demerger of the British Gas Corporation in 1997, which formed Centrica, BG Group and Transco. The British Gas Corporation was a result of the restructuring of the UK gas industry following the Gas Act 1972. The act merged all of the area boards and created the British Gas Corporation.

The British Gas Corporation was privatized as British Gas plc by the Thatcher government and on 8 December 1986 its shares were floated on the London stock market.

British Gas has actively been involved in sports sponsorship, including a six-year deal with the British swimming team which commenced in March 2009 and is expected to net the team £15 million and from 2006 to 2009 it sponsored the Southern Football League of England.

Its extensive television advertising has featured many high profile individuals, and in the early 1990s one advertisement included Cheryl Cole as a small child, more than ten years before the beginning of her pop music career.

In November 2012 the Information Commissioner's Office publicly listed British Gas as one of a number of companies that it had concerns about due to unsolicited telephone calls for

marketing. The concerns were based on complaints. In response, British Gas said that “We uphold the highest standards when contacting people in their homes, and only use contact information if we have express permission to do so.”

In July 2014 UK regulator reached an agreement with British Gas for the company to pay £1 million in compensation to hundreds of people who had been advised to switch from other suppliers to British Gas by British Gas advisers using exaggerated claims

Nuclear Power in the United Kingdom

Nuclear power generates around one sixth of the United Kingdom’s electricity, using 15 operational nuclear reactors at seven plants (14 advanced gas-cooled reactors (AGR) and one pressurised water reactor (PWR)), as well as a nuclear reprocessing plant at Sellafield.

The United Kingdom established the world’s first civil nuclear programme, opening a nuclear power station, Calder Hall at Windscale, England, in 1956. At the peak in 1997, 26% of the nation’s electricity was generated from nuclear power. Since then a number of reactors have closed and the share had declined to 19% by 2012. The older AGR reactors have been life-extended, and further life-extensions across the AGR fleet are likely.

In October 2010 the British Government permitted private suppliers to construct up to eight new nuclear power plants. However the Scottish Government, with the backing of the Scottish Parliament, has stated that no new nuclear power stations will be constructed in Scotland. In March 2012, E.ON UK and RWE npower announced they would be pulling out of developing new nuclear power plants, placing the future of nuclear power in the UK in doubt. Despite this, EDF Energy is still planning to build four new reactors at two sites, with public consultation completed and initial groundwork beginning on the first two reactors, sited at Hinkley Point in Somerset. Horizon Nuclear Power have plans for 4-6 new reactors at their sites Wylfa and Oldbury. Three reactors are also in the works at the Moorside Nuclear Project. An agreement has also been made which allows for Chinese designed reactors to be built on the site of the Bradwell nuclear power station.

EDF Energy owns and manages the eight currently operating reactor sites, with a combined capacity approaching 9,000 megawatts. All nuclear installations in the UK are overseen by the Office for Nuclear Regulation.

The history of nuclear energy economics in the UK is complex. The first Magnox reactors were not built for purely commercial purposes, and later reactors faced delays which inflated costs (culminating in Sizewell B taking seven years from start of construction to entering service, after a lengthy public inquiry). Costs have also been complicated by the lack of national strategy or policy for spent nuclear fuel, so that a mixed use of reprocessing and short-term storage have been employed, with little regard for long-term considerations (although a national repository has been proposed).

There is a lack of consensus in the UK about the cost/benefit nature of nuclear energy, as well as ideological influence (for instance, those favoring ‘energy security’ generally arguing pro, while those worried about the ‘environmental impact’ against). Because of this, and a lack of a consistent energy policy in the UK since the mid-1990s, no new reactors have been built since Sizewell B in 1995. Costs have been a major influence to this (with Sizewell B having run at a cost of 6p/kWh for its first five years of operation), while the long lead-time between proposal and operation (at ten years or more) has put off many investors, especially with long-term considerations such as

energy market regulation and nuclear waste remaining unresolved.

North Sea Oil



Commercial extraction of oil on the shores of the North Sea dates back to 1851, when James Young retorted oil from torbanite (boghead coal, or oil shale) mined in the Midland Valley of Scotland. Across the sea in Germany, oil was found in the Wietze field near Hanover in 1859, leading to the discovery of seventy more fields, mostly in Lower Cretaceous and Jurassic reservoirs, producing a combined total of around 1340 m³ (8,400 barrels) per day.

Gas was found by chance in a water well near Hamburg in 1910, leading to minor gas discoveries in Zechstein dolomites elsewhere in Germany. In England, BP discovered gas in similar reservoirs in the Eskdale anticline in 1938, and in 1939 they found oil in Carboniferous rocks at Eakring in Nottinghamshire. Discoveries elsewhere in the East Midlands lifted production to 400 m³ (2,500 barrels) per day, and a second wave of exploration from 1953 to 1961 found the Gainsborough field and ten smaller fields.

The Netherlands' first oil shows were seen in a drilling demonstration at De Mient during the 1938 World Petroleum Congress at The Hague. Subsequent exploration led to the 1943 discovery by Exploratie Nederland, part of the Royal Dutch/Shell company Bataafsche Petroleum Maatschappij, of oil under the Dutch village of Schoonebeek, near the German border. NAM found the Netherlands' first gas in Zechstein carbonates at Coevorden in 1948. 1952 saw the first exploration well in the province of Groningen, Haren-1, which was the first to penetrate the Lower Permian Rotliegendes sandstone that is the main reservoir for the gas fields of the southern North Sea, although in Haren-1 it contained only water. The Ten Boer well failed to reach target depth for technical reasons, but was completed as a minor gas producer from the Zechstein carbonates. The Slochteren-1 well found gas in the Rotliegendes in 1959, although the full extent of what became known as the Groningen gas field was not appreciated until 1963—it is currently estimated at $\approx 96 \times 10^{12}$ cu ft (2,700 km³) recoverable gas reserves. Smaller discoveries to the west of Groningen followed.

The UK Continental Shelf Act came into force in May 1964. Seismic exploration and the first well followed later that year. It and a second well on the Mid North Sea High were dry, as the Rotliegendes was absent, but BP's Sea Gem rig struck gas in the West Sole Field in September 1965. The celebrations were short-lived because the Sea Gem sank with the loss of 13 lives after part of the rig collapsed as it was moved away from the discovery well. The Viking Gas Field was discovered in December 1965 with the Conoco/National Coal Board well 49/17-1, finding the

gas-bearing Permian Rotliegend Sandstone at a depth of 2,756 m subsea. Helicopters were first used to transport workers. Larger gas finds followed in 1966—Leman Bank, Indefatigable and Hewett, but by 1968 companies had lost interest in further exploration of the British sector, a result of a ban on gas exports and low prices offered by the only buyer, British Gas. West Sole came on stream in May 1967. Licensing regulations for Dutch waters were not finalized until 1967.

The situation was transformed in December 1969, when Phillips Petroleum discovered oil in Chalk of Danian age at Ekofisk, in Norwegian waters in the central North Sea. The same month, Amoco discovered the Montrose Field about 217 km (135 mi) east of Aberdeen. BP had been awarded several licenses in the area in the second licensing round late in 1965, but had been reluctant to work on them. The discovery of Ekofisk prompted them to drill what turned out to be a dry hole in May 1970, followed by the discovery of the giant Forties Oil Field in October 1970. The following year, Shell Expro discovered the giant Brent oilfield in the northern North Sea east of Shetland in Scotland and the Petronord Group discovered the Frigg gas field. The Piper oilfield was discovered in 1973 and the Statfjord Field and the Ninian Field in 1974, with the Ninian reservoir consisting of Middle Jurassic sandstones at a depth of 3000 m subsea in a "westward tilted horst block".

Oil production started from the Argyll & Duncan Oilfields (now Ardmore) in June 1975 followed by Forties Oil Field in November of that year. The inner Moray Firth Beatrice Field, a Jurassic sandstone/shale reservoir 1829 m deep in a "fault-bounded anticlinal trap", was discovered in 1976 with well 11/30-1, drilled by the Mesa Petroleum Group (named after T. Boone Pickens' wife Bea, "the only oil field in the North Sea named for a woman") in 49 m of water.

After the 1973 oil crisis, the oil price had quadrupled. The 1979 oil crisis ("second") caused another tripling.

Volatile weather conditions in Europe's North Sea have made drilling particularly hazardous, claiming many lives (see Oil platform). The conditions also make extraction a costly process; by the 1980s, costs for developing new methods and technologies to make the process both efficient and safe, far exceeded NASA's budget to land a man on the moon. The exploration of the North Sea has been a story of continually pushing the edges of the technology of exploitation (in terms of what can be produced) and later the technologies of discovery and evaluation (2-D seismic, followed by 3-D and 4-D seismic; sub-salt seismic; immersive display and analysis suites and supercomputing to handle the flood of computation required).

The Gullfaks oil field was discovered in 1978. The Snorre Field was discovered in 1979, producing from the Triassic Lunde Formation and the Triassic-Jurassic Statfjord Formation, both fluvial sandstones in a mudstone matrix. The Oseberg oil field and Troll gas field were also discovered in 1979. The Miller oilfield was discovered in 1983. The Alba Field produces from sandstones in the middle Eocene Alba Formation at 1860 m subsea and was discovered in 1984 in UKCS Block 16/26. The Smorbukk Field was discovered in 1984 in 250–300 m of water that produces from Lower to Middle Jurassic sandstone formations within a fault block. The Snohvit Gas Field and the Draugen oil field were discovered in 1984. The Heidrun oil field was discovered in 1985.

The largest UK field discovered in the past 25 years is Buzzard also located off Scotland, found in June 2001.

The largest field found in the past five years on the Norwegian part of the North Sea, is the Johan Sverdrup oil field which was discovered in 2010, with further oil of the same field was discovered the next year. Total reserves of the field are estimated at 1.7 to 3.3 billion barrels of gross recoverable oil and Johan Sverdrup is expected to produce 120,000 to 200,000 barrels of oil per day. Production start is planned to happen in 2018. It is one of the largest discoveries made in the Norwegian Continental Shelf.

As of January 2015, the North Sea is the world's most active offshore drilling region with 173 active rigs drilling. The distances, number of workplaces and fierce weather push the 290,000 square miles (750,000 square kilometers) North Sea area to operate the world's largest fleet of heavy instrument flight rules (IFR) helicopters, some specifically developed for the North Sea. They carry about two million passengers per year from 16 onshore bases, of which Aberdeen Airport is the world's busiest with 500,000 passengers per year.

Rolls-Royce Motor Cars

Rolls-Royce Motor Cars Limited was created as a wholly owned subsidiary of BMW in 1998 after BMW licensed the rights to the Rolls-Royce brand name and logo from Rolls-Royce PLC and acquired the rights to the Spirit of Ecstasy and Rolls-Royce grill shape trademarks from Volkswagen AG. Rolls-Royce Motor Cars Limited has been manufacturing Rolls-Royce branded cars since 2003.

Although the Rolls-Royce brand has been in use on vehicles since 1906, the Rolls-Royce Motor Cars subsidiary of BMW AG has no direct relationship to Rolls-Royce branded vehicles produced prior to 2003. The Bentley subsidiary of Volkswagen AG is the direct successor to Rolls-Royce Motors and the other various predecessor entities that produced Rolls-Royce and Bentley branded cars between the foundation of each company and 2003.

Current chief executive Torsten Müller-Ötvös joined the company in January 2010, with a pledge to regain the quality standards that made Rolls Royce famous in the 1980s. That year, the company's sales in China increased by 600%, meaning that it is now Rolls Royce's second largest market after the US.

Ownership and licensing of trademarks

In 1998, Vickers decided to sell Rolls-Royce Motors. The most likely buyer was BMW, who already supplied engines and other components for Rolls-Royce and Bentley cars, but BMW's final offer of £340 million was beaten by Volkswagen's £430 million.

A stipulation in the ownership documents of Rolls-Royce dictated that Rolls-Royce plc, the aero-engine maker, would retain certain essential trademarks, including the Rolls-Royce name and logo if the automotive division was sold. Although Vickers plc sold the vehicle designs, nameplates, administrative headquarters, production facilities, Spirit of Ecstasy and Rolls-Royce grill shape trademarks to Volkswagen AG, Rolls-Royce plc chose to license the Rolls-Royce name and logo to BMW AG for £40 million, because Rolls-Royce plc had recently had joint business ventures with BMW.

BMW's contract to supply engines and components to Rolls-Royce Motors allowed BMW to cancel the contract with 12 months' notice. Volkswagen would be unable to re-engineer the Rolls-Royce and Bentley vehicles to use other engines within that time frame. With the Rolls-Royce brand identification marks split between the two companies and Volkswagen's engine

supply in jeopardy, the two companies entered into negotiations.

Volkswagen agreed to sell BMW the Spirit of Ecstasy and grill shape trademarks and BMW agreed to continue supplying engines and components until 2003. Volkswagen continued to produce Rolls-Royce branded vehicles between 1998 and 2003, giving BMW time to build a new Rolls-Royce administrative headquarters and production facility on the Goodwood Estate near Chichester, West Sussex, and develop the Phantom, the first Rolls-Royce from the new company. Rolls-Royce Motor Cars Limited became the exclusive manufacturer of Rolls-Royce branded cars in 2003. Rolls-Royce announced in September 2014 that a new technology and logistics center will be built, due to open in 2016, 8 miles away from the main headquarters, in the seaside resort town of Bognor Regis.

Land Rover

The design for the original Land Rover vehicle was started in 1947 by Maurice Wilks, chief designer at the Rover Company, on his farm in Newborough, Anglesey. The design may have been influenced by the Jeep and the prototype, later nicknamed Centre Steer, was built on a Jeep chassis and axles. The early choice of color was dictated by military surplus supplies of aircraft cockpit paint, so early vehicles only came in various shades of light green; all models until recently feature sturdy box section ladder-frame chassis. Early vehicles like the Series I, were field-tested at Long Bennington and designed to be field-serviced.

Land Rover as a company has existed since 1978. Prior to this, it was a product line of the Rover Company which was subsequently absorbed into the Rover-Triumph division of the British Leyland Motor Corporation (BL) following Leyland Motor Corporation's takeover of Rover in 1967. The ongoing commercial success of the original Land Rover series models, and latterly the Range Rover in the 1970s in the midst of BL's well-documented business troubles prompted the establishment of a separate Land Rover company but still under the BL umbrella, remaining part of the subsequent Rover Group in 1988, under the ownership of British Aerospace after the remains of British Leyland were broken up and privatized. In 1994 Rover Group plc was acquired by BMW. In 2000, Rover Group was broken up by BMW and Land Rover was sold to Ford Motor Company, becoming part of its Premier Automotive Group. In 2006 Ford purchased the Rover brand from BMW for around £6 million.

In 2008, Ford Motor Company sold Jaguar and Land Rover to Tata Motors. Included in the deal were the rights to three other British brands: Jaguar's own Daimler marque, as well as two dormant brands Lanchester and Rover. BMW and Ford had previously retained ownership of the Rover brand to protect the integrity of the Land Rover brand, with which 'Rover' might be confused in the US 4x4 market; the Rover brand was originally used under license by MG Rover until it collapsed in 2005, at which point it was re-acquired by the then Ford Motor Company owned Land Rover Limited. This sale also included the dormant Rover brand. As of August 2012, most Land Rovers in production are powered by Ford engines. Under the terms of the acquisition, Tata has the right to buy engines from Ford until 2019. In 2011, Tata confirmed plans that it is investing \$559 million to build an engine assembly plant in the British West Midlands. However, it was only stated that the plant will produce four-cylinder engines. The eight-cylinder engines used in Land Rovers were not mentioned.

Jaguar Car

The Swallow Sidecar Company was founded in 1922 by two motorcycle enthusiasts, William Lyons and William Walmsley. In 1934 Walmsley elected to sell-out and Lyons formed S. S. Cars Limited funding the replacement of Walmsley's investment by issuing shares to the public. The SS Jaguar name first appeared in September 1935 on a 2.5-litre saloon, sports models of which were the SS 90 and SS 100.

On 23 March 1945 the S. S. Cars shareholders in general meeting agreed to change the company's name to Jaguar Cars Limited. Said Chairman William Lyons "Unlike S. S. the name Jaguar is distinctive and cannot be connected or confused with any similar foreign name."

Though five years of pent-up demand ensured plenty of buyers production was hampered by shortage of materials, particularly steel, issued to manufacturers until the 1950s by a central planning authority under strict government control. Jaguar sold Motor Panels, a pressed steel body manufacturing company bought in the late 1930s, to steel and components manufacturer Rubery Owen, and Jaguar bought from John Black's Standard Motor Company the plant where Standard built Jaguar's six-cylinder engines. From this time Jaguar was entirely dependent for their bodies on external suppliers, in particular then independent Pressed Steel and in 1966 that carried them into BMC, BMH and British Leyland.

Jaguar made its name by producing a series of successful eye-catching sports cars, the Jaguar XK120 (1948–54), Jaguar XK140 (1954–7), Jaguar XK150 (1957–61), and Jaguar E-Type (1961–75), all embodying Lyons' mantra of "value for money". The sports cars were successful in international motorsport, a path followed in the 1950s to prove the engineering integrity of the company's products.

Jaguar's sales slogan for years was "Grace, Space, Pace", a mantra epitomized by the record sales achieved by the MK VII, IX, Mk I and II saloons and later the XJ6. During the time this slogan was used, but the exact text varied.

The core of Bill Lyons' success following WWII was the twin-cam straight six engine, conceived pre-war and realized while engineers at the Coventry plant were dividing their time between fire-watching and designing the new power plant. It had a hemispherical cross-flow cylinder head with valves inclined from the vertical; originally at 30 degrees (inlet) and 45 degrees (exhaust) and later standardized to 45 degrees for both inlet and exhaust.

As fuel octane ratings were relatively low from 1948 onwards, three piston configuration were offered: domed (high octane), flat (medium octane), and dished (low octane).

The main designer, William "Bill" Heynes, assisted by Walter "Wally" Hassan, was determined to develop the Twin OHC unit. Bill Lyons agreed over misgivings from Hassan. It was risky to take what had previously been considered a racing or low-volume and cantankerous engine needing constant fettling and apply it to reasonable volume production saloon cars.

The subsequent engine (in various versions) was the mainstay power plant of Jaguar, used in the XK 120, Mk VII Saloon, Mk I and II Saloons and XK 140 and 150. It was also employed in the E Type, itself a development from the race winning and Le Mans conquering C and D Type Sports Racing cars refined as the short-lived XKSS, a road-legal D-Type.

Few engine types have demonstrated such ubiquity and longevity: Jaguar used the Twin OHC XK Engine, as it came to be known, in the Jaguar XJ6 saloon from 1969 through 1992, and employed in a J60 variant as the power plant in such diverse vehicles as the British Army's Combat Vehicle Reconnaissance (Tracked) family of vehicles, as well as the Fox armoured reconnaissance vehicle, the Ferret Scout Car, and the Stonefield four-wheel-drive

all-terrain lorry. Properly maintained, the standard production XK Engine would achieve 200,000 miles of useful life.

Two of the proudest moments in Jaguar's long history in motor sport involved winning the Le Mans 24 hours race, firstly in 1951 and again in 1953. Victory at the 1955 Le Mans was overshadowed by it being the occasion of the worst motorsport accident in history. Later in the hands of the Scottish racing team Ecurie Ecosse two more wins were added in 1956 and 1957.

In spite of such a performance orientation, it was always Lyons' intention to build the business by producing world-class sporting saloons in larger numbers than the sports car market could support. Jaguar secured financial stability and a reputation for excellence with a series of elegantly styled luxury saloons that included the 3 liter and 3½ liter cars, the Mark VII, VIII, and IX, the compact Mark I and 2, and the XJ6 and XJ12. All were deemed very good values, with comfortable rides, good handling, high performance, and great style.

Combined with the trend-setting XK 120, XK 140, and XK 150 series of sports car, and nonpareil E-Type, Jaguar's elan as a prestige motorcar manufacturer had few rivals. The company's post-War achievements are remarkable, considering both the shortages that drove Britain (the Ministry of Supply still allocated raw materials) and the state of metallurgical development of the era.

In 1950, Jaguar agreed to lease from the Ministry of Supply the Daimler Shadow 2 factory in Browns Lane, Allesley, Coventry, which at the time was being used by The Daimler Company Limited and moved to the new site from Foleshill over the next 12 months. From the late 1960s, Jaguar used the Daimler marque as a brand name for their most luxurious saloons.

Lotus Car

The company was formed as Lotus Engineering Ltd. by engineers Colin Chapman and Colin Dare, both graduates of University College, London, in 1952. The four letters in the middle of the logo stand for the initials of company founder, Anthony Colin Bruce Chapman. When the logo was created, Colin Chapman's original partners Michael and Nigel Allen were led to believe that the letters stood for Colin Chapman and the Allen Brothers.

The first factory was in old stables behind the Railway Hotel in Hornsey, North London. Team Lotus, which was split off from Lotus Engineering in 1954, was active and competitive in Formula One racing from 1958 to 1994. The Lotus Group of Companies was formed in 1959. This was made up of Lotus Cars Limited and Lotus Components Limited, which focused on road cars and customer competition car production, respectively. Lotus Components Limited became Lotus Racing Limited in 1971 but the newly renamed entity ceased operation in the same year.

The company moved to a purpose built factory at Cheshunt in 1959 and since 1966 the company has occupied a modern factory and road test facility at Hethel, near Wymondham. This site is the former RAF Hethel base and the test track uses sections of the old runway.

In its early days Lotus sold cars aimed at privateer racers and trialists. Its early road cars could be bought as kits, in order to save on purchase tax. The kit car era ended in the late 1960s and early 1970s, the Lotus Elan Plus Two being the first Lotus road car not to be offered in kit form, and the Lotus Eclat and Lotus Elite of the mid 1970s being offered only in factory built versions.

After the elegant but delicate Lotus Elite of the 1950s, Lotus found critical and sales success

in the 1960s with the Lotus Elan two seater, later developed to two plus two form. Lotus was notable for its use of fiber glass bodies, backbone chassis, and twin cam engines, initially supplied by Coventry Climax but later replaced by Lotus-Ford units (Ford block, Lotus head and valve gear). Lotus worked with Ford on the Lotus Cortina, a successful sports saloon.

Another Lotus of the late 60s and early 70s was the two seater Lotus Europa, initially intended only for the European market, which paired a backbone chassis and lightweight body with a mid-mounted Renault engine, later upgraded to the Lotus-Ford twin cam unit as used in the Elan.

The Lotus Seven, originating in the 1950s as a simple, lightweight open two seater continued in production into the early 70s. Lotus then sold the rights to produce the Seven to Caterham, which has continued to produce the car since then.

By the mid-1970s, Lotus sought to move upmarket with the launch of the Elite and Eclat models, four seaters aimed at prosperous buyers, with features such as optional air conditioning and optional automatic transmissions. The mid engined line continued with the Lotus Esprit, which was to prove one of the company's longest lived and most iconic models. Lotus developed its own series of four cylinder DOHC engines, the Lotus 900 series, and later a V8, and turbocharged versions of the engines appeared in the Esprit.

Variants of the 900 series engine were supplied for the Jensen Healey sports car and the Sunbeam Lotus "hot hatchback". In the 1980s, Lotus collaborated with Vauxhall Motors to produce the Lotus Carlton, the fastest road-going Vauxhall car.

Bentley Motors

Bentley Motors Limited is a British registered company that designs, develops, and manufactures Bentley luxury motorcars which are largely hand-built. It is a subsidiary of Volkswagen AG. Now based in Crewe, England, Bentley Motors Limited was founded by W. O. Bentley on 18 January 1919 in Cricklewood, North London.

Bentley cars are sold via franchised dealers worldwide, and as of November 2012, China was the largest market.

Most Bentley cars are assembled at the Crewe factory, but a small number of Continental Flying Spurs are assembled at the factory in Dresden, Germany and bodies for the Continental are produced in Zwickau, Germany.

Bentley won the 24 Hours of Le Mans in 1924, 1927, 1928, 1929, 1930, and 2003.

Iconic Bentley models include the Bentley 4½ Litre, Bentley Speed Six, Bentley R Type Continental, Bentley Turbo R, and Bentley Arnage. As of 2015, Bentley produce the Continental Flying Spur, Continental GT, and Mulsanne.

Rolls-Royce bought Bentley from the receivers in 1931 and subsequently sold it to Vickers plc in 1980 when Rolls-Royce themselves went bankrupt. In 1998, Vickers sold it to Volkswagen AG. The sale included the vehicle designs, model nameplates, production and administrative facilities, the Spirit of Ecstasy and Rolls-Royce grille shape trademarks, but not the rights to the Rolls-Royce name or logo which are owned by Rolls-Royce Holdings plc and were licensed to BMW AG.

MG Rover Group

The MG Rover Group was the last domestically owned mass-production car manufacturer in

the British motor industry. The company was formed when BMW sold the car-making and engine manufacturing assets of the original Rover Group to the Phoenix Consortium in 2000.

MG Rover went into administration in 2005 and its key assets were purchased by Nanjing Automobile Group, with Nanjing restarting MG sports car and sports saloon production in 2007. During that year Nanjing merged with SAIC Motor (the largest vehicle manufacturer in China). During 2009 the UK Subsidiary was renamed MG Motor UK. The MG TF was manufactured at the former MG Rover Longbridge plant and sold within the UK from 2008 - 2010. In 2011 the first all new MG for 16 years (the MG 6) was launched in the UK (assembled at the Longbridge factory). During 2013 a super-mini was added to the lineup (the MG 3), this went on to help MG Motor become the fastest growing car manufacturer within the UK in 2014.

The Rover brand, which had been retained by BMW and licensed to MG Rover, was sold to Ford, which had bought Land Rover from BMW in 2000. The rights to the dormant Rover brand were sold by Ford, along with the Jaguar Land Rover business, to Tata Motors in 2008.

Group of Seven (G7)

The Group of Seven (G7) is a group consisting of Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The European Union is also represented within the G7. These countries are the seven major advanced economies as reported by the International Monetary Fund: The G7 countries represent more than 64% of the net global wealth (\$263 trillion). A net national wealth and a very high Human Development Index are the main requirements to be a member of this group. The G7 countries also represent the 46% of the global GDP evaluated at market exchange rates and the 32% of the global purchasing power parity GDP.

The next major G7 summit will be held in Japan in 2016. Other recent G7 meetings include that of May 2013 in Aylesbury, United Kingdom with an emergency meeting in The Hague, Netherlands on March 24, 2014. Most recently, the 41st G7 summit was held at the Schloss Elmau hotel in Krün, Germany on June 7–8, 2015.

Function:

The organization was originally founded to facilitate shared macroeconomic initiatives by its members in response to the collapse of the exchange rate 1971, during the time of the Nixon Shock, the 1970s energy crisis and the ensuing recession. Its goal was fine tuning of short term economic policies among participant countries to monitor developments in the world economy and assess economic policies.

Work:

Since 1975, the group meets annually on summit site to discuss economic policies; since 1987, the G7 finance ministers have met at least semi-annually, up to 4 times a year at stand-alone meetings.

In 1996, the G7 launched an initiative for the 42 heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC).

In 1999, the G7 decided to get more directly involved in “managing the international monetary system” through the Financial Stability Forum, formed earlier in 1999 and the G-20, established following the summit, to “promote dialogue between major industrial and emerging market countries”. In 1999 the G7 announced their plan to cancel 90% of bilateral, and multilateral debt for the HIPC, totaling \$100 billion. In 2005 the G7 announced, debt reductions of

“up to 100%” to be negotiated on a “case by case” basis.

In 2008 the G7 met twice in Washington, D.C. to discuss the global financial crisis of 2007-2010 and in February 2009 in Rome. The group of finance ministers pledged to take "all necessary steps" to stem the crisis.

On March 2, 2014, the G7 condemned the “Russian Federation’s violation of the sovereignty and territorial integrity of Ukraine”. The G7 stated that the International Monetary Fund(IMF) remains the institution best prepared to help Ukraine address its immediate economic challenges through policy advice and financing, conditioned on needed reforms, and that the G7 was committed to mobilize rapid technical assistance to support Ukraine in addressing its macroeconomic, regulatory and anti-corruption challenges.

On March 24, 2014, the G7 convened an emergency meeting in response to the Russian Federation's annexation of Crimea at the Dutch Catshuis, located in The Hague because all G7 leaders were already present to attend the 2014 Nuclear Security Summit. This was the first G7 meeting neither taking place in a member nation nor having the host leader participating in the meeting.

On June 4, 2014 leaders at the G7 summit in Brussels, condemned Moscow for its “continuing violation” of Ukraine’s sovereignty, in their joint statement and stated they were prepared to impose further sanctions on Russia. This meeting was the first since Russia was expelled from the group G8 following its annexation of Crimea in March.

Group of Eight (G8)

The Group of Eight (currently known as Group of Seven) is a governmental political forum. It was originally formed by six leading industrial countries and subsequently extended with two additional members – one of which, Russia, has been suspended. Since 2014 in effect it comprises seven nations and the European Union.

The forum originated with a 1975 summit hosted by France that brought together representatives of six governments: France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States, thus leading to the name Group of Six or G6. The summit became known as the Group of Seven or G7 in 1976 with the addition of Canada. The G7 is composed of the seven wealthiest developed countries on earth (by net national wealth or by GDP), and it remained active as a finance ministers' forum even during the period of the G8. Russia was added to the political forum from 1997, which then became known as the G8; Russia was, however, suspended in 2014. The European Union has been represented within the G8 since the 1980s but originally could not host or chair summits. The 40th summit was the first time the European Union was able to host and chair a summit.

“G8” can refer to the member states in aggregate or to the annual summit meeting of the G8 heads of government. The former term, G6, is now frequently applied to the six most populous countries within the European Union. G8 ministers also meet throughout the year, such as the G7 finance ministers (who meet four times a year), G8 foreign ministers, or G8 environment ministers.

Collectively, in 2012 the G8 nations composed 50.1 percent of 2012 global nominal GDP and 40.9 percent of global GDP (PPP). Each calendar year the responsibility of hosting the G8 is rotated through the member states in the following order: France, United States, United Kingdom, Russia, Germany, Japan, Italy, and Canada. The holder of the presidency sets the

agenda, hosts the summit for that year, and determines which ministerial meetings will take place. Both France and the United Kingdom have expressed a desire to expand the group to include five developing countries, referred to as the Outreach Five (O5) or the Plus Five: Brazil (7th country in the world by nominal GDP,) People's Republic of China (2nd country in the world by GDP,) India (10th country in the world by GDP,) Mexico, and South Africa. These countries have participated as guests in meetings that are sometimes called G8+5.

With the G-20 major economies growing in stature since the 2008 Washington summit, world leaders from the group announced at their Pittsburgh summit on September 25, 2009, that the group would replace the G8 as the main economic council of wealthy nations. The G7/G8 retains its role as a premier body for international security cooperation with the purpose of discussing global issues such as economic growth, crisis management, global security, energy, and terrorism.

On March 24, 2014, the original G7 nations voted to, in effect, suspend Russia from the organization in response to the country's annexation of Crimea; however, it was made clear that the suspension was temporary. Later on, the Italian Foreign Affairs minister Federica Mogherini and other Italian authorities, along with the East West Institute board member Wolfgang Ischinger, suggested that Russia may restore its membership in the group, adding that the return to the G8 format depends on Moscow and on Russian actions. In 2015, the German Foreign Minister Frank-Walter Steinmeier stated that Russia will be able to return to G8 given that there's no further escalation of the Ukrainian crisis, and Russia continues collaborating with the West on the Syrian conflict.

Group of Twenty (G20)

The Group of Twenty (also known as the G-20 or G20) is an international forum for the governments and central bank governors from 20 major economies. The members include 19 individual countries: Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, South Korea, Mexico, Russia, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States — along with the European Union (EU). The EU is represented by the European Commission and by the European Central Bank. The G-20 was founded in 1999 with the aim of studying, reviewing, and promoting high-level discussion of policy issues pertaining to the promotion of international financial stability. It seeks to address issues that go beyond the responsibilities of any one organization. Collectively, the G-20 economies account for around 85% of the gross world product (GWP), 80% of world trade (or, if excluding EU intra-trade, 75%), and two-thirds of the world population. The G-20 heads of government or heads of state have periodically conferred at summits since their initial meeting in 2008, and the group also hosts separate meetings of finance ministers and central bank governors.

With the G-20 growing in stature after its inaugural leaders' summit in 2008, its leaders announced on 25 September 2009 that the group would replace the G8 as the main economic council of wealthy nations. Since its inception, the G-20's membership policies have been criticized by numerous intellectuals, and its summits have been a focus for major protests by anti-globalists, nationalists and others.

The heads of the G-20 nations met semi-annually at G-20 summits between 2008 and 2011. Since the November 2011 Cannes summit, all G-20 summits have been held annually.

The G-20 is the latest in a series of post-World War II initiatives aimed at international coordination of economic policy, which include institutions such as the "Bretton Woods twins",

the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank, and what is now the World Trade Organization. The G-20 superseded the G33 (which had itself superseded the G22), and was foreshadowed at the Cologne Summit of the G7 in June 1999, but was only formally established at the G7 Finance Ministers' meeting on 26 September 1999. The inaugural meeting took place on 15–16 December 1999 in Berlin. Canadian finance minister Paul Martin was chosen to be the first chairman and German finance minister Hans Eichel hosted the inaugural meeting.

According to researchers at the Brookings Institution, the group was founded primarily at the initiative of Eichel, who was also concurrently chair of the G7. However, some sources identify the G-20 as a joint creation of Germany and the United States. According to University of Toronto political science professor John Kirton, the membership of the G-20 was decided by Eichel's deputy Caio Koch-Weser and then US Treasury Secretary Larry Summers' deputy Timothy Geithner.

Though the G-20's primary focus is global economic governance, the themes of its summits vary from year to year. For example, the theme of the 2006 G-20 ministerial meeting was "Building and Sustaining Prosperity". The issues discussed included domestic reforms to achieve "sustained growth", global energy and resource commodity markets, reform of the World Bank and IMF, and the impact of demographic changes due to an aging world population. Trevor A. Manuel, the South African Minister of Finance, was the chairperson of the G-20 when South Africa hosted the Secretariat in 2007. Guido Mantega, Brazil's Minister of Finance, was the chairperson of the G-20 in 2008; Brazil proposed dialogue on competition in financial markets, clean energy and economic development and fiscal elements of growth and development. In a statement following a meeting of G7 finance ministers on 11 October 2008, US President George W. Bush stated that the next meeting of the G-20 would be important in finding solutions to the burgeoning economic crisis of 2008. An initiative by French President Nicolas Sarkozy and British Prime Minister Gordon Brown led to a special meeting of the G-20, a G-20 Leaders Summit on Financial Markets and the World Economy, on 15 November 2008. Spain and the Netherlands were included in the summit by French invitation.

Despite lacking any formal ability to enforce rules, the G-20's prominent membership gives it a strong input on global policy. However, there remain disputes over the legitimacy of the G-20, and criticisms of its organization and the efficacy of its declarations.

HSBC



HSBC Holdings plc is a British multinational banking and financial services company headquartered in London, United Kingdom. It is the world's fourth largest bank by total assets, with total assets of US\$2.67 trillion. It was established in its present form in London in 1991 by the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation Limited to act as a new group holding company. The origins of the bank lie mainly in Hong Kong and to a lesser extent in Shanghai, where branches were first opened in 1865. The HSBC name is derived from the initials of the Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation. The company was first formally incorporated in 1866. The company continues to see both the United Kingdom and Hong Kong as its "home markets".

HSBC has around 6,600 offices in 80 countries and territories across Africa, Asia, Oceania,

Europe, North America and South America, and around 60 million customers. As of 2014, it was the world's sixth-largest public company, according to a composite measure by Forbes magazine.

HSBC is organized within four business groups: Commercial banking; Global banking and Markets (investment banking); Retail Banking and Wealth Management; and Global Private Banking.

HSBC has a dual primary listing on the Hong Kong Stock Exchange and London Stock Exchange and is a constituent of the Hang Seng Index and the FTSE 100 Index. As of 6 July 2012 it had a market capitalisation of £102.7 billion, the second-largest company listed on the London Stock Exchange, after Royal Dutch Shell. It has secondary listings on the New York Stock Exchange, Euronext Paris and the Bermuda Stock Exchange.

In February 2015, the International Consortium of Investigative Journalists released information about the business conduct of HSBC under the title Swiss Leaks. The ICIJ alleges that the bank profited from doing business with tax evaders and other clients. BBC reported that HSBC had put pressure on media not to report about the controversy, with British newspaper The Guardian claiming HSBC advertising had been put “on pause” after The Guardian’s coverage of the matter. Peter Osborne, chief political commentator at The Daily Telegraph resigned from the paper; in an open letter he claimed the newspaper suppressed negative stories and dropped investigations into HSBC because of the bank's advertising.

Lloyds Banking Group



Lloyds Banking Group plc is a major British financial institution formed through the acquisition of HBOS by Lloyds TSB in 2009. The Group’s history stems from the founding of Bank of Scotland in 1695 by the Parliament of Scotland before the Act of Union, which is the second oldest bank in the United Kingdom. The Group’s headquarters is located at 25 Gresham Street in the City of London and its registered office is on The Mound in Edinburgh. Lloyds Banking Group’s activities are organized into: Retail Banking (including Mortgages and Sole Traders); Commercial; Life, Pensions & Insurance; and Wealth & International. Lloyds’ has extensive overseas operations in the US, Europe, the Middle East and Asia.

Following the takeover, the Group stopped using the name HBOS publicly. The Halifax brand, products and pricing were discontinued in Scotland until reestablished in 2013. The Halifax and Lloyds Bank brands are used in England and Wales and the Bank of Scotland brand is used in Scotland, each offering different products and pricing. Lloyds Banking Group’s CEO António Horta-Osório told The Banker, “We will keep the different brands because the customers are very different in terms of attitude”.

Lloyds Banking Group is listed on the London Stock Exchange (LSE) and is a constituent of the FTSE 100 Index. It had a market capitalisation of approximately £57.7 billion as of 4 March

2014—the 7th-largest of any LSE company. It has a secondary listing on the New York Stock Exchange, where it has a market capitalization value of US\$34.45 billion. At the end of October 2015, HM Treasury held a shareholding of just under 10% through UK Financial Investments.

Royal Bank of Scotland Group



The Royal Bank of Scotland Group plc (also known as RBS Group) is a British banking and insurance holding company, based in Edinburgh, Scotland. The group operates a wide variety of banking brands offering personal and business banking, private banking, insurance and corporate finance through its offices located in Europe, North America and Asia. In the UK and Ireland, its main subsidiary companies are The Royal Bank of Scotland, NatWest, Ulster Bank and Coutts. The group issues banknotes in Scotland and Northern Ireland and as of 2014, The Royal Bank of Scotland is the only bank in the UK to still print £1 notes.

Outside the UK, from 1988 to 2015 it owned Citizens Financial Group, the 13th largest bank in the United States, and from 2004 to 2009 it was the second largest shareholder in the Bank of China, itself the world's fifth largest bank by market capitalization in February 2008.

Before the 2008 collapse and the general financial crisis, RBS Group was very briefly the largest bank in the world and for a period was the second largest bank in the UK and Europe (fifth in stock market value), and the fifth largest in the world by market capitalisation. Subsequently, with a slumping share price and major loss of confidence, the bank fell sharply in the rankings, although in 2009 it was briefly the world's largest company by both assets (£1.9 trillion) and liabilities (£1.8 trillion). It received significant support from the UK government, which, as of August 2015, holds and manages a 73% stake through UK Financial Investments (UKFI).

The Group had a market capitalization of approximately £20.4 billion as of 4 March 2014, making it the 26th largest company on the London Stock Exchange. In addition to its primary share listing on the LSE, the company is also listed on the New York Stock Exchange.

The RBS Group is split into three main customer-facing divisions, each with several subsidiary businesses, and it also has a number of support functions.

Personal & Business Banking

The division comprises retail and business banking. In the United Kingdom, the group trades under both the NatWest and Royal Bank of Scotland names. Key subsidiaries include:

- 1) National Westminster Bank
- 2) The Royal Bank of Scotland
- 3) Ulster Bank

Barclays



Barclays is a British multinational banking and financial services company headquartered in London. It is a universal bank with operations in retail, wholesale and investment banking, as well as wealth management, mortgage lending and credit cards. It has operations in over 50 countries and territories and has around 48 million customers. As of 31 December 2011 Barclays had total assets of US\$2.42 trillion, the seventh-largest of any bank worldwide.

Barclays is organized into four core business: Personal & Corporate (Personal Banking, Corporate Banking, Wealth & Investment Management), Barclaycard, Investment Banking and Africa.

Barclays traces its origins to a goldsmith banking business established in the City of London in 1690. James Barclay became a partner in the business in 1736. In 1896 several banks in London and the English provinces, including Backhouse's Bank and Gurney's Bank, united as a joint-stock bank under the name Barclays and Co. Over the following decades Barclays expanded to become a nationwide bank. In 1967, Barclays deployed the world's first cash dispenser. Barclays has made numerous corporate acquisitions, including of London, Provincial and South Western Bank in 1918, British Linen Bank in 1919, Mercantile Credit in 1975, the Woolwich in 2000 and the North American operations of Lehman Brothers in 2008.

Barclays has a primary listing on the London Stock Exchange and is a constituent of the FTSE 100 Index. It had a market capitalisation of approximately £22 billion as of 23 December 2011, the 22nd-largest company of any company with a primary listing on the London Stock Exchange. It has a secondary listing on the New York Stock Exchange.

Standard Chartered



Standard Chartered PLC is a British multinational banking and financial services company headquartered in London. It operates a network of more than 1,200 branches and outlets (including subsidiaries, associates and joint ventures) across more than 70 countries and employs around 87,000 people. It is a universal bank with operations in consumer, corporate and institutional banking, and treasury services. Despite its UK base, it does not conduct retail banking in the UK, and around 90% of its profits come from Asia, Africa and the Middle East.

Standard Chartered has a primary listing on the London Stock Exchange and is a constituent of the FTSE 100 Index. It had a market capitalisation of approximately £15 billion as of 20 January 2016, the 28th-largest of any company with a primary listing on the London Stock Exchange. It has secondary listings on the Hong Kong Stock Exchange and the National Stock Exchange of India. Its largest shareholder is the Government of Singapore-owned Temasek Holdings.

Corporate Affairs

Standard Chartered has over 86,000 employees globally and has operations in 70 markets. The bank is divided into two divisions: The Consumer Bank and the Wholesale Bank.

1) Consumer bank

The consumer bank is retail focused, and focuses on individuals, small business and high-net-worth clients in the private bank. For retail customers, the unit manages savings, allows customers to make transactions, provides wealth management services, and provides mortgages and auto finance. For SMEs, the consumer bank manages cash, collections, and payments as well as offering loans.

2) Wholesale bank

The wholesale bank's clients are global corporations, financial institutions and commodity traders and agribusinesses. Transaction banking helps clients manage their treasury function through cash management, trade finance and custody services. Financial markets allow clients to raise capital, manage their risks and invest. The corporate finance function offers advisory for mergers and acquisitions and other restructuring activities. Finally, principal finance makes equity investments to encourage the growth of businesses.

GlaxoSmithKline

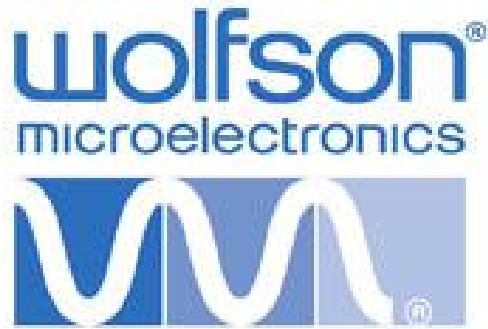
GlaxoSmithKline plc (GSK) is a British pharmaceutical company headquartered in Brentford, London. Established in 2000 by a merger of Glaxo Wellcome and SmithKline Beecham, GSK was the world's sixth largest pharmaceutical company as of 2015, after Pfizer, Novartis, Merck, Hoffmann-La Roche Sanofi. Andrew Witty has been the chief executive officer since 2008.

The company has a primary listing on the London Stock Exchange and is a constituent of the FTSE 100 Index. As of December 2015 it had a market capitalisation of £65 billion, the fifth largest on the London Stock Exchange. It has a secondary listing on the New York Stock Exchange.

GSK's drugs and vaccines earned £21.3 billion in 2013; its top-selling products that year were Advair, Avodart, Flovent, Augmentin, Lovaza and Lamictal. GSK's consumer products, which earned £5.2 billion in 2013, include Sensodyne and Aquafresh toothpaste, the malted-milk drink Horlicks, Abreva for cold sores, Breathe Right nasal strips, Nicoderm and Nicorette nicotine replacements, and Night Nurse, a cold remedy. The company developed the first malaria vaccine, RTS, S, which it said in 2014 it would make available for five percent above cost. Legacy products developed at GSK include several listed in the World Health Organization Model List of Essential Medicines, such as amoxicillin, mercaptopurine, pyrimethamine and zidovudine.

In 2012 GSK pleaded guilty to criminal charges in the United States, and agreed to pay a \$3 billion (£1.9bn) settlement, including a criminal fine of \$1 billion. It was the largest health-care fraud case to date in that country and the largest settlement by a drug company. The charges related to GSK's promotion of drugs for unapproved uses, including the anti-depressants Paxil and Wellbutrin, failure to report safety data about the diabetes drug Avandia, reporting false prices to Medicaid, and kickbacks to physicians. The company announced in 2013 that it would no longer pay physicians to promote its drugs or attend medical conferences, and would abolish prescription targets for its sales staff.

Wolfson Microelectronics



Wolfson Microelectronics plc was a multinational microelectronics and fabless semiconductor headquartered in Edinburgh, United Kingdom. It specialized in signal processing and mixed-signal chips for the consumer electronics market and had engineering and sales offices throughout Asia-Pacific, Europe and the United States. In 2014 it was acquired by Cirrus Logic for £291 million.

Started in 1984 by David Milne and Jim Reid, Wolfson grew under their stewardship to float on the London Stock Exchange in 2003 and be listed in the FTSE 250. Both Milne and Reid had connections with the University of Edinburgh; Reid attained a First Class Honours degree in EEE, and Milne directed the Wolfson Microelectronics Institute at King's Buildings from 1973 to 1985. In February, 2007, when Milne chose to step down, he was replaced in his CEO role by Dave Shrigley, previously Vice-President at Intel Corporation. His departure was one of a number of executive changes in late 2006, as Financial Director George Elliott also stood down.

In 2006, Milne was declared Entrepreneur of the Year by the CBI, and Wolfson named Company of the Year. In November 2006 David Shrigley became the CEO of Wolfson, his first appointment at this level: he had previously worked for Intel in the Asia-Pacific region, and held directorships elsewhere.

In September 2008, Mike Hickey joined Wolfson as Chief Executive Officer Designate and became Chief Executive Officer on 1 January 2009. Mr. Hickey joined Wolfson from Motorola Inc., where he had held various senior positions in Motorola's mobile device business. In July 2009, Andy Brannan joined Wolfson as Chief Commercial Officer. Mr. Brannan previously held the position of VP of Nokia's SOSCO business, and prior to that spent eight years as Executive VP of Sales & Customer Operations at Symbian Ltd. Cirrus Logic acquired the Wolfson for 235p per share in April 2014, valuing the company at £291 million.

Wolfson products have found applications within the digital audio player market, such as in Microsoft's Zune product line, including the Zune 30 and Zune HD, Cowon's line of mp3 and PMP players, as well as providing the codec functionality for much of Apple Inc.'s iPod series (with the exception of the iPod shuffle and iPod classic) and Sony's PSP. Wolfson chips have also found place in the Microsoft Xbox game console, Logitech Squeezebox Duet and the PalmOne Treosmartphone, with the Apple connection continuing with the earlier versions of the iPhone and iPod touch.

Wolfson audio products can also be found in most Tegra 2 SoC devices and some devices like the Samsung Wave S8500 and Samsung i9000 Galaxy S smartphones, as well as a number of LG phones including the LG-LB4400 music phone and the Android-powered LG Optimus GT540 smartphone.

In April 2010, Wolfson signed a license agreement with Tensilica to create a low power, high

definition (HD) sound platform.

Wolfson Microelectronics also produced the Audio Cards for Raspberry PI Model B Rev 2 named Wolfson Audio Card. After Wolfson Microelectronics was purchased by Cirrus Logic the Audio Card for Raspberry PI Model B+ was re-named Cirrus Logic Audio Card.

Burberry



Burberry Group plc is a British luxury fashion house, distributing outerwear, fashion accessories, fragrances, sunglasses and cosmetics. Its distinctive tartan pattern has become one of its most widely copied trademarks. Burberry is most famous for its trench coat, which was designed by founder Thomas Burberry. The company has branded stores and franchises around the world and also sells through concessions in third-party stores. Queen Elizabeth II and the Prince of Wales have granted the company Royal Warrants, which have been maintained despite Burberry's closure of its factory in Wales. Christopher Bailey has been the CEO and Chief Creative Officer since 2014. The company is listed on the London Stock Exchange and is a constituent of the FTSE 100 Index.

In 2014, Burberry ranked 73rd in Interbrand's Best Global Brands report, ahead of Ralph Lauren and Hugo Boss. Burberry has more than 500 stores in over 50 countries.

Exercise:

I. Choose the answer that best completes the statement or answer the question

- (1) By the 1880's the British economy produced _____ of the world's manufactured goods.
 - A. one fourth
 - B. one third
 - C. half
 - D. over half
- (2) By the 1890s, Britain had been overtaken by _____ in economy.
 - A. The US and Germany
 - B. Japan
 - C. France
 - D. Italy

- (3) The British Empire collapsed immediately after the end of _____.
A. the 19th century
B. the First World War
C. the Second World War
D. the 1960s
- (4) Which of the following statements about the UK economy is NOT true?
A. Britain has experienced a relative economic decline since 1945
B. Britain remains one of the Group of Seven large industrial economies
C. There has been a period of steady decreasing of living standards
D. Britain ranks the second in industrial investment abroad
- (5) _____ were characteristic of the British economy in relation to other developed economies?
A. Low rates of military expenditure
B. Low rates of educational investment
C. Low rates of industrial investment
D. Low rates of scientific experiment
- (6) British economy in the 1970s was characterized by _____.
A. stagnation
B. inflation
C. recovery
D. stagflation
- (7) Under Mrs. Thatcher, British economy in the 1980s gradually _____.
A. declined
B. recessed
C. recovered
D. went down
- (8) Britain is the _____ largest country invested and the investor abroad.
A. second
B. third
C. fourth
D. fifth
- (9) The British beef industry has been hit badly by _____ disease in cattle
A. SARS
B. BSE
C. AIDS
D. None of the above
- (10) Which of the following companies is the world's largest mining company?
A. Shell
B. BP
C. British Gas
D. RTZ
- (11) The two companies, McClaren and Williams design and build _____?
A. large ocean ships
B. locomotives
C. racing cars

- D. aircraft
- (12) Tertiary industries do not include _____.
A. retailing
B. insurance
C. electronics
D. banking
- (13) "The City" generally refers to _____.
A. Greater London
B. Inner London
C. Outer London
D. the City of London
- (14) Britain did not adopt the new decimal currency system until 15th February, _____.
A. 1970
B. 1971
C. 1973
D. 1975
- (15) The central bank in Britain is _____.
A. Lloyd
B. Barclay
C. Midland
D. the Bank of England
- (16) Which of the following is not a company in the energy sector?
A. Shell
B. ICI
C. RTZ
D. British Gas
- (17) Where is the best agricultural land in Britain?
A. In the southeast of England
B. In the northeast of England
C. In the southeast of Scotland
D. In the northeast of Scotland
- (18) Which of the following livestock has the biggest number in the UK?
A. Beef cattle
B. Dairy Cattle
C. Chicken
D. Sheep
- (19) Which of the following used to be the last independent car company?
A. Ford
B. Peugeot
C. Rover
D. BMW
- (20) The Industrial Revolution was the transition to new manufacturing processes in the period _____.
A. from about 1760 to sometime between 1820 and 1840.

- B. from about 1770 to 1820
 - C. from about 1770 to 1840
 - D. from about 1760 to 1840
- (21) _____ developments made transportation of food, materials and other goods easier in the Second Industrial Revolution.
- A. Textile
 - B. Transport
 - C. Mining
 - D. Fishing
- (22) _____ is an umbrella term for the group of policies aimed at converging the economies of all member states of the European Union at three stages.
- A. The Economic and Monetary Union (EMU)
 - B. NATO
 - C. G7
 - D. G20
- (23) All Member States of the European Union, except _____, have committed themselves by treaty to join the “third EMU stage”.
- A. Russia
 - B. Poland
 - C. Germany
 - D. Denmark and the United Kingdom
- (24) Successive UK governments have outlined numerous commitments to reduce carbon dioxide emissions. One such announcement was the Low Carbon Transition Plan launched by the Brown ministry in _____.
- A. June 2009
 - B. June 2010
 - C. July 2009
 - D. July 2010
- (25) In _____, the United Kingdom was ranked 9th in the World on the Environmental Performance Index, which measures how well a country carries through environmental policy.
- A. 2010
 - B. 2011
 - C. 2012
 - D. 2013
- (26) About 70% of farms are _____ or mostly so (perhaps with individual barns or fields let out), and the remainder are rented to tenant farmers.
- A. state-owned
 - B. owner-occupied
 - C. private-owned
 - D. area-owned
- (27) During the second half of the 20th century, there was a steady decline in the importance of _____ and the economy of the United Kingdom shifted toward services.
- A. energy

- B. fishing
 - C. agricultural
 - D. manufacturing
- (28) _____ in the United Kingdom is measured by the Office for National Statistics
- A. Unemployment
 - B. Employment
 - C. Revenue
 - D. CPI
- (29) The _____ industry in the United Kingdom is now best known for premium and sports car marques including Aston Martin, Bentley, Daimler, Jaguar, Lagonda, Land Rover, Lotus, McLaren, MG, Mini, Morgan and Rolls-Royce.
- A. manufacturing
 - B. tertiary
 - C. automotive
 - D. energy
- (30) As of December 2014, the Exchange had a market capitalization of US\$6.06 trillion (short scale), making it the _____-largest stock exchange in the world by this measurement (the largest in Europe, ahead of Euronext).
- A. first
 - B. second
 - C. third
 - D. fourth
- (31) Commercial _____ in the UK creates employment and income, which supports thousands of the small businesses that are important to coastal communities.
- A. fishing
 - B. manufacturing
 - C. agricultural
 - D. tertiary
- (32) The fishing industry in _____ comprises a significant proportion of the United Kingdom fishing industry.
- A. Wales
 - B. Scotland
 - C. England
 - D. North Ireland
- (33) _____ in the United Kingdom dates back to Roman times and occurred in many different parts of the country.
- A. Agriculture
 - B. Fishing
 - C. Textiles
 - D. Coal mining
- (34) _____ is a prominent professional group first chartered in 1913. The Financial Services Authority was formed in 2001 as the regulator.
- A. The Chartered Insurance Institute
 - B. The Chartered Banking

- C. The Chartered Group
 - D. The Chartered Committee
- (35) _____ in the United Kingdom may involve payments to a minimum of three different levels of government: the central government, devolved national governments and local government.
- A. Income
 - B. Insurance
 - C. Taxation
 - D. Bonus

II. Fill in the following blanks with appropriate words or expressions

- (1) During World War II, Britain was forced to borrow large amounts of money from _____ and _____.
- (2) India became independent in the year of _____.
- (3) Britain had to spend a higher proportion of its national wealth on the _____ than most of its competitors.
- (4) The failure to _____ sufficiently in industry also reflects a long-standing and continuing problem in the British economy.
- (5) It should be noted that the decline of British economy was not an _____ decline.
- (6) Under Margaret Thatcher, public expenditure was _____, foreign exchange controls _____, rules governing banks _____ and worker strikes _____.
- (7) The Conservative Party carried out an extensive programme of _____ throughout the 1980s.
- (8) The negative aspect of Thatcher's reform was a period increase in _____.
- (9) Britain's membership of the EU has made it an attractive location for _____ investment by companies from outside the EU.
- (10) The fishing industry provides _____ % of the UK demand for fish.
- (11) The major fishing areas in Britain are the _____ Sea, the _____ Channel, the sea area around _____ and the sea area between England and _____.
- (12) The technology required to extract oil from the difficult offshore conditions has given British companies a strong _____ in the offshore oil industry around the world.
- (13) The British company Glaxo-Wellcome is the biggest _____ company in the world.
- (14) The German company named _____ recently bought Britain's last major independent car company, Rover.
- (15) The _____ trade makes a great contribution to Britain's balance of payment problems.
- (16) _____ were the dominant industry of the Industrial Revolution in terms of employment, value of output and capital invested
- (17) Second revolution was followed from first industrial revolution, which began in Britain in late _____ century and then extended all the way through Western Europe and North America.
- (18) In the twentieth century, _____ was called the most important engineering achievement.
- (19) Twenty years ago, _____ was a wasteland in east London's docklands. Now it sprouts skyscrapers, including Britain's tallest, that provide palatial premises for global banks with giant trading floors.
- (20) Both the _____ Eurozone states and the _____ non-euro states are EMU members.

- (21) _____ is the current set of conditions of entry for new states wanting to join the EU.
- (22) _____ has received a special opt out from the EU Treaties, allowing for a permanent membership of ERM II, without being required to enter into the “third EMU stage”.
- (23) Notably, the UK is one of the best sites in Europe for _____, and wind power production is its fastest growing supply.
- (24) During the European financial crisis, Europe’s consumption of _____ shrank by 5%, with primary production also facing a noticeable decline.
- (25) Farmers represent an ageing population, partly due to _____ and barriers to entry, and it is increasingly hard to recruit young people into farming.
- (26) The UK produces only 59% of the food it consumes. The vast majority of imports and exports are with other _____.
- (27) Germany and later _____ caught up with and in the early 20th century overtook Britain as the world’s largest manufacturers, although Britain remained one of the largest industrial producers.
- (28) _____ levels and rates are published each month by the Office for National Statistics in the Labor Market Statistical Bulletin.
- (29) _____ vehicle manufacturers active in the UK include Alexander Dennis, Ford, GMM Luton (owned by Adam Opel AG), Leyland Trucks (owned by Paccar) and London Taxis International.
- (30) The Exchange was founded in 1801 and its current premises are situated in Paternoster Square close to _____ in the City of London.
- (31) As in most of the developed world, the UK’s _____ industry is variously subdivided into industrial (generally pelagic and whitefish) sectors, certain large and small shellfish sectors, and other small-scale commercial operators.
- (32) Restrictions imposed under the Common Fisheries Policy (CFP) affect all European fishing fleets, but they have proved particularly severe in recent years for the demersal or whitefish sector (boats mainly fishing for cod, haddock and whiting) of the _____ fishing industry.
- (33) Almost all onshore coal resources in the UK occur in rocks of the Carboniferous age, some of which extend under _____.
- (34) _____ business is the one that is contingent on human life.
- (35) Britain’s _____ has changed over the years. Originally it taxed a person’s income regardless of who was beneficially entitled to that income, but now a person owes tax only on income to which he or she is beneficially entitled.

III. True or False

- _____ (1) The Industrial Revolution began in the United Kingdom and most of the important technological innovations were British.
- _____ (2) In 1822, the Electromagnetic induction was discovered by an Englishman name Michael Faraday.
- _____ (3) Twenty-five years ago London embarked on a remarkable transformation to become a global financial center. It now has to keep its lead.
- _____ (4) UK government energy policy aims to play a key role in limiting greenhouse gas emissions, whilst meeting energy demand.

- _____ (5) British farming is extensive and highly mechanized, but the country is so heavily populated that it cannot supply its own food needs.
- _____ (6) The United Kingdom, where the industrial revolution began in the late 18th century, has a long history of fishing, which contributed to Britain's early economic growth.
- _____ (7) Manufacturing in Britain expanded on an unprecedented scale in the 19th century. The growth was driven by international trading relationships Britain developed with Asia, Europe and the Americas, as well as entrepreneurialism, work ethic and the availability of natural resources such as coal.
- _____ (8) Unemployment levels and rates are published each month by the Office for National Statistics in the Labor Market Statistical Bulletin.
- _____ (9) The origins of the UK automotive industry date back to the 19th century.
- _____ (10) The London Stock Exchange runs several markets for listing, giving an opportunity for different sized companies to list.

IV. Explain the following terms

- (1) the Group of Seven large industrial economies
- (2) NATO
- (3) primary industries
- (4) secondary industries
- (5) tertiary industries

Unit 5 Literature

Cultural Training

British Literature

Old English 450-1066



Unknown - Beowulf (Denmark: Beowulf, a Geat, rescues King Hrothgar and the Danes from Grendel and his mother at Heorot in Zealand with sword Hrunting; fire-breathing dragon later kills Beowulf)

Caedmon - (poems)

Cynewulf - Dream of the Road, Christ, Exeter Book

Unknown - The Wanderer, The Seafarer

Bede - Ecclesiastical History of the English People

Alfred - translated Boethius's De Consolatione Philosophiae

Gaelic

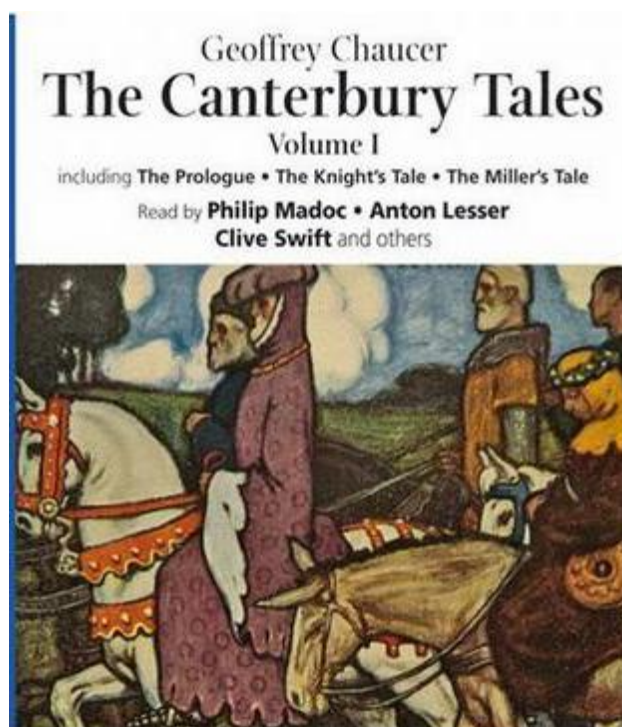
Unknown - Ulster Cycle (sagas about Deirdre [daughter of King Conchobar's storyteller Felim destined to be beautiful and bring death; she is raised by Lavarcham in woods; falls in love with Conchobar's nephew Naisi and flees to Alba with his brothers; they are persuaded to return and Usnech's sons are killed and Deirdre commits suicide], Cu Chulainn [son of sun god Lugh, Cu Chulainn kills hound but takes its place until owner gets new one; trained by woman warrior Scathach; subdues Aoife and has son Conlaoch by her; Conlaoch returns later and kills many but is killed by Cu; Cu fights army of Queen Maeve; seduced by sea god Mananaan's wife Fand; Queen Medb of Cruachain creates imaginary host whom Cu fights to exhaustion and dies tied to pillar; wife Emer dies with him], King Conchobar, Medb and Ailill, Fergus, Cu Roi, Finnabair, Noisi, Emer, Bricriu Poison-tongue, Cathbad the Druid, Etain, Da Derga, Mac Datho, Conaire,

and Conall Cernach; includes tale Cattle-Raid of Cooley [Cu Chulainn deters army of Queen Maeve while Red Branch warriors of Ulster awaken; duels and kills foster brother Ferdiad])

Middle English 1066-1485

William the Conqueror - Domesday Book (census)

William Langland - Piers Plowman (poet dreams in Malvern Hills about tower of Truth and dungeon of Wrong; Holy Church explains visions; Conscience persuades many to leave Seven Deadly Sins for St. Truth, and plowman Piers serves as guide for those who will help plow his half acre; like Dante's Divine Comedy)



Geoffrey Chaucer -Troilus and Criseyde (Trojan prince Troilus pursues Cressida during Trojan War truce; Pandarus helps them get together; her dad exchanges her for a Trojan prisoner; Diomedes brings her to Greek camp and she is unfaithful, as Troilus's sister Cassandra predicted; Troilus sees Diomedes with brooch he gave Criseyde and fights him in battle but is killed by Achilles) House of Fame (finds engraving of Dido and Aeneas in Venus's Temple, lady Fame distributes fame and slander arbitrarily; unfinished), The Legend of Good Women (Queen Alceste has Chaucer write about 20 women who suffered or died because they were faithful in love, including Cleopatra, Thisbe, Dido, Medea, Ariadne, and Philomela), The Book of the Duchess (elegy on death of John of Gaunt's wife Blanche of Lancaster, Halcyon and Ceyx story), The Parliament of Fowls (Scipio Africanus appears to younger Scipio in dream; on Valentine's Day 3 fowls fight over formel eagle), Canterbury Tales (Tabard Inn in Southwark, pilgrimage to St. Thomas a Becket shrine in Canterbury: tales told by Prioress [schoolboy sings hymn about Mary in Jewish ghetto and has throat cut but is saved by Mary, who commands him to sing until a grain is removed from his tongue], Monk [17 8-line tragedies including Bernabo of Milan, Ugolino,

Pedro of Spain, Pedro of Cyprus, Lucifer, Adam, Samson, Heracles, Nebuchadnezzar, Belshazzar, Zonobia, Nero, Holofernes, Antiochus, Alexander, Caesar, and Croesus], Friar [Summoner and Devil swear friendship], Knight [Theseus defeats Creon at Thebes; Arcite dies after winning tournament for the hand of Hippolyta's sister Emily and his cousin Palamon marries her], Melibee [Melibee forgives 3 enemies who beat his wife Prudence and killed his daughter Sophie], Miller [carpenter John's wife Alison scorns Absolon but loves Nicholas, who convinces John to suspend three tubs in the attic in preparation for a second Flood; Absolon brands Nicholas's rump], Man of Law [mom of Sultan of Syria puts Constance adrift; washed ashore in Northumberland and marries King Alla], Wife of Bath [used tricks to keep first 4 husbands in hand; married 5th for love, but after a fight he let her run everything; foul witch tells Arthur's knight what women most desire is sovereignty over husbands and makes him marry her; he gives her choice of beauty or fidelity and gets both], Physician [Virginia killed by judge father, whom Apis condemns to hanging but people revolt and the judge commits suicide], Pardoner [3 revelers want to slay Death, who killed their friend with plague; find treasure under tree; stab and poison each other over the gold], Nun's Priest [fox Don Russell seizes rooster Chanticleer, as he had dreamed, but had been mocked by wife Pertelote], Parson [description of Confession, 7 Deadly Sins, and Penitence; Chaucer's Retractions], Reeve [miller Simkin steals grain from scholars John and Alan, who spend the night at his house and sleep with his wife and daughter], Manciple [archer Phebus's white crow tells him his wife had affair; he kills her but then turns against the tattle-tale crow], Merchant [knight January's sight restored but his wife May has affair with Damyan], Second Nun [Cecilia converts husband Valerian and his brother Tiburtius; Almachius tries to make them sacrifice to Jupiter but they refuse and are executed], Shipman [monk John spends night with merchant's wife; John gets loan from merchant], Squire [knight brings gifts on birthday of Tartar king Cambuscan; Cambuscan's daughter Canacee wears ring that lets her talk to a falcon], Canon's Yeoman [describes futility of alchemy], Clerk [Marquis Walter marries Griselda and tests her loyalty], Roger the Cook [apprentice Perkin likes dice and women], Franklin [Aurelius removes all rocks from British coast to win Arveragus's wife Dorigen])

Geoffrey of Monmouth - *Historia regum Britanniae* (includes stories of Brute, great-grandson of Aeneas, King Lear, Cymbeline, and Arthur)

Unknown - *The Tale of Gamelyn* (Gamelyn robbed of inheritance by older brother but leads band of outlaws in the forest and overthrows him)

Thomas Malory - *Le Morte d'Arthur* (Arthurian Legend - Camelot: King Arthur [based on 6th century Celtic king, becomes king by pulling sword Excaliber from stone, dies on island of Avalon], Queen Guinevere [Arthur's wife], Lancelot [great knight, loved Guinevere], Percival [commits many gaucheries when first at Arthur's court but trained as knight and granted sight of Holy Grail], Tristan and Iseult [Cornish Tristan goes to Ireland to get princess Iseult for uncle King Mark but they drink potion that makes them love each other forever], Sir Gawain [beheads Green Knight and allows retaliation, tempted to commit adultery with Lord Bertilak's wife], Igraine [Arthur's mom], Uther Pendragon [Arthur's father], Merlin [magician, tutors Arthur], Mordred [treacherous nephew, battles Arthur at Camlan], Sir Galahad [leads a quest for the Holy Grail], Sir Launfal [gets wealth from fairy; accused of insults by Guinevere], Morgan le Fay [sorceress sister and enemy of Arthur], Gareth, Kay [Arthur's often brash steward], Sir Ector [Arthur's foster father], Bedivere; empty Siege Perilous chair at Round Table; printed by William Caxton)

Pearl Poet - Sir Gawain and the Green Knight (green knight challenges Arthur's knights to behead him and be beheaded in a year; Gawain accepts and beheads him; year later goes to Green Chapel; Lord Bercilak gives Gawain hunting gains in return for kisses he gets from Bercilak's wife; he fails to give him green sash; Green Knight strikes at Gawain's neck thrice but only nicks it once since he avoided adultery; Green Knight was Bercilak; all planned by Morgan le Fay)

Unknown - Everyman (Everyman receives summons from Death; friends Fellowship, Worldly Goods, and Beauty leave him but Good Deeds remains faithful but weak; morality play)

Unknown - The Mabinogion (Welsh tales, translated by Lady Charlotte Guest)

Wakefield Master - Towneley Mysteries (or Wakefield Mysteries; includes The Second Shepherd's Play)

Unknown - Robin Hood (Robin Hood, possibly earl of Huntington, born at Locksley Nottinghamshire; formed group in Sherwood Forest including Little John, Friar Tuck, Will Scarlet, Allan-a-Dale, Will Stutly, and Maid Marian to rob rich and give to poor; opposed by sheriff; bled to death by prioress of Kirkley)

Renaissance 1485-1660

Sir Thomas More - Utopia (Book I dialogue analyses ills in England; Book II describes Utopia, run with humanist ideals)

John Skelton - A Garland of Laurel, Philip Sparrow, Colin Clout

Sir Philip Sidney - Astrophel and Stella (sonnets by Astrophel [Sidney] for Stella [Penelope Devereux]), An Apologie for Poetrie

Edmund Spenser - Faerie Queene (planned 12 books for each private moral virtues; Prince Arthur sees vision of Faerie Queen Gloriana [Elizabeth I]; evil Catholics Duessa [Mary], Archimago, and Grantorto [Philip II]; 6 books: Red Cross Knight [Holiness], Sir Guyon [Temperance], Britomart [Chastity], Cambel and Triamond [Friendship], Artegall [Justice], Calidore [Courtesy]), The Shepheardes Calender (shepherd Colin Clout loves Rosalind)

John Donne - The Anniversaries (An Anatomy of the World, Of the Progresse of the Soule; in memory of Robert Drury's daughter Elizabeth), Devotions upon Emergent Occasions

Abraham Cowley - Poetical Blossoms, Davideis

George Herbert - The Temple

John Milton - Paradise Lost (Raphael tells Adam about Satan's revolt and expulsion; Satans as serpent tempts Eve to eat forbidden fruit and Adam does also; Sin and Death enter world; Michael leads them out of Garden of Eden), Paradise Regained (Jesus resists Satan's temptations; suggested by Quaker Thomas Ellwood), Samson Agonistes (Samson betrayed by Delilah, blinded by Philistines, and destroys temple), Penseroso, Lycidas (commemorates death of schoolmate Edward King; title from shepherd in Bucolic), Areopagitica (pamphlet against restriction of freedom of the press), Comus (young lady left by two brothers in the woods captured by Comus,

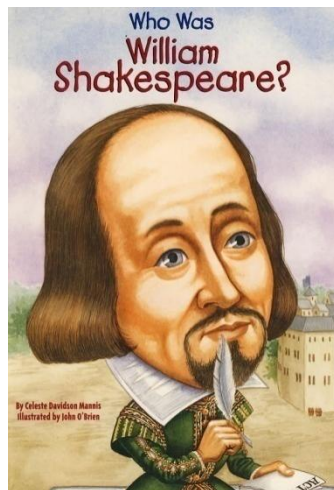
god of sensual pleasure)

Thomas Kyd - The Spanish Tragedy (Spanish marshal Hieronimo's son Horatio, who loves Bel-Imperia, is slain by her brother Lorenzo and the prince of Portugal; Hieronimo finds his body hanging in the arbor; Hieronimo and Bel Imperia kill villains while performing a play and Hieronimo kills self; 9 die on stage)

University Wits

Christopher Marlowe -Tamburlaine (Scythian shepherd Tamburlaine becomes Persian king and marries Soldan's daughter Zenocrate),Dr. Faustus (Germany: scholar Faustus sells soul to devil),Jew of Malta (Barabas loses fortune and wants revenge on invading Turks;murders daughter and whole nunnery with poisoned porridge; dies in bubbling cauldron)

Robert Greene - A Groat's Worth of Wit; John Lyly;Thomas Nashe



William Shakespeare (First Folio compiled by Heminges and Condell, including all but Pericles) -comedies:All's Well That Ends Well (France: Helena cures French king and chooses to marry Bertram, she tricks him to gain his ring and bear his child),As You Like It (Rosalind disguises herself as boy Ganymede and meets Orlando, who is reconciled to his brother Oliver by saving his life; Duke Frederick becomes a monk and four couples are united at feast of Hymen; clown Touchstone woos Audrey),Comedy of Errors (Aemilia and Aegeon have twins, both named Antipholus, and both with slaves Dromio; one goes to Syracuse and one to Ephesus but eventually reunited after much confusion), Cymbeline (Britain: King Cymbeline banishes Posthumous Leonatus who married his daughter Imogen; in Rome Iachimo bets Imogen will be unfaithful and steals her bracelet; servant Pisanio allows Imogen to escape dressed as a boy; Iachimo's villainy exposed), Love's Labor's Lost (4 men vow to eschew women for 3 years but fall in love; King Ferdinand of Navarre with French princess, Biron with Rosaline, Longaville with Maria, and Dumain with Katherine; others include Don Armado, clown Costard, and constable Dull),Measure for Measure (Vienna: Duke Vincentio disguises self as Friar Lodowick and appoints Antonio to enforce laws; Claudio sentenced to death for seducing Juliet; his sister Isabella refuses to yield to Antonio to save Claudio; Lodowick arranges to trick Antonio into thinking Mariana is Isabella),Merchant of Venice (Antonio borrows money from Jewish Shylock to send Bassanio from Venice to Belmont to marry Portia, promising a pound of flesh if not repaid in three months;

Portia and maid Nerissa rescue Antonio at his trial; Shylock's daughter Jessica elopes with Bassanio's friend Lorenzo), Merry Wives of Windsor (Sir John Falstaff tries to seduce Mrs. Ford and Mrs. Page, who trick him; Mr. Ford disguises self as Mr. Brook; Slender and Dr. Caius love Mrs. Page's daughter Anne but she elopes with Fenton) Midsummer Night's Dream (Theseus duke of Athens marries Amazon Queen Hippolyta; Egeus makes his daughter Hermia, who loves Lysander, marry Demetrius, who is loved by Helena; found by Fairy King Oberon and Queen Titania; Puck uses magic love-juice; weaver Bottom and his artisans perform Pyramus and Thisbe play), Much Ado about Nothing (friends get Benedick and Beatrice to marry; Don John stages assignation between Borachio and Margaret to keep Claudio from marrying Hero but fails), Pericles Prince of Tyre (Pericles accuses King Antiochus of incest with daughter; Pericles flees Tyre and is shipwrecked at Pentapolis and marries King Simonides' daughter Thaisa; Thaisa has baby Marina but is presumed dead and put to sea in a chest; Ephesian Cerimon revives Thaisa and she becomes votaress in temple of Diana; Cleon raises Marina but wife Dionyza tries to kill her, but is rescued by pirates and marries Lysimachus; Pericles finds Marina), Taming of the Shrew (play performed for drunken tinker Christopher Sly; Petruchio marries high-tempered Katharina, daughter of Baptista, and "tames her", winning a bet on test of wife's obedience; Lucentio becomes tutor of Katharina's sister Bianca and marries her), The Tempest (Prospero's brother Antonio and King Alonso of Naples, who had usurped his dukedom of Milan 12 years earlier, wreck in tempest on enchanted island where Prospero reigns; they search for Alonso's son Ferdinand, who landed elsewhere and fell in love with Prospero's daughter Miranda; sprite Ariel plays music; all reconciled), Troilus and Cressida (Trojan prince Troilus pursues Cressida during Trojan War truce; Pandarus helps them get together; her dad exchanges her for a Trojan prisoner; Diomedes brings her to Greek camp; at feast in Achilles' tent Troilus learns she is unfaithful; Hector kills Patroclus and Achilles kills Hector), Twelfth Night or What You Will (Sebastian and sister Viola shipwreck off Illyria; she disguises self as boy Cesario, becomes page of Orsino, and loves him; Orsino loves Olivia, who mourns for her dead brother; Olivia loves Viola and marries look-alike Sebastian; Orsino marries Viola; Maria, Sir Toby Belch, and Sir Andrew Aguecheek work against Olivia's steward Malvolio in low comedy), Two Gentlemen of Verona (friends Valentine and Proteus both want duke of Milan's daughter Silvia, who loves foolish Thurio; Proteus dumps Julia and banishes Valentine; Silvia joins Valentine and they are pursued by Proteus, whose page is Julia disguised; Valentine rescues Silvia from Proteus and they marry; Proteus repents and marries Julia); tragedies: Hamlet (Denmark: when Hamlet's dad dies, uncle Claudius marries his mom Gertrude and becomes king; dad's ghost accuses Claudius of murdering him; Polonius [who gives advice to son: "to thine own self be true"] believes Hamlet is mad because he rejects his daughter Ophelia; Claudius reacts violently to play about the king's death; Hamlet mistakenly kills Polonius and is sent to England with Rosencrantz and Guildenstern who have letters telling king to kill Hamlet; Ophelia commits suicide; Hamlet and her brother Laertes both die in duel; Norway King Fortinbras restores order), Othello The Moor of Venice (Iago offended because Othello appointed Cassio chief lieutenant; Iago hints Othello's wife Desdemona, daughter of Senator Brabantio, had affair with Cassio; finds her handkerchief in Cassio's possession; Othello strangles Desdemona; Iago's wife Emilia discovers plot; Iago tortured; "loved not wisely but too well"), King Lear (King Lear divides kingdom among two daughters Regan and Goneril who pretended to love him; third daughter Cordelia becomes wife of French king and is later hanged; Lear's servant earl of Kent is put in stocks; Edmund turns Gloucester against his real

son Edgar), Macbeth (shortest Shakespeare play; tribute to James I; three witches tell Macbeth he will be thane of Glamis, thane of Cawdor, and king, and that sons of friend Banquo will later be kings; Lady Macbeth convinces him to murder King Duncan; Macbeth murders Banquo but his son Fleance escapes; Lady Macbeth sleepwalks and commits suicide; Macduff and Duncan's son Malcolm kill Macbeth and Malcolm becomes king), Julius Caesar (Cassius convinces Brutus that Julius Caesar is threat to Rome; Brutus talks with wife Portia; Brutus and Cassius murder Caesar on Ides of March although he had been warned by wife Calpurnia; Antony speaks at Caesar's funeral and inflames citizens against murderers, Cassius and Brutus lose to Antony, Lepidus, and Octavius at Philippi and commit suicide), Antony and Cleopatra (Rome and Egypt: Marc Antony, Roman triumvir, leaves wife Octavia for Cleopatra, queen of Egypt; loses Battle of Actium to Octavian; Antony and Cleopatra commit suicide), Romeo and Juliet (Romeo Montague and Juliet Capulet secretly married by Friar Laurence; her cousin Tybalt kills his friend Mercutio and Romeo kills Tybalt and is banished from Verona; Juliet takes sleeping potion rather than marry Paris; Romeo drinks poison; Juliet stabs self), Timon of Athens (Timon abandoned by friends when he has financial problems as Apemantus had warned; Timon leaves Athens and finds gold and General Alcibiades in a cave; Timon finances Alcibiades' expedition against Athens because he was banished for defending a condemned soldier; servant Flavius rewarded; they reach compromise with Athens to only get revenge on enemies but then Timon dies), Titus Andronicus (Titus Andronicus beats Goths and returns to Rome with Queen Tamora and 3 sons; 1 son sacrificed; Saturninus declared emperor and claims Titus's daughter Lavinia; his brother Bassanius abducts Lavinia and he marries Tamora; Tamora and Moorish lover Aaron kill Bassanius and rape Lavinia, cutting off her hands and tongue; 2 of Titus's sons executed and another banished, and leads Gothic army; Titus serves Tamora her sons in a pie, kills Lavinia, and stabs Tamora; Saturninus kills Titus and is killed by Lucius), Coriolanus (Caius Martius renamed Coriolanus after defeating Volscians at Corioli; joins Aufidius and plans to attack Rome; persuaded by mom Volumnia and wife Virgilia to spare city; murdered by Aufidius), Winter's Tale (Queen Hermione invites King Polixenes of Bohemia to stay longer but King Leontes orders Camillo to poison him, but Camillo flees with Polixenes; Hermione sent to prison and daughter abandoned on shore; Leontes repents; 16 years later Polixenes' son Florizel loves Leontes' lost daughter Perdita, a shepherdess, and they flee to Sicilia and marry; Leontes and Polixenes reconciled); historical dramas: King John (King John, supported by Philip Faulconbridge, fights Arthur duke of Brittany and the pope; John is poisoned and son Henry III becomes king), Richard II (King Richard banishes Henry Bolingbroke and Thomas Mowbray; Henry's dad John of Gaunt dies and Richard confiscates inheritance to finance Irish war; Henry invades England and imprisons Richard, becoming King Henry IV; Sir Pierce of Exton murders Richard and Henry does penance in Holy Land), Richard III (Richard duke of Gloucester causes death of brother George duke of Clarence and marries Lady Anne; imprisons Edward's sons in Tower and seizes power with duke of Buckingham's help; defeated at Bosworth Field by Lancaster under earl of Richmond ["a horse a horse my kingdom for a horse"], earl of Richmond becomes King Henry VII and marries Elizabeth, ending 30 year War of the Roses), Henry IV Part I (Henry Percy [Hotspur] defeats Scottish barons and demands ransom of Edmund Mortimer, captured by Owen Glendower; Henry IV refuses to ransom the pretender to the throne, so Percy family joins the rebels; Prince Hal [future Henry V] follows Sir John Falstaff and his revelers but defeats rebels at Shrewsbury, killing Hotspur), Henry IV Part II (earl of Northumberland leads rebels who agree to disband but treacherous

John of Lancaster kills them; Hal becomes king and banishes Falstaff), Henry V (Henry V invades France, wins at Agincourt 1415, and marries Catherine of Valois; Falstaff dies), Henry VI Part I (Henry VI's uncles John duke of Bedford and Humphrey duke of Gloucester take control; French under Joan La Pucelle drive out English; Richard Plantagenet quarrels with Beauforts of Lancaster; Henry marries Margaret of Anjou rather than daughter of French earl of Armagnac), Henry VI Part II (Margaret of Anjou and duke of Suffolk convict duchess of Gloucester of sorcery to force Humphrey's retirement; Richard Plantagenet encourages Jack Cade to rebel, then defeats Henry at St. Albans 1455), Henry VI Part III (Richard Plantagenet agrees to let Henry VI rule during his lifetime; Margaret of Anjou puts Richard to death at Wakefield but his sons Edward IV and Richard III defeat her at Towton; Edward IV becomes king and marries Lady Elizabeth Grey and defeats Margaret at Tewkesbury 1471, killing Henry's son Edward prince of Wales; Richard III murders Henry in the Tower), Henry VIII (Edward Stafford wanted to warn Henry about Cardinal Wolsey but is falsely accused of treason and executed; Thomas Cranmer annuls Henry's marriage to Katharine of Aragon and Henry marries Anne Bullen), Sonnets (154; 3 quatrains and couplet; 1-126 to noble friend, maybe Henry Wriothesley earl of Southampton; 127-152 to "Dark Lady"; 153-154 Greek epigram), The Phoenix and the Turtle, Venus and Adonis, The Rape of Lucrece

Ben Jonson - Volpone (childless Venetian nobleman Volpone [Fox], aided by servant Mosca [Fly], pretends to be sick so that many will rush to him with rich gifts to ensure he is in line to inherit fortune; visitors include lawyer Voltore [Vulture], miser Corbaccio [Crow] who disinherits son, and Corvino [Raven] who offers his wife) The Alchemist (Subtle and Doll Common set up shop in Lovewit's house while he is gone; they trick Face and Sir Epicure Mammon but not Surly), Everyman in His Humour (London: Wellbred and Young Kno'well escape brother-in-law and father; Captain Bobadil [braggart], Kitem [jealous], Stephen [stupid], Kno'well [suspicious], Dame Kitem [jealous] humours) Epicene or The Silent Woman (Morose tries to disinherit his nephew Sir Dauphine by marrying silent Epicene, who turns out to be talkative boy in disguise), The Poetaster (attacks Thomas Kicker and John Marston in War of Theaters)

Beaumont and Fletcher - (Jonson's "disciples") - Philaster or Love Lies A-Bleeding (king of Calabria and Sicily's daughter Arethusa loves Philaster but engaged to Pharamond prince of Spain; Pharamond's evilness made known and he accuses Arethusa of affair with page Bellario, actually a disguised girl; Arethusa saves Philaster by marrying her), The Maid's Tragedy (Amintor forced to marry friend Melantius's sister Evadne rather than Aspatia; Melantius plots against king and Evadne kills the king, to whom she had been mistress).

Richard Lovelace - To Althea from Prison

John Suckling - Aglaura, Session of the Poets, Brennoralt

Thomas Dekker - The Honest Whore Part I (Hippolito loves duke's daughter Infelice, who is sent to convent; Bellafont loves Hippolito; Hippolito marries Infelice and Bellafont marries Mattheo), The Honest Whore Part II (Bellafont's father Orlando Frscobaldo disguises self as her husband Mattheo's servant; Bellafont falsely accused of prostitution), Old Fortunatus (goddess Fortune gives beggar riches but it brings only trouble; Vice and Virtue)

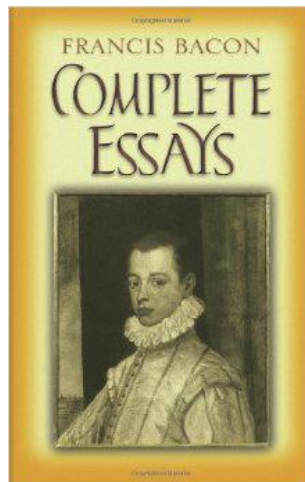
Thomas Middleton - A Trick to Catch the Old One poor (Theodorus Witgood tries to get money from uncle by pretending to be engaged to Widow Medler, who marries Hoard)

Dekker and Middleton - The Roaring Girl (Moll Cutpurse helps Sebastian Wengrave win approval of Mary Fitzallard's father Sir Alexander to marry her)

Robert Southwell - The Burning Babe

Restoration / Augustan / Neo-Classical 1660-1789

Early 1600s



Francis Bacon - Advancement of Learning, New Atlantis (voyage to Bensalem Island, which had Solomon's House, inspiration for Royal Society), Novum Organum (presents "new instrument" of inductive method)

John Locke - Essay Concerning Human Understanding (views mind at birth as tabula rasa with no innate ideas; led to growth of empiricism), Treatises on Government

Edward Gibbon - History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire (from Trajan to fall of Constantinople 1453)

David Hume - An Enquiry Concerning Human Understanding

Thomas Hobbes - Leviathan (supports strong government to combat egoism, root of all social conflict)

Izaak Walton - The Compleat Angler or the Contemplative Man's Recreation (angler Piscator and hunter Venator argue over best sport; friend Auceps silenced)

Age of Dryden late 1600s

John Dryden - Absalom and Achitophel (attacks Puritan attempts to exclude Catholic duke of York from English throne; Achitophel [earl of Shaftesbury], Absalom [duke of Monmouth]; added to by Nahum Tate), MacFlecknoe (depicts Thomas Shadwell as successor of Richard Flecknoe in bad verse), Conquest of Grenada, The Medal (criticizes earl of Shaftesbury, acquitted of treason), The Hind and the Panther (James II is lion who protects hind [Church of Rome] from

bear[Independents], wolf [Presbyterians], hare [Quakers], ape [Freethinkers], boar [Anabaptists], fox [Arians], and panther [Church of England]), All for Love or The World Well Lost (Antony and Cleopatra), Essay of Dramatic Poesie (4 Englishmen on barge on Thames want to see battle with Dutch fleet; talk about drama), Annus Mirabilis (describes 1666 London fire and Dutch War), translated Vergil

Thomas Otway - Venice Preserved (Venetian Jaffeir marries senator Priuli's daughter Belvidera and joins conspiracy with friend Pierre but tells senate about it when co-conspirator Renault makes advances at Belvidera; conspirators sentenced to die)

George Villiers - The Rehearsal

William Congreve - (comedy of manners) Love for Love (Angelica helps Valentine get back his inheritance, which he gave to his sea-faring brother Ben so his father Sir Sampson Legend would pay his debts), Way of the World (witty Mirabell loves Millamant but pretends to like her aunt Lady Wishfort; Mirabell and Millamant negotiate agreement to marry; others include Wishfort's nephew Sir Wilfull Witwoud, servants Waitwell and Foible, and Fainalls), The Mourning Bride

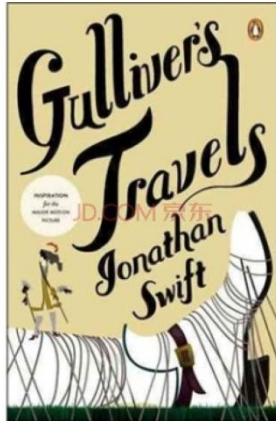
Samuel Pepys - Secret Diary

Isaac Newton - Principia (The Motion of Bodies, The Motion of Bodies in Resisting Media, The System of the World)

John Bunyan - Pilgrims Progress (Christian leaves City of Destruction through Wicket-gate led by Evangelist; goes through Slough of Despond, Cross, Holy Sepulcher, Hill Difficulty, House Beautiful, Valley of Humiliation, Valley of the Shadow of Death, Vanity [with a fair that sells all empty things], plain of Ease, Hill of Lucre [free silver mine], Doubting Castle, Delectable Mountains, Enchanted Ground, Beulah, River of Death, and Celestial City; meets Mr. Worldly-Wiseman, Mr. Good-will, friend Apollyon, Hopeful, Faithful, and Giant Despair; in Part II wife Christiana, kids, Mercy, and Mr. Great-heart go to Celestial City), Life and Death of Mr. Badman

Age of Pope 1700-1744

Alexander Pope - Essay on Criticism ("little learning is a dangerous thing"; "to err is human, to forgive divine"), Essay on Man, Rape of the Lock (epic treatment of real incident in which Lord Petre cut a lock of Arabella Fermor's hair, leading to family feud; heroine Belinda), The Dunciad (attacks Pope's critics including Lewis Theobald; Colley Cibber king of the Dunces, and goddess Dullness prevails), Epistle to Dr. Arbuthnot (dialogue between Pope and a physician, attacking Addison and Hervey).



Jonathan Swift -Tale of a Tub (ridicule of religious extremists; brothers Peter [Catholic], Jack [Protestants], and Martin [Lutheran/Anglican]; Grub Street hacker writer reveals in Digression of Madness he is an inmate of Bedlam),Modest Proposal (satirically proposes raising Irish children for food),Gulliver's Travels (ship physician Lemuel Gulliver visits Lilliput [tiny people],Brobdingnag [giants], Laputa [scientists], and Houyhnhnmland [horses,masters of Yahoo people]),Battle of the Books (ridicules arguments of William Temple and Richard Bentley about ancient vs. modern authors; battle in St. James Library), Journal to Stella (diary)

Joseph Addison and Richard Steele - Spectator (essays by Spectator Club members, including Mr. Spectator, Sir Roger de Coverley, Will Honeycomb, Andrew Freeport, and Capt. Sentry)

Richard Steele - The Tatler (pseudonym Isaac Bickerstaff)

Daniel Defoe -Robinson Crusoe (Robinson Crusoe [based on real-life Alexander Selkirk] is shipwrecked and lives 24 years on island near Orinoco River; saves native man Friday from cannibals and becomes his friend; recaptures ship and returns to England),Moll Flanders (Moll Flanders born at Newgate, works as prostitute, marries five times, sent to Virginia, died penitent),A Journal of the Plague Year (account of plague by Londoner "HF", 1665)

Age of Johnson 1744-1784

Samuel Johnson -Dictionary of the English Language (refused belated patronage of Lord Chesterfield),Rasselas (Rasselas, sister Nekayah, and mentor Imlac escape Oriental Happy Valley to explore world; visit Cairo; return to Happy Valley),Lives of the Poets (connects lives and work of 52 poets from Cowley to his contemporaries),Rambler (semi-weekly essays)

James Boswell - Life of Samuel Johnson (notes of conversations with Dr. Johnson;remembered with help of Edmund Malone)

Oliver Goldsmith -Vicar of Wakefield (kindly Vicar Charles Primrose loses income and moves family to humbler house; daughter Olivia abducted by Squire Thornhill; house burns down and Primrose is imprisoned for debt; daughter Sophia is abducted;son George is imprisoned avenging Sophia; Thornhill's uncle Sir William Thornhill straightens everything out and marries Sophia),Deserted Village (rural depopulation of late 1700s),She Stoops to Conquer (Marlow loves Miss Hardcastle but is tricked into believing her dad's castle is a village end; Miss Hardcastle

poses as barmaid and poor relative to seduce Marlow), *The Citizen of the World* (Chinese philosopher Lien Chi Altangi reports on visit to England; Lien's son rescues daughter of Man in Black from Persia), *The Good Natur'd Man* (Honeywood imprisoned to see if friends leave him; he loves Miss Richland, who secures his freedom),

Goody Two-shoes

Richard Sheridan - *School for Scandal* (Joseph Surface makes overtures to Lady Teazle to get access to her husband Sir Peter's ward Maria, who loves Joseph's brother Charles; Lady Sneerwell has gossip club; Lady Teazle hides behind screen and Sir Peter hides in a closet; Joseph's uncle Sir Oliver Surface returns from India disguised as Mr. Premium but Charles won't sell him portrait of his uncle), *The Rivals* (Capt. Jack Absolute, son of Anthony Absolute, woos Lydia Languish under guise of Ensign Beverly; Lydia's aunt Mrs. Malaprop, who makes many funny mispronunciations, wants her to marry Absolute; Absolute's friend Bob Acres loves Lydia and challenges Beverly to duel; Lydia and Absolute marry)

Thomas Gray - *Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard* (ends with "The Epitaph")

William Blake - *Songs of Innocence and Songs of Experience* (contrast each other; *The Lamb* vs. *The Tiger* [*Tiger Tiger Burning bright*], *The Divine Image* vs. *The Human Abstract*, etc.), *Book of Thel*, *The Marriage of Heaven and Hell* (doctrine of Contraries), *Milton* (John Milton returns from Heaven to correct misinterpretations of his work)

Bishop Thomas Percy - *Reliques of Ancient English Poetry* (including *Sir Patrick Spens* and *Edward Edward*)

Samuel Richardson - *Clarissa* (*Clarissa Harlowe* commanded to marry Mr. Soames, whom she despises, and flees with Robert Lovelace, who drugs and rapes her; longest novel in English), *Pamela or Virtue Rewarded* (first modern novel; son of maidservant Pamela Andrew's employer, Mr. B, pursues her but she resists, marries, and reforms him)

Henry Fielding - *Tom Jones* (Squire Allworthy raises son Tom Jones of his servant Jenny Jones and son Blifil of sister Bridget and Captain Blifil; Blifil tries to get Tom into trouble; both love Squire Western's daughter Sophia; Tom has affair with gameskeeper's daughter and is sent to London, having many adventures along the way; Jenny appears and says Tom is actually Bridget's son; Tom marries Sophia; others include schoolmaster Partridge and Lady Bellaston), *Joseph Andrews* (Pamela's brother Joseph Andrews refuses employer Lady Booby's advances and flees to his love Fanny Goodwill in London; Parson Adams rescues them and they marry), *Amelia* (Amelia is the wife of imprisoned Captain Booth; she refuses Captain James but he has affair with Miss Matthews), *The Life of Jonathan Wild the Great* (highwayman Jonathan Wild represents Walpole).

Tobias Smollett - *Humphrey Clinker* (workhouse lad Humphrey Clinker works for Brambles and loves their maid Winifred Jenkins; becomes Methodist preacher; epistolary novel), *The Adventures of Peregrine Pickle* (rascal Peregrine Pickle raised by aunt Grizzle Pickle and one-eyed veteran uncle; marries Amanda) *The Adventures of Roderick Random* (Scottish Roderick, who killed an officer in a duel, and Hugh Strap go to sea; Roderick loves Narcissa but opposed by Sir Timothy Thicket and Lord Quiverwit; Roderick flees to France and plans to marry Miss

Melinda Goosetrap; goes to sea with uncle Tom Bolwing and finds lost dad Don Rodrigo in South America)

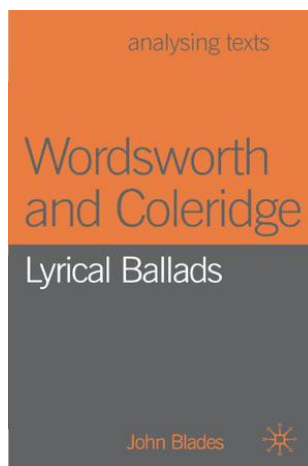
Laurence Sterne - Tristram Shandy (disorganized account of first years of life, interspersed with long reflections and accounts of Yorck, father Walter Shandy, mom, and Uncle Toby; includes one-sentence chapters, blank pages, and unfinished sentences), A Sentimental Journey (trip through France and Italy; Yorick weeps over donkey chewing thistle)

John Cleland - Fanny Hill The Memoirs of a Woman of Pleasure (prostitute Fanny Hill; novel banned for vulgarity)

Horace Walpole - The Castle of Otranto (Manfred, grandson of usurper who had poisoned Alfonso, wants to marry Isabella after his son Conrad is crushed by a helmet, but she is rescued by Theodore and Alfonso's ghost destroys the castle)

William Cowper - John Gilpin (London linen draper Gilpin goes to Edmonton), The Task (6 books: The Sofa, The Time-piece, The Garden, The Winter Evening, The Winter Morning Walk, The Winter Walk at Noon)

Romantic Age 1780-1837



Wordsworth and Coleridge - Lyrical Ballads (launched Romanticism; includes Tintern Abbey and Rime of the Ancient Mariner)

Samuel Taylor Coleridge - Rime of the Ancient Mariner (seaman does penance for killing friendly albatross in Antarctic), Kubla Khan (Mongol emperor Kubla Khan; written during opium dream), Christabel (witch Lady Geraldine casts spell over Christabel and her father Sir Leoline, despite bard Bracy's revelatory dream)

William Wordsworth - Lines Composed a Few Miles Above Tintern Abbey (ivory-covered ruin on river Wye in Monmouthshire), Ode: Intimations of Immortality (Platonic "recollection";

celebrates child),The Daffodils, The Recluse (including The Excursion), The Prelude (autobiographical), Simon Lee (poet helps hunter Simon dig up tree root), Nuns Fret Not at Their Convent's Narrow Room

Sir Walter Scott -Lady of the Lake (James Fitz-James, Knight of Snowden, loves Ellen, daughter of outlaw James of Douglas; local hero Roderick Dhu fights for Ellen, but she loves Malcolm),Ivanhoe (1100s England: Wilfred knight of Ivanhoe rejects Rebecca the Jewess and loves Rowena but dad Cedric wants her to marry Saxon Athelstane; Black Knight [Richard the Lion-Hearted], Knight Templar Sir Brian de Bois-Guilbert and Locksley [Robin Hood]become involved; tournaments at Ashby-de-la-Zouche and Torquilstone),The Antiquary (William Lovel loves daughter of Arthur Wardour),The Bride of Lammermoor (Lord Ravenswood's son Edgar loves Lucy, daughter of William Ashton who has tricked his dad; Lucy forced to marry Frank Hayston),Guy Mannering (Guy Mannering predicts Harry Bertram will have crises at ages 5 and 21; sister Lucy cared for by Dominie Sampson; Harry befriends Mannering and marries his daughter Julia), The Lay of the Last Minstrel (families of Baron Henry of Cranstown and Lady Margaret of Bransome Hall feud), Peveril of the Peak (Cavalier Julian Peveril loves Roundhead Alice Bridgenorth; 1678 Popish Plot),Quentin Durward (Louis XI Scottish Guardsman Durward saves king's life in boar hunt and wins Isabell countess of Croye), Marmion A Tale of Flodden Field (Lord marmion rejects Constance and loves Lady Clare; he dies at Flodden Field),The Talisman (Sir Kenneth helps Richard I fight Saladin), Waverley Novels (32 novels published anonymously)

George Gordon Lord Byron -Childe Harold's Pilgrimage (Childe Harold goes on pilgrimage across Europe disillusioned with life of pursuing pleasure),Don Juan (Don Juan sent from Spain by mom Donna Inez; shipwrecks in Greece but nursed by Haidee; sold as slave to Gulbeyas of Constantinople but loves Dudu;attracts Empress Catherine in Russia; sent to England),The Corsair (pirate chief Conrad imprisoned by Sultan Seyd but released by Gulnare but finds his love Medora dead; returns to Greece and is shot),The Destruction of Sennacherib (plague in Assyrian army),The Prisoner of Chillon (two brothers of Francois de Bonnivard die in dungeon),Manfred (Count Manfred sells self to Prince of Darkness and lives alone in Alps)

Robert Southey - The Battle of Blenheim, biographies of Nelson, Wesley, and Cowper

Ann Radcliffe - The Mysteries of Udolpho

Matthew Gregory Lewis - The Monk (devil sends Matilda to seduce vulnerable monk Ambrosio in Madrid)

Percy Bysshe Shelley - Prometheus Unbound (son Demogorgon drives Jupiter from throne;Hercules rescues Prometheus, who is reunited with wife Asia), Ode to the West Wind, To a Skylark, Adonais (to Keats), The Cloud, Ozymandias (vanity of tyrants), The Sensitive Plant

Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley - Frankenstein: The Modern Prometheus (Germany: student Frankenstein creates nameless monster by galvanism which is shunned by all and turns to evil;destroys Frankenstein at the North Pole)

John Keats - Eve of St. Agnes (Madeline glimpses future husband Porphyro on Eve of St. Agnes),Ode on a Grecian Urn, Ode to a Nightingale, Endymion (shepherd on Mount Latmus

loved by moon goddess Selene), Hyperion (Titan sun god Hyperion overthrown by Apollo), La Belle Dame sans merci, Isabella or The Pot of Basil (Isabella plants head of beloved Lorenzo in pot of basil after her brothers killed him), On First Looking into Chapman's Homer

Charles Lamb - Specimens of English Dramatic Poets, Essays of Elia (including A Dissertation on Roast Pig), Dream Children A Reverie (written at death of brother James)

Thomas De Quincey - Confessions of an English Opium-Eater

Edmund Burke - On American Taxation, On Conciliation with the Colonies, Reflections on the French Revolution



Robert Burns - The Cotter's Saturday Night (Jenny), The Holy Fair (sisters Fun, Usupersitition, and Hypocrisy visit Holy Fair at Mauchline), Tam o'Shanter (witches pursue Tam but cannot cross river Doon; Cutty Sark cuts off horse's tail)

Victorian Era 1837-1901

Thomas Babbington Macaulay - History of England, Critical and Historical Essays

John Henry Newman - Apology for His Life (Catholic)

Benjamin Disraeli - Sybil or the Two Nations, Tancred or the New Crusade

Thomas Carlyle - Sartor Resartus (Tailor Retailored; Prof. Diogenes Teufelsdröckh at Weissnichtwo loves Rose Goddess Blumine but is discarded and wanders for 10 years), On Heroes

John Ruskin and Walter Pater - (combated social problems)

Alfred Lord Tennyson - Locksley Hall (last look at home of his youth; loves cousin Amy), In Memoriam (elegy for friend Arthur Hallam), Idylls of the King (King Arthur; The Coming of Arthur, Gareth and Lynette, Geraint and Enid, Merlin and Vivien, Lancelot and Elaine, The Holy Grail, Pelleas and Ettarre, The Last Tournament, Guinevere, The Passing of Arthur),

Robert Browning - Dramatic Romances and Lyrics, Men and Women, My Last Duchess (duke of Ferrara murdered wife for not appreciating honor of marrying him), Pippa Passes (Pippa works in Asolo Italy silk mills; "God's in His Heaven - All's right with the world"), Prospice (written after wife's death), Sordello (1200s south Europe poet debates action and song), The Ring and the Book (Guido Franceschini of Florence marries Pompilia Comparini whose parents learn he is not really rich; Pompilia flees to Rome and accused of affair with priest Caponsacchi and banished to nunnery, where she has child; Guido murders Pompilia and parents and is executed)

Elizabeth Browning - Sonnets from the Portuguese (expression of love for husband Robert)

Browning), The Cry of the Children (decries child labor), Lady Geraldine's Courtship (lady marries peasant-pope; praised Robert Browning)

Matthew Arnold - Essays in Criticism, Dover Beach, Culture and Anarchy, The Scholar-Gipsy

Charles Swinburne - Atalanta in Calydon, Songs Before Sunrise

Dante Gabriel Rossetti and William Morris - (Pre-Raphaelites)

Jane Austen -Pride and Prejudice (Mrs. Bennet tries to find matches for 5 daughters; Lydia Bennet elopes with officer Wickham; arrogant Mr. Darcy, who had interfered with courtship of friend Bingley and Jane Bennet, proposes to Elizabeth Bennet; she refuses but later her prejudice and his pride dissolve and they marry; also includes Mr. Collins and Lady Catherine de Bourgh),Emma (Emma Woodhouse interferes in love life of Harriet Smith, encouraging her to take Mr. Elton rather than Robert Martin; also interferes with Jane Fairfax and Frank Churchill; eventually she marries George Knightley),Sense and Sensibility (Elinor Dashwood bears desertion by Edward Ferrars, who was secretly engaged to Lucy Steele and disinherited by mom, with dignity; Lucy turns to Edward's brother Robert when he gets inheritance and Edward proposes to Elinor;sister Marianne gets very upset about desertion by John Willoughby but finally marries Col. Brandon),Persuasion (Anne Elliott breaks engagement with Captain Wentworth but then they renew the engagement)Northanger Abbey (Mrs. Allen and Catherine Morland visit Bath; Catherine loves clergyman Henry Tilney but fears his home after reading Radcliffe's Mysteries of Udolpho; they marry),Mansfield Park (Fanny Price raised with Uncle Thomas Bertram's 4 kids; Fanny loves cousin Edmund who loves Mary Crawford; Mary's brother Henry loves Maria Bertram then Fanny Price then Maria again; Edmund finally marries Fanny)

Charles Dickens -Bleak House (Chancery, London: narrator Esther Summerson, illegitimate daughter of Lady Dedlock and Captain Hawdon; lawyer Mr. Tulkinghorn suspects past and is killed,as is Lady Dedlock; Krook spontaneously combusts; Jarndyce vs. Jarndyce case drags on for years in courts),Oliver Twist (Oliver born in workhouse and asked for more gruel; apprenticed by Mr.Bumble to undertaker Mr. Sowerberry; gang under Fagin including Jack Dawkins the Artful Dodger, Nancy, Bill Sikes, and Charley Bates tries to make Oliver a thief;half-brother Monks tries to corrupt him to get all of father's property; adopted by Mr.Brownlow and cared for by Mrs. Maylie and foster child Rose [his aunt]),David Copperfield (London: David Copperfield sent to Mr. Creakle's school by cruel stepfather Mr. Murdstone; idolizes classmate Steerforth; works in warehouse and lives with Mr. Micawber; runs away to great-aunt Betsey Trotwood; later lives with lawyer Mr. Wickfield; marries Dora Spenlow but she dies; unctuous Uriah Heep foiled; David marries Wickfield's daughter Agnes; other characters include reliable Traddles, "ever willin'" Barkis, and eccentric Peggotty family),Great Expectations (Philip Pirrip [Pip] raised by blacksmith Joe Gargery; meets convict Magwitch; visits Miss Havisham, who had been left at the altar years before, and her niece Estella; goes to London due to patron Magwitch, who is Estella's father; Estella's husband Bentley Drummle dies),Our Mutual Friend (Mr. Boffins and Wilfer's friend John Harmon left a fortune if he will marry Bella Wilfer; disguises self as John Rokesmith and falls in love with Bella and drops assumed name and gets fortune),Barnaby Rudge (Barnaby participates in anti-Catholic Gordon Riots of 1780 and sentenced to death but reprieved by Gabriel Varden; carries raven Grip with him; father murdered employer Mr. Haredale),A Christmas Carol

(miser Ebenezer Scrooge, partner of deceased Marley, converted by visions of past, present, and future Christmases; sees the Cratchits, including Tiny Tim and Bob, Scrooge's secretary), *A Tale of Two Cities* (Dr. Alexander Manette, unjustly imprisoned in Bastille, is released and waits for rescuers in attic of Defarge's wine shop, and then returns to London with daughter Lucie; St. Evremonde's nephew Charles Darnay is accused of treason but defense counsel Stryver points out resemblance to Sydney Carton; Darnay marries Lucie and later returns to Paris to save a servant but is arrested during French Revolution; Sydney takes Charles's place on the guillotine because he loves Lucie), *Dombey and Sons* (Mr. Dombey wants son Paul to continue his business but he dies; ignored daughter Florence but later reconciled), *Martin Chuzzlewit* (Martin Chuzzlewit turned away by grandfather and goes to US with friend Mark Tapley; loses everything as architect for fraudulent Eden Land Corp; returns home and marries Mary Graham; Jonas Chuzzlewit poisons dad, murders Montague Tigg, and marries Mercy Pecksniff), *Little Dorrit* (William Dorrit raises kids Edward, Fanny, and Amy in debtor's prison; comes into fortune and all become despicable except Amy, who marries poor Arthur Clennam in Marshalsea prison; Arthur struggles with Circumlocution Office), *The Pickwick Papers* (pseudonym Boz; illustrated by Seymour; letters about club founded by Samuel Pickwick; "Pickwickian sense" means insults that aren't really meant; others include servant Sam Weller, landlady Mrs. Bardell, lawyers Dodson, Fogg, and Serjeant Buzfuz, and actor Alfred Jingle), *Nicholas Nickleby* (to support mom and sister Nicholas Nickleby works as usher for cruel Wackford Squeers, in Mr. Crummles theater, and Cheeryble counting house; sister Kate worked for milliner Mantalini; Uncle Ralph encourages Mulberry Hawk to seduce Kate; Grice loves Madeline Bray; Ralph learns mistreated Smike is his son and commits suicide; others include Ralph's clerk Newman Noggs), *The Mystery of Edwin Drood* (orphans Edwin Drood and Rosa Bud betrothed by fathers but break off engagement; Edwin murdered and Neville Landless is arrested but released; Edwin's Uncle Jasper pursues Rosa; Mr. Datchery investigates; unfinished), *Hard Times* (Thomas Gradgrind, a retired merchant, raises Louisa and Tom in grim practicality; Louisa marries Tom's employer Josiah Bounderby; Tom robs bank and frames Stephen Blackpool), *The Old Curiosity Shop* (Daniel Quilp takes over curiosity shop of Nell Trent's grandfather after he loses money gambling; Little Nell and grandfather work for Mrs. Jarley's Wax Works and Thomas Codlin's puppet show; given house by schoolmaster Mr. Marton and Little Nell tends graves; friend Kit Nubbles and grandfather's brother search but find them dead; Kit marries Barbara)

William Makepeace Thackeray - *Vanity Fair* a Novel without a Hero (Becky Sharp tries to win friend Amelia Sedley's rich brother Joseph but fails; marries Sir Pitt Crawley's son Rawdon, who is disinherited, but she lives well on small income with Lord Steyne's help until Rawdon finds out and leaves Becky and son to become governor of Coventry Island; Becky is ostracized; Amelia marries George Osborne but he dies at Waterloo and his dad Mr. Osborne cares for their son Georgy; Amelia marries William Dobbin), *The Newcomes* (Col. Thomas Newcome's artist son Clive marries Rosey Mackenzie and then cousin Ethel Newcome), *The History of Henry Esmond Esquire* (Henry Esmond raised by Francis Esmond, heir of Castlewood estate; James Edward the Pretender loves Francis's daughter Beatrix; Henry marries Rachel and goes to America), *The Virginians* (sequel to *Henry Esmond*; Henry's grandsons George and Harry Warrington grow up under aunt Baroness Bernstein in America; George fights for British and Harry for friend Washington in Revolution), *The Memoirs of Barry Lyndon Esq. Written by Himself* (Redmond Barry wins Countess Lyndon and spends her money, ending up in Fleet Prison), *The History of*

Pendennis (Arthur Pendennis [Pen] spoiled by mom and relative Laura Bell; writes novel; edits Pall Mall Gazette; marries Laura), The Rose and the Ring (Fairy Blackstick controls magic rose and ring that make owner lovely)

Anthony Trollope - Barchester Towers (Mrs. Proudie defeats chaplain Mr. Slope; Mr. Slope and others want to marry Eleanor Bold for her money but she slaps him; church warden Mr. Harding, archdeacon Grantley, Bertie Stanhope)

Anne Bronte - Agnes Gray (ill-treated governess Agnes Gray marries curate Mr. Weston), The Tenant of Wildfell Hall

Emily Bronte - Wuthering Heights (Ellis Bell pseudonym; Mr. Earnshaw raises waif Heathcliff at Wuthering Heights; his daughter Catherine likes him while his son Hindley hates him; Heathcliff leaves for 3 years when Catherine says marrying him would degrade her; Catherine marries Edgar Linton; years later Hindley invites polished Heathcliff back and he elopes with Edgar's sister; Catherine dies in childbirth; widower Heathcliff makes Catherine's daughter marry his sickly son Linton; Heathcliff dies and Cathy devotes herself to cousin Hareton, Hindley's son)

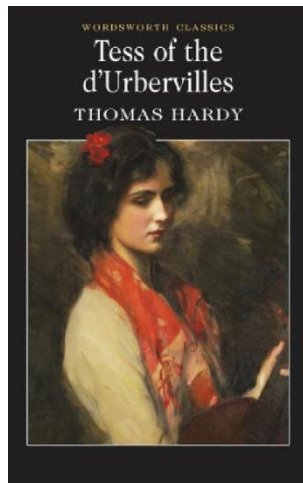
Charlotte Bronte - Jane Eyre (governess Jane Eyre eventually marries employer Edward Rochester, who is married to an insane woman), Shirley (Yorkshire wool mill owner Robert Gerand Moore deals with worker strife; heroine Shirley Keeldar based on Emily Bronte)

Samuel Butler - The Way of All Flesh (clergyman Theobald Pontifex's son Ernest lives in slums, goes to jail for advances to a woman, marries vulgar Ellen but released because she was already married, and devotes life to literature), Erewhon (satirizes English attitudes in Utopia; anagram of Nowhere; narrator escapes back to England but then returns to Erewhon as missionary), Hudibras (county justice Hudibras and squire Ralpho set out to reform abuse and suppress amusements; directed against Puritans; like Don Quixote)

George Eliot (Mary Ann Evans Cross) - Silas Marner or the Weaver of Raveloe (weaver Silas Marner, long ago accused of theft committed by friend; robbed of his gold; finds abandoned yellow-haired baby Eppie whom he comes to love; Squire Cass's son Dunstan disappears; Dunstan's brother Godfrey marries Nancy Lammeter; Godfrey is actually Eppie's dad but she stays with Silas), Adam Bede (1700s England: Adam Bede loves Hetty Sorrel but she loves Arthur Donnithorne), Middlemarch: A Study of Provincial Life (Dorothea Brooke marries Rev. Mr. Casaubon, a scholar, who disillusiones her and dies; she marries his cousin Will Ladislaw, forfeiting Casaubon's estate; Dr. Lydgate marries selfish Rosamond Vincy and loses his earlier medical ideals), Felix Holt the Radical (watchmaker Felix Holt loves Esther; Felix is pardoned for murder that prevented rioting; Esther chooses Felix over radical Parliament candidate Harold Transome), The Mill on the Floss (Tom Tulliver, raised at Dorlcote Mill, keeps sister Maggie from marrying Philip Wakem but she goes off with Stephen Guest, fiance of her cousin Lucy Deane), Romola (Florentine Romola marries Tito Melema and finds peace with help of Savonarola)

George Meredith - The Egoist (arrogant Sir Willoughby Patterne invites fiance Clara Middleton to his Hall but she instead marries his cousin Vernon Whitford), The Ordeal of Richard Feverel (Sir Austin Feverel tries to raise son Richard according to own education system; Richard marries Lucy Desborough; nurse Bessie Berry and uncle Austin Wentworth reconcile Austin and Lucy; Richard wounded in duel with libertine who loves Lucy), Modern Love

Lewis Carroll (Charles Dodgson) - Alice's Adventures in Wonderland (Alice, Mad Hatter, Ugly Duchess, Mock Turtle, Queen of Hearts, Cheshire Cat, Hatter, March Hare, Dormouse; illustrated by Sir John Tenniel), Through the Looking Glass (Alice goes into mirror; world is reversed; becomes white pawn in chess game with land divided by brooks and hedges; meets Humpty Dumpty, Lion, Unicorn, Tweedledum and Tweedledee, and White Knight)



Thomas Hardy -The Return of the Native (Clym Yeobright opens school on Egdon Heath and marries Eustacia Vye, who loves Damon Wildeve, who married her cousin Thomasin; Clym's eyes fail and he becomes a furze cutter; Mrs. Yeobright comes to son's house but ignored by Eustacia and dies of fatigue and adder bite; Clym blames Eustacia who drowns with Wildeve; Thomasin marries Diggory Venn; Clym becomes preacher), Tess of the D'Urbervilles (Tess Durbeyfield takes service with Mrs. D'Urberville, and has child with her son Alec; Tess becomes dairymaid and marries Angel Clare, but he leaves her because of her past; she returns to Tess but stabs him when Angel returns and is hanged), The Mayor of Casterbridge (drunk Michael Henchard sells wife Susan and daughter to sailor Newson; Michael reforms and becomes mayor)

Robert Louis Stevenson -Treasure Island (Jim Hawkins finds treasure map from sailor at mom's inn and goes on schooner Hispaniola with Dr. Livesey and Squire Trelaney to find it; Jim thwarts mutiny of Long John Silver; marooned sailor Ben Gunn helps them get treasure; blind villain Pew) The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde (Dr. Jekyll creates drug that transforms him into evil alter ego Mr. Hyde and eventually commits murder; kills self; narrated by Mr. Utterson), Kidnapped (Ebenezer puts nephew David Balfour on ship to Carolinas; David becomes friends with Jacobite Alan Breck; ship wrecks and they come ashore in Scotland), Weir of Hermiston (Archie Weir banished by judge father and loves Christina; novel unfinished), A Child's Garden of Verses (including My Shadow and The Lamplighter)

Rudyard Kipling -The Jungle Book (Mowgli raised by wolves in Indian jungle), The White Man's Burden, Kim (Kimball O'Hara raised in Lahore and roams India with Tibet lama; joins English Secret Service), Captains Courageous (spoiled Harvey Cheyne shipwrecked but rescued by fishing trawler; must work for his keep, and learns self-reliance of a mariner), Mandalay, Recessional (60th anniversary of Queen Victoria's accession), Barrack-Room Ballads (celebrates British soldiers), The Man Who Was (man kept prisoner by Russians long after Crimean War), The Man Who Would Be King (white trader Daniel Dravot and Peachey Carnehan)

take control of Kafiristan but Daniel is killed and Peachey is tortured), Plain Tales from the Hills (short stories about Anglo-Indian life, including soldiers Otheris, Learoyd, and Mulvaney), Soldiers Three (more stories like Plain Tales from the Hills)

Joseph Conrad - Heart of Darkness (1890 Belgian Congo, Congo River: narrator Marlowe searches jungle for powerful trader Kurtz; tells of exploitation of natives), Lord Jim (Jim abandons sinking Indian ship Patna, but the 800 Muslims are rescued; he lives in African trading post Patusan but his white friends betray him and murder Chief Doramin's son Dain Waris, and he is executed), The Secret Sharer, The Outcast of the Islands (Williems given native Aissa in return for throttling Almayer's trade), Nostromo: A Tale of the Seaboard (Charles Gould, owner of a silver mine in Costaguana South America, neglects wife Dona Emilia; during revolution, Gould puts "incorruptible" foreman Nostromo in charge of some silver; Nostromo buries it and is killed; others include Dr. Monygham and Paris reporter Martin Decourd), Almayer's Folly, The Nigger of the Narcissus (black sailor James Wait dies of TB; Donkin tries to stir mutiny), The Secret Agent (Verloc persuades brother-in-law Stevie to blow up Greenwich Observatory, which he does and dies; Verloc killed by wife Winnie), Victory (wanderer Axel Heyst goes to South Seas with Lena; hotel manager Schomberg loves Lena and sends men to invade Heyst's sanctuary; Lena is killed)

Arnold Bennett - Clayhanger (Edwin Clayhanger's father opposes his love for Hilda Lessways, whose husband is bigamous), The Old Wives' Tale (Five Towns: Constance Baines marries apprentice Samuel Povey and sister Sophia keeps a pension)

Elizabeth Cleghorn Gaskell - Cranford, Mary Barton (Manchester weavers), North and South, Wives and Daughters

Charles Kingsley - Westward Ho, The Water Babies

John Galsworthy - The Forsyte Saga (Irene, wife of wealthy Soames Forsyte, loves architect Philip Bosinney, but both are punished by Soames; Irene divorces and marries Young Jolyon, Soames' daughter Fleur loves Irene's son Jon; includes The Man of Property, In Chancery, To Let), A Modern Comedy, End of the Chapter

HG Wells - The War of the Worlds (Martians invade England but are killed by bacteria; 1938 radio broadcast in US caused panic), The Time Machine (inventor visits stages in degeneration of life; ape-like Morlocks eat aristocratic Eloi; eventually only crabs remain), The Invisible Man, Kipps (Arthur Kipps comes into a fortune but only becomes happy when it is embezzled), The History of Mr. Polly (Mr. Polly burns down his house), The New Machiavelli,

AE Housman - A Shropshire Lad (including To an Athlete Dying Young, When I Was One-and-Twenty)

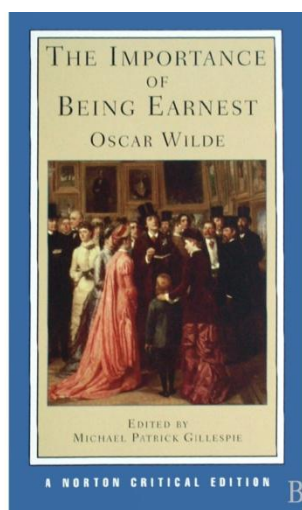
George Bernard Shaw - Man and Superman (Ann Whitefield pursues John Tanner, who talks with superman Don Juan and the Devil in Hell; others include chauffeur Henry Straker and bandit Mendoza), Adrocles and the Lion, Candida (Candida Morell stays with weak Christian Socialist clergyman husband rather than go with Eugene Marchbanks), Heartbreak House (WWI England: Ellie Dunn searches for husband among guests at sea captain's home; guests represent a modern evil; Boss Mangan [capitalist] killed by bomb; Ellie marries Capt. Shotover), Saint Joan (Joan of Arc surprised to become saint but offer to return is refused), Mrs. Warren's Profession (Mrs.

Warren admits to daughter Vivie she is a madam), *The Devil's Disciple* (American Revolution: Dick Dudgeon allows himself to be executed in place of Parson Anderson), *Back to Methuselah* (5-parts from Garden of Eden to 1920 England to AD 31920), *Pygmalion* (phonetics Prof. Henry Higgins teaches Cockney flower girl Eliza Doolittle to speak like a lady; she loves him), *Cesar and Cleopatra* (giddy teenager Cleopatra loses charm under Caesar's tutelage), *Arms and the Man* (Bulgaria: mercenary Bluntschli takes Raina from Major Sergius; title from Aeneid; made into *The Chocolate Soldier* opera by Oskar Straus), *Major Barbara* (Salvation Army major Barbara refuses "tainted" money from armament company owner Undershaft [her dad] and a whisky dealer but comes to recognize poverty not sin causes crime), *John Bull's Other Island* (Irish Larry Doyle and English Tom Broadbent; Tom gains Larry's property and girlfriend because he is ambitious and Larry is reticent)

Gerard Manley Hopkins - (sprung rhythm) *The Windhover*, *Carrian Comfort*, *The Wreck of the Deutschland* (5 nuns fleeing Germany for US drown off Welsh coast)

Anna Sewall - *Black Beauty* (kind woman rescues a horse mistreated horse with broken leg)

Bram Stoker - (Irish) *Dracula* (diary tells of Count Dracula, who feeds on blood of young women, who then become vampires; Dutch scientist Van Helsing kills the vampire; set in London and Transylvania)



Oscar Wilde - (Irish) *The Importance of Being Earnest* (Jack Worthing loves Gwendolen Fairfax but her mom Lady Bracknell objects until she learns he is actually Ernest John Moncrieff, brother of Algernon Moncrieff; Jack had created imaginary younger brother Ernest for Cecily Cardew under tutelage of Miss Prism, who marries Algernon), *The Picture of Dorian Gray* (Basil Hallward paints portrait of Dorian Gray, which deteriorates instead of Dorian as he joins Lord Henry Wotton and sins; Dorian kills Hallward, stabs picture and dies), *Salome*, *Lady Windermere's Fan* (Lady Windermere plans to leave husband for Lord Darlington because he loves Mrs. Erlynne, who turns out to be her mother, who rescues her reputation)

Twentieth Centry 1901-1999

Aldous Huxley -

Point Counter Point (Philip Quarles [Huxley] writes novel; Mark Rampion [Lawrence] and wife Mary [Frieda]; Spandrell [Baudelaire] assassinates Everard Webley [Fascist Sir Oswald Mosley]; Denis Burlap [Murry] and Beatrice Gilray [Mansfeld]), Brave New World (632 After Ford: John is a savage from NM who believes in moral choice and commits suicide in new world of collectivism and passivity; title from the Tempest), After Many a Summer Dies the Swan (Jo Stoyte CA oil magnate visits 200-year old earl), Antic Hay (teacher Theodore Gumbriel Jr quits to sell pants), Crome Yellow (Mrs. Wimbush and other eccentrics at a country house party), Heaven and Hell (effects of drug mescaline)

Sir Arthur Conan Doyle - A Study in Scarlet, The Hound of the Baskervilles (English moors: Sherlock Holmes and assistant Dr. Watson investigate death of Sir Charles Baskerville, involving an apparition and a family curse)

Dame Agatha Christie - The Mysterious Affair at Styles, Death on the Nile, Murder on the Orient Express, And Then There Were None (detective Hercule Poirot)

George Orwell - 1984 (two rebel against Big Brother [Stalin]), Animal Farm (parody of Russian Revolution; Jones' farm controlled by pig Napoleon)

Baroness Orczy (born in Hungary) - The Scarlet Pimpernel (Sir Percy Blakeney is actually Scarlet Pimpernel, rescuer of aristocrats) John Millington Synge - Playboy of the Western World (Christy Mahon treated as hero when he thinks he killed his father, but he did not die and opinion is reversed; others include Pegeen)

EM Forster - A Room with a View (Mr. Emerson offers Lucy Honeychurch, who is visiting Italy, his hotel room since it has a view; Lucy is engaged to Cecil Vyse but overcomes prejudice and marries George Emerson), Howards End (rich Wilcoxes, cultured Schlegels, and lower class Leonard Bast live in Howards End), A Passage to India (Adela Quested, visiting India with mom Mrs. Moore to see fiance City Magistrate Ronny Heaslop, accuses Dr. Aziz of assaulting her in Marabar Caves; liberal principal Mr. Fielding breaks friendship with Aziz; Adela retracts and Ronny breaks engagement), Where Angels Fear to Tread (widow Lilia Herriton goes to Italy and marries Gino Carelli and dies in childbirth; Gino refuses to let Herritons raise infant in England; Harriet Herriton abducts and accidentally kills baby), Aspects of the Novel

CS Forester - The African Queen (missionary's sister and timid Cockney engineer try to blow up a German gunboat), Horatio Hornblower stories (British navy during Napoleonic Wars)

DH Lawrence - Sons and Lovers (Paul Morel, son of coal miner and educated Puritan, becomes artist and has affairs with Miriam and Clara Dawes), Women in Love (sculptor Gudrun Brangwen loves mining industrialist Gerald Crich; her sister Ursula marries school inspector Rupert Birkin; Gerald refuses Birkin's friendship and kills self on Tyrol mountains), Plumed Serpent (Kate Leslie attends Mexican bullfight; Don Ramon and General Cipriano try to resurrect Aztec religion), Lady Chatterley's Lover (Constance Chatterley leaves husband Clifford, made impotent by a war wound, for her gameskeeper Mellors; banned as obscene), Kangaroo (Australia: Richard Lovat Somers tries to control wife Frieda Lawrence; political leader Benjamin Cooley nicknamed Kangaroo), The Man Who Died (The Escaped Cock, Christ resurrects and mates with

priestess of Isis),The Rainbow (Ursula Brangwen loves Polish exile Anton Skrebensky and attracted to feminist teacher Winifred Inger who marries her uncle),

The Rocking-Horse Winner (small boy rides self to death on toy rocking horse which prophesies horse race winners),Things (two American idealists devote lives to art, beauty, Buddhism, and culture but only collect "things"),The Woman Who Rode Away (lonely American woman sacrificed by Mexican Indian tribe)

James Joyce -Ulysses (describes June 16, 1904 in the lives of Jewish advertisement canvasser Leopold Bloom, his wife Molly, and Stephen Dedalus; parallels Odysseus, Penelope, and Telemachus; Leopold and Stephen experience exile)Finnegans Wake (presents dreams of the Earwicker family, including Protestant tavern-keeper Humphrey Chimpden Earwicker, wife Anna, and kids Isobel, Kevin, and Jerry;divine, heroic, human, and confusion ages),Dubliners (short stories of middle-class Catholics who have epiphanies, including Clay [Maria goes to family party], The Dead [Irish college teacher Gabriel Conroy and wife Gretta at Christmas dance], and The Sisters [boy confronted with death and learns priest is insane]),Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man (Stephen Dedalus grows up and leaves Dublin for Paris to become writer),Chamber Music (poems)

Virginia Woolf -Mrs. Dalloway (Clarissa Dalloway prepares to host a party; former love Peter Walsh shows up),To the Lighthouse (Mr. and Mrs. Ramsay host house party; guest Lily Briscoe is an artist;they plan to take a boat to the lighthouse the next day but son James is disappointed when weather prevents this; years later, after Mrs. Ramsay's death, Mr. Ramsay takes James to lighthouse in boat),Between the Acts (Miss La Trobe directs pageant of English history),Jacob's Room (Jacob Flanders studies at Cambridge, travels in Greece, dies in WWI) ,Mr. Bennett and Mrs. Brown (attacks Bennett, Galsworthy, and Wells),The Waves (6 kids raised together by sea; reunions with friend Percival in restaurant and at Hampton Court; storyteller Bernard, perfectionist Neville, vain Australian Louis,domestic Susan, flirtatious Jinnie, timid Rhoda),Orlando (Orlando starts as nobleman and becomes woman poet 300 years later),A Room of One's Own (feminist essay)

James Hilton - Goodbye Mr. Chips (WWI English schoolmaster Mr. Chipping), Lost Horizon (diplomat Conway visits Shangri-La utopia in Himalayas; woman he takes from there ages rapidly)

W Somerset Maugham -Of Human Bondage (orphan Philip Carey becomes country doctor and gives up love for waitress Mildred Rogers but is rescued and marries Sally Altheney),The Moon and Sixpence (stockbroker Charles Strickland leaves everything to become painter in Tahiti; based on Paul Gauguin),Cakes and Ale (Ashenden and Kear [based on Walpole] examine Victorian writer Driffield, husband of barmaid Rosie),The Razor's Edge (worldly young man converts to Hinduism),Miss Thompson (South Sea missionary Alfred Davidson temporarily converts Sadie Thompson)

Russell and Whitehead - Principia Mathematica

Bertrand Russell - Introduction to Mathematical Philosophy, The Analysis of Mind, An Inquiry into Meaning and Truth, Has Man a Future?, Unarmed Victory

Alfred Whitehead - Science and the Modern Man

Ford Maddox Ford - The Good Soldier (John Dowell discovers wife Florence is having affair with "good soldier" Captain Ashburnham, married to Leonora), Parade's End (4 novels: Some Do Not, No More Parades, A Man Could Stand Up, The Last Post; Christopher Tietjens changed by WWI trench warfare; has mental breakdown and leaves wife for Valentine Wannop)

Dame Ivy Compton-Burnett - Brothers and Sisters, Men and Wives, Two Worlds and Their Ways, Angry Young Men

Kingsley Amis - Lucky Jim, John Wain

John Braine - Room at the Top

Dylan Thomas (Welsh) - Eighteen Poems, Do not go gentle into that good night, Fern Hill, Altarwise by owl-light, Portrait of the Artist as a Young Dog, Under Milk Wood, Adventures in the Skin Trade

William Golding - Lord of the Flies (British schoolboys crash on uninhabited island; try to form organized society but revert to savagery), The Inheritors, The Spire, The Paper Men, Pincher Martin (shipwrecked man struggles to live on barren rock),

William Butler Yeats - The Tower, The Winding Stair, The Second Coming (22 lines from Michael Robartes and the Dancer collection), The Countess Cathleen (Cathleen sells soul to devil for souls of starving Irish; accompanied by nurse Oona and poet Aleel), The Herne's Egg (two Irish kings steal eggs of the sacred Great Herne and rape its priestess), Purgatory (old man and son see his mom's ghost; man kills son), A Vision

Winston Churchill - A History of the English Speaking Peoples

Malcolm Lowry (expatriate to Mexico) - Under the Volcano (British consul to Mexico Geoffrey Firmin's wife Yvonne returns to him on Day of the Dead 1938; others include his idealist half-brother Hugh and her movie director ex-lover Laruelle)

TS Eliot - (American-British) The Waste Land (5 sections explore psychic stages of a soul in despair; waste land contrasted with regeneration sources from the past; Medieval waste land ruler Fisher King cured by purifying knight), The Hollow Men (mixture of nursery rhyme and liturgy; emptiness of 1900s), Four Quartets (4 places: Burnt Norton, East Coker, Dry Salvages, Little Gidding), The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock (shy Prufrock becomes introspective at a drawing room party), Murder in the Cathedral (Thomas Becket martyred at Canterbury on Dec. 29, 1170 by four knights of Henry II), The Cocktail Party (host Edward Chamberlayne marries Lavinia but has affair with Celia; psychiatrist Henry Harcourt-Reilly), Portrait of a Lady (woman and man trapped by dying social order but can't communicate), The Family Reunion (Harry Lord Monchensey murders wife and goes to his mom Amy's birthday party; wise aunt Agatha knows he is seeing the Eumenides, avenging furies), Tradition and the Individual Talent (poet must know past to write significant poetry)

WH Auden - The Ascent of F6 (with Christopher Isherwood; Michael Ransom climbs mountain in British Sudoland that kills all by own demons), The Double Man, City Without Walls, The Age of Anxiety (three men and a woman meet in a NY bar during a war and go on a quest

through a wasteland)

J.R.R. Tolkien - Lord of the Rings (including The Fellowship of the Ring, The Two Towers, The Return of the King, sequels to The Hobbit; Third Age of Middle Earth: Lord of Darkness Sauron lost a magical ring which gives absolute power but corrupts its users; Bilbo Baggins recovered the ring and his nephew Frodo becomes heir; hobbits form a Fellowship to burn the ring at Mount Doom; Frodo and servant Sam Gamgee try to complete mission; Third Age gives way to Dominion of Man; sorcerer Gandolph)

C. Day Lewis - The Magnetic Mountain, World Above All, Poetic Image

Arthur Koestler - Darkness at Noon (Nicholas Rubashov is imprisoned by Gletkin and agrees to his execution to further revolutionary ideal)

Doris Lessing - The Children of Violence (5 novels about Martha Quest, raised in Rhodesia)

CS Lewis - The Screwtape Letters (devil Screwtape advises nephew Wormwood how to deal with humans), Problem of Pain, Mere Christianity, The Chronicles of Narnia (The Lion the Witch and the Wardrobe, Prince Caspian, The Voyage of the Dawn Treader, The Silver Chair, The Horse and His Boy, The Magician's Nephew, The Last Battle; lion Aslan and 4 children who enter Narnia through a wardrobe save the country from a witch)

James M. Barrie - Peter Pan (Peter Pan, searching for lost shadow with lost children, saves Wendy, Michael, and John Darling, from pirates under Capt. Hook; Indian princess Tiger Lily and fairy Tinker Bell protect kids) , What Every Woman Knows, The Admiral Crichton, Little Minister, Little Brutus

Harold Pinter -The Birthday Party (Stanley Webber intimidated by Goldberg and McCann),The Caretaker (Mick entrusts house to brain-damaged brother Aston who likes Davies),The Collection (gay man has affair),The Dumbwaiter (two assassins fill meal orders on a dumbwaiter while waiting for victim; one kills the other)

Graham Greene - The Power and the Glory ("whiskey priest" courageously continues ministry in 1920s Mexico)

Sean O'Casey - (Irish, drama) Juno and the Paycock (Juno Boyle fights war, poverty, and drunkenness; funny but weak husband Paycock)

Samuel Beckett - (Irish, drama)Waiting for Godot (tramps Vladimir and Estragon wait for Godot to come but he never does; Pozzo mistreats his servant Lucky),How It Is,Krapp's Last Tape (Krapp ridicules tapes of his youthful monologues),Three Novels (Malone Dies, Molloy [cripples searches for his mom; official Moran searches for the cripple], The Unnamable[narrator lives legless and armless in large jar outside a restaurant])

Exercises

I.Choose the answer that best completes the statement.

(1) The following poets are regarded as “The Lake Poets”, except_____.

- A. William Wordsworth
- B. Samuel Taylor Coleridge
- C. Robert Sauthey
- D. John Milton

(2) _____known as the Father of English literature, is widely considered the greatest English poet of the Middle Ages and was the first poet to have been buried in Poet's Corner of Westminster Abbey.

- A. John Bunyan
- B. Geoffrey Chaucer
- C. William Wordsworth
- D. Samuel Taylor Coleridge

(3) _____,written by Geoffrey Chaucer, are considered a literary classic and one of the finest works written in Middle English.

- A.The Canterbury Tales
- B. Beowulf
- C. Paradise Lost
- D. Ode to the West Wind

(4) The following plays are great tragedies written by William Shakespeare, except_____.

- A.Hamlet
- B. Othello
- C. The Merchant of Venice
- D.King Lear

(5) Jane Austin presents the quiet, day-to-day country life of the _____ English of the eighteenth century.

- A. lower-middle-class
- B. working class
- C. upper class
- D. upper-middle-class

(6) The English Renaissance period was an age of _____.

- A. poetry and drama

B.drama and novel

C. novel and poetry

D. romance and poetry

(7) A person's daily routine depended mainly on what _____ he or she belong to.

A. dynasty

B. neighborhood

C. guild

D. class

(8) The daily routine of the _____ included the most free time.

A. lady of the house

B. scullery maid

C. children's nurse

D. housekeeper

(9) When someone abdicates the throne, they _____.

A. treat the crown disrespectfully

B. treat the crown respectfully

C. coldly claim their right to it

D. give up being king or queen

(10) On her 21st birthday, Princess Elizabeth _____.

A. gave a speech vowing to serve her people

B. went out to a bar since she could legally drink alcohol

C. gave a party

D. became queen

II.Fill in the following blanks with appropriate words or expressions.

(1) _____ is the founder of English poetry.

(2) _____ is a 3182-line alliterative verse, considered the monumental work in English poetry of the Anglo-Saxon period, or the national epic of the English _____ people.

(3) _____ is the archetypal English folk hero; a courteous, pious and swashbuckling _____ outlaw of the medieval era who, in modern versions of the legend, is famous for robbing the rich to feed

the poor and fighting against injustice and tyranny.

(4) In the Elizabethan Period, _____ wrote many excellent essays, such as “Of Studies”.

(5) The collection of poetry, _____ marked the beginning of the Romantic period.

(6) Don Juan is a poem based on a traditional _____ legend of a great lover and _____ seducer of women.

(7) Daniel Defoe was famous for his novel _____ which first established his reputation.

(8) “If winter comes, can spring be far behind?” is a quote from the poem _____.

(9) Tess the D’Urbervilles is the masterpiece of _____.

(10) A _____ is a fourteen-line lyric poem with a single theme, usually written in _____ iambic pentameter.

Unit 6 Education

Cultural Training

EDUCATION

British Education System

Full-time education is compulsory in the UK for all children between the ages of 5 (4 in Northern Ireland) and 16, including the children of foreign nationals permanently or temporarily resident in the UK for a year or longer. No fees are payable in state schools, which are attended by over 90 per cent of pupils. The rest attend one of the 3,200 private fee-paying schools, which include American, international and foreign schools. A large majority of pupils stay on at school after the age of 16 or go on to higher education, but a study in 2012 showed a drop of almost 32,000 students staying in education post-16. Currently, in 2013, young people in Year 11 (England) and Year 12 (Northern Ireland) are entitled to leave compulsory education at the end of the school year in which they reach 16. However, from 2015, all young people in England will have to either be in school or on an approved training scheme until they are 18.

Most state schools (primary and secondary) are co-educational (mixed) day schools, with the exception of a few secondary schools that accept boarders. Private schools include day and boarding schools and comprise of single-sex and coeducational institutions. Admission to a state school for foreign children is dependent on the type and duration of the residence permit granted to their parents. Your choice of state and private schools varies considerably depending on where you live.

Stages of education

England:

Infant schools (Ages: 4+ to 7)

Junior schools (Ages: 7+ to 11)

Primary schools (Ages: 4+ to 11)

Middle schools (Ages: 4 - 12, 4 - 13, 8 - 12, 9 - 12, 9 - 13, 10 - 13, 10 - 14)

Secondary/High Schools (Ages: generally 11 -16 or 11 - 18)

Studio schools: for students aged 14 - 19 who require an education based on the world of work which promotes employability and citizenship

Sixth form colleges (Ages: 16 - 18)

State boarding schools: most of these accommodate those in the secondary/high school age ranges, but two offer primary provision as well (Ages: 7-18, 4-16)

Special schools: for children with more complex and long term special educational needs. Age ranges vary, and children enrolling in special schools must have a 'Statement'.

Academies: these are state schools funded directly by central government. They offer provision for any or several age ranges and accommodate for special needs.

Free schools: result of a demand for better education in the local area and are established upon the approval of the Secretary of State for Education with funding from central government

The age ranges in the English education system are becoming more varied, with some academies now proposing an all through education from the first year of statutory education to the age of 18. Furthermore, some schools in different phases of education are now federated, meaning they remain separate but are managed under one overall structure.

Scotland:

1. Primary (Ages: 4.5 - 12)

2. Secondary (Ages: 12 - 16+, 12 - 18)

3. Special (age ranges vary)

Wales:

More or less identical to the system in England, except there are no middle schools and there is one state boarding school.

More information about state boarding schools can be obtained from the State Boarding Schools' Association .

Northern Ireland:

1. Primary (Ages: 4+ to 11)
2. Post-primary (Ages: 11 - 16, 11 - 18)
3. Special (age ranges vary)

Nursery & pre-school in the UK

Attendance at a nursery school or kindergarten for children under five isn't compulsory. All children must start compulsory schooling in the term following their fifth birthday. A government scheme introduced in 1998 makes provision for part-time, 'early years' education for four-year olds from the term following their fourth birthday.

Children are guaranteed three two-and-a-half hour sessions a week at a registered play scheme or school of the parents' choice, which is one of the lowest provisions of nursery education in Europe (in Belgium and France 95 per cent of children attend a nursery school). Children from three to five years old may be catered for in local state nursery schools, in nursery schools attached to primary schools or registered play schemes.

However, the provision of state nursery schools by LEAs isn't mandatory, although LEAs must ensure that there are places at play schemes if there aren't enough state nursery schools. Admission to nursery education is usually on a first-come, first-served basis. Nursery schools have no **catchment** area and you can apply to any number of schools, although you must register your child for entry as soon as possible. One advantage of putting your child down for entry at a state nursery school attached to a primary school is that you're usually ensured your child has a place at the primary school later.

The cost of private nursery school varies. Around 6 years ago, it ranged from £50 a week or £400 a term, but it can now cost up to £15,000 a year. Average childcare costs are around £100 short term (25 hours). Some schools allow you to choose a number of morning or afternoon sessions. School hours vary, but may be from 9am to noon (morning session) and 12.15pm to 3.15pm (afternoon session).

Children who attend nursery school all day usually require a packed lunch (a mid-morning snack and drink may be provided by the school). There are over 800 nursery schools in the UK using the world-famous Montessori method of teaching.

If you're unable to get your child accepted by a state-aided nursery school, you must pay for him to attend a private pre-school playgroup. These usually cost from £2.50 to £4 a session. Many playgroups accept children from age two, but stipulate that they must be toilet trained. Informal play facilities are provided by private nursery schools and playgroups, or may be organised by parents and voluntary bodies such as the Pre-School Learning Alliance (www.pre-school.org.uk), which provides places for some 800,000 under fives. To find out where the nursery schools and playgroups are in your area, get in touch with Childcare Link (0800-096 0296).

Children attend between two and five weekly sessions of two and a half hours a day on average. Parents pay a fee each term and are encouraged to help in the running of the group. A playgroup doesn't generally provide education (just educational games) for under fives, although research has shown that children who attend play school are generally brighter and usually progress at a much faster rate than those who don't.

Nursery school is highly recommended, particularly if a child or its parents aren't of English mother tongue. After one or two years in nursery school, a child is **integrated** into the local community and is well prepared for primary school (particularly if English isn't spoken at home). A number of books are available for parents who wish to help their young children learn at home, which most educationalists agree gives children a flying start at school.

Primary school in the UK

Primary education in the UK begins at five years and in state schools is almost always co-educational (mixed boys and girls). Primary school consists mainly of first or infant schools for children aged five to seven (or eight), middle or junior schools for those aged 7 to 11 (or 8 to 12) and combined first and middle schools for both age groups.

In addition, first schools in some parts of England cater for children aged from five to eight, nine or ten, and are the first stage of a three-tier school system: first, middle and secondary. Some primary schools also provide nursery classes for children aged five.

LEAs must provide a primary school place at the start of the term following a child's fifth birthday, although some admit children earlier. If a child attends a nursery class at a primary school, he usually moves up to the infants' class at the same school, although it isn't compulsory. Entry to a primary school isn't automatic and parents must apply to the head for a place.

The transition in the other UK countries can be seen in the table in the 'Introduction' section.

In a few areas, children may take the 11-plus examination, which determines whether they go on to a grammar or high school, or to a secondary modern school.

Secondary school in Britain

Secondary schools are for children from 11 or 12 to 16 and for those who choose to stay on at school until age 18 (called 'sixth formers'). Most state secondary schools are **co-educational**, although there are many single-sex schools in Northern Ireland. Students are streamed in some secondary schools for academic subjects. The main types of secondary schools are as follows:

Middle schools - Although regarded as secondary schools, middle schools take children aged 8 or 9 who move on to senior comprehensive schools at 12 or 14.

Comprehensive Schools – Admission is made without reference to ability or aptitude. Comprehensive schools provide a full range of courses for all levels of ability, from first to sixth year (from ages 11 to 18, although some cater for 11 to 16-year-olds only) and usually take students from the local catchment area. In some counties, all secondary schools are comprehensive.

Secondary Modern Schools – Provide a general education with a practical bias for 11 to 16-year-olds who fail to gain acceptance at a grammar or high school. Like comprehensive schools, secondary modern schools cater for students from the local area.

Secondary Intermediate – Northern Ireland only. Equivalent to a comprehensive school.

Secondary Grammar Schools – Have a selective intake and provide an academic course for pupils aged from 11 to 16 or 18 years.

Studio schools: for students aged 14 - 19 who require an education based on the world of work which promotes employability and citizenship

Academies - these are state schools funded directly by central government. They offer provision for any or several age ranges and accommodate for special needs.

High Schools – Are provided in some areas for those who pass their 11-plus exam, but aren't accepted at a grammar school.

Sixth Form Colleges – Schools where 16-year-olds (e.g. from secondary modern schools) study for two years for GCE A-levels. It also takes students from comprehensive schools catering for 11 to 16-year-olds.

Technical Schools – Provide an integrated vocational education (academic and technical) for students aged from 14 to 18. Schools take part in the Technical and Vocational Education Institute (TVEI) scheme, funded by the Manpower Services Commission (MSC).

City Technology Colleges – Specialise in technological and scientific courses for children aged 11 to 18 (see below). City Technology Colleges are usually located in deprived parts of the UK.

Comprehensive schools are usually divided into five or seven year groups, with the first year having the youngest children, e.g. 11-year-olds. At the age of 16, students can take GCSE examinations or leave school without taking any exams.

After taking their GCSEs, students can usually stay on at school for the sixth form (or transfer to a 6th form college) and spend a further two or three years studying for their A-level examinations, usually in order to qualify for a place at a university. They can also retake or take extra GCSEs or study for the B.Tech or GNVQ (General National Vocational Qualification) exams at a 6th form college. Around 40 per cent of all students stay on at secondary school to take A-levels.

The average pupil:teacher ratio in most state secondary schools is around 22, although class sizes are over 30 in some schools. Teaching time is from 22 to 26 hours in secondary schools, but may be increased to boost exam results.

City technology colleges are state-aided, independent of LEAs, and are a recent innovation in state education for 11 to 18-year-olds. Their aim is to widen the choice of secondary education in disadvantaged urban areas and to teach a broad curriculum with an emphasis on science, technology, business understanding and arts technologies. Although initially received with **hostility** and **skepticism** by the educational establishment, technology colleges have proved a huge success.

State or private school

One of the most important decisions facing newcomers to the UK is whether to send their children to a state or private school. In some areas, state schools equal the best private schools, while in others (particularly in neglected inner city areas) they lack resources and may achieve poor results. In general, girls achieve much better results than boys and immigrant children (e.g. from Asia) often do particularly well. The UK's education system has had a bad press in recent years and, according to many surveys, is falling behind the leading countries, particularly in mathematics (maths) and science.

Many parents prefer to send their children to a private school, often making financial sacrifices to do so. Not so many years ago, private education was the preserve of the children of the nobility and the rich, although today around half of the parents of private school pupils were themselves educated at state schools. There has been a sharp increase in the number of children attending private schools in recent years, owing to the increasing affluence of the middle classes.

There's no legal obligation for parents in the UK to send their children to school, and they may educate them themselves or employ private tutors. This can be referred to as 'home schooling', but the legal term in England is 'education otherwise than at school'. Parents educating their children at home don't require a teaching qualification, although they must satisfy the local education authority in that the child is receiving full-time education appropriate to his or her age, abilities and **aptitudes** (they check and may test your child). Expat parents considering this possibility are advised to consult organisations such as 'Education Otherwise' for information about this option and its implications.

Choosing a state school

The quality of state schools, their teaching staff and the education they provide, varies considerably from region to region, LEA to LEA, and from school to school.

The term 'state' is used here in preference to 'public' and refers to non fee-paying schools controlled by Local Education Authorities (LEAs) and funded from state taxes and local council tax revenue (officially called maintained schools).

This is to prevent confusion with the term 'public school', used in the US (and Scotland) to refer to a state school, but which in England and Wales usually means a private fee-paying school. Private schools are officially referred to as independent schools in England and Wales.

If you live in a rural area, your LEA is one of the 39 English or eight Welsh county councils. In large cities, your LEA is the local borough council.

All state schools have a governing body usually made up of a number of parent representatives and governors (appointed by the LEA), the headteacher and other serving teachers. In Scotland, education authorities must establish school boards (consisting of elected parents and staff members) to participate in the management and administration of schools. Most state schools have a Parents and Teachers Association (PTA).

Some state schools, particularly primaries, rely on parents and charity fund raising to provide essential equipment (e.g. computers), books and **stationery**, carry out building repairs and in some cases even pay teachers' salaries.

One of the most heated debates in the last few years has been over large class sizes, although this problem is being addressed by the government: class sizes are falling (and classes tend to become smaller as pupils get older). The UK's state schools have nearly twice as many pupils per teacher than many other European countries.

Private schools are quick to point out that their small classes lead to more individual instruction and better results, which is supported by studies in other countries. There's often a huge variation between educational achievement in the same class and the UK doesn't have a system of holding back slow learners (e.g. for a year), as is widely employed in other European countries.

However, many schools have reintroduced streaming, where pupils are taught in groups, according to their ability. There's no stigma attached to streaming, which simply recognises that children learn at different rates and some are brighter than others.

Education standards in the UK

The standard of reading and writing is often weak at primary level, especially in deprived urban areas where social problems are rife. In recent years, the **gulf** between the good and bad schools has widened in both the state and private sectors.

In the worst schools, pupils have low expectations, lack ambition and aren't pushed to do their best. There is also often a culture amongst children to **sneer** at high achievers, and teachers sometimes focus on less gifted pupils at the expense of the intelligent ones. However, these cases exist in other countries too and cannot be generalised for education levels in the UK as a whole.

There can be a considerable difference in examination results between schools, even those in the same area. Good schools are said to be getting better, while bad schools are getting worse.

Types of school in the UK

There are two kinds of state school in the UK: county schools, and voluntary-aided and voluntary controlled schools, which are described below.

Foundation schools

At foundation schools, the governing body employ the school's staff and have primary responsibility for admission arrangements. The school's land and buildings are owned by the governing body or a charitable foundation. Many of these schools were formerly grant-maintained schools which were phased out in 1999.

Voluntary-aided & Voluntary controlled schools

Voluntary-aided and voluntary controlled schools provide primary and secondary education, and are financially maintained by Local Education Authorities (LEAs). The difference is that voluntary-aided school buildings are, in many cases, the responsibility of voluntary bodies (e.g. a church or a foundation).

Schools with C of E (Church of England) or Catholic in their name may be aided schools.

Once you've made the decision to send your child to a state school, most experts advise that you stick to it for at least a year to give it a fair trial. It may take your child this long to adapt to the change of environment and the different curriculum, particularly if English isn't their mother tongue.

Curriculum

The Education Reform Act of 1988 established the progressive introduction of a national curriculum in primary and secondary schools, for the years of compulsory schooling from 5 to 16.

This means that children in all parts of the England and Wales now receive the same basic education, which makes comparisons between how children are performing at different schools easier and facilitates transfers between schools. Before the national curriculum, headteachers (also called headmasters or headmistresses) in England and Wales were responsible for determining the curriculum in their schools in conjunction with LEAs and school governors.

The national curriculum consists of eleven subjects which all children must study at school: English, mathematics, science, history, geography, information and communication technology (ICT), music, art and design, physical education (PE), design and technology (D&T) and a modern foreign language (in secondary schools from 11 years). English, mathematics and science are termed 'core' subjects, because they help children to study other subjects, and are compulsory up to GCSE level.

Other subjects are termed 'foundation' subjects. The core subjects plus technology and a modern language are often referred to as the 'extended core'. In Wales, Welsh-speaking schools teach Welsh as a core subject and other schools in Wales teach Welsh as a foundation subject (although this has caused some dissension among English-speaking parents, when pupils are forced to learn Welsh against their parent's wishes). Religious education must be part of the curriculum and is decided locally. Parents can, however, decide whether their child takes part.

Schooling is divided into four 'key stages', which help parents know what their children are learning at various ages. Parents receive a report containing the results of Standard Assessment Tests (SATs) at the end of each key stage (at ages 7, 11, 14 and 16), based on national attainment targets.

In key stages 1 and 2, English, maths, science, information and communication technology (ICT), history, geography, art and design, music, design and technology (D&T) and PE are taught. In key stage 3, a modern foreign language and citizenship are added. In key stage 4, compulsory subjects are English, maths, science, ICT, D&T, PE, citizenship and a modern foreign language. Pupils must also study sex and religious education at all stages, although parents have the right to withdraw children from these lessons. In stage 3, children aged 11 to 14 should have 20 per cent of their timetable free for subjects other than the statutory requirements, increasing to 40 per cent in stage 4.

Other subjects may be taught in addition to the national curriculum and religious education, and are decided by individual schools. All schools are required to publish information in their prospectus and the governing body's annual report about what's taught at the school. Children with special education needs also follow the national curriculum, where possible.

In Scotland, there's no set national curriculum and education authorities and individual headteachers decide what is taught. There are, however, national guidelines suggesting that the following subjects be taught between the ages of 5 and 14: English, mathematics, environmental studies (including science, social subjects, technology and health), expressive arts (including art, design, music, drama and physical education), and religious and moral education.

These form the core area and are supplemented by other activities, which make up the elective area. Provision is made for teaching Gaelic in Gaelic-speaking areas. Standard tests are held in English and mathematics for 9 and 12-year-olds.

In Northern Ireland, there's a common curriculum for all schools with several areas of study, including: English; maths; science and technology; history and geography; creative and expressive area of study (art and design, music and physical education); religious education; and four educational cross-curricular themes (education for mutual understanding, cultural heritage, health education and information technology), which aren't separate subjects, but included within the other subjects.

All secondary school pupils study a European language and the Irish language is available in Irish-speaking schools only. Secondary schools are known as Post-primary schools in Northern Ireland. There are also grammar schools and admission to these depends on the results of two Transfer tests examining pupils' knowledge in English, maths, science and technology.

The national curriculum has already been revised and is expected to be modified over the coming years to counter problem areas and to take into account the changing face of education and training. For further information about the National Curriculum, consult the relevant section on the official Department for Education website or call on 0370 0000 2288.

Examinations

Before the introduction of comprehensive schools, the 11-plus examination was sat by all pupils in England and Wales at the age of around 11, and was the major turning point in a child's schooling. The major objection to the 11-plus was that it decided a child's future education at too young an age and left little room for late developers (very few children who failed the 11-plus made it into higher education).

However, the 11-plus hasn't quite passed into history and it's still taken by primary school pupils in a few areas.

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland, the main examination usually taken at age 16 after five years of secondary education is the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). The General Certificate of Education Advanced (A) level may be taken after a further two years of study. In Scotland, the main examination is the Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE). SCE

standard (ordinary) grade is taken after four years of secondary education and the SCE Higher grade (highers) after a further two years.

Passes in the GCE A-level and SCE Higher grade exams are the basis for entry to further education, and are recognised by all British and European universities and most American colleges. In recent years, there has been a debate over whether GCSE and A-level standards are falling, although GCSE and A-level results remain the best guide to a school's teaching standards. The examinations held in England, Wales and Northern Ireland are described below.

General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE)

In 1988, the GCSE examination replaced the General Certificate of Education (GCE) Ordinary (O-level) and the Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE) examinations. The GCSE differs from its predecessors in that the syllabi are based on national criteria covering course objectives; content and assessment methods; differentiated assessment (i.e. different papers or questions for different ranges of ability) and grade-related criteria (i.e. grades awarded on absolute rather than relative performance).

Coursework forms part of the assessment of GCSE results, depending on the subject and the examination board, and can vary from 30 per cent to as much as 70 per cent. However, coursework is debated by some as making the GCSE too easy, so the Education Secretary intends to introduce tougher exams and no coursework, which will come into effect in September 2015.

When children reach the end of the third year of secondary education, they choose GCSE subjects with the help of teachers and parents (there's no restriction on entry to any examination).

Pupils sit their GCSEs at the age of 16 or earlier – e.g. if they're exceptionally gifted. Generally, five or six GCSE at grades A to C are required by children who intend to take A-levels and go on to higher education.

Advanced & Advanced Supplementary Levels (A levels & AS levels)

General Certificate of Education (GCE) Advanced level (A-level) examinations are usually taken during the two years after GCSE, at sixth form college (age 17 or 18) by those who wish to go on to higher education. In 2002, A-levels were changed somewhat in response to criticisms that standards had fallen (in recent years there has been a sharp rise in the number of A-level passes, particularly in top grades A and B, and many educationalists believe that exams and marking are deliberately being watered down in order to increase pass rates) and to encourage students to have greater flexibility in subjects.

Students in their first year of A-levels can decide how many A-levels they wish to study. Each A-level has six units, which may be taken over two years (modular) or at the end of the two years (linear). Coursework may form part of the A-level units and there's a ceiling of 30 per cent coursework in most subjects, but this varies largely. The first year of A-level study is known as 'AS' (see below) and the second year as 'A2'.

Advanced Supplementary level (AS-level) examinations may be taken during the first and second years of A-levels and consist of three units. An AS-level is graded as half an A-level and therefore two AS-level passes are usually accepted as the equivalent of one A-level pass. AS-level courses are intended to supplement and broaden A-level studies and examinations are graded A to E (as for A-level grades).

Advanced Education Awards (AEAs) were introduced by the government in 2002, to replace the old Scholarship levels (S-levels), although it's expected that AEAs will be taken by more students than the S-levels, which were somewhat elitist. AEAs aim to stretch the most able A-level students and to help differentiate between them, particularly in subjects where there's a

high proportion of 'A' grades at A-level. At present AEs are available in 20 A-level subjects (biology, chemistry, economics, English, French, geography, German, history, Irish, Latin, maths, physics, religious education, Spanish, Welsh, Welsh as a second language, business studies, computing, design and technology, and psychology).

Scotland has its own examination system, the Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE) standard (ordinary) and higher grade examinations. The standard grade (roughly equivalent to the GCSE) is taken at age 15 and the higher grade is usually taken at the age of 17 or 18. The Scottish Certificate of Sixth Year Studies (SCSYS) is a further qualification for pupils who stay on at school after passing the SCE higher grade. Some Scottish private schools set GCE A-levels as well as SCE higher grade.

The Certificate of Pre-vocational Education (CPVE) is a nationally-recognised award for 17-year-olds doing an extra year at school or college.

To gain acceptance to a university in the UK, a student usually requires at least two A-level passes (grades A to E). This is the minimum; to study some courses more passes and high grades are necessary, e.g. to study law and medicine, you usually require three A grade passes, while the requirement for some other courses may be two B grade passes and one C. If you receive an unexpectedly low grade in an exam, you can appeal to your school. There's a fee for most appeals, but if you're successful, the fee is returned. If you're going to appeal, do so as soon as possible, as an A-level course, a college or university place, or a job may rest on the outcome.

Special concessions are made for dyslexic children taking GCSE and A-level exams, which allow them to use an amanuensis or word processor to write answers and to have exam questions read out to them or recorded on tape.

Private schools

Private fee-paying schools are officially termed independent schools (although historically referred to as public schools) because they're independent of local or central government control.

The UK is renowned for the quality and variety of its private schools, which include such world-famous schools as Charterhouse, Eton, Harrow, Roedean, Rugby, Westminster and Winchester.

Many private schools, including many of the most famous names, are run as charitable foundations. Schools may be owned by an individual, an institution or a company and, although traditionally the preserve of the wealthy, they attract an increasing number of pupils from less privileged backgrounds.

Around 50 per cent of parents who choose a private education for their children were themselves educated in the state sector. There are some 2,600 private day and boarding schools across the United Kingdom, educating around 630,000 school children. The proportion of pupils attending independent schools in England is currently 7.2%. Schools mostly take pupils from the ages of 2 to 19 and include boarding (from the age of 5) and day schools (some are both), single-sex and coeducational schools. Some schools cater for special educational needs and there are also private schools for gifted children in art, music, theatre or dance.

With regards to expatriates, most expats who come to the UK arrive on a limited term contract. For this reason, they need to consider how their children's education will transition back to their own country or to the next country to which they are posted.

Among the private schools in the UK there are many which follow special or **unorthodox** methods of teaching, for example Montessori nursery schools and Rudolf Steiner schools. All private schools must meet certain minimum criteria and be registered with the Department of Education and Science.

Private education fees in the UK

Although fee-paying, most private schools aren't run for private profit and all surplus income is reinvested into the running of schools. Private schools receive no grants from public funds and are owned and managed by special trusts. Most schools have a board of governors who look after the school and its finances. The headteacher is responsible to the governors, but usually has a free hand to choose staff and make day-to-day decisions.

Fees vary considerably depending on a variety of factors, including the age of pupils, the reputation and quality of the school, and its location (schools in the north of England are generally cheaper than those in the south). Fees range from under £3,000 to £21,000 and above per year for day pupils, rising to £27,000+ per year for boarders. The fees also increase with the age of the pupil, senior school fees being appreciably more expensive than preparatory school fees.

Day pupils at boarding schools would pay an extra £1,000 in private school fees on average. Boarding school fees for boarders cost on average £7,800 per term.

Private schools for boys are generally more expensive than those for girls. Fees aren't all-inclusive and additional obligatory charges are made in addition to optional extra services. There are also commercial tutorial colleges or 'crammers', providing a one-term or one-year preparation course for students who need intensive tutoring for either GCSE or A-level exams. There are also courses for students who have failed one or more of the exams and need to re-sit them. All are expensive, compared even to the top independent schools. They achieve results through a strong focus on academic work.

Private school fees tend to increase by an average of 5 to 10 per cent annually (unless you're rich or someone else is paying, start saving before you have any children). Many companies and banks specialise in insurance and investment policies for parents planning to send their children to private schools.

Many senior, and some junior schools, provide scholarships for bright or talented pupils, which vary in value from full fees to a small proportion. Scholarships are awarded as a result of competitive examinations.

Types of school

Private schools range from nursery (kindergarten) to large day and boarding schools, and from experimental schools to traditional institutions. A number of independent schools are also available for religious and ethnic minorities, for example schools for Muslims, where there's a strict code regarding the segregation of boys and girls.

Most private schools are single-sex, almost equally split between boys' and girls' schools, but there are a number of mixed schools (co-educational) and a number of boys' schools admit girls to their sixth forms (by which time sex education is part of the curriculum). Coeducational boarding schools form the largest number of boarding schools, but there are over 50 girls-only boarding schools and around 20 boys boarding schools.

Most private junior schools (also called preparatory or prep schools) cater for boys from the age of 7 to 13 years, but some are for girls only and an increasing number are co-educational. Junior schools usually prepare pupils for the Common Entrance Examination (CEE) to senior private schools, which is a qualifying exam to test whether prospective pupils will be able to cope

with the standard of academic work required. The CEE is set by the CEE board and is marked by the school which the pupil plans to attend. It's completed at 13 by boys and at 11 to 13 by girls.

Entrance to a private school in Britain

Entrance to many schools is by an exam (e.g. the CEE), a report or assessment, or an interview. Most private schools provide a similar curriculum to state schools and set the English GCSE and GCE A-level examinations. Some Scottish schools set the Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE) at standard (ordinary) and higher grades. Private school pupils can also take the International Baccalaureate (IB) examination, an internationally recognised university entrance qualification.

There are many advantages to private schools, not least their excellent academic record. According to one survey, pupils at private preparatory schools are nine times more likely to achieve 100 per cent passes in the national tests than those at state junior schools. Three out of four children gain five or more GCSE ordinary level passes, more than half gain two or more GCE A-levels and more than two-thirds gain one or more.

Although private school pupils make up less than 10 per cent of the total, they take 35 per cent of the top GCE A-levels and provide over 25 per cent of university students, i.e. a student from a private school is almost four times as likely to go on to university as a student from a state school. Some private secondary schools have a near 100 per cent university acceptance rate and half of all 'Oxbridge' (Oxford and Cambridge universities) entrants are educated at private schools.

Don't assume, however, that all private schools are excellent or that they all offer a better education than state schools. Over recent years, there has been a rapid expansion in private education, which some analysts believe has led to a reduction in standards in some schools. Some have expanded too fast and increased their class sizes considerably, particularly in areas of high demand, such as London and the south-east, and a number have been criticised by government ministers for their poor standards. Nevertheless, if you can afford it, it is worth the investment because of the extremely high level of teaching.

Curriculum

There is a vast choice of curricula available at private schools in the UK. This is only a brief outline of the established program, but for detailed information on different curricula, check with individual schools.

The UK Government establishes the National Curriculum for all UK State Schools. Private schools, however are not obliged to follow the National Curriculum but they often do, adding extra subject areas as they wish.

For example, private schools are known to teach modern languages, and even Latin, from a very young age. From before the age of 14, Maths and English are the core subjects. It is worth asking if the school streams pupils into sets based on ability, so that more gifted students can progress more quickly and struggling pupils receive enhanced tuition.

When looking at potential schools for their children, parents must consider how well that school prepares pupils for the Common Entrance Examinations at 11, 12 or 13 so that they can get into their first choice senior school.

From ages 14 to 16, most private schools offer GCSEs or the IB (International Baccalaureate) Middle Years Program. The majority of UK private schools teach the GCSE curriculum. However, grade inflation in normal GCSEs have pushed most boarding schools to adopt the iGCSEs, which is the international version with a more flexible curriculum.

Note that it is extremely difficult to transfer to a UK school midway through GCSEs. The alternative to GCSEs is the IB Middle Years Program. However, of the 70+ IB schools only 6 offer the IB MYP and only one of those has boarding facilities.

A Level vs. IB Diploma Program vs. Pre-U

The choice of curriculum after GCSE or IB MYP deserves a sub-heading because it is vast. The most commonly taken senior curriculum is the A-Level, which is, like the GCSE, taken over a 2 year period.

Usually pupils choose four subjects in the first year (age 16) and take Advanced Subsidiary (AS) level examinations at the end of the year. In the second year they often drop one subject and take three subjects to A-Level to end up with their 3 A-Level passes.

A-Levels have a number of UCAS tariff points allocated to the exam grades obtained ranging from A* to E. If you want to get into a top 30 UK University, you will need a combination of the top grades (A*, A and B). There are well over 40 possible A Level subjects, but most schools offer between 20 and 25 subject choices.

The IB Diploma Program is becoming increasingly popular among UK schools because not only is it an international qualification highly rated by UCAS but it is also transferrable between one country to another on the same syllabus.

It again applies to a 2 year period from age 16, but the main difference is that you have to choose one subject from each of six groups, taking Maths, a Modern Language and a Science as a minimum. It is a broad curriculum best suited to “all-rounders” who are well organised. For this reason, it is given higher UCAS tariff points than equivalent A-Level subjects.

In recent years, elite UK private schools have been put off by the grade inflation associated with A-Levels but are reluctant to switch to IB as it is too general - so they worked with Cambridge International Examinations to create a new syllabus called the Pre-U Diploma Program.

This involves more teaching hours than A-Levels and is more comprehensive, resulting in higher UCAS tariff points. There is no intermediate examination like the AS-Level. The key distinction with the Pre-U Diploma is that it offers total freedom with the choice of subjects.

Scotland has its own system of Highers and Advanced highers exams, which are roughly equivalent to AS and A-Levels and are equally valid for entry into universities. Scottish universities also tend to be cheaper than English universities.

School uniforms are generally considered to be a mark of identity, pride and discipline in private schools (some ‘public’ schools, such as Eton, have a particularly eccentric mode of dress). Parents should be prepared to buy school an everyday school uniform for their child, as well as sports kit.

Enrolling in a private school

Make applications to private schools as far in advance as possible (before conception for the best schools). Obviously, if you’re coming from abroad, you won’t usually be able to apply one or two years in advance, which is usually considered to be the best time to book a place. It isn’t usually simply a matter of selecting a school and telling the head when you will be bringing little Cecil or Gertrude along. Although many nursery and junior schools accept pupils on a first-come, first-served basis, the best and most exclusive schools have waiting lists or a demanding selection procedure.

Most popular schools, particularly day schools in the greater London area and other cities, have long waiting lists. Don't rely on enrolling your child in a particular school and neglect other alternatives, particularly if the chosen school has a rigorous entrance examination. When applying, you're usually requested to send previous school reports, exam results and records. Before enrolling your child in a private school, ensure that you understand the withdrawal conditions in the school contract.

Higher education in the UK

Post-school education is generally divided into higher and further education. Higher education is usually defined as advanced courses of a standard higher than A-levels or equivalent and usually refers only to first degree courses.

Courses may be full-time, part-time or sandwich courses (nothing to do with food, but courses which combine periods of full-time study with full-time training and paid work in industry and commerce). Degree level courses are offered by 89 universities (48 old universities and 41 new universities which were formerly polytechnics), plus 15 Scottish central institutions and hundreds of Colleges of Higher Education (CHE), many of which provide teacher-training courses.

The UK is internationally renowned for the excellence of its universities and other higher education establishments, which include the world-famous Oxford (12th century) and Cambridge (13th century) universities (collectively referred to as Oxbridge).

The age of admission to university is usually 18 (although they admit exceptional students at a younger age) and courses usually last for three years or four years. This is seen as a big advantage for foreign students from countries where courses often last much longer and as a result, one in ten students in the UK come from overseas.

There are also many American colleges in the UK, mainly in the London area. For information contact The US-UK Fulbright Commission, Battersea Power Station, 188 Kirtling Street, London, SW8 5BN, www.fulbright.co.uk).

In the last decade, there has been a boom in higher education and around 50 per cent of all school leavers now attend university. Many universities have lowered their entrance qualifications to attract more students and also because of falling standards among the UK's school leavers.

In recent years, there has been a debate about the 'dumbing down' of higher education, as some universities accept students who failed their A-levels to fill empty places (universities face financial penalties if they don't enrol sufficient students). Some universities also 'mark up' students who fail their exams and many people believe that the standards of today's degrees have been watered down and are far lower than they were 20 or 30 years ago. However, UK universities still feature amongst the top ranking higher education institutions in the world and continue to produce positive results.

British university fees

The situation regarding tuition fees in the UK has changed considerably over the past ten years. In 2004 tuition was increased from £1,000 to £3,000 a year. Maximum fees then increased to £3,290, before an extensive debate which resulted in the government allowing Universities to charge up to £9,000 a year for students' annual tuition costs from 2012. Students are entitled to loans from the government to help them cover the costs. Furthermore, grants are available for students whose parents have a substantially low income. In Scotland, the situation is different. Tuition fees were first abolished in Scotland due to devolution, and replaced with charge after graduation. The endowment system was later eliminated so that all students domiciled and studying in Scotland were not required to cover tuition costs.

Student loans for studying in the UK

The main finance package offered to students courtesy of the UK's 'Student Finance' scheme, includes a:

- Tuition Fee Loan
- Maintenance Loan (full-time students only)
- Maintenance Grant (full-time students only)

Tuition Fee Loans cover the cost of the course and are available to English or EU full-time or part-time students. The loan is paid directly to the university or college but has to be paid back. Generally speaking, full-time students are entitled to up to £9,000 of aid, while full-time students in a private university or college get a contribution of £6,000. As for part-time students, the general amount is £6,750, but part-timers at a private university college receive a contribution of £4,500.

Only full-time English students can receive a Maintenance Loan for living costs. Part-time and EU students and students of 60 years and over aren't eligible. However, if you are an English national who has returned to be part of UK higher education, this may apply to you. During the application, you may have to give details of your household income. The loan is paid directly into your bank account at the start of term and this too must be paid back. The Maintenance Loan covers those living at home (£4,375), those living away from home outside London (£5,500), those living away from home in London (£7,675) and those doing courses which involve a year studying abroad (£6,535).

Grants

In addition to loans, students can apply for financial help from 'access funds' which colleges can distribute at their discretion to their most needy students. When you arrive at university, you are informed about student loans and the access fund by your college administration department or the student union. Banks also offer students interest-free overdrafts, although these should be treated with caution.

The requirements for receiving a Maintenance Grant are the same as those for a maintenance loan, except students are also required to state their course start date and grants don't have to be paid back but the amount of Maintenance Loan is reduced as a result. If you're eligible, you can use the Student Finance Calculator to work out how much you can get in relation to your household income.

EU students

Loans covering fees and living expenses are also given to European Union (EU) nationals and their children working in the UK, and to officially recognised refugees and their children. EU nationals who are normally resident within the union area are eligible for tuition fee loans on the same basis as British residents, but must pay their own living expenses.

With the exception of these loans, authorities can give grants covering fees and living expenses only to students who have been resident in the UK (or the Channel Islands or Isle of Man) for the three years immediately before the first year of their course. The factors determining the size of a grant are complex, but depend largely on a student's financial resources and those of his parents. Tuition fees for EU students range from £6,030 to £16,650 (maximum by far, Edinburgh) across UK universities.

Non-EU students

Overseas students from outside the EU must pay the full cost of their courses and living expenses. This includes non-EU, EEA nationals unless they've been migrant workers in the UK or are the child or spouse of an EEA migrant worker. Fees for overseas students range from £8,150 to £31,494 (Cambridge) across UK universities. There are, however, public and private scholarships and award schemes available to overseas students, particularly at postgraduate level.

These are provided by the British government, the British Council, universities and individual colleges, and by a number of private trusts and professional bodies. Details of grants are available from around 80 British Council offices worldwide and from a comprehensive website (www.educationuk.org/scholarships). Even with a grant, you must be able to support yourself during your studies.

Young people aged 16 to 18 who have been admitted into the UK with their families or otherwise, may be permitted to continue their education at school or at a post-school establishment provided by LEAs. Fees may be payable and students must have an adequate knowledge of English and show evidence of suitable entry qualifications.

A foreign national over 18 who wishes to study full-time in the UK on a course lasting longer than six months (and which leads to a professional or educational qualification) must provide evidence of his educational qualifications and his financial means. Evidence must be given to the educational establishment and to the immigration authorities.

Cost of living

The estimated annual living costs for students (excluding course fees) are at least £1,000 a month in London and around £600-650 elsewhere. Financial hardship has caused a big increase in student drop-outs in recent years, with one in eight students abandoning study to find a job.

Many universities have job clubs to help students supplement their income and this is popular with a considerable amount of students. Overseas students studying in the UK for longer than six months are entitled to free healthcare from the National Health Service.

Students on shorter courses also benefit if their home country has a reciprocal health agreement with the UK; otherwise they should take out private health insurance.

Entrance qualifications for British universities

The usual minimum qualification for entrance to a university is a mixture of GCE A-levels and AS-levels or SCE highs (set in Scotland). Generally, the better the university (or the better the reputation) and the more popular the course, the higher the entrance qualifications.

Applicants usually need a minimum of two or three A-level passes and three GCSE passes (minimum grade C), including a foreign language and English and mathematics. The minimum entrance requirements are set by individual universities and colleges and vary considerably.

However, universities also take into account your suitability to the course and certain skills you have, and some may even require an admissions test, interview or audition. Furthermore, meeting the entry requirements does not necessarily guarantee you a place. If you're offered a conditional place, the university may set conditions which may be either higher or lower than entry requirements, and these must be met.

The basic A-level entry requirement for most diploma courses is an A-level E grade and many colleges of higher education and universities accept students with a couple of A-level D

grades. Universities and other institutions are usually flexible in their entrance requirements, particularly with regard to 'mature' students (anyone 21 or over) and those with qualifications other than A-levels. Some 20 per cent of university students are aged over 35.

Generally, overseas students' qualifications, which would admit them to a university in their own country, are taken into consideration.

However, passes in particular GCSE or A-level subjects (or equivalent) may still be required. Whatever your qualifications, all applications are considered on their merits. Some universities have been forced to lower entrance requirements, particularly for science and engineering courses, due to a drop in GCE A-level standards (some have also extended engineering courses from three to four years).

All foreign students require a thorough knowledge of English, which is usually examined unless a certificate is provided. British universities accept the International Baccalaureate (IB) certificate as an entrance qualification, but a US high school diploma isn't often accepted. Contact individual universities for detailed information.

Courses

The university academic year runs from September or October to June or July and is generally divided into three terms of 8 to 10 weeks or two semesters of around 15 weeks. Students can choose to study a main subject plus one or two subsidiary subjects, one subject on its own, or a joint honours degree whereby both subjects represent equal weighting in the degree. Courses are generally three years in length but many students choose a sandwich course, which includes a year spent working in industry or commerce. Language degrees usually include a compulsory year abroad.

Types of university degrees in the UK

The most common degrees awarded are a Bachelor of Arts (BA) and a Bachelor of Science (BSc). Bachelor's degrees are given a classification, the highest of which is an 'honours' degree, which is awarded when the course included extra detail in the main subject. The highest pass is a first-class degree, which is obtained from an average of 70% and above and considered 'excellent'. Second-class degrees classified as 2.1 (60-70%, very good) and 2.2 (50-60%, average) are most frequent, while a third-class degree (less than 50%) is poor.

The lowest classification is a 'pass'. Second, or 'postgraduate', degrees are usually a Master of Arts (MA) or a Master of Science (MSc), which are awarded to Bachelors for a one-year course in a subject other than their undergraduate subjects. Students who do postgraduate work in the same subject(s) as their undergraduate work, usually do a two-year Master of Philosophy (M-Phil) or a three-year Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) research programme. In some Scottish universities, a Masters degree is awarded as the first degree in arts subjects.

Graduates who wish to qualify as teachers must do a four-year Bachelor of Education (BEd) degree course or a one-year post-graduate training course at a university or teacher training college (known as a Postgraduate Certificate of Education or PGCE).

Applications

All applications to UK universities for full-time courses are made through UCAS, the Universities and Colleges Admissions Service. The UCAS website includes all the British universities as well as 300 other college institutions. If it is a part-time course that you wish to do, you have to contact the universities individually to find out how to apply.

To apply through UCAS, you can use their online application procedure 'Apply', via the UCAS website. UCAS works closely with schools, colleges, libraries and other agencies to make sure that all applicants can access the system.

Usually, the application process goes as follows:

- From March to September, you should be researching and making choices about universities and courses. Open days, conferences and HE fairs/conventions take place between these two months. Make as many visits as you can to get your own impression about your shortlisted universities, then you can apply from mid-September.
- 15th October is the UCAS deadline for applications to Cambridge or Oxford or for courses in medicine, dentistry or veterinary science/medicine at any university.
- 15th January is the UCAS deadline for all other applications, to be treated equally from the UK or elsewhere in the EU (except some art and design courses). Applications are normally accepted after this date but are marked 'late'. You are encouraged to apply well before the 15th January deadline to enable schools to add such things as references, and check personal statements and choices. The application should include five course choices.
- Between February and July, those who were unlucky enough not to get any of their five choices can use UCAS Extra to make a sixth choice of university. If an offer is received, students select to accept or decline. If they still don't receive an offer, students have the option to make a sixth choice until they receive an offer or run out of time.
- On February 25th UCAS Extra applicants can refer themselves to another choice.
- March 24th is the extended deadline for some art and design courses. See the UCAS website for details of these courses.
- UCAS aim to publish universities and colleges' decisions by 31st March for applications received by 15th January, but they can take longer.
- 8th May is when you have to reply to any offers you received by 31st March, unless you are applying via UCAS Extra. If UCAS does not receive your reply by this date, they will decline the offers on your behalf.
- By 9th May, universities need to have sent their decisions to UCAS for the sake of those who applied by 15th January.
- If UCAS only received decisions by 9th May, you must reply to these offers by 6th June, unless you are applying through UCAS Extra.
- 27th June is the deadline for replying to any offers than UCAS received by 7th June.
- If UCAS receive your application by 30th June, they will send it to your chosen universities or colleges. All applications received after this date will be sent into clearing, where students are matched to universities in need of students.
- In July, results are published for BTEC and IB qualifications. Students taking these qualifications do not have to wait for the August clearing process to confirm their place or check for vacancies.
- 3rd July is the deadline to apply via UCAS Extra.
- By 18th July, UCAS need to have made their decision on applications made by 30th June.
- 25th July is when you have to reply to decisions made by 18th July, and this includes UCAS Extra applicants. This is also the deadline for making changes to replies.
- SQA (Scottish qualification) results are published and the Scottish clearing vacancy service starts on 6th August.

- 20th September is the deadline for accepting applications for courses starting the same year.
- 22nd October is the deadline for adding a clearing choice and for universities and colleges to accept an applicant in clearing.

Further education

Further education generally embraces everything except first degree courses taken at universities and colleges of higher education, although the distinction between further and higher education is often blurred.

Further education courses may be full or part-time and are provided at universities, colleges of technology, technical colleges (often referred to as 'tecs'), Colleges of Further Education (CFE), Adult and Community Colleges, and by numerous 'open learning' institutions. Each year, half a million students attend further education courses at universities alone, which are often of short duration and job-related, although courses may be full or part-time and may include summer semesters.

Qualifications that can be earned through further education include GCSE, GCE A-level, International Baccalaureate, BTEC (e.g. higher national certificate and diploma), SCOTVEC, City and Guilds, bachelors and masters degrees, MBA degrees, and a range of other nationally and internationally recognised certificates and diplomas. Qualifications for school-leavers include National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) and General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs).

The Business and Technical Education Council (BTEC) organises over 250 courses, designed with the co-operation of major companies in various fields, available in colleges, training centres and companies. BTEC (SCOTVEC in Scotland) courses are a combination of academic and practical, and cover everything from computer studies to engineering, catering to travel and tourism. BTEC trains over 200,000 new students each year and offers three course levels leading to the BTEC first, BTEC national, and BTEC higher national certificates and diplomas.

Many further education courses are of the open learning variety where students study mostly at home. Institutions include some 50 correspondence colleges which offer literally hundreds of academic, professional and vocational courses, and enrol many thousands of students each year.

Most correspondence colleges are private commercial operations, although there are a few exceptions, including the National Extension College (NEC), which has no entry qualifications. NEC courses are generally acknowledged to be among the best in open learning and include GCSE, A-levels, general education, business skills, and personal development courses. For information contact NEC, Michael Young Centre, Purbeck Road, Cambridge CB2 8 HN (01223-400 321, www.nec.ac.uk).

Open learning courses in accounting, management, marketing, supervisory skills, small businesses, health and care, retailing, information technology, and engineering are run by the Open College (OC), which has regional offices in London, Manchester, Glasgow, Belfast and 80 local centres.

The Open College of the Arts is an educational trust that caters for those wishing to develop their artistic abilities, but who wish or need to work from home. Courses include art and design, creative writing, drawing, painting, textiles, sculpture, garden design, photography, singing, the history of art, music and camcorders. For information write to the Open College of the Arts, Registration Department, Freepost SF10678, Barnsley S75 1BR (0800-731 2116, www.oqa-uk.com).

Some institutions such as the Open University and Warwick University Business School offer distance learning Master of Business Administration (MBA) courses for those who cannot or don't wish to study on a full or part-time, locally taught basis. There are around 70 institutions offering MBA courses, which together accept some 15,000 students (many from overseas).

The Open University alone enrolls some 10,000 managers each year, making it the largest business education institute in the UK. Many other business schools offer MBA courses, covering subjects such as banking, business administration, communications, economics, European languages, information systems, management, marketing, public relations, and social and political studies. Fees for a full-time MBA are around £10,000 a year, although those at the London Business School are over £20,000 a year for two years (plus a further £10,000 a year in living costs).

The UK Basic Skills Unit, Commonwealth House, 1-19 New Oxford Street, London WC1A 1NU (020-7405 4017, www.basic-skills.co.uk) was established in 1980 and is the national unit in England and Wales for literacy, numeracy and related communication skills. It also has a limited, but important, role in the development of English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL).

The unit publishes a wide range of information leaflets and booklets, including a comprehensive Publications catalogue. General information about adult education and training is available free in many towns and cities from educational guidance units (usually part of the public library service) and adult guidance agencies.

In London, many further education courses are listed in Full-Time Floodlight, Part-Time Floodlight and Summertime Floodlight, London's guide to April to August courses (published by Floodlight Publishing, www.floodlight.co.uk).

Master education in the UK

The United Kingdom is one of the most multicultural societies in Europe. People from all over the world come to obtain a postgraduate degree and enjoy the freedom to explore new ideas.

British universities are ranked among the best in the world, with higher education establishments such as Oxford and Cambridge being renowned for their academic excellence. Besides traditional universities, British education also enjoys popularity, because most universities tend to have a family-like atmosphere, due to small courses, so that students and teachers are able to form a tight-knit community. Personalised mentoring is at the top of the agenda, so that you can fully enjoy your experience as a postgraduate student in the UK.

In addition to universities, you can also choose courses from a variety of colleges. Before applying, make sure you get an overview of the Postgraduate Courses on www.ucas.com, the search engine of the British council or study choice portals such as www.master-and-more.eu.

Master programme variety

Master courses in the UK are commonly divided into 'taught' and 'research' masters. Full-time study master courses are generally one to two years in length. Part-time study on the other hand lasts two to four years. The academic year normally runs from September until August, while some courses may also start in January or February.

Taught Masters

Taught master degrees usually have a similar structure to undergraduate degrees. Lectures, seminars and practical work will not only boost your skill set, but also your prospects in the job market. If you are interested in scheduled classes and communication with lecturers and other students, then a taught degree might be for you.

Research Masters

Research Masters may be best described as 'learning by doing'. That means, a Research Master mostly consists of an independent project, which will later on enable you to carry out doctoral research. While you are working on your research, you will receive on-going support from lecturers and tutors.

Application requirements and admission

Most postgraduate courses do not have formal closing dates for applications; however, applicants are normally advised to apply as early as possible, because most universities operate on a first-come first-served basis. International students, however, have to apply early, because an unconditional offer is required for the visa-application as well as scholarships.

When wanting to apply for a master's degree in the UK you should hold a good first degree with minimum second class honours. Equivalent qualifications and relevant professional and educational experiences are of course also taken into consideration. Exact requirements though may vary between different institutions and courses, which is why you should always check the relevant details.

How to apply?

If you have decided on a course, then you must directly apply to your chosen university or college. Each institution has its own application process and forms. Applications can usually be made online where you can download an application pack.

In the application you normally need to outline the following:

- Motivation for applying
- Academic qualification
- Skills and experience
- Research degrees: Research Proposal

There is no limit to the number of applications you can make.

Tuition Fees for Master courses in the UK

Money is one of the biggest concerns for students entering postgraduate education in the UK. In comparison with other universities in Europe, tuition fees in the UK are rather high. Tuition fee status generally depends on the country of residence. So-called 'home' and EU-students normally pay the same amount of fees, while 'international' students have to expect fees at the higher end of the spectrum. However, there are several scholarships, student loans and grants for students at postgraduate level which can help you with expenses.

Postgraduate students from UK and the EU

Depending on the postgraduate programme you choose, you have to expect tuition fees ranging from £4,000 to £9,000. The fees mainly depend on the institution and the type of master programme you choose to study.

International students from outside the European Union

As an international student you will have to expect to pay much higher tuition fees. The average fee is around £13,840, while some specialist degrees might amount up to £40,000 per year. Here, the tuition fees also vary depending on the institution and the master course you choose to study.

Student life in a diverse student community

During your studies you have a variety of options to have an exciting social life. Most universities have a wealth of clubs, free sports and societies. This way, you are able to continually make new friends, network and start or continue hobbies.

Outside of university, British towns and cities have a lot to offer. Go out to explore historic city centres, the British country side or the lively night life. With various nightclubs, live music venues, cinemas, restaurants, bars, shops and museums you will never get bored. There is always something to do or see.

Accommodation

Whilst studying, a wide range of accommodation is available to you. Most students either live in university owned halls of residence, while others live in private housing with flatmates .

Halls are either mixed or single sex and include a variety of single, en-suite or twin rooms. Halls tend to be self-catered with some providing cleaning service for communal areas. Accommodation fees in halls tend to vary, depending on the city, institution and of course room type. However, all these fees include heating, lighting and water costs, which means, you do not have to worry about any additional costs.

If you want to live in private housing, such as flats, shared houses or lodgings, instead, accommodation offices of most universities will be able to help you find the right option and to make an informed choice.

Language schools

If you don't speak English fluently (or you wish to learn another language) you can enrol in a language course at one of over 5,000 language schools.

Obtaining a working knowledge or becoming fluent in English while living in the UK is relatively easy, as you are constantly immersed in the English language and have the maximum opportunity to practise (the British aren't renowned for their proficiency in foreign languages).

However, if you wish to speak or write English fluently, you must probably attend a language school or find a private tutor. Over 500,000 students come to the UK each year to learn English, 75 per cent from Western Europe, thus ensuring that English as a Foreign Language schools (over 1,000) are big business.

It's usually necessary to have a recognised qualification in English to be accepted at a college of higher or further education. In many areas, there's an ethnic minority language service providing information and counselling in a variety of languages. These organise a wide range of English classes, including home tuition, open learning and small classes, at beginner and intermediate levels.

There are English-language schools in all cities and large towns; however, the majority of schools, particularly those offering intensive courses, are to be found in the south. The largest concentration of schools is in London and the world-famous university towns of Oxford and Cambridge. There are also a large number of schools along the south coast of England, particularly in Brighton and Bournemouth. Edinburgh is the most popular location in Scotland.

You may find it advantageous to choose a school that's a member of Arels-Felco Ltd, the association of recognised English language-teaching establishments in the UK. Arels-Felco incorporates ARELS (Association of Recognised English Language Schools) and FELCO (Federation of English Language Course Organisations), and is a non-profit association whose members are recognised as efficient in the teaching of English as a foreign language by the British Council.

Members must follow the association's regulations and code of conduct, which include high academic standards and rules governing the welfare of students. Some members of Arels-Felco are registered as non-profit educational trusts, which means value added tax (VAT) isn't payable on fees, and many members cater for the disabled, including blind, deaf and physically disabled students.

Arels-Felco publishes an annual directory of members containing details of all courses, obtainable from Arels-Felco, 2 Pontypool Place, Valentine Place, London SE1 8QF (020-7242 3136). The British Council publishes The Green List, a listing of accredited schools, available online only from www.britishcouncil.org.

Courses offered by schools that are members of Arels-Felco mainly fall into four categories: general English courses available all year round; courses for executives; junior (9+) holiday courses; and adult (16+) courses. Courses vary in length from one week to six months and cater for all ages from five (in special schools) through to senior citizens.

The average class size is around 10 to 12, with 15 usually being the maximum. Most schools are equipped with computers, language laboratories, video studios, libraries and bookshops, and some even have their own restaurants and bars (to help loosen the tongue).

Types of language classes

Most language schools offer a variety of classes depending on your current language ability, how many hours you wish to study a week, how much money you want to spend and how quickly you wish to learn. Full-time, part-time and evening courses are offered by many schools, and many also offer residential courses or selected accommodation with local families (highly recommended to accelerate learning).

Courses that include accommodation (often half board, consisting of breakfast and an evening meal) usually offer excellent value for money. If you need to find your own accommodation, particularly in London, it can be difficult and expensive. Language classes generally fall into the following categories:

Most schools offer compact or intensive courses and also provide special English courses for businessmen, lawyers, journalists and doctors (among others), and a wide variety of examinations, all of which are recognised internationally. Course fees vary considerably and are usually calculated on a weekly basis. Fees depend on the number of hours of tuition per week, the type of

course, and the location and reputation of the school. Expect to pay £150 to £350 a week for an intensive course providing 20 to 30 hours of language study per week.

A compact course usually costs around £80 to £100 per week and half board accommodation around £80 to £90 a week extra (more in London). It's possible to enrol at a good school for an all-inclusive (tuition plus half-board accommodation) intensive course for as little as £200 per week. In London and other large cities, students in private accommodation may need to spend more time travelling to classes each day.

Total immersion or executive courses are provided by many schools and usually consist of private lessons for a minimum of 30 to 40 hours a week. Fees can run to £1,000 a week or more and not everyone is suited to learning at such a fast rate (or has the financial resources). Whatever language you're learning, don't expect to become fluent in a short period unless you have a particular flair for languages or already have a good command of a language.

Unless you must learn a language quickly, it's better to space your lessons over a long period. Don't commit yourself to a long course of study (particularly an expensive one) before ensuring that it's the correct one. Most schools offer a free introductory lesson and free tests to help you find your appropriate level. Many language schools offer private and small group lessons. It's important to choose the right course, particularly if you're studying English in order to continue with full-time education in the UK and must reach a minimum standard or gain a particular qualification.

Special language classes for au pairs

Many language schools offer special English classes for au pairs costing from around £40 to over £150 a term, depending on the number of hours of tuition per week. Most courses for au pairs include around four hours study a week. The school year begins in the middle of September and ends in June, and some schools accept aupairs only in the September and January terms (au pairs arriving after Easter may find it difficult to obtain classes).

There are usually no classes for au pairs over the summer holiday period (June to mid-September). Among the best value-for-money English courses are those run by state colleges under the control of Local Educational Authorities (LEAs), the Department for Education and Skills, or the Scottish Education Department.

Most colleges offer full-time, part-time and vacation English courses for overseas students throughout the year, with fees ranging from around £20 to £80 a week. Many courses are cheaper for EU nationals and may even be free during the daytime for those under 18. Colleges usually arrange accommodation for students. A booklet containing a list of colleges and their courses (including courses for English language teachers) is available from English UK, 56 Buckingham Gate, London SW1E 6AG (www.englishuk.com).

You may prefer to have private lessons, which are a quicker, but generally more expensive, way of learning a language. The main advantage of private lessons is that you learn at your own speed and aren't held back by slow learners or dragged along by the class genius. You can advertise for a teacher in local newspapers, on shopping centre or supermarket bulletin boards, university or school notice boards and through your or your spouse's employer.

Your friends or colleagues may also be able to help you find a suitable private teacher. If you're living in the UK and speak reasonable English but need conversational practice, you might consider enrolling in a part-time course at an adult education institute.

Many British universities hold summer and other holiday courses for foreigners, e.g. Birmingham, London and Oxford. For a programme contact the Secretary, British Universities

Summer Schools, University of Oxford, Department for Continuing Education, 1 Wellington Square, Oxford OX1 2JD (01865-270 360, www.ox.ac.uk).

The British Chamber of Commerce provides an English tuition advisory service in many countries and works closely with English schools, universities and other institutions. For information contact your local British embassy, consulate or high commission abroad.

Choosing an International School

International schools provide the ideal environment for relocating families, bringing together young people from many different cultures and countries to gain qualifications that are recognised across the globe.

However, for families that are not familiar with international schools; how they work and what they offer, it can be difficult to know what to look for and how to identify the best school for your child.

Age Range

Some international schools do specialize in teaching specific age groups, but for families relocating with children of different ages there are international schools that offers courses for students from the age of 2 to 18 ensuring siblings can attend the same school.

Educational Programmes

International schools offer a range of qualifications to meet the needs of both international and local communities and the best schools will offer advice on the most appropriate qualification for each student, dependent on their situation.

The International Baccalaureate (IB) is perhaps the best-known international qualification, offering programmes for students aged 3 – 19. The guiding principal of the IB is individual, independent learning, which means that students that have not previously studied the programme can be given the appropriate level of support help them acclimatise to their new programme of study.

Transition Support

International schools have extensive experience in helping children, and their families, through the relocation transition. Most work closely with their parent body to offer a support partnership to newly arriving students and parents alike, with welcoming committees to provide friendly help and advice to new families.

Often new students are paired with an existing student of similar age and nationality to help the student become familiar with the school routine and make friends more quickly.

English Language Support

For those whose first language is not English and need help with their English language skills, English as an Additional Language (EAL) support is provided through an international school. For some students, this means regularly scheduled, small group sessions, offered in place of some core subjects. Students generally take these sessions until English proficiency commensurate with their age and grade level is achieved.

Maintaining National Identity

It is also important to bear in mind that whilst the immediate priority for any family relocating abroad is that children become acclimatised to the new country, it is also important for children to maintain a sense of their own national identity, particularly as many children will ultimately return to the country of their birth. The best International schools also giving them the opportunity to express themselves and feel proud of their own nationality.

Guidelines to help you make the right choice of international school

Do your homework whilst you are still in your home country and plan well in advance. Websites and school directories will provide a lot of background information, including vision, philosophy and ethos.

Look at the school's most recent inspection report on the OFSTED website

Look at indoor and outdoor facilities, class sizes and the ratio of staff to children

Look at what extra-curricular activities the school offers to ensure that your child's interests and enthusiasms are nurtured beyond the regular school day

Visit each school and talk to teachers and classroom assistants

Talk to other parents who have children at the school you are considering; listen to the positive and the negative things they say

Once you have chosen your child's school, get involved and get to know the staff and other parents

Exercises

I. Choose the answer that best completes the statement.

(1) _____ are funded by the fees charged to the parents.

- A. Independent Schools
- B. State Schools
- C. Co-educated Schools
- D. Public Schools

(2) Those wishing to gain entry to university must complete an additional two years of _____ studies.

- A. GCSE
- B. SAT
- C. Eleven Plus
- D. A Level

(3) Before primary schooling some children have an opportunity to attend the few _____ kindergartens, which are called "_____".

- A. Junior section
- B. Infant section

- C. Nursery Schools
- D. Secondary Schools

(4) Academic Year in UK begins in September, and is divided into three terms, with holidays at_____.

- A. Christmas, Easter, and in the winter
- B. Christmas, Easter, and in the summer
- C. Christmas, Halloween, and in the summer
- D. New Year, Easter, and in the summer

(5) After 5 years of secondary schooling, at about age 16, the students sit their _____ exams.

- A. GCEA(General Certificate of Education-Advanced)
- B. GNVQ (General National Vocational Qualifications)
- C. GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education)
- D. A-Level

(6) After the students sit their GCSE exams, then they can concentrate on vocational training, and attend _____ exams.

- A. GCEA(General Certificate of Education-Advanced)
- B. GNVQ (General National Vocational Qualifications)
- C. GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education)
- D. A-Level

(7) There is only one privately funded university in UK, that is _____

- A. the University of Manchester
- B. the University of Cambridge
- C. the University of Oxford
- D. the University of Buckingham

(8) Which one is the oldest university in the English-speaking world?

- A. the University of Manchester
- B. the University of Cambridge
- C. the University of Oxford
- D. the University of Buckingham

(9) The amount of funding each university receives is based on_____.

- A. its size
- B. the number of students it teaches
- C. the research it conducts
- D. All of the above

(10) Which university is not in Scotland?

- A. the University of York

- B. the University of Glasgow
- C. the University of Edinburgh
- D. the University of Aberdeen

II. Fill in the following blanks with appropriate words or expressions.

- (1) ____ are totally funded by the government and are free to all British children.
- (2) Schooling is compulsory between the ages of ____ years: total of 11 years in UK.
- (3) ____ Schools admit both boys and girls.
- (4) All British schools - State & Independent are required to follow ____ guide-lines set down by the government
- (5) The children begin secondary education at the age of ____.
- (6) ____ schools select the children who get high marks in the “Eleven Plus” examination, or show academic potential.
- (7) British universities receive funds from ____.
- (8) Two characteristics of University of Oxford and Cambridge is ____ and ____.
- (9) ____ University is U. K.’s largest university for part-time higher education.
- (10) University of ____ is a federation of colleges.

Unit 7 Media of the United Kingdom

Cultural Training

The United Kingdom possesses one of the most universally respected and widely read national presses. According to Brian McNair (1999), 80 percent of adults regularly read at least one national daily newspaper (not necessarily every day), and 75 percent read a Sunday edition. In addition, despite growing fears among many journalists and academics about the consequences increased concentration of ownership and the growing ability of governments to “spin” the media,

the British press remains one of the freest and most diverse in the world.

Compared to the United States, where papers based in a few large cities exert the most influence, in Britain the local and regional press takes a clear backseat to the London-based national press. The leading papers' access to a national market makes them among the best-selling newspapers in the world. The main titles in the national daily press appear in the mornings; many local dailies appear in the evening.

Media of the United Kingdom consist of several different types of communications media: television, radio, newspapers, magazines, and Web sites. The country also has a strong music industry. The United Kingdom has a diverse range of providers, the most prominent being the state-owned public service broadcaster, the BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation). The BBC's largest competitors are ITV plc, which operates 11 of the 15 regional television broadcasters that make up the ITV Network, and News Corporation, which holds a large stake in satellite broadcaster British Sky Broadcasting and also operate a number of leading national newspapers. Regional media is covered by local radio, television and print newspapers. Trinity Mirror operate 240 local and regional newspapers in the United Kingdom, as well as national newspapers such as the *Daily Mirror* and the *Sunday Mirror*.

Print

Newspapers

England's first news periodicals, called corantos, circulated in the 1620s. During the next few decades, English notions of the liberty of the press began to develop, and with them visions of the press as the bulwark of freedom against would-be tyrants. This vision helped to inspire more than a century of reform movements that resulted in the gradual elimination of state repression of the press. The most important of these developments include the 1694 act removing pre-publication censorship; Fox's Libel Act in 1792, which placed the verdict in libel trials squarely in juries' hands; and the repeal of paper, advertising, and newspaper stamp taxes, the so-called "Taxes on Knowledge," between 1853 and 1861. This long series of reforms, which came only after numerous popular campaigns, including a "war of the unstamped" (and hence illegal) press in the 1830s, reflected and reinforced a growing tradition of formal newspaper independence from the state that continues to influence journalists at the beginning of the twenty-first century.

Daily newspapers in the nineteenth century typically consisted of four to eight pages of closely typed columns of often-verbatim reports of parliamentary debates or speeches by prominent statesmen. The most influential paper in the mid-century was the London Times. Following the repeal of the "Taxes on Knowledge," a provincial press flourished, as new titles joined such older papers as the Manchester Guardian and Yorkshire Post. Combined with London papers, such as the Morning Post and the new Daily Telegraph, a sober and editorially diverse press existed that some observers have pointed to as a "golden age" for the British press. These titles coexisted with more popular (and initially less respectable) Sunday papers such as Reynolds News and Lloyd's Weekly News. During most of the nineteenth century, newspapers wore their partisanship like a badge of honor; this feature was as typical of The Times in the 1850s as it was of the Northern Star, the newspaper of the radical working-class Chartist movement in the 1840s.

In the later decades of the century, in an effort to expand circulations and stimulated by changing ownership patterns and growing literacy rates, newspaper editors increasingly

incorporated reader-friendly changes such as headlines, illustrations, interviews, and what would now be called human interest stories. “Views” gave way to news. Stories became shorter; columns gave way to paragraphs. These developments had precedents in American journalism. Defenders of these changes argued that they merely recognized the importance of the world beyond parliament; by aiming to satisfy readers' preferences, they were democratizing the press. Critics bemoaned the demise of the press's educational role and feared for the social consequences of the “New Journalism.”

Alongside newspapers, throughout the nineteenth century, a thriving (and growing) body of periodicals existed, ranging from august titles such as the *Edinburgh Review* and *Fortnightly Review*, which spoke to the “questions of the day” to professional journals such as the *Lancet* (a medical journal) or the *English Historical Review*; to recreational titles such as the *Sporting Magazine*; to “penny dreadfuls” whose supposedly harmful effects on working-class readers preoccupied many moralists.

As the nineteenth century progressed, it became clear that, under the right circumstances, the press could be very profitable. Particularly with the growth of consumerism in the second half of the nineteenth century, advertising became an important source of revenue for newspapers. This development helped to increase the importance of high circulations.

Alfred Harmsworth is often credited with creating the modern popular press, particularly with the creation of the *Daily Mail* in 1896. Selling for a halfpenny when other papers cost a penny, this paper became, during the Boer War (1899-1902), the first to attain a daily circulation of one million. Harmsworth founded other papers, including the *Daily Mirror* in 1903. Originally pitched at female readers, it was reinvented in 1904 as a mass-market news pictorial and reached a circulation of 1.2 million by the outbreak of World War I in 1914. Ennobled as Lord Northcliffe in 1905, Harmsworth steadily built his newspaper empire, climaxing in 1908 with his acquisition of *The Times*. He became the archetypal “press baron,” using his papers to attain influence over the government. For example, he has been widely credited with bringing down the Asquith government in 1916. In addition to his political interests, however, he was the consummate businessman, employing stunts to spike sales.

The first three decades of the twentieth century saw the continuing concentration of the press into fewer hands. Following Lord Northcliffe's death in 1922, the British press was dominated by four men: Lord Beaverbrook, Lord Rothermere (Northcliffe's brother), William Berry (later Lord Camrose), and Gomer Berry (later Lord Kemsley). The popular press seemed increasingly commercialized, culminating in the “circulation war” of the early 1930s. The *Daily Mail* and *Daily Express* had offered insurance to subscribers throughout the 1920s, spending a million pounds per year by 1928. By the early 1930s, even the relatively sober *Daily Herald* had entered the fray. The three papers employed door-to-door canvassers to entice subscribers with gifts; these canvassers accounted for 40 percent of all press employees by 1934. Gifts included flannel trousers, cameras, kettles, handbags, and tea sets. This method of gaining circulation by bribery reflected the ever-growing importance of advertising as a revenue source; newspapers sought to attract circulation any way they could, in order to impress advertisers.

The twentieth century witnessed the ongoing conflict between lingering nineteenth-century ideals and the press's increasingly commercial environment. Over the course of the century, the press solidified into three distinct markets in the daily and Sunday national press: quality, middle market, and mass market. The quality press, including *The Times*, *the Guardian* (descendant of *the*

Manchester Guardian), *the Daily Telegraph*, *the Independent*, and *the Financial Times*, is published in a broadsheet format, while the middle market (including *the Daily Mail* and *Daily Express*) and mass market (including *the Daily Mirror* and *the Sun*) are published in tabloid format. A similar distinction exists on Sundays, with qualities (*Independent on Sunday*, *Observer Sunday Times*, and *Sunday Telegraph*), middle market (*Sunday Express* and *Mail on Sunday*), and mass market (*News of the World* , *People Mirror*).

These markets split across class lines and produced papers with distinctive qualities. Nearly 90 percent of the upmarket dailies' readers are considered middle class, compared to only about 30 percent of the downmarket dailies' readers. In 1995 daily newspaper sales were approximately 20 percent upmarket, 27 percent midmarket, and 53 percent mass market. Corresponding Sunday sales were approximately 17 percent upmarket, 22 percent midmarket, and 61 percent mass market. This distribution represents a dramatic shift during the second half of the twentieth century. In 1937, *the daily* breakdown was 8 percent upmarket, 72 percent midmarket, and 20 percent mass market; *the Sunday* breakdown had been 3 percent, 36 percent, and 61 percent (Tunstall). The increase in share for the quality press, at the expense of the middle market, reflects increased educational levels in Britain combined with television's greater challenge to the middle market.

According to Tunstall, however, the broadsheet contains approximately three times as many words as the tabloid, and its stories are longer.

Traditionally British newspapers have been divided into "quality", serious-minded newspapers (usually referred to as "broadsheets" because of their large size) and the more populist, "tabloid" varieties. For convenience of reading many traditional broadsheets have switched to a more compact-sized format, traditionally used by tabloids.

The broadsheet is the largest of newspaper formats and is characterized by long vertical pages (typically 22 inches or 560 millimetres). The term derives from types of popular prints usually just of a single sheet, sold on the streets and containing various types of material, from ballads to political satire. The first broadsheet newspaper was the *Dutch Courante uyt Italien, Duytslandt, &c.* published in 1618.

A tabloid is a newspaper with compact page size smaller than broadsheet, although there is no standard for the precise dimensions of the tabloid newspaper format. The term tabloid journalism, along with the use of large pictures, tends to emphasize topics such as sensational crime stories, astrology, celebrity gossip and television. However, some reputable newspapers, such as *The Independent* and *The Times*, are in tabloid format, and this size is used in the United Kingdom by nearly all local newspapers. There, its page dimensions are roughly 430 mm × 280 mm (16.9 in × 11.0 in). In the United States, it is commonly the format employed by alternative newspapers. Some small-format papers which claim a higher standard of journalism refer to themselves as compact newspapers instead.

More than size, editorial content distinguishes the markets. A larger number of broadsheets' stories focus more directly on politics than is the case with tabloids, and many stories in the broadsheets contain more than 800 words. Tunstall provides a vivid description of the downmarket tabloids:

They focus on light news, the entertaining touch, and human interest; this in practice means focusing on crime, sex, sport, television, showbusiness, and sensational human interest stories. There is an overwhelming emphasis on personalities; such 'serious' news as is covered is often

presented via one personality attacking another personality. Much material in these papers is 'look-at' material - there are many pictures, big headlines, and the advertising also is mainly display, which again involves pictures and big headlines. The remainder of the tabloid is 'quick read' material with most stories running to less than 400 words.

Substantial political coverage disappeared from the popular press during the second half of the twentieth century. Many critics argue that the resulting depoliticized popular press promotes escapist attitudes that ultimately reinforce the political status quo.

Although sensationalism in the press is not a new phenomenon, many critics have claimed that the tabloids of the 1970s and 1980s, particularly Murdoch's *Sun* and *News of the World*, introduced a qualitatively lower brand. In an effort to increase circulation, the tabloids introduced "checkbook" journalism, i.e., the purchasing of exclusive stories from disturbing sources. For example, the wife of the notorious serial killer, the "Yorkshire Ripper," was reportedly paid more for her story than the victims' families received in damages. In addition, shortly after Murdoch purchased *the Sun* in 1969, it began to use sex to increase circulation, most notably by presenting semi-nude women on page three; other tabloids followed suit. Other recent tabloid characteristics that have attracted criticism include fabrication and intensely invasive reporting (including rooting through celebrities' and politicians' garbage cans for evidence of sexual deviance, taking clandestine photographs on private property, and even "entrapment," for example, with prostitutes).

Initially brisk sales encouraged these trends. By the early 1990s, however, many readers were increasingly disturbed by these excesses, a sentiment that was reinforced by the role of paparazzi in Princess Diana's fatal automobile accident. At the beginning of the twenty-first century, tabloid investigations of celebrities' private lives seem to have become marginally less aggressive. In addition, the tabloid market has been declining, resulting in cutthroat price wars, with several tabloids selling temporarily for 10p per issue. In 2002, the *Mirror* appeared to be attempting to reposition itself in the middle market; its coverage of politics, for example, had become more substantial and serious.

Despite the professionalization of journalism from the late nineteenth century and increased reliance on news agencies for copy, British newspapers deliberately retain traditions of overt partisanship that would be considered unacceptable in the United States. For much of the period since World War II, most national papers, representing the vast preponderance of circulation, supported the Conservative Party. This ownership was not seen as reflecting readers' preferences, as the Labour Party won at least 45 percent of the vote throughout the period. After the mid-1990s, most papers (including Murdoch's) shifted their support to Tony Blair's Labor Party, though this support seemed conditional. Despite high levels of partisanship, the national press remained editorially independent of the parties, rather than constituting party organs.

Britain's broadsheet papers enjoy worldwide respect, particularly *The Times*. **At the same time, however, critics worry about recent evidence of their "tabloidization," specifically the disappearance of the parliamentary report and the turn toward more features-oriented stories.** Barnett and Gaber cite a study by journalist David McKie, showing that in four broadsheet papers, *The Times*, *the Daily Telegraph*, *the Guardian*, and *the Financial Times*, the amount of parliamentary reporting dropped by over 70 percent between 1946 and 1996, from a weekly average of 11,443 column inches to 3,222 column inches. The focus of political reporting shifted to sketchwriting, emphasizing personalities as well as the "machinery of government,"

especially when “government incompetence, corruption and plain misguided policies” could be exposed (Barnett and Gaber). Defenders of these changes point out that in the early 2000s parliamentary proceedings were televised and that Hansard’s record of the proceedings was available on the Internet, thus obviating the need for newspapers to fill this role. More to the point, it was widely perceived that parliamentary reporting did not aid in the pursuit of circulation.

In addition to tabloidization, some critics believe that the British press does not attain as high a standard of accuracy as its U.S. counterparts. George Kennedy wrote in the *Columbia Journalism Review* that the British press was prone to “spectacular gaffes,” a result of an emphasis on speed and exclusivity. Kennedy pointed out that the U.S. wire service, the Associated Press, is “particularly hesitant to pick up material from the national newspapers unless it can be independently confirmed.” The editor of the British-based digest Web site, *Need to Know*, stated the case even more strongly. Because of British journalism’s weaker emphasis on professionalism, “if all the facts are right in a British newspaper article, it’s either because we’re scared of a libel case, or it’s a fluke” (Lasica). This reputation for occasional lapses of accuracy may help to account for the finding in the European Commission’s April 2002 Eurobarometer that whereas British trust in television was among the highest in the EU at 71 percent who “tend to trust the television,” trust in the press was the lowest in the EU at only 20 percent. Britain’s low trust in the press compared poorly to an EU average of over 40 percent, but it was more than 5 percentage points higher than Britain’s score of a year before.

Three Most Influential Newspapers

The Times is a British daily national newspaper based in London. It has, since the early nineteenth century, been the most prestigious British newspaper. *The Times* began in 1785 under the title *The Daily Universal Register* and became *The Times* on 1 January 1788. *The Times* and its sister paper *The Sunday Times* (founded in 1821) are published by Times Newspapers, since 1981 a subsidiary of News UK, itself wholly owned by the News Corp group headed by Rupert Murdoch. *The Times* and *The Sunday Times* do not share editorial staff, were founded independently and have only had common ownership since 1967.

During the nineteenth century, and above all during the Crimean War (1854-56), it developed a reputation for independence, truthfulness, and forcefulness that earned it the moniker “The Thunderer.” More than any other paper, it can be considered a national institution, and is for many the “paper of record.” For this reason, its 1981 takeover by Murdoch’s multinational conglomerate (like its 1908 takeover by Northcliffe) alarmed many in Britain. Nonetheless, it retained its high reputation in most quarters, even as it adopted a somewhat lighter tone. Its politics shifted to the right during the 1980s, though in the mid-1990s it became increasingly critical of the Major government. It supported Labour’s Tony Blair in the 1997 election in a move widely believed to be commercially inspired.



The Daily Telegraph is a British daily morning English-language broadsheet newspaper, published in London by Telegraph Media Group and distributed throughout the United Kingdom and internationally. The newspaper was founded by Arthur B. Sleight in June 1855 as *The Daily Telegraph* and Courier, and since 2004 has been owned by David and Frederick Barclay. It had a daily circulation of 523,048 in March 2014, down from 552,065 in early 2013. In comparison, *The Times* had an average daily circulation of 400,060, down to 394,448.

Founded in 1855 after the repeal of the stamp tax, *the Daily Telegraph* quickly became Britain's best-selling paper, with its mix of sport and politics and its peerless news service. Following a decline in the early twentieth century, it emerged in the 1930s as the upmarket leader, a position it retained in the early 2000s. Many believe its heyday was in the 1960s, when its news reporting was unparalleled. Owned by Conrad Black, the paper had broadly conservative politics and it is often called the Torygraph. It was the only British upmarket daily to have attained a circulation above one million, though its readership was aging.

The Daily Telegraph has a sister paper, *The Sunday Telegraph*, that was started in 1961, which had circulation of 418,670 as of March 2014. The two printed papers currently are run separately with different editorial staff, but there is cross-usage of stories. News articles published in either, plus online Telegraph articles, may also be published on the Telegraph Media Group's www.telegraph.co.uk website, all under *The Telegraph* title.



The Guardian is a British national daily newspaper. Founded in 1821 as a local paper replacing the radical Manchester Observer, it was known as *The Manchester Guardian* until 1959. It has grown into a national paper, and forms part of a media group with international and online offshoots.

The Guardian began as a provincial paper, *the Manchester Guardian*. During the nineteenth century and particularly under the editorship of C. P. Scott, it became associated with the left wing of the Liberal Party. Its willingness to take unpopular stands, sometimes at great financial cost, earned it many admirers. In particular, opposition to the Boer War and the Suez War cost both sales and advertising in the short-term. Its ownership by a trust, committing it to radical politics, provided it a measure of protection from market forces. Among the national broadsheets, it alone consistently supported the Labour Party during the period of Conservative dominance before the 1990s.

Its sister papers include *The Observer* (a British Sunday paper) and *The Guardian Weekly* (an international roundup of articles from various papers). In addition to its UK online edition theguardian.com, the paper has two international web sites, Guardian Australia and Guardian US. The Guardian is influential in the design and publishing arena, sponsoring many awards in these areas.



Other Newspapers

The Financial Times (FT) is an English-language international daily newspaper with a special emphasis on business and economic news. Starts in 1888 as the London Financial Guide, the paper describes itself as “the friend of the honest financier and the respectable broker”. A four paged journal, it is renamed as the *Financial Times* on February 13 of the same year. The FT is first published on light pink paper, helping to distinguish it from the *Financial News*. It means that the paper can be produced more cheaply, as the pink paper is unbleached. However, nowadays the paper is dyed specially to achieve its signature look.

Financial News chairman Brendan Bracken merges his paper with the FT in 1945 to form a single, eight paged newspaper. Bracken, an Irish-born businessman, is best remembered for opposing the Bank of England’s cooperation with Adolf Hitler during WW II. Severe newsprint restrictions during the war limits the paper’s growth, but the introduction of industrial news results in a wider readership overall.

Sir Gordon Newton is appointed editor, holding the post for 24 years. Newton retires in 1972, leaving behind a transformed paper with a circulation of 190,000 and a ‘pervasive ethos of integrity and commitment to journalistic truth’. Newton is today widely regarded as one of the most successful British newspaper editors of the post-Second World War era.

The FT is bought by Pearson, a holding company with interests in oil and media. The new owner supports the FT’s global expansion. Pearson is today the largest multinational publishing and education company in the world. Following his death, Bracken receives a fitting memorial when the paper relocates to Bracken House in Cannon Street the following spring. This is where the paper stays until it moves to its current location at One Southwark Bridge in 1989.

FT begins printing outside the UK for the first time. The launch of a European edition in Frankfurt follows a steady expansion of its international news coverage. The FT launches *How To Spend It*, a high-end magazine for an affluent and discerning global audience. Edited by Gillian de Bono, the multi-award-winning magazine becomes the gold standard for global coverage of luxury lifestyle topics.

The FT launches FT.com, its home on the internet, ahead of many other major publishers. By then FT is printing in New York and it starts printing in Madrid, Los Angeles and Stockholm. *Financial Times* begins printing in Asia. In following years its overseas circulation overtakes UK sales as it expanded to Boston, Milan, Chicago and San Francisco.

FT pioneers the metered access model in 2007, helping it grow its digital subscriber base to more than half a million by 2015. The model is later adopted by other global publishers and continues its evolution to this day. Several FT journalists – including Gillian Tett, Martin Wolf and John Kay – are widely credited with predicting the 2008 financial crisis.

FT becomes the first major news publisher to launch an HTML5 web app for mobile. The launch of the app boosts its daily audience to 2 million. In 2012, the number of digital subscribers passes the circulation of the newspaper for the first time. The newspaper celebrates its 125th anniversary. Its content revenues overtakes advertising revenues and print circulation is profitable before advertising.

FT is bought by Nikkel, the Japanese media group. Today more than 70% of the FT's circulation is digital. With a team of almost 600 editorial staff in more than 40 countries, it continues to be one of the world's leading news organizations, recognized for its integrity and independence.



The Observer is a British newspaper, published on Sundays. In the same place on the political spectrum as its daily sister papers *The Guardian* and *The Guardian Weekly*, whose parent company Guardian Media Group Limited acquired it in 1993, it takes a social liberal or social democratic line on most issues. First published in 1791, it is the world's oldest Sunday newspaper.

The Observer and its sister newspaper *The Guardian* operate a visitor centre in London called The Newsroom. It contains their archives, including bound copies of old editions, a photographic library and other items such as diaries, letters and notebooks. This material may be consulted by members of the public. The Newsroom also mounts temporary exhibitions and runs an educational program for schools.

In November 2007 *The Observer* and *The Guardian* made their archives available over the internet via Digital Archive. The current extent of the archives available are 1900 to 1975 for *The Observer* and 1821 to 1975 for *The Guardian*. However, these archives are to be expanded in

the future.



The Independent is a British national morning newspaper published in London by Independent Print Limited, owned by Alexander Lebedev since 2010. Nicknamed the Indy, it was launched in 1986 and is one of the youngest UK national daily newspapers. The daily edition was named National Newspaper of the Year at the 2004 British Press Awards.

The Independent was originally published in broadsheet form, but from September 2003 was produced in a choice of broadsheet and tabloid forms, with the same content in each. The tabloid version was termed by the newspaper “compact”, to distance itself from the racy, down-market publications usually associated with the term “tabloid”. The smaller format was rolled out gradually throughout the UK. Rupert Murdoch’s Times followed suit, introducing its own “compact” version. Prior to these changes, *The Independent* had a daily circulation of around 217,500, the lowest of any major national British daily newspaper, climbing to claim a 15% rise in circulation by March 2004 (taking it to circa 250,000). Throughout much of 2006, circulation generally stagnated at the quarter of a million mark. On 14 May 2004, *The Independent* produced its last weekday broadsheet edition, having stopped producing a Saturday broadsheet edition in January. The *Sindie* (Independent on Sunday) published its last simultaneous broadsheet edition on 9 October 2005, and has since also followed a “compact” design; the only UK weekly newspaper to do so thus far. In June 2015, it had an average daily circulation of just below 58,000, 85 per cent down on its 1990 peak, with the Sunday edition having a circulation of just over 97,000.



The Sunday Times is the largest-selling British national “quality” Sunday newspaper. It is a Sunday broadsheet newspaper distributed in the United Kingdom and Republic of Ireland. It is published by Times Newspapers Ltd, a subsidiary of News International, which is in turn owned by News Corporation. Times Newspapers also owns *The Times*, but the two papers were founded independently and only came under common ownership in 1966. Rupert Murdoch’s News International acquired the papers in 1981. Each year the Sunday Times publishes a Rich List - which tends to boost sales.

While its sister paper, *The Times*, holds a substantially smaller circulation than the largest-circulation UK quality daily, *The Daily Telegraph*, *The Sunday Times* occupies a dominant position in the quality Sunday market; its 1.3m circulation equals *The Sunday Telegraph*, *The Observer* and *The Independent on Sunday* combined. It maintains the larger broadsheet format and has said that it will continue to do so.

Its price rise to £2 from £1.80 in September 2006, the second price rise in two years, has started to cause a slight month-on-month and year-on-year decline in its readership. This has been following a general decline in readership of all Sunday newspapers. The launch of new News International printers in Summer 2008 will allow for full colour throughout all pages in the paper.

The Sun is a daily tabloid newspaper published in the United Kingdom and Ireland. It is one of Britain’s most famous and widelyconsumed media brands, reaching almost 8 million readers in the UK every day.Founded in 1964 as a successor broadsheet to the *Daily Herald*, it became a tabloid in 1969 after it was purchased by its current owners. It is published by the News Group Newspapers division of News UK, itself a wholly owned subsidiary of Rupert Murdoch’s News Corp.

The Sun relies on stories about the entertainment industry, gossip concerning the British monarchy, and sports, as well as news and politics for its content, with many items revolving around celebrities.

In addition to writers covering celebrities-about-town and the latest soap opera storylines, the

paper is always on the lookout for celebrities in trouble or scandal. Pictures are preferred and *The Sun* often uses pictures taken by paparazzi.

Its serious news stories frequently focus on themes of immigration, security scandals, domestic abuse and paedophiles. The Page 3 pin-up girl is invariably a girl between the ages of 18-28, posing topless.

The current editor is Rebekah Wade, the first female editor in the paper's history.

The Sun has attempted to create a term for itself in Cockney rhyming slang as The Currant Bun.

In a 2007 meeting with the House of Lords Select Committee on Communications who were investigating media ownership and the news, Murdoch stated that he acts as a "traditional proprietor"; exercising editorial control on major issues such as which political party to back in a general election or policy on Europe.



The Daily Express is a daily national middle market tabloid newspaper in the United Kingdom. It is the flagship title of Express Newspapers, a subsidiary of Northern & Shell (itself wholly owned by Richard Desmond). In March 2014, it had an average daily circulation of 488,246. In recent years, the Daily Express has become a supporter of UKIP, acting as a financial backer.

Express Newspapers currently publishes the *Sunday Express* (launched in 1918), *Daily Star* and *Daily Star Sunday*. *The Sunday Express* was launched in 1918. It is currently edited by Martin Townsend. Its circulation in March 2014 was 423,753.



The Daily Mail is a British daily conservative, middle-market tabloid newspaper owned by the Daily Mail and General Trust. First published in 1896 by Lord Northcliffe, it is Britain's second biggest-selling daily newspaper after *The Sun*. Its sister paper, *The Mail on Sunday* was launched in 1982. An Irish version of the paper was launched on 6 February 2006. *The Daily Mail* was Britain's first daily newspaper aimed at what is now considered the middle-market and the first to sell 1 million copies a day.

The Mail was originally a broadsheet, but switched to its current compact format on 3 May 1971, the 75th anniversary of its founding. On this date it also absorbed the *Daily Sketch*, which had previously been published as a tabloid by the same company. Its long-standing rival, *the Daily Express*, has a broadly similar political stance and target readership, but nowadays sells one-third the number of copies. The publisher of the Mail, the Daily Mail and General Trust is currently a FTSE 100 company, and the paper has a circulation of more than two million, giving it one of the largest circulations of any English language daily newspaper, and the twelfth highest of any newspaper in the world.

Circulation figures according to the Audit Bureau of Circulations, in October 2007 show gross sales of 2,400,143 for the *Daily Mail*, compared with 789,867 for *the Daily Express*. This is an increase of almost a third over the sales figures for *the Daily Mail* 25 years ago, when it sold 1.87 million copies a day. By comparison, *the Daily Express* was selling over 2 million copies a day, so its sales have reduced by 60% over the same period. According to a December 2004 survey, 53% of *Daily Mail* readers voted for the Conservative party, compared to 21% for Labour and 17% for the Liberal Democrats.



The Daily Mirror, often referred to simply as *The Mirror*, is a British tabloid daily newspaper founded in 1903. It is the only British national paper to have consistently supported the Labour Party since 1945. It is owned by parent company Trinity Mirror. From 1985 to 1987, and from 1997 to 2002, the title on its masthead was simply *The Mirror*. It had an average daily print circulation of 962,670 in March 2014. Its Sunday sister paper is *the Sunday Mirror*.

Originally pitched to the middle class reader, it was transformed into a working-class newspaper after 1934, in order to reach a large new audience. *The Mirror* has had a number of owners. It was founded by Alfred Harmsworth, who sold it to his brother Harold Harmsworth (from 1914 Lord Rothermere) in 1913. In 1963 a restructuring of the media interests of the Harmsworth family led to *the Mirror* becoming a part of International Publishing Corporation. *The Mirror* was owned by Robert Maxwell between 1984 and 1991. The paper went through a protracted period of crisis after his death before merging with the regional newspaper group Trinity in 1999 to form Trinity Mirror.



The *News of the World* was a national red top newspaper published in the United Kingdom from 1843 to 2011. It was at one time the biggest selling English-language newspaper in the world, and at closure still had one of the highest English-language circulations. It was originally established as a broadsheet by John Browne Bell, who identified crime, sensation and vice as the themes that would sell copies. The Bells sold to Henry Lascelles Carr in 1891; in 1969 it was bought from the Carrs by Rupert Murdoch's media firm News Limited. Reorganised into News International, itself a subsidiary of News Corporation, it was transformed into a tabloid in 1984 and became the Sunday sister paper of *The Sun*. The newspaper concentrated on celebrity-based scoops and populist news. Its fondness for sex scandals gained it the nicknames *News of the Screws* and *Screws of the World*. It had a reputation for exposing national or local celebrities' drug use, sexual peccadilloes, or criminal acts, setting up insiders and journalists in disguise to provide either video or photographic evidence, and phone hacking in ongoing police investigations. Sales averaged 2,812,005 copies per week in October 2010.

From 2006, allegations of phone hacking began to engulf the newspaper. On a visit to London on 17 February 2012, Murdoch announced he was soon to launch a Sunday edition of *The Sun*, which acted as a replacement to the *News of the World*. On 19 February 2012 it was announced that the first edition of *The Sun* on Sunday would be printed on 26 February 2012. It would employ some former *News of the World* journalists.



Magazines

Britain also contains a lively periodical press. In the early 2000s, *the New Statesman* on the left and *the Spectator* on the right were both quite influential within Britain. *The Economist* enjoyed a global journalistic reputation. *The Times Literary Supplement* and *the London Review of Books* were both influential reviews. In addition, British academic journals in many fields had worldwide reputations for excellence. In total, there were over 3000 periodicals in Britain.

A large range of magazines are sold in the United Kingdom covering most interests and potential topics. British magazines and journals that have achieved worldwide circulation include *The Economist*, *Nature*, and *New Scientist*, *Private Eye*, *Hello!*, *The Spectator*, *the Radio*

Times and *NME*.

The Economist is an English-language weekly newspaper owned by the Economist Group and edited in offices in London. For historical reasons, *The Economist* refers to itself as a newspaper, but each print edition appears on small glossy paper like a news magazine. In 2006, its average weekly circulation was reported to be 1.5 million, about half of which were sold in the United States.

The Economist was founded by the British businessman and banker James Wilson in 1843, to advance the repeal of the Corn Laws, a system of import tariffs. In January 2012, *The Economist* launched a new weekly section devoted exclusively to China, the first new country section since the introduction of a section about the United States in 1942. In August 2015, The Economist Group bought back 5 million of its shares back (worth \$284 million) from Pearson. Pearson's remaining shares (worth \$447 million) will be sold to Exor.

The Economist's primary focus is world events, politics and business, but it also runs regular sections on science and technology as well as books and the arts. Approximately every two weeks, the publication includes an in-depth special report. The five main categories are Countries and Regions, Business, Finance and Economics, Science and Technology, and Other. Every three months, it publishes a technology report called Technology Quarterly or TQ, a special section focusing on recent trends and developments in science and technology.

There is a section of economic statistics. Tables such as employment statistics are published each week and there are special statistical features too. It is unique among British weeklies in providing authoritative coverage of official statistics and its rankings of international statistics have been decisive. In addition, *The Economist* is known for its Big Mac Index, which it first published in 1986, which uses the price of the hamburger in different countries as an informal measure of the purchasing power of currencies.



***Nature* is a British interdisciplinary scientific journal, first published on 4 November 1869.** *Nature* is the world's most highly cited interdisciplinary science journal, according to the 2013 Journal Citation Reports Science Edition (Thomson Reuters, 2014). Its Impact Factor is 42.351. The impact factor of a journal is calculated by dividing the number of citations in a calendar year to the source items published in that journal during the previous two years. It is an independent measure calculated by Thomson Reuters, Philadelphia, USA.

Nature is a weekly international journal publishing the finest peer-reviewed research in all fields of science and technology on the basis of its originality, importance, interdisciplinary interest, timeliness, accessibility, elegance and surprising conclusions. *Nature* also provides rapid, authoritative, insightful and arresting news and interpretation of topical and coming trends affecting science, scientists and the wider public.

Nature's mission statement

First, to serve scientists through prompt publication of significant advances in any branch of science, and to provide a forum for the reporting and discussion of news and issues concerning science. Second, to ensure that the results of science are rapidly disseminated to the public throughout the world, in a fashion that conveys their significance for knowledge, culture and daily life. *Nature's* original mission statement was published for the first time on 11 November 1869.

History of the Journal *Nature* has specially commissioned essays and videos, and timelines and an interactive forum, bringing to life the science published in *Nature* since 1869.

Like the other *Nature* titles, *Nature* has no external editorial board. Instead, all editorial decisions are made by a team of full-time professional editors. Information about the scientific background of the editors may be found [here](#).

Nature currently supports two awards. The *Nature* Awards for Mentoring in Science are run by *Nature*, and recognise key scientists who have made outstanding contributions to mentoring younger scientists. In addition, *Nature* supports the Eppendorf Young European Investigator Award, which is given annually to a young scientist who is chosen by an independent scientific panel.

Nature and Entrepreneur

At a presentation day, the participants get the opportunity to discuss those ideas with a panel of investors, experienced entrepreneurs and researchers from industry. Information about the project and about how to apply may be found [here](#).



New Scientist is a UK-based weekly English-language international science magazine, founded in 1956. Since 1996 it has run a website. Sold in retail outlets and on subscription, the

magazine covers current developments, news, reviews and commentary on science and technology. It also prints speculative articles, ranging from the technical to the philosophical. There is a readers' letters section which discusses recent articles, and discussions also take place on the website. *New Scientist* is based in London and publishes editions in the UK, the United States, and Australia.

New Scientist currently contains the following sections: Leader, News, Technology, Opinion (interviews, point-of-view articles and letters), Features (including cover article), CultureLab (book and event reviews), Feedback (humour), The Last Word (questions and answers) and Jobs & Careers. A Tom Gauld cartoon appears on the Letters page. There are 51 issues a year; the Christmas and New Year double issue covers two weeks. The double issue in 2014 was the 3,000th edition of the magazine.



Private Eye is the UK's number one best-selling news and current affairs magazine, edited by Ian Hislop. It is a fortnightly British satirical and current affairs magazine based in London, England. It offers a unique blend of humour, social and political observations and investigative journalism. Published fortnightly, the magazine is read by over 700,000 readers and costs just £1.80 an issue.

Since its first publication in 1961, *Private Eye* has been a prominent critic and lampooner of public figures and entities that it deems guilty of any of the sins of incompetence, inefficiency, corruption, pomposity or self-importance and it has established itself as a thorn in the side of the British establishment.



HELLO! (stylised as **HELLO!**) is a weekly magazine specialising in celebrity news and human-interest stories, published in the United Kingdom since 1988. *HELLO!* Magazine was originally *¡HOLA!*, a Barcelona-born publication first printed in September 1944.

44 years later the *HELLO!* that we know and love arrived in the UK, with the first issue featuring Princess Anne inside Buckingham Palace and Burt Reynolds' wedding in 1988. Since then the magazine has continued to provide first class coverage of celebrity and royal news.

Today the weekly magazine has 13 international editions which reach 8 million readers internationally, and are packed with intimate celebrity photographs and interviews, exclusive royal coverage and all the very best in fashion, beauty and lifestyle.

HELLO! magazine has been at the centre of celebrity stories since it began, but prides itself on well-sourced news rather than speculative gossip. This is why it's the magazine that the stars have faith in. Just some of the huge stories that the title has been trusted to handle include Princess Diana's funeral and Elizabeth Taylor's wedding, both of which became best-selling issues.

By signing up for a *HELLO!* magazine subscription you can expect the following in your weekly read:

- Photo coverage of high profile events including parties, openings and fundraisers from the social calendar of the past week
- World events reviewed with breath-taking photographs
- Intimate insight into the world of celebrities, royals and other public figures
- A weekly round-up of news and events from the entertainment industry
- Brainteasers and puzzles
- Over 32 pages dedicated to fashion, ranging from the latest haute couture seen on the catwalk to high street must-haves
- Beauty reviews, solutions and suggestions that highlight top products and the latest regimes and treatments, all from award-winning beauty editor Nadine Baggot

- Guidance to living a happier, healthier life
- A collection of recipes as well as cookery and nutrition tips
- Weekly horoscopes from Jonathan Cainer
- A new competition each week that offers the opportunity to win a prize worth a minimum of £2,500



The Spectator is a weekly British conservative magazine. It was first published on 6 July 1828, making it the oldest continuously published magazine in the English language. Its principal subject areas are politics and culture. Its editorial outlook is generally supportive of the Conservative Party, although regular contributors include some outside that fold, such as Frank Field, Rod Liddle and Martin Bright. The magazine also contains arts pages on books, music, opera, and film and TV reviews.

The Spectator is one of the few British publications that tends to be cautious of idolising examples of popular culture, in the way that (for example) *The Daily Telegraph* did under Bill Deedes, or *The Times* did under William Haley. The magazine coined the phrase “young fogey” in 1984. *The Spectator* does have a popular music column, though it only appears every four weeks, while a cinema column contains a review of one film each week by Deborah Ross. By contrast, opera, fine art, books, poetry and classical music all receive extensive weekly coverage.



Radio Times is a British weekly television and radio programme listings magazine. It was the world's first broadcast listings magazine. *Radio Times* was born in 1923, after John Reith (the BBC's first director-general) received an ultimatum from the Newspaper Publishers' Association: pay up, or NPA publications won't carry radio listings. Despite the embargo's short lifespan it was enough for Reith to conceive the idea of the BBC publishing its own magazine solely dedicated to radio listings - hence the first edition of *The Radio Times*, 'the official organ of the BBC', brought to news stands on 28th September 1923.

Radio Times was initially a joint venture between the BBC and publisher George Newnes Ltd, who produced, printed and distributed the magazine. However, in 1925 the BBC assumed editorial control and by 1937 had taken the entire operation in-house, where it has remained ever since. As the magazine grew in popularity, it established a reputation for engaging leading writers and illustrators of the day – the covers from special editions of this early period are recognised as design classics.

It wasn't just about radio for very long. From 1928, *Radio Times* announced a regular series of 'experimental television transmissions by the Baird process' for half an hour every morning. Finally in November 1936, with the start of the first 405-line high-definition service, *RadioTimes* became the world's first television listings magazine.

Two pages a week, at the back of the magazine, were originally devoted to TV listings, but this soon increased – by January 1937 *Radio Times* published a lavish photogravure supplement for readers in the London area able to receive transmissions from Alexandra Palace (the first home of the BBC Television Service). By September 1939 *Radio Times* was giving three pages a week to television, but transmissions then ceased on 3 September when war was declared, 'in order to prevent enemy aircraft from using its signal as a directional beacon' - and the nation turned again to the wireless.

'Broadcasting carries on!' announced the first wartime *Radio Times*, though there was only the one channel - the Home Service - to inform, educate and entertain through the dark years

ahead. By 1944 paper rationing had reduced the magazine to 20 pages of tiny print on thin paper, but despite the disruption of war not a single edition was missed.

Broadcasting boomed in the years immediately following the war, and *Radio Times* with it, announcing the introduction of the Light Programme, the Third programme, and the return of TV. *Radio Times* began producing various regional editions to meet the needs and changes of different geographical and broadcasting areas, recognising the TV was the medium of the future. This was marked in 1953 when the television listings were moved to the front of the magazine and integrated with day-by-day radio listings. The BBC considered also registering 'TV Times' as a name, but the then general manager of BBC publications thought that television wouldn't catch on and rejected the idea.

Competition arrived in 1955, in the form of new channel ITV. Despite their new rival the BBC retained exclusive rights over the publication of its own listings, and ITV with its regional subsidiaries did the same, launching their own titles like TV Times, The Viewer and Look Westward. Consequently the only way to have full listings details was to buy two magazines, so *Radio Times*'s peak weekly circulation of 8.8m only declined slightly. Television increasingly became the subject of the cover image, and in 1957 *Radio Times* moved its television listings to their own, separate section at the front of the magazine, before radio. In 1960, the 'programme week' (previously from Sunday to Saturday) changed to the now-familiar Saturday to Friday.

When BBC2 began transmitting in 1964 *Radio Times* expanded its TV listings as the new channel spread out across the country. This channel became Britain's first colour channel in July 1967, and *Radio Times* featured 'colour' annotations against respective programmes in the listings. The now-iconic cover, usually only in colour at Christmas and for other special events, became printed in colour on a regular basis. See, for example, the cover of 28 September 1967 with a classic 1960s 'dolly bird'.

At the end of the 1960s *Radio Times* had a young new editor in Geoffrey Cannon, who modernised the magazine and gave it the distinctive italic title (variations of which continued to stay on the cover for over 30 years). *Radio Times* moved confidently through the seventies and introduced local radio listings as the BBC launched these across the country. Special editions were produced to mark events like broadcasting anniversaries, royal celebrations and the starts of high-profile new series.

In the 1980s, new printing methods replacing newsprint and metal meant that *Radio Times* could be published in more, brighter colours. Its popularity climaxed in 1988 when the Christmas edition sold an astounding 11,220,666 copies - a feat that goes down in history and the Guinness Book of Records as the biggest-selling edition of any British magazine.

For years newspapers were only allowed to carry programme schedules for the day of publication, so the BBC and ITV retained their exclusive rights over their own weekly listings. However, other publishers began to challenge this monopoly and in 1990 the Broadcasting Act allowed them access to this previously-denied information. This led to a burst of rival listings magazines, and *Radio Times* faced its biggest challenge - to reinvent itself and survive in a now highly-competitive market. Under the direction of editor Nicholas Brett the magazine responded with expanded listings to cover all channels, celebrity and expert columnists and new-look features.

Irrespective of competition *Radio Times* remains the most comprehensive, authoritative and quality listings guide on offer, devoting ten pages to TV per day. In November 2011 BBC Magazines (including *Radio Times*) was sold to the Immediate Media Company, where the change in ownership marked a new chapter in *Radio Times* history – but no change to the publication or the high standards of editorial quality. Under the editorship of Ben Preston *Radio Times* sells almost a million copies every week in six regional editions, and has a popular website that attracts up to 3 million unique users a month.



New Musical Express (NME) is a British music journalism magazine published since 1949. It is largely associated with rock, alternative and indie music. It was the first British paper to include a singles chart, in the edition of 14 November 1952. In the 1970s it became the best-selling British music newspaper. It started as a music newspaper, and gradually moved toward a magazine format during the 1980s and 1990s, changing from newsprint in 1998.

The magazine's paid circulation in the first half of 2014 was 15,830, and has been in long-term decline. Due to continuing poor sales, the magazine became a free publication in September 2015. *NME*'s headquarters are in Southwark, London, England.

Broadcast Media

In contrast to the press, broadcasting was regulated from the start. When the British Broadcasting Company was founded as a broadcasting monopoly in 1922, during the infancy of radio and before television, its justification was the scarcity of radio frequencies and the need to protect public service ideals. Accordingly, the BBC was established with secure funding by license fees. The government would appoint the seven governors, set the license fee, and retain general oversight. On more specific matters, the corporation was to remain independent from state control. In the technological environment of the early 2000s, scarcity was no longer an issue, but public service ideals continued to justify state regulation.

The BBC's first director, John Reith, set the tone that would characterize the BBC's programming for more than a generation, defining the corporation's mission as "to inform, educate, and entertain." Accordingly, he emphasized culturally elevating programming over programming that was truly popular (though the latter was never completely lacking). Above all, Reith's public service mission led him to emphasize universal access and mixed programming. Each network would offer a variety of programs every day, including classical music, sport, news, drama, religion, and other genres. Initially, no program (other than news bulletins) became attached to a specific time slot, which would have allowed listeners to listen selectively to programming. According to Andrew Crisell, the "high-minded intention was continually to renew the listener's alertness to the medium, not only to make her listen instead of merely hear but to 'surprise' her into an interest in a subject she had previously not known about or disliked, and at all times to give her 'something a little better than she thought she wanted'."

The BBC's Royal Charter enjoined political impartiality. The corporation's relatively even-handed reporting during the general strike of 1926 helped it to build a reputation for authoritative news; this reputation was enhanced during World War II.

British television, which haltingly began before the war and resumed in 1946, initially fit into the BBC system. Initially, radio remained the senior partner, with television gradually gaining in importance. In 1955, the Churchill government introduced a second television network, to be run on commercial lines. The Independent Television (ITV) would be financed through advertisement rather than by license fee, but it, too, was required by Parliament to "inform, educate, and entertain," maintaining impartiality and high quality. In order to maintain high journalistic standards, the various stations comprising the ITV network pooled their resources to create the Independent Television News (ITN) as a rival newsgathering organization. Thus began what would be characterized as a "comfortable duopoly." The ITV and BBC would compete for viewers only; they would not compete for funding, as the BBC's license fees remained intact. This revenue source would never again be contested; the BBC would henceforth face pressure to attract viewers, in order to justify the license fees.

Radio remained a monopoly until the mid-1960s, when the pirate Radio Caroline emerged, illegally broadcasting popular music from the North Sea. At this point, as Seymour-Ure pointed out, the BBC "reorganized its channels, took the pirate disk jockeys on board the new Radio 1 and entered the 1970s with little of the direct Reith influence remaining." Radio's fortunes were revived in the 1970s with the development of the transistor, which facilitated Walkmans and car radios.

Local radio began in the 1960s, with a BBC monopoly. In the early 1970s, the separate radio license fees were discontinued, so that BBC radio and television were funded from the same income source. In 1972, the Heath government released several BBC medium frequencies, which were then given to commercial stations. Then, in a general atmosphere of deregulation policies across many industries, the 1990 Broadcasting Act made licenses easier to obtain and reduced previous restrictions on content and advertising. By 1995, there were five BBC stations, three national and five regional commercial stations, with local stations; in total there were more than 160 commercial stations and 38 BBC stations.

Radio

Radio enjoys a large number of listeners in the United Kingdom. There are around 600 licensed radio stations in the country. Radio in the United Kingdom is dominated by the BBC, which operates radio stations both in the United Kingdom and abroad. The BBC World Service radio network is broadcast in 33 languages globally. Domestically the BBC also operates ten national networks and over 40 local radio stations including services in Welsh on BBC Radio Cymru, Gaelic on BBC Radio nan Gàidheal in Scotland and Irish in Northern Ireland. The domestic services of the BBC are funded by the television licence. The internationally targeted BBC World Service Radio is funded by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, though from 2014 it will be funded by the television licence. The most popular radio station by number of listeners is BBC Radio 2, closely followed by BBC Radio 4.

Rather than operating as independent entities, many commercial local radio stations are owned by large radio groups which broadcast a similar format to many areas. The largest operator of radio stations is Global Radio, owner of the major Heart and Galaxy radio brands. It also owns Classic FM and London's most popular commercial radio station, 95.8 Capital FM. Other owners are UTV Radio, with stations broadcasting in large city areas and Bauer Radio, holding radio in the North of England. There are also regional stations, like Real Radio and the Century Network, broadcasting in some main parts of England, Wales and Scotland, and a number of licensed community radio stations which broadcast to local audiences.

BBC Radio

BBC Radio is an operational business division and service of the British Broadcasting Corporation (which has operated in the United Kingdom under the terms of a Royal Charter since 1927). The BBC radio services began in 1922. It was licensed by the British Government through its General Post Office which had original control of the airwaves because they had been interpreted under law as an extension of the Post Office services.

Of the national radio stations, BBC Radio 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 Live are all available through analogue radio (5 Live on AM only) as well as on DAB Digital Radio and internet services through Real Media, WMA and BBC iPlayer. The remaining stations, BBC Radio 1Xtra, 4 Extra, 5 Live Sports Extra and 6 Music, all broadcast on digital platforms only.

BBC Radio 1 broadcasts mostly current pop music output on FM and digital radio, with live music throughout the year

BBC Radio 2 is the United Kingdom's most listened-to radio station, featuring presenters such as Chris Evans and Terry Wogan, and playing popular music from the last five decades as well as special interest programmes in the evening

BBC Radio 3 is a classical music station, broadcasting high-quality concerts and performances. At night, it transmits a wide range of jazz and world music.

BBC Radio 4: news, current affairs, arts, history, original in-house drama, original in-house first-run comedy, science, books and religion. The service closes down and simulcasts the BBC World Service from 01:00 to 05:20 daily. Available between 92-95 and 103-105 FM, 198 LW, various medium wave frequencies and on digital platforms.

BBC Radio 5 Live broadcasts live news and sports commentary with phone-in debates and studio guests.

BBC 1Xtra broadcasts new urban music, plus news, original in-house live music sessions, original live music concerts and music documentaries.

BBC Radio 4 Extra broadcasts classic comedy, drama, books, science fiction, fantasy and children's programmes.

BBC 6 Music: an eclectic mix of alternative genres including rock, funk, punk and reggae (and most non-special interest genres), plus news, original in-house live music sessions, original live music concerts and music documentaries.

BBC Radio 5 Live Sports Extra is a companion to Five Live for additional events coverage.

BBC Asian Network is aimed at the large South Asian community in the United Kingdom (also available on AM in some areas).

Commercial Radio

Commercial broadcasting (also called private broadcasting) is the broadcasting of television programs and radio programming by privately owned corporate media, as opposed to state sponsorship. It was the United States' first model of radio (and later television) during the 1920s, in contrast with the public television model in Europe during the 1930s, 1940s and 1950s which prevailed worldwide (except in the United States) until the 1980s.

In the UK, British Sky Broadcasting (BSkyB) is available and WorldSpace Satellite Radio was available.

Community Radio

In the United Kingdom, Community Radio refers to a system of licensing small, micro-local, non-profit radio stations, which started in 2002. In its early days, the pilot scheme was known as Access Radio.

Community radio stations broadcast to a small area, normally within a 3-mile (5 km) radius, and are required by the Act to be not-for-profit organisations, owned by local people, on which the broadcasters are mostly volunteers. They are recognised under the Communications Act 2003 as a distinct third tier of radio in the United Kingdom. The community radio movement in the United Kingdom was founded in the mid-1970s, broadcasting through Restricted Service Licences, the internet and cable.

Television

Television broadcasting started in the United Kingdom in 1936 as public service free of advertising. Analogue terrestrial television in the United Kingdom is made up of two chartered public broadcasting companies, the BBC and Channel 4 and two franchised commercial television companies, (ITV and Channel 5). There are five major nationwide television channels: BBC One, BBC Two, ITV, Channel 4 and Channel 5 - currently transmitted by analogue and digital

terrestrial, free-to-air signals with the latter three channels funded by commercial advertising. The United Kingdom now has a large number of digital terrestrial channels including a further six from the BBC, five from ITV and three from Channel 4, and one from S4C which is solely in Welsh, among a variety of others. The vast majority of digital cable television services are provided by Virgin Media with satellite television available from Freesat or British Sky Broadcasting and free-to-air digital terrestrial television by Freeview. The entire country will switch to digital by 2012.

Now there is a collection of free and subscription services over a variety of distribution media, through which there are over 480 channels for consumers as well as on-demand content. There are six main channel owners who are responsible for most viewing. There are 27,000 hours of domestic content produced a year at a cost of £2.6 billion. Since 24 October 2012, all television broadcasts in the United Kingdom are in a digital format, following the end of analogue transmissions in Northern Ireland. Digital content is delivered via terrestrial, satellite and cable as well as over IP.

BBC

The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) is the public service broadcaster of the United Kingdom, headquartered at Broadcasting House in London. It is the world's oldest national broadcasting organisation and the largest broadcaster in the world by number of employees, with over 20,950 staff in total, of whom 16,672 are in public sector broadcasting; including part-time, flexible as well as fixed contract staff, the total number is 35,402. BBC Television is a service of the British Broadcasting Corporation.

The domestic TV BBC television channels are broadcast without any commercial advertising and collectively they account for more than 30% of all UK viewing. The services are funded by a television licence. These channels are also available outside the UK in neighbouring countries e.g. Belgium and the Netherlands.



BBC One

BBC One is the flagship television channel of the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) in the United Kingdom, Isle of Man and Channel Islands. It was launched on 2 November 1936 as the BBC Television Service, and was the world's first regular television service with a high level of image resolution. It was renamed BBC TV in 1960, using this name until the launch of sister channel BBC2 in 1964, whereupon the BBC TV channel became known as BBC1, with the current spelling adopted in 1997.

The Corporation's primary network, broadcasting mainstream comedy, drama, documentaries, films, news, sport, and some children's programmes. BBC One is also the home of the BBC's main 30-minute news bulletins, currently shown at 13:00, 18:00, and 22:00 (on weekdays; times vary for weekend news bulletins) and overnight bulletins from BBC World News

every Monday to Sunday. The main news bulletins are followed by local news. These are provided by production centres in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland and a further 14 regional and sub-regional centres in England. The centres also produce local news magazine programming.

BBC Two

BBC Two is the second television channel operated by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) in the United Kingdom, Isle of Man and Channel Islands. It covers a wide range of subject matter, but tending towards more “highbrow” programmes than the more mainstream and popular BBC One. Like the BBC's other domestic TV and radio channels, it is funded by the television licence, and is therefore commercial-free.

Home to more specialist programming, including comedy, documentaries, dramas, children’s programming and minority interest programmes, as well as imported programmes from other countries, particularly the United States. An important feature of the schedule is Newsnight, a 50-minute news analysis programme shown each weeknight at 22.30. There are slight differences in the programming for England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland. The most notable is a separate final 20 minutes for Newsnight broadcast in Scotland.

BBC Three

BBC Three is a television channel from the BBC which broadcasts via digital cable, terrestrial, IPTV and satellite platforms. The channel’s target audience includes those in the 16 - 34-year-old age group, and has the purpose of providing “innovative” content to younger audiences, focusing on new talent and new technologies. Home to mainly youth-oriented programming, particularly new comedy sketch shows and sitcoms.

BBC Four

BBC Four is a British television channel operated by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and available to digital television viewers on Freeview, IPTV, satellite, and cable.

BBC News

BBC News (also referred to as the BBC News Channel) is the BBC’s 24-hour rolling news television network in the United Kingdom. The channel launched as BBC News 24 on 9 November 1997 at 17:30 as part of the BBC’s foray into digital domestic television channels, becoming the first competitor to Sky News, which had been running since 1989. For a time, looped news, sport and weather bulletins were available to view via BBC Red Button.

ITV (TV network)

ITV is a commercial TV network in the United Kingdom. Launched in 1955 as Independent Television under the auspices of the Independent Television Authority (ITA, then after the Sound

Broadcasting Act 1972, Independent Broadcasting Authority, now Ofcom) to provide competition to the BBC, it is also the oldest commercial network in the UK.

ITV is the largest commercial broadcaster in the UK and proud to be the Most Loved and Most Watched. ITV is the only commercial channel which regularly attracts big audiences. 99.4% of commercial programmes attract more than 5m viewers. The top 525 commercial programmes of 2014 were on ITV. ITV viewers are more attentive. 83% of ITV viewers watch for at least 20 minutes, making it very likely they will have seen an ad break.



Channel 4

Channel 4 is a British public-service television broadcaster that began transmission on 2 November 1982. The channel was established to provide a fourth television service to the United Kingdom in addition to the television licence-funded BBC's two services and the single commercial broadcasting network, ITV.

Channel 4 is governed by a unitary board made up of executive and non-executive directors, who are responsible for ensuring that Channel 4 fulfils its remit and delivers its financial responsibilities.

Non-executive directors are appointed by OFCOM in agreement with the Secretary of State for Culture, Media and Sport. The Chief Executive is appointed by the Board and other executive members are appointed after nomination by the Chief Executive and Chairman jointly.



Channel 5

Channel 5 was launched as Britain's fifth and final terrestrial broadcaster on the 31st March 1997.

In September 2014 the Channel 5 network was bought by Viacom International Media Networks..

Currently well over 30 million UK viewers watch Channel 5 any given week tuning in for programming as diverse as the CSI franchise, Dog Rescuers, The Gadget Show, Big Brother, Home and Away and Neighbours, 5 News as well as the Channel 5's award winning children's strand, Milkshake!

Channel 5 is a general entertainment channel that shows both internally commissioned programmes such as Fifth Gear, Big Brother, The Gadget Show, The Hotel Inspector and Gibraltar: Britain in the Sun and foreign programmes.

Channel 5 is the fifth most popular channel in the UK, claiming a 4.2% share of viewing across the whole of 2012. Channel 5 provides viewers with a varied mix of programming which includes entertainment, sport, documentaries, kids, drama, News and films. Channel 5 is also home to the biggest US dramas. As well as continuing with hit series such as CSI, NCIS and The Mentalist in the past year we have introduced UK audiences to new acquisitions such as Once Upon A Time, Body Of Proof, Person Of Interest and Dallas.

Attitude toward Foreign Media

Foreign media, especially U.S. and European, are widely available in Britain, and the country is open to foreign correspondents with little restriction. *Reader's Digest* is among the best-selling magazines in Britain, and foreign newspapers are easy to find. Particularly in London and other major cities, foreign-language films, books, and newspapers are readily available. In certain media, particularly film, the British audience (like many others around the world) is surrendering to U.S. products: Robert McChesney wrote that U.S. films account for 95 percent of Britain's box office receipts.

In both the press and broadcasting, no foreign outlets threaten the predominance of British products, although U.S. television shows are popular. BBC World News is widely preferred to CNN, and all of the best-selling papers are British (as opposed to, say, the *USA Today* or *LeMonde*, both of which are easily available). It has already been shown, however, that much of the British press belongs to multinational corporations, with the Australian Rupert Murdoch and the Canadian Conrad Black controlling large press empires. No laws, then, prevent the foreign (or international) ownership of the press. However, non-European companies are limited to owning no more than 20 percent of Channel 5 or an ITV company.

News Agencies

Even though Britain's national papers take pride in maintaining their own staffs of correspondents, cutbacks have led all of the newspapers to rely more heavily on news agencies for copy, particularly for international news. Unlike U.S. newspapers, moreover, British newspapers often do not attribute agency material.

Reuters, the world's first news agency, founded in 1851, sold foreign news to various British papers and thus enabled them not to maintain their own costly foreign correspondents. Though Reuters was initiated as a commercial venture, Donald Read argued that it quickly developed into

“the news agency of the British Empire.” Members of its senior staff “began to regard themselves as on a level with senior home and colonial civil servants, doing essential work in support of the British cause worldwide.” By the late nineteenth century, Reuters’s resulting expansion made it increasingly unprofitable, and Reuters entered a period in which its collection of news for the press “was sometimes openly undertaken at a loss.” For much of the twentieth century, Reuters thus depended on subsidies from the newspapers. Only in the 1970s did Reuters escape its dependence on newspaper subsidies, and then only by finding revenue-producing ventures outside of media services. Read thus pointed out that media services as of 2002 produced only 5 percent of the total Reuters revenue. Most of Reuters’s income derived from financial services, mainly the supply of financial information.

In a lecture at Cardiff University in 2000, Mark Wood, the director of Reuters Internet services, stated that Reuters produced about 10,000 news stories per day, in twenty-two languages. Reuters also had become the global leading news supplier for the Internet, providing news to 900 Web sites, including Yahoo. Among Reuters’s major competitors, Wood did not list any British company. In financial news, the main competitors were Bloomberg and Dow-Jones. In general world news, the Associated Press and French service Agence France-Presse were the main competitors. This list underscores that the news agency field is fully international. In addition, though not actually a news agency, the BBC World Service, subsidized by the Foreign Office, often functions as a de facto news agency.

Exercises

I. Choose the answer that best completes the statement or answer the question.

- (1) Which of the following doesn’t belong to the three most newspapers?
 - A. *The Times*
 - B. *The Daily Telegraph*
 - C. *The Guardian*
 - D. *The Observer*
- (2) Which of the following is the sister paper of *The Times*?
 - A. *The Financial Times*
 - B. *The Sunday Times*
 - C. *The Daily Express*
 - D. *The Guardian*
- (3) _____ is a weekly magazine specialising in celebrity news and human-interest stories, published in the United Kingdom since 1988.
 - A. *The Economist*
 - B. *Private Eye*
 - C. *Hello!*
 - D. *the Radio Times*
- (4) Which of the following statements is not true?

- A. BBC Radio 1 broadcasts mostly current pop music output on FM and digital radio, with live music throughout the year.
 - B. BBC Radio 3 is a classical music station, broadcasting high-quality concerts and performances.
 - C. BBC Radio 5 Live broadcasts live news and sports commentary with phone-in debates and studio guests.
 - D. BBC 1Xtra broadcasts classic comedy, drama, books, science fiction, fantasy and children's programmes.
- (5) BBC Three's target audience includes those in the _____-year-old age group
- A. 12-25
 - B. 14-32
 - C. 16-34
 - D. 18-42

II. Fill in the following blanks with appropriate words or expressions.

- (1) Media of the United Kingdom consist of several different types of _____ communications media: _____, _____, _____, _____, and _____.
- (2) The BBC's largest competitors are _____ and _____.
- (3) Alfred Harmsworth is often credited with creating the modern popular press, particularly with the creation of the _____ in 1896.
- (4) The twentieth century witnessed the ongoing conflict between _____ and _____.
- (5) Over the course of the twentieth century, the press solidified into three distinct markets in the daily and Sunday national press: _____, _____, and _____.
- (6) The quality press, including _____, _____, _____, _____, and _____, is published in a _____ format.
- (7) Traditionally British newspapers have been divided into _____, _____ (usually referred to as _____ because of their large size) and the more populist, _____ varieties.
- (8) In an effort to increase circulation, the tabloids introduced _____, i.e., the purchasing of exclusive stories from disturbing sources.
- (9) *The Times* is a British daily _____ newspaper based in London.
- (10) *The Observer* is a British newspaper, published on _____.
- (11) *The Observer* and its sister newspaper *The Guardian* operate a visitor centre in London called _____.
- (12) *The Independent* is a British _____ morning newspaper published in London by Independent Print Limited.
- (13) Nicknamed the _____, *The Independent* was launched in 1986 and is one of the _____ UK national daily newspapers.
- (14) *The Daily Mail* is a British daily _____, middle-market _____ newspaper owned by the Daily Mail and General Trust.
- (15) *The Daily Mirror*, often referred to simply as *The Mirror*, is a British tabloid daily

newspaper founded in _____.

(16) *The Daily Mirror* is the only British national paper to have consistently supported the _____ since 1945.

(17) *Private Eye* is a _____ British satirical and current affairs magazine based in London, England.

(18) The principal subject areas of *The Spectator* are _____ and _____.

(19) _____ is a British music journalism magazine published since 1949.

(20) Radio in the United Kingdom is dominated by the _____, which operates radio stations both in the United Kingdom and abroad.

(21) The BBC World Service radio network is broadcast in _____ languages globally.

(22) The domestic services of the BBC are funded by the _____.

(23) The BBC radio services began in _____.

(24) Commercial broadcasting (also called _____) is the broadcasting of television programs and radio programming by privately owned corporate media, as opposed to _____.

(25) In the United Kingdom, Community Radio refers to a system of licensing _____, _____ radio stations, which started in 2002.

(26) Analogue terrestrial television in the United Kingdom is made up of two _____, the BBC and Channel 4 and two franchised commercial television companies, _____ (_____ and _____).

(27) There are five major nationwide television channels: _____, _____, ITV, _____ and Channel 5.

(28) BBC Two is the _____ television channel operated by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) in the United Kingdom, Isle of Man and _____.

(29) BBC News (also referred to as the BBC News Channel) is the BBC's _____ rolling news television network in the United Kingdom.

(30) ITV is a _____ TV network in the United Kingdom.

III. True or false

____ (1) BBC is a private service broadcaster.

____ (2) ITV plc operates 12 of the 15 regional television broadcasters that make up the ITV Network.

____ (3) News Corporation holds a large stake in satellite broadcaster British Sky Broadcasting and also operate a number of leading regional newspapers.

____ (4) England's first news periodicals, called corantos, circulated in the 1620s.

____ (5) The middle market and mass market are published in tabloid format.

____ (6) Mass market includes the Daily Mirror and the Daily Mail.

____ (7) Some reputable newspapers, such as *The Independent* and *The Times*, are in tabloid format.

____ (8) A larger number of broadsheets' stories focus more directly on entertainment than is the case with tabloids.

____ (9) Britain's broadsheet papers enjoy worldwide respect, particularly *The Times*.

____ (10) *The Daily Telegraph* is a British daily morning English-language broadsheet newspaper.

____ (11) *The Guardian* is a British national daily newspaper.

- ____(12) *The Observer*'s daily sister papers are *The Guardian* and *The Guardian Weekly*.
- ____(13) *The Sun* is the largest-selling British national "quality" Sunday newspaper.
- ____(14) *The Daily Express* is a daily national middle market broadsheet newspaper in the United Kingdom.
- ____(15) *The News of the World* was a national red top newspaper published in the United Kingdom from 1843 to 2011.
- ____(16) From 2006, allegations of phone hacking began to engulf the *News of the World*.
- ____(17) *New Scientist* is a UK-based monthly English-language international science magazine, founded in 1956.
- ____(18) *HELLO!* magazine has been at the centre of celebrity stories since it began, but prides itself on well-sourced news rather than speculative gossip.
- ____(19) *The Spectator* was the world's first broadcast listings magazine.
- ____(20) Domestically the BBC also operates twenty national networks and over 40 local radio stations including services in Welsh on BBC Radio Cymru, Gaelic on BBC Radio nan Gàidheal in Scotland and Irish in Northern Ireland.
- ____(21) BBC Radio is an operational business division and service of the British Broadcasting Corporation (which has operated in the United Kingdom under the terms of a Royal Charter since 1922).
- ____(22) BBC Asian Network is aimed at the large North Asian community in the United Kingdom (also available on AM in some areas).
- ____(23) In the United Kingdom, Community Radio refers to a system of licensing small, micro-local, non-profit radio stations, which started in 2002.
- ____(24) Since 24 October 2012, all television broadcasts in the United Kingdom are in a digital format, following the end of analogue transmissions in Northern Ireland.
- ____(25) The domestic TV BBC television channels are broadcast with commercial advertising and collectively they account for more than 30% of all UK viewing.
- ____(26) BBC Two covers a wide range of subject matter, but tending towards less "highbrow" programmes than the more mainstream and popular BBC One.
- ____(27) ITV is the oldest commercial network in the UK.
- ____(28) Channel 4 is a British private-service television broadcaster that began transmission on 2 November 1982.
- ____(29) Channel 5 was launched as Britain's fifth and the second terrestrial broadcaster on the 31st March 1997.
- ____(30) *Reader's Digest* is among the best-selling magazines in Britain, and foreign newspapers are easy to find.

IV. Explain the following terms.

- (1) BBC
- (2) broadsheet
- (3) tabloid
- (4) *The Financial Times*
- (5) *The Sun*
- (6) *The Economist*

- (7) *Nature*
- (8) BBC One
- (9) ITV
- (10) Channel 4

V. Guess the meanings of the following boldfaced words.

- (1) At the same time, however, critics worry about recent evidence of their “**tabloidization**,” specifically the disappearance of the parliamentary report and the turn toward more features-oriented stories.
- (2) *The Daily Telegraph* has a sister paper, *The Sunday Telegraph*, that was started in 1961, which had **circulation** of 418,670 as of March 2014.
- (3) In November 2007 *The Observer* and *The Guardian* made their **archives** available over the internet via Digital Archive.
- (4) *The Daily Express* is the flagship title of Express Newspapers, a subsidiary of Northern & Shell (itself wholly owned by Richard Desmond).
- (5) *Nature* is a British **interdisciplinary** scientific journal, first published on 4 November 1869.

VI. Consider the following questions.

- (1) What is *the Economist*’s primary focus?
- (2) What is *Nature*’s mission statement?
- (3) How much do you know about Global Radio?
- (4) When did the BBC radio services begin?
- (5) What does Channel 5 provide viewers?

VII. Work in groups and discuss the following questions.

- (1) A number of newspapers are introduced above. Which one do you prefer to read? Why?
- (2) Can you give us a brief description of the media in the United Kingdom after your reading?

VIII. Essay Writing

Several different types of communications media are explained in details. Which one do you think can best stand for the media of the United Kingdom? Now write a passage of about 180-200 words to present your understanding.

Unit8 Sports

Cultural Training

Sports play an important part in the life in Britain. Many of the world's famous sports began in Britain, including cricket, football, lawn tennis, golf and rugby. England's national sport is cricket although to many people football (soccer) is seen as the national sport. Football is the most popular sport. Some of England's football teams are world famous, the most famous being Manchester United, Arsenal and Liverpool.

As the speech given by Jacques Rogge at London Olympics Opening Ceremony, the United Kingdom is widely recognized as the birthplace of modern sport. The concepts of sportsmanship and fair play were first codified into clear rules and regulations here. Sport was included as an educational tool in the school curriculum here.

Sports of all kinds play an important part in many people's lives. There are several sports that are particularly popular in the UK. Many sporting events take place at major stadiums such as Wembley Stadium in London and the Millennium Stadium in Cardiff.

Local governments and private companies provide sports facilities such as swimming pools, tennis courts, football pitches, dry ski slopes and gymnasiums.

The UK has hosted the Olympic games on three occasions: 1908, 1948 and 2012. The main Olympic site for the 2012 Games was in Stratford, East London. The British team was very successful, across a wide range of Olympic sports, finishing third in the medal table. The 2012 Summer Olympics made London the first city to have hosted the modern Games of three Olympiads. London is the only city in the United Kingdom to have ever hosted the Olympics.

Cricket

Cricket is a bat-and-ball game played between two teams of 11 players each on a field at the centre of which is a rectangular 22-yard-long pitch. The exact origins of cricket are unknown, but is believed to date back to the 16th century, the name deriving from the Anglo-Saxon word *cricc*, meaning a shepherd's staff. It is thought that the first players were English shepherds, who used their criccs as bats and the wicket gate of the sheep pens as a target for the bowlers or pitchers. By the end of the 18th century, it had developed to be the national sport of England. The expansion of the British Empire led to cricket being played overseas and by the mid-19th century the first international match was held. ICC, the game's governing body, has 10 full members. The game is most popular in Australasia, England, the Indian subcontinent, the West Indies and Southern Africa.



Although the first reference to cricket appeared in the 13th century, the game only gained popularity in the 17th century, when English aristocrats started playing it. They decreed that cricket would be played in 'a gentlemanly manner', which means no sledging, cheating, bodyline bowling, temper tantrums or excessive appealing. If the batsman knew he was out, he should 'walk' even if the umpire decided otherwise.

Cricket is played on village greens and in towns/cities on Sundays from April to August. The rules of cricket became the responsibility, in the 18th century, of the Marylebone Cricket Club (MCC), based at Lord's cricket ground in north London.

Games can last up to five days but still result in a draw! The idiosyncratic nature of the game and its complex laws are said to reflect the best of the British character and sense of fair play. You may come across expressions such as 'rain stopped play', 'batting on a sticky wicket', 'playing a straight bat', 'bowled a googly' or 'it's just not cricket', which have passed into everyday usage. The most famous competition is the Ashes, which is a series of Test matches played between England and Australia.

Well in its most basic form cricket is a bat and ball game, not unlike baseball in that it involves two teams of players: one batting and the other bowling and fielding. Like football, teams are made up of 11 players each. They play with a ball slightly smaller than a baseball and a bat shaped like a paddle. Two batters stand in front of wickets, set about 20 metres apart. Each wicket consists of three wooden rods (stumps) pushed into the ground, with two small pieces of wood (bails) balanced on top. A member of the opposing team (the bowler) throws the ball towards one of the batters, who must hit the ball so that it does not knock a bail off the wicket. If the ball travels far enough, the two batters run back and forth between the wickets while the fielders on the opposing team try to catch the ball. When bowling, the aim is to hit the wicket, while the batsman tries to defend it and hit the ball far away to win 'runs'. If the bowler hits the wicket then the batsman is 'out', and the next one from the 11 in the batting team takes his place. When they are 'all out' the batting side's total runs are added up and the teams swap sides until the second side is also 'all out'. Whoever has the most runs at the end wins. The game is scored according to the number of runs, which is the number of times the batters exchange places.

Football

Football is the UK's most popular sport. It has a long history in the UK and the first professional football clubs were formed in the late 19th century.

For all the evidence of early ball sports played elsewhere in the world, the evolution of football as we know it today took place in Britain. The game that flourished in the British Isles from the 8th to the 19th centuries featured a considerable variety of local and regional versions-which were subsequently smoothed down and smartened up to create the modern-day sports of association football, rugby football and, in Ireland, Gaelic football.



Primitive football was more disorganised, more violent, more spontaneous and usually played by an indefinite number of players. Medieval or mob football was often played between neighbouring towns and villages, with a mass of players from opposing teams clashing to deliver an inflated pigs bladder from one end of town to the other. Kicking or punching the bladder, or ball, was permitted, as was doing the same to your opponents...these medieval matches were chaotic and had very few rules.

Mob football can still be seen throughout England today, generally played on Shrove Tuesday. Scoring the Hales takes place each year at Alnwick, Northumberland, as does Royal Shrovetide Football at Ashbourne, Derbyshire, with other Shrove Tuesday Football Games being played at Atherstone, Warwickshire and Corfe Castle in Dorset, to name but a few.

Disturbed by the adverse effect that football was having on the good citizens of London, King Edward II banned the game from the city. Later in 1349, his son Edward III banned football entirely, concerned that the game was distracting men from practising their archery. Following the massive loss of life suffered as a consequence of the Black Death, England needed as many archers as possible in order to achieve Edward's military ambitions in both France and Scotland.

Known for his sporting prowess in his early years, Henry VIII is believed to have owned the first pair of soccer boots, when in 1526 the royal footwear collection is recorded as including "...45 velvet pairs and 1 leather pair for football". Perhaps due to his increased waistline and hence his inability to compete at the highest level, Henry later banned the game in 1548, claiming that it incited riots.

The reputation of football as a violent game appears again and again throughout the 16th and 17th centuries in documented accounts, not only from England, but by this time the popularity of the sport appears to have spread to Ireland, Scotland and Wales.

It was in the slightly more civilised surroundings of Cambridge University that in 1848, representatives from the major public schools of England met to agree the laws that would standardise the games played between them. The Cambridge Rules were duly noted and formed

the code that was adopted by the football teams of Eton, Harrow, Rugby, Shrewsbury and Winchester public schools. This also ensured that when the students eventually arrived at Cambridge, they all played the same game!

These were not the only rules in place for the game at that time however, as throughout the 1850's, many clubs not associated with the university or schools continued with their own version of football. Yet another set of rules, known as the Sheffield Rules were used by a number of clubs in the north of England.

Curiously, it was not until nine years after the rules of football had been first established in 1863 that the size and weight of the ball were finally standardised. Up to then, agreement on this point was usually reached by the parties concerned when they were arranging the match, as was the case for a game between London and Sheffield in 1866. This encounter was also the first where the duration was prearranged for 90 minutes.

Today the laws of the game are governed by the International Football Association, which was formed in 1886 after a meeting in Manchester between The Football Association, the Scottish Football Association, the Football Association of Wales and the Irish Football Association. The first ever international football match was played on 30th November 1872 between Scotland and England. Played at the West of Scotland Cricket Club ground at Hamilton Crescent in Glasgow, the match finished in a 0-0 draw and was watched by around 4,000 spectators.

Today the game is played across the world by millions, with billions more armchair supporters preferring to watch the game on television. It appears that the 'beautiful game' remains close to its historic violent roots however, when in 1969 it caused a four-day war between El Salvador and Honduras and later in May 1990, when a match between Dinamo Zagreb and Red Star Belgrade deteriorated into rioting.

The history of football is as dramatic as a penalty shoot-out. There are many tales about possible historical forerunners of the sport, but football as we know it today is as English as fish and chips. The birthdate of modern, codified football is 1863, and its birthplace is London. This is when the Football Association was founded. Well over a century later, it's still the governing body of football in England - and the oldest in the world.

The Premier League is the crown jewel of the English football league system. Twenty teams play each year, and the four heavyweights include Chelsea, Manchester United, Liverpool, and Arsenal. Recently, strong seasons from Manchester City and Tottenham Spurs have increased the heavyweights from four to six.

England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland each have separate leagues in which clubs representing different towns and cities compete. The English Premier League attracts a huge international audience. Many of the best players in the world play in the Premier League. Many UK teams also compete in competitions such as the UEFA (Union of European Football Associations) Champions League, against other teams from Europe. Most towns and cities have a professional club and people take great pride in supporting their home team. There can be great rivalry between different football clubs and among fans.

Each country in the UK also has its own national team that competes with other national teams across the world in tournaments such as the FIFA (Fédération Internationale de Football Association) World Cup and the UEFA European Football Championships. England's only international tournament victory was at the World Cup of 1966, hosted in the UK.

Football is also a popular sport to play in many local communities, with people playing amateur games every week in parks all over the UK.

In the English Football League there are 92 professional clubs. These are semi-professional, so most players have other full-time jobs. Hundreds of thousands of people also play football in parks and playgrounds just for fun. The highlight of the English football year is the FA (Football Association) Cup Final each May.

Although football also has its critics, it plays an undeniable role in the economy of the UK. For every £1 that the sports charity Football Foundation invests, £7.73 is generated in the national economy. And for every £1 the central government gives to sports in the UK, it makes £5 in tax.

There are also some problems brought by football. "Hooliganism" is the term used broadly to describe disorderly, aggressive and often violent behaviour perpetrated by spectators at sporting events. In the UK, hooliganism is almost exclusively confined to football.

Disorderly behaviour has been common amongst football supporters since the birth of the sport, but it is only really since the 1960s that it began to be perceived as a serious problem.

In the 1980s, however, hooliganism became indelibly associated with English football supporters, following a series of major disturbances at home and abroad, which resulted in numerous deaths. Vigorous efforts by governments and the police since then have done much to reduce the scale of hooliganism.

However, it still persists, albeit in new forms. Today, in contrast to the more or less spontaneous upsurges of violence of the past, gangs of rival fans will frequently arrange to meet at specific locations, using mobile phones or the Internet, before and after matches to fight.

Furthermore, while England has the worst international reputation for hooliganism, a number of other countries have similar and growing problems. Today, the highest profile hooliganism problems tend to occur in relation to international matches and events.

In all these countries, some gangs of hooligans share other characteristics, interests and beliefs that incline them towards violent conduct, including links to far-right and racist organisations. Others, however, are apolitical, and are simply composed of men who enjoy fighting.

The term "hooligan" has a disputed derivation, but it is generally accepted to have begun to appear in London police reports in 1898 in relation to violent street gangs.

Rugby

The origins of the game, now known across the world simply as rugby, can be traced back over 2000 years. The Romans played a ball game called *harpastum*, a word derived from the Greek word "seize", the implication of the name being that somebody actually carried or handled the ball.

More recently, in medieval England, documents record young men leaving work early to compete for their village or town in games of football. Laws were passed, in Tudor times, forbidding the "*devilish pastime*" of football, as too many injuries and fatalities seriously depleted the available workforce. The participants of this *devilish pastime* are recorded thus... "The players are young men from 18-30 or upwards; married as well as single and many veterans who retain a relish for the sport are occasionally seen in the very heat of the conflict..." A description that some might say is as applicable today as it was all of those years ago.

Shrove Tuesday became the traditional timing for such conflicts. Rules differed from one part of the country to the next, from Derbyshire to Dorset to Scotland, records reveal many regional variations to the game. The games often took place over an ill-defined pitch - the ball being kicked, carried and driven through town and village streets over fields, hedges and streams.

The roots to the modern game of rugby can be traced to a school for *young gentlemen* in the Midlands of England, which in 1749 finally outgrew its cramped surroundings within the town centre and moved to a new site on the edge of the town of Rugby in Warwickshire. The new Rugby School site had "...every accommodation that could be required for the exercise of young gentlemen." This eight-acre plot became known as the Close.

The game of rugby, which was played on the Close between 1749 and 1823, had very few rules: touchlines were introduced and the ball could be caught and handled, but running with ball in hand was not permitted. Progress forward towards the opposition's goal was generally made by kicking. Games could last for five days and often included more than 200 boys. For fun, 40 seniors may take on two hundred younger pupils, the seniors having prepared for the event by first sending their boots to the town cobbler to have extra thick soles put on them, beveled at the front to better slice into the shins of the enemy!

It was during a match on the Close in the autumn of 1823 that the face of the game changed to the one which is recognisable to day. A local historian described this historic event as follows: "with a fine disregard for the rules of the game as played in his time, William Webb Ellis first took the ball in his arms and ran with it, thus originating the distinctive feature of the Rugby game." Ellis had apparently caught the ball and, according to the rules of the day, should have moved backwards giving himself enough room to either punt the ball up field or to place it for a kick at goal. He would have been protected from the opposing team as they could only advance to the spot where the ball had been caught. In disregarding this rule Ellis had caught the ball and instead of retiring, had run forward, ball in hand towards the opposite goal. A dangerous move and one that would not find its way into the fast developing rule book until 1841.

The rules and the fame of the game spread quickly as the Rugby School boys moved onwards and upwards, first to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. The first university match was played in 1872. From the universities, the graduating teachers introduced the game to other English, Welsh and Scottish schools, and overseas postings for the Old Rugbeians who had moved through to the army officer class, promoted its growth on the international stage. Scotland played England in the first International game at Raeburn Place, Edinburgh in 1871.

Modern rugby originated from Rugby school in Warwickshire. It is similar to football, but played with an oval ball. Players can carry the ball and tackle each other. The best rugby teams compete in the Super League final each September.

For many years Rugby was only played by the rich upper classes, but now it is popular all over the country. There are two different types of rugby, which have different rules: union and league. Both have separate leagues and national teams in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland (who play with the Irish Republic). Teams from all countries compete in a range of competitions. The most famous rugby union competition is the Six Nations Championship between England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales, France and Italy. The Super League is the most well-known rugby league (club) competition.

American Football derived from the game of Rugby. Baseball derived from the old English game of Rounders.

Tennis

Tennis is yet another sport which originated in the United Kingdom, first originating in the city of Birmingham between 1859 and 1865. However, it has not flourished there in recent decades: its profile is highly dependent on the Wimbledon Championships, the most prestigious event of the global tennis calendar.

The Championships, Wimbledon, or just Wimbledon as it is more commonly referred to, is the oldest tennis tournament in the world and arguably the most famous. Since the first tournament 125 years ago in 1877, The Championships have been hosted by the All England Lawn Tennis and Croquet Club in Wimbledon, London and take place over two weeks in late June – early July.



Of the four major annual tennis tournaments known as the 'Grand Slams', Wimbledon is the only one to still be played on grass, which is where the name lawn tennis originated. Grass is also the surface which provides the fastest game of tennis. Of the other three, the Australian Open and the US Open are both played on hard courts and the French Open is played on clay.

However, no British man has won Wimbledon since 1936 and no British woman since 1977. Wimbledon started at a small club in south London in the nineteenth century. It begins on the nearest Monday to June 22, at a time when English often have the finest weather. Millions of people watch the Championships on TV live.

Wimbledon is the oldest of all the major tennis tournaments beginning in 1877. The rewards of prize money began in 1968 when the total purse allocated was £26,150 (about \$40,000).

It is traditional for visitors to eat strawberries and cream whilst they watch the tennis.

The modern tennis, which we call, lawn tennis, originated in Birmingham, England. The game is either played individually (singles) or with a partner (doubles). Players make use what they call the racket, which is used to strike a ball. Tennis may be played indoor or outdoor; a carpet is used when playing indoors. The standard size of a tennis court is 23.77 meters x 8.23 meters for singles, and 23.77 meters x 10.97 meters for doubles. Another variation of tennis is table tennis, which is played using a table. Each player uses a racquet that is strung with cord to strike a hollow rubber ball covered with felt over or around a net and into the opponent's court. The object of the game is to play the ball in such a way that the opponent is not able to play a good return. The opponent who is unable to return the ball will not gain a point, while the opposite opponent will. Tennis is an Olympic sport and is played at all levels of society and at all ages. The sport can be played by anyone who can hold a racquet, including wheelchair users.

The rules of tennis have changed little since the 1890s. Two exceptions are that from 1908 to 1961 the server had to keep one foot on the ground at all times, and the adoption of the tie-break in the 1970s. A recent addition to professional tennis has been the adoption of electronic review technology coupled with a point challenge system, which allows a player to contest the line call of a point.

Tennis is played by millions of recreational players and is also a popular worldwide spectator sport. The four Grand Slam tournaments (also referred to as the "Majors") are especially popular: the Australian Open played on hard courts, the French Open played on red clay courts, Wimbledon played on grass courts, and the US Open played also on hard courts.

Netball

Netball is the largest female team sport in England. The sport is played almost exclusively by women and girls, although male participation has increased in recent years.

The genesis of netball is one of the stranger sporting stories. After James Naismith had invented basketball, women affiliated to the School for Christian Workers (later YMCA) where he developed the game wanted to take up something similar. They adapted the method of play, for example ruling out dribbling, to suit their then too voluminous clothing. But the sport took a major detour when Naismith's diagrammatic explanation of the rules was misinterpreted by gym mistress Clara Baer, and the idea of players being restricted to operation in zones determined by their position was born.

In spite of being an established sport for many decades, national variations in rules existed until standardisation in 1960, facilitating the first World Championships in 1963 – held in England and won as so often since by Australia. In 1998 the sport was played in the Commonwealth Games for the first time, and since 1995 has been recognized by the Olympic authorities, though it is yet to feature at an Olympiad.

Though the game is American in origin, this country boasts the oldest netball club in the world, based at what was the Regent Street Polytechnic – their first game was at the Poly's Chiswick sports facilities, just one of that borough's claims to fame.

At the top of the game some extremely competitive and capable athletes participate – take for example Tracey Neville, sister of Gary and Phil the England footballers, who represented her country more than 70 times before injury hit her career: some could argue she is the most gifted athlete in a gifted family. The game in Britain has enjoyed a resurgence of late beyond the school and college sphere, with local leagues providing women with fun and the chance to keep fit, with maybe a small restorative afterwards, and the social benefits of a club set up.

Horseracing

The horse's contribution to Britain's rich history and culture is significant. From the early image of Queen Boudica in a chariot being drawn by her two chargers into battle with the Romans, the horse has long been part of life in Britain. The ancients were so in awe of these creatures that they carved figures of giant horses into the chalk hills of southern England.

In terms of folklore and superstition the good luck associated with placing a horseshoe over a door dates from the Middle Ages.

The legend associated with this tradition has it that one day the Devil came to a blacksmith's forge in disguise to have his cloven hooves shod. The blacksmith named Dunstan at first agreed, but after seeing through the disguise, he tied the Devil to the anvil and attacked him with hot tongs. The Devil begged for mercy, but Dunstan only released him when he promised never to enter a house where a horseshoe hung. The horseshoe must be placed with the toe down so that it can catch goodness from heaven. Dunstan did not remain a simple blacksmith for long; he later became Archbishop of Canterbury and was made a saint after his death in 988 A.D.

To this day "lucky horseshoes" remain a common sight at weddings.

The horse may also have been responsible for influencing Britain's history when in October 1066, William the Conqueror of Normandy put his army, including 3,000 horses, onto 700 small sailing ships and headed across the channel to England. William had come to secure his right to the English throne from King Harold. The English and Norman armies met near Hastings where William's army was victorious largely due to his cavalry assisted by archers.

One of William's cavalymen on that day was his half brother, Odo, Bishop of Bayeux. As befits a devout man of the cloth, Odo swung a rather large club from his horse to avoid drawing English blood. After the battle, Odo commissioned the Bayeux Tapestry, some 231 feet in length; the importance of the horse is recorded by the fact that there are a total of 190 horses depicted on the tapestry itself.

Many English words and phrases used today derive from the horse. Examples include "horseplay" (rowdy behaviour), "work like a horse" and "eat like a horse". "Straight from the horse's mouth" signifying that the information comes directly from the original source is thought to derive from the practice of gauging a horse's age by examining the condition of its teeth. James Watt even based his famous measurement of power on the workhorse of the day – horsepower – the power required to lift 33,000 pounds by one foot in one minute.

The horse has provided names for many of Britain's plants and insects including horse chestnut, horseradish, horse-fly and horse-parsley. Whilst the horse chestnut was once used for treating sick animals, the prefix "horse" often signifies that a plant is coarse or unrefined.

Many British place names demonstrate *horsey* origins such as Horsley which means a "clearing or pasture for horses", Horsmonden "woodland pasture where horses drink" and Horsham, a Saxon name which is thought to mean "village where horses are kept."

Nowadays horses mainly provide sport and entertainment. From show jumping at Hickstead, eventing at Gatcombe Park and polo at Cirencester Park through to the major racing events at Cheltenham (Gold Cup), Aintree (Grand National) and Royal Ascot (Derby), the horse remains a significant part of life in today's Britain.

Horse racing is a variant of equestrian sport which involves two or more jockeys riding horses on a certain distance for competitions.

Since the beginning of recorded history, horse racing was an organized sport for all major civilizations around the globe. The ancient Greek Olympics had events for both chariot and mounted horse racing. The sport was also very popular in the Roman Empire.

The origins of modern racing lie in the 12th century, when English knights returned from the Crusades with swift Arab horses. During the next 4 centuries, an increasing number of Arab stallions were imported and bred to English mares in order to produce horses that possessed both speed and endurance. The nobility would wager privately on match races between the fastest of these horses.

During the reign of Queen Anne (1702-1714), horse racing began to become a professional sport. Match racing evolved into multi-horse races on which the spectators wagered. Racecourses emerged all over England, offering increasingly large purses to attract the best horses. The purses made breeding and owning horses for racing more profitable. The rapid expansion of the sport created the need for a central governing authority. In 1750 racing's elite met at Newmarket to form the Jockey Club. This organization still regulates English racing to this day.

There is a very long history of horse racing in Britain, with evidence of events taking place as far back as Roman times. The sport has a long association with royalty. There are racecourses all over the UK. Famous horse racing events include: Royal Ascot, a five day race meeting in Berkshire attended by members of the Royal Family; the Grand National at Aintree near Liverpool; and the Scottish Grand National at Ayr. There is a National Horseracing Museum in Newmarket, Suffolk.

Horse racing and greyhound racing are popular spectator sports. People can place bets on the races at legal off-track betting shops. Some of the best-known horse races are held at Ascot, Newmarket, Goodwood and Epsom.

Ascot, a small town in the south of England, becomes the centre of horse-racing world for one week in June. It's called Royal Ascot because the Queen always goes to Ascot. She has a lot of racehorses and likes to watch racing.

The Grand National may already have been and gone but the horse racing season in the UK is just getting started with a number of race meetings coming up to tempt seasoned fans and attract new audiences who want a taste of Britain's second largest spectator sport.

Arguably the most famous of all the British racing meets, Ladies' Day is the highlight of Royal Ascot, held at the Berkshire racecourse and founded by Queen Anne in 1711. Taking place on the Thursday of this five day long meet in June, Ladies' Day coincides with Ascot's most prestigious race, the Gold Cup. As much a celebration of big hats and fashion as racing horses, recent decades have made going to Ascot an entertaining day out for friends and families, and can easily be reached from London in less than an hour.

Another event regularly attended by Her Majesty Elizabeth II is the Epsom Derby. Located atop the rolling hills of Epsom Downs and with an impressive view of London to the south, the Derby is again much more than a horse racing meet with lots to do inside the spectators' area. Inaugurated back in 1780, there used to be a fun fair during the event but this attempt to attract more people to the race seems to have worked, as there's no longer any space for the rides and this isn't just because of the large hats on show on Ladies' Day on the Friday. The Epsom Derby is also the race that other famous meetings, think Kentucky Derby and New Zealand Derby, have taken their names from.

The annual Glorious Goodwood meeting beginning at the end of July may not be as big as Ascot or Epsom, but it is much more scenic thanks to surrounding views of the rich greens of the Sussex Downs and in particular 'The Trundle', a flat hilltop that has been used as a fort and settlement since the Iron Age. You'll find many people heading there to catch a view of the racing at Glorious Goodwood for free; there are even bookies there waiting to take your bets. If you ever visit the cathedral city of Chichester, make sure that Goodwood is on your itinerary.

The North of England's most popular horse racing event is Ebor Festival, held at the end of August at York Racecourse. Again an event that is as much about socialising and having a day out with the family as it is watching the race unfold, Ebor Festival has been pulling in the crowds

since 1843. If you do find yourself in York for Ebor Festival, be sure to save some time so you can visit York Minster and the Jorvik Viking Museum, always very popular with kids. If you were wondering where the name Ebor comes from, it's an abbreviation of 'Eboracum', the Latin name for York.



Often referred to as the headquarters of British horse racing, Newmarket Racecourse is host to several meetings throughout the year and ends the season with a number of events in October. With two racing courses on offer, and home to the National Horseracing Museum, Newmarket is a must-visit if you have an interest in the sport or want to learn more. Even away from racing, Suffolk market town is a great place for a day out and boasts some great opportunities for shopping too. Don't be surprised to see jockeys and trainers walk pass you in town as it's home to some of horse racing's biggest names.

Horse racing in Great Britain is predominantly thoroughbred flat and jumps racing. It was in Great Britain in the 17th to 19th centuries that many of the sport's rules and regulations were established. Many of the sport's greatest jockeys, most notably Sir Gordon Richards have been British. The sport is regulated by the British Horseracing Authority. Note that the BHA's authority does not extend to Northern Ireland — racing in Ireland is governed on an All-Ireland basis.

Polo

The fastest ball sport in the world, it is played with four men on horses to a team. A ball is hit with a stick towards the goal, one at each end of a 300 yard long by 160 yard wide field. A game consists of 4 to 6 periods called chukkas, a chukka is 7 minutes long. Teams change ends each time a goal is scored. It can be played by men and women of any standard. Arena Polo is played during the winter, three aside and in an arena 300 feet by 150 feet.



Polo is perhaps the oldest team sport, although the exact origins of the game are unknown. It was probably first played by nomadic warriors over two thousand years ago but the first recorded tournament was in 600 B.C. (between the Turkomans and the Persians - the Turkomans were victorious). The name is supposed to have originated from the Tibetan "pholo" meaning "ball" or "ballgame". It is since these origins in Persia that the game has often been associated with the rich and noble of society; the game was played by Kings, Princes and Queens in Persia. Polo has also been linked to the middle and upper classes in the more recent British past, especially with its origins in Britain being with the militia. This is also perhaps due to it being, as a game played on horseback and requiring at least two horses per game, an expensive hobby to maintain.

Played on horseback, in the Middle Ages it was used in the training of cavalry across the East (from Japan to Constantinople, and was played almost as a miniature battle. It first became known to western peoples via British tea-planters in Manipur (between Burma and India) and it spread to Malta with soldiers and naval officers. In 1869, the first game in Britain (of "hockey on horseback" as it was referred to at first) was organised on Hounslow Heath by officers stationed at Aldershot, one of whom had read about the game in a magazine.

The first official written rules (on which the present international rules are based) were not created until the 19th Century by Irishman Captain John Watson of the British Cavalry 13th Hussars. These were revised in 1874 to create the Hurlingham Rules, restricting the number of players on each team.

However, the size of the Polo pitch (nearly 10 acres in area, slightly more than nine football pitches; the largest field in organised sport!) has not altered since one of the first pitches was built, in front of Ali Ghapu Palace in the ancient city of Ispahan (Isfahan, Iran) in the 1500's. Today it is used as a public park and the original stone goal posts remain. In addition to the vast pitch, an area called the "run off area" is used; incidents within the game that occur within this area are considered as if they happened within the confines of the actual pitch!

When played on an open field, each team has 4 players on horseback but when the game is restricted to an enclosed stadium, 3 players take part on each team. There is no "season" for Polo like other games like football or cricket, due to the ability for it to be played indoors as well as out. A new variation on the game is "snow polo", completely unrestricted by "bad" weather patterns! Only three players on each team here and the equipment is altered to suit the conditions. It is, however, considered separate from the traditional polo game due to these differences.

A full game of Polo consists of 4, 6 or 8 "chukkas". Each chukka involves seven minutes of play, after which a bell is rung and play continues for either another 30 seconds or until the ball (now, a white plastic or wooden ball, originally made of willow) goes out of play. The chukka is ended where the ball finishes. A three minute break is given between each chukka and a five minute break at half time. Between each chukka, each player will dismount and change ponies (the term "polo pony" is traditional but the animals are usually of horse proportions). Sometimes a fresh pony will be ridden in each chukka or two ponies will be on rotation, but ponies will not usually play more than two chukkas. Ends are changed after each goal is scored. The game and the chukkas may seem relatively short to you and Polo is the fastest ball game in the world, but not in terms of the length of each match. The fact that the players are mounted on horseback allows high speeds to be reached and ensures fast paced passing of the ball between players. However, the Hurlingham rules, the background to the game played in Britain, allow a more sedate and methodical pace; how typically British!

The ball is hit with a stick or mallet, rather like a lengthened version of the stick used in croquet, wielded by each mounted player towards the goals at each end. In the games played in Manipur centuries ago, players were allowed to carry the ball with them on their horses which often lead to physical fights between players to gain the ball for their teams. The game is played right handed (there are only three players on the international circuit who are left handed); for safety reasons, in 1975, left handed play was prohibited.

After the mechanisation of the cavalry, where perhaps the most enthusiasm was built for the game, its popularity declined. But there was a revival during the 1940's and today, more than 77 countries play Polo. It was a recognised Olympic sport between 1900 and 1939 and is now, again, acknowledged by the International Olympic Committee.

Polo clubs can be found throughout the Country, many of them catering for beginners. Some of the Pony Clubs have also taken up polo resulting in an increase in young players.

The Hurlingham Polo Association (H.P.A.) is the governing body for polo in the U.K. and indeed for many parts of the Commonwealth; it liaises with similar associations throughout the world. It has been in existence since 1874, and its object is to further the interests of polo generally, and to support by all possible means the common interests of affiliated Clubs and Associations.

There are 51 clubs in the U.K. who are affiliated to the H.P.A. and run tournaments for them as well as, of course, for themselves.

Badminton

Like so many other sports, Badminton in its modern form was first established and codified in Britain, though it was developed from a game seen by British soldiers in India in the nineteenth century. The older game of shuttlecock and battledore was a similar although rather rudimentary amusement, and various Japanese, Greek and Tamil pastimes likewise were close to what became Badminton thanks to its launch as a sport at Badminton House in 1873. Badminton takes its name from the Duke of Beaufort's country home, Badminton House, where the sport was first played in the 19th century.

Badminton is a racquet sport played by either two opposing players (singles) or two opposing pairs (doubles), that take positions on opposite halves of a rectangular court divided by a net.

Players score points by striking a shuttlecock with their racquet so that it passes over the net and lands in their opponents' half of the court. Each side may only strike the shuttlecock once before it passes over the net. A rally ends once the shuttlecock has struck the floor, or if a fault has been called by either the umpire or service judge or, in their absence, the offending player, at any time during the rally.

The shuttlecock is a feathered or (mainly in non-competitive matches) plastic projectile whose unique aerodynamic properties cause it to fly differently from the balls used in most racquet sports; in particular, the feathers create much higher drag, causing the shuttlecock to decelerate more rapidly than a ball. Shuttlecocks have a much higher top speed, when compared to other racquet sports. Because shuttlecock flight is affected by wind, competitive badminton is played indoors. Badminton is also played outdoors as a casual recreational activity, often as a garden or beach game.

Since 1992, badminton has been an Olympic sport with five competition/events: men's and women's singles, men's and women's doubles, and mixed doubles, in which each pair consists of a man and a woman. At high levels of play, especially in singles, the sport demands excellent fitness: players require aerobic stamina, agility, explosive strength, speed and precision. It is also a technical sport, requiring good motor coordination and the development of sophisticated racquet movements.

The beginnings of badminton can be traced to the mid-1800s in British India, where it was created by British military officers stationed there. Early photographs show Englishmen adding a net to the traditional English game of battledore and shuttlecock. The sport is related to ball badminton, which originated in Tamil Nadu, and is similar to Hanetsuki which originated in Japan. Being particularly popular in the British garrison town Poona (now Pune), the game also came to be known as Poona. Initially, balls of wool referred as ball badminton were preferred by the upper classes in windy or wet conditions, but ultimately the shuttlecock stuck. This game was taken by retired officers back to England where it developed and rules were set out.



Although it appears clear that Badminton House, Gloucestershire, owned by the Duke of Beaufort, has given its name to the sports, it is unclear when and why the name was adopted. As early as 1860, Isaac Spratt, a London toy dealer, published a booklet, *Badminton Battledore* – a new game, but unfortunately no copy has survived. An 1863 article in *The Cornhill Magazine* describes badminton as "battledore and shuttlecock played with sides, across a string suspended some five feet from the ground". This early use has cast doubt on the origin through expatriates in India, though it is known that it was popular there in the 1870s and that the first rules were drawn

up in Poonah in 1873. Another source cites that it was in 1877 at Karachi in (British) India, where the first attempt was made to form a set of rules.

As early as 1875, veterans returning from India started a club in Folkestone. Until 1887, the sport was played in England under the rules that prevailed in British India. The Bath Badminton Club standardized the rules and made the game applicable to English ideas. J.H.E. Hart drew up revised basic regulations in 1887 and, with Bagnel Wild, again in 1890. In 1893, the Badminton Association of England published the first set of rules according to these regulations, similar to today's rules, and officially launched badminton in a house called "Dunbar" at 6 Waverley Grove, Portsmouth, England on 13 September of that year. They also started the All England Open Badminton Championships, the first badminton competition in the world, in 1899.

The International Badminton Federation (IBF) (now known as Badminton World Federation) was established in 1934 with Canada, Denmark, England, France, the Netherlands, Ireland, New Zealand, Scotland, and Wales as its founding members. India joined as an affiliate in 1936. The BWF now governs international badminton and develops the sport globally.

While initiated in England, competitive men's badminton in Europe has traditionally been dominated by Denmark. Asian nations, however, have been the most dominant ones worldwide. China, Indonesia, South Korea, and Malaysia along with Denmark are among the nations that have consistently produced world-class players in the past few decades, with China being the greatest force in both men's and women's competition in recent years.

Boxing

Boxing in its modern form is based on the rules established by the Marquess of Queensberry in 1865. In the UK boxing is both amateur and professional, and strict medical regulations are applied in both.



Like horse-racing, boxing is a sport of the working and the upper classes: historically a way to achieve fame and wealth for the former and a public school and varsity event for the latter – the first Oxford vs Cambridge bouts were held in 1897.

Fist-fighting seems to be an almost basic human instinct, and as an organised sport can be traced at least as far back as the ancient Greeks, with similar tussles seemingly enjoyed even earlier by the Minoans, Egyptians and ancient Mesopotamians.

But modern boxing is a rather different animal: where once bare-knuckle bouts were the norm, sometimes fought for hours and with wrestling manoeuvres part of the tactics, since the

Marquis of Queensberry rules were published in 1867 a rather more scientific approach has been needed, with somewhat more civilised contests the result.

Amateur boxing has thrived in Britain for a hundred years and more, sometimes providing a focus for some young lives that otherwise have none. And it is a sport that requires incredible fitness, as anyone who has ever pulled on the gloves and sparred for two or three rounds will know. Local boxing clubs have been the first step to glory for legends like Henry Cooper, who learned his trade at Eltham, and they remain so to this day. Most of those boxing at club level will never turn pro of course, but for the lucky, gifted, and determined few what starts off as a way of getting rid of energy and aggression can turn into a lucrative career.

Darts

Darts is a throwing game in which small missiles are thrown at a target, which is called a dartboard. Aside from being a competitive sport, dart is also a pub game which is played across the United Kingdom and Europe.



This game can be played by both men and women, although there are no restrictions on women playing against men. There are a lot of games that can be played on a dartboard, but usually refers to a game wherein the player throws three darts per visit to the board; the goal is to reduce a fixed score, commonly 501 or 301, to zero.

Dart games are usually played between two people, but sometimes teams of two can play. Other variations of darts which are played around the world are: American darts, archery darts, audio darts, cricket, dartball, fives, halve it, killer, lawn darts, shanghai, and ranger. The World Professional Dart Championship is organized every year, it usually held on winter, around Christmas or New Year.

The game of darts, as it is today, was invented in the north of England in a town called Grimsby. However, the origins of the game date back to at least the Middle Ages. A lot has been written over the years about the history of darts, but finding good credible darts history information is a completely different story.

One fact no-one can dispute when it comes to the history of darts is that the game of darts originated in England. Darts has been played in pubs and taverns all over the UK for the past 100 years and more.

Much is speculated but if rumor holds true, the game of darts had its origin during the reign of King Henry VIII of England. It is believed that he told his archers to practice their arching skills all year round so they would be sharp and ready for battle at any time.

While practicing outside some archers, instead of shooting, started throwing their arrows as a means of fun.

Because of unfavorable weather in the England, it wasn't long before this outdoor past-time or game was taken indoors to the comfort of the local pub. To handle the arrows better and make the game easier to play while indoors, the arrows were shortened.

The bottom of an overturned wine or ale (beer) barrel was used as a "target". An interesting fact about the word "target". The bottom of a wine / beer barrel was called a "butt", which originated via archery from the French word "butte", meaning "target".

Even the King, Henry the VIII, was impressed with this new game. Reports state that Henry VIII enjoyed the game so much in 1530 that Anne Boleyn, his wife to be, gave him a set of richly ornamented darts to win his favor.

The game didn't just stay in England. It wasn't long before people in other countries started to enjoy the game. Reports suggest that the Pilgrims who left England in 1620 aboard the Mayflower, played darts for fun and entertainment on their voyage across the sea to America.

It is another British centred sport with an assured place in the attention of the British sporting public. The two rival Darts World Championships have been held in the United Kingdom since their inception. Phil Taylor of Stoke has won more World Championships than any other player. The National Darts Association (NDA) was founded in London during 1924, just as darts became more popular and more recognized as a sport. The NDA standardized the sport and introduced rules and regulations.

The game of darts was firmly established by the end of World War 1 and many pubs throughout the country had dart teams at that stage. Competitions with substantial prizes were being held on a regular basis and News of the World, a popular British Sunday newspaper, sponsored the first big competition in 1927/28, called the "News of the World Individual Darts Championship". This championship was an overnight hit, with around a 1,000 participants in the first event. News of the World sponsored all the prizes, while the organization was left to the National Darts Association (NDA).

The first competition was held in the metropolitan area of London, but within 3 years, in 1930, the championship expanded to cover most of England.

The game gained huge popularity with the females too, when, Queen Elizabeth the Queen Mother, played a game of darts in a social center in Buckinghamshire, England in 1937.

Such was the popularity of the sport in England and Wales that the number of entrants (participants) for the 1938/39 News of the World competition was in excess of 280,000! The final event between Jim Pike and Marmaduke Brecon which was held in the Royal Agricultural Hall in London, was attended by a record crowd of 14,534!

The first "People National Team Championships" event was held 1939, which was sponsored by "The People", another U.K. Sunday Newspaper.

There was no "News of the World Individual Darts Championship" event until after World War

Two. The News of the World Individual Darts Championship title was the dream of every darts player and it wasn't surprising when the competition was revived in 1947 and 1948, but this time on a national level.

The People National Team Championships also returned after the war.

The NDA (National Darts Association) however, did not revive after World War Two. Although various attempts were made to setup another national controlling agency but nothing materialized until 1954, when through the support of "The People", The National Darts Association of Great Britain(NDAGB) was established.

The game of darts maintained a fairly low profile on a national level during the 1950s and 1960s, but through the excellent organization of the NDAGB, close to 4 million competitors in England alone entered the NODOR Fours competition, sponsored by the Nodor Dartboard Company.

The first darts television broadcast was by Westward Television in 1962 when the Westward TV Invitational was broadcasted to the people in the south-west of England.

During the 1970s and early 1980s darts coverage via television skyrocket with many major tournaments being broadcasted on ITV and BBC.

The British Broadcaster, Independent Television (ITV), in 1970 broadcasted the News of the World Darts Championship and from 1972, Yorkshire TV (the ITV contractor for the Yorkshire franchise) broadcast the Indoor League darts tournaments.

1973 saw the establishment of the British Darts Organization (BDO) and also the introduction of split-screen technology in television broadcasts, which really boosted darts in Britain. From hereon the popularity of darts grew enormously worldwide.

With a multitude of sponsors and television companies on board, the late 1970s and 1980s saw the first darts household "celebrity" names like Leighton Rees, John Lowe, Alan Evans, Eric Bristow, Jocky Wilson, Tony Brown, Bobby George and Keith Deller.

The Embassy World Darts Championship was promoted the first time on television in 1975. The BDO grew rapidly during this time and in the mid 1980s had some 30,000 members already and organized over 800 tournaments in a single year.

The World Darts Federation was founded in 1976 by representatives of 15 nations. All National Darts organizing bodies of all nations can become members of the WDF. The function of the WDF is to encourage the sport of darts amongst the different nations and to also gain international recognition for darts as a major sport.

The first World Professional Darts Championship was organized by the BDO in 1978. This championship was for many years known as "The Embassy" – due to its sponsorship by Imperial Tobacco. In 2003 the government banned all tobacco advertising and in 2004 "The Embassy World Dart Championship" became "The Lakeside World Darts Championship" – or Lakeside for short.

In the mid 1980s the BBC television program "Not the 9'O Clock News" did a harsh sketch on darts about "heavy drinking" in the sport, which caused great damage to the image of the game and players.

Although attempts have been made by certain players to rectify the damage, by drinking water on stage during TV broadcasts etc., all ITV coverage of the game was stopped in 1988.

The BBC also cut back on their coverage to the extent that only one major event, the Embassy World Championship was still shown by the early 1990s.

The Professional Darts Corporation (PDC) was established in the United Kingdom during

1992, when a group of 16 leading professional dart players split from the officially-recognized British Darts Organization (BDO). Certain players apparently felt the BDO did not do enough to encourage more new sponsors into the sport, and they also wanted to see more than one major televised event per year.

Both the PDC and BDO have World Darts Championship events. The PDC normally have their championship mid-December to early January and the BDO from early January onwards.

In 2001 the BBC decided to expand Darts coverage by adding the World Masters to their portfolio. Since 2005 viewers have been able to watch every dart thrown live at the World Championships. This was also the year that the BCC introduced interactive coverage via its BBC service.

Darts are now been watched all over the world with several major tournaments being broadcast around the world.

In November of 2007 ITV also returned to darts after almost 20 years by showing the Grand Slam of Darts. A second PDC tournament was added in October of 2008 with the new European Championship.

Today the British Darts Organization (BDO) comprises of nearly 70 member counties, which organizes tournaments for players at all levels, from grass roots right up to professional level.

The game has also kept up with technology. Electronic dartboards are available with dozens of games build into them and keeping score automatically. Some will even talk to you. All these technological advancement has made the game more popular and much more accessible.

The primary Darts governing bodies are:

The **WDF**—World Darts Federation

The **BDO**—British Darts Organization

The **PDC**—Professional Darts Corporation

Motorsport

Britain is the centre of Formula One, with the majority of the Formula One teams based in England, and more world titles won by drivers from Britain than from any other country. There is a long history of motor sport in the UK, for both cars and motor cycles. Motor car racing in the UK started in 1902. The UK continues to be a world leader in the development and manufacture of motor-sport technology.



Formula One(also Formula 1 or F1) is the highest class of single-seatauto racing that is

sanctioned by the Fédération Internationale de l'Automobile (FIA). The FIA Formula One World Championship has been the premier form of racing since the inaugural season in 1950, although other Formula One races were regularly held until 1983.

The "formula", designated in the name, refers to a set of rules with which all participants' cars must comply. The F1 season consists of a series of races, known as Grands Prix (from French, originally meaning great prizes), held throughout the world on purpose-built F1 circuits and public roads.

The results of each race are evaluated using a points system to determine two annual World Championships, one for the F1 drivers and one for the F1 constructors. The racing drivers, constructor teams, track officials, organisers, and circuits are required to be holders of valid Super Licences, the highest class of racing licence issued by the FIA.

Formula One cars are the fastest road courseracing cars in the world, owing to very high cornering speeds achieved through the generation of large amounts of aerodynamic downforce. Formula One cars race at speeds of up to 360 km/h (220 mph) with engines currently limited in performance to a maximum of 15,000 RPM. The performance of the cars is very dependent on electronics, although traction control and other driving aids have been banned since 2008 and on aerodynamics, suspension and tyres. The formula has radically evolved and changed through the history of the sport.

The UK hosted the very first F1 Grand Prix in 1950 at Silverstone, the current location of the British Grand Prix held each year in July. The country also hosts the World Rally Championship and has its own touring car racing championship, the British Touring Car Championship (BTCC), and the British Formula Three Championship. Recent British winners include Damon Hill, Lewis Hamilton and Jensen Button.

British drivers have achieved success in the World Rally Championship with the late Colin McRae and the late Richard Burns winning the title. The British leg of the competition is the Rally Great Britain. Derek Bell is a five-time 24 Hours of Le Mans winner and one-time winner of the 1000 km Silverstone, the major endurance race of the country, formerly part of the World Sportscar Championship and currently part of the Le Mans Series and Intercontinental Le Mans Cup.

Since 2000 the British Superbike Championship has become increasingly popular, surpassing its four-wheeled rivals in terms of spectator receipts and television coverage. Britain hosts one round of the MotoGP championship at Donington Park, and usually two rounds of the Superbike World Championship, at Silverstone and Brands Hatch. In 2007 a third Superbike World Championship round was added at Donington Park. In 2008 Silverstone was dropped; Brands Hatch and Donington Park were the venues used for the two rounds that took place in the UK that year, though in 2009 and 2010 only a single round will be held, at Silverstone, after the series organisers and the circuit owners of Brands Hatch failed to reach a commercial agreement on staging the event.

Golf

The origins of golf are disputed. However, a popular story is that Scottish shepherds knocked stones down rabbit holes to ease their boredom as far back as the 12th century! It must have got pretty tedious out with the sheep day after day so it's no surprise they came up with something

original to pass the time. Another version of events has ancient Chinese and Egyptians playing something that may have been akin to golf, so there's definitely room for disputing golf's most ancient origins.

Whatever the ancient history of the distant relatives of modern golf might be, there's no disputing that golf as we know it today evolved first in Scotland. The site of those early golf-like games played by the shepherds is thought to be the very same place that now hosts the Royal and Ancient Golf Club of St Andrews (R&A), Fife. Scotland can proudly lay claim to a long list of golf firsts. The first permanent golf courses were in Scotland. The first set of official rules for playing the game were laid down in Scotland. 18 hole courses and golf club membership also originated there. Scotland was also responsible for the first formalised tournaments as contests were arranged between Scottish cities.

Golf has been played at The Musselburgh Old Links Golf Course since at least 1672, although some suggest Mary, Queen of Scots played there as early as 1567. Another royal on the links is recorded in 1646 when King Charles of England was being held prisoner in Newcastle-upon-Tyne by the Scots. Accounts suggest he passed the time by playing golf at Shieldfield.

The Musselburgh Old Link's website lays claim to the title of 'Oldest Playing Golf Course in the World'. However, the East Lothian based course may have to argue the point with the venerable Royal and Ancient Golf Club of St Andrews who utilise the ancient course at St Andrews Links. History suggests golf has been played on the 'Old Course' at St Andrews since the 15th century. Whichever venue actually hosted the first 'proper' game of golf, one thing is not in dispute, Scotland is the accepted home of modern golf.

The modern game of golf can be traced back to 15th century Scotland. It is a popular sport played socially as well as professionally. There are public and private golf courses all over the UK. St Andrews in Scotland is known as the home of golf. The Open Championship is the only 'Major' tournament held outside the United States. It is hosted by a different golf course every year.

Scotland is traditionally regarded as the home of golf. There are over 400 golf courses in Scotland alone. The most important golf club in Scotland is in the seaside town of St. Andrews, near Dundee.

Golf is now several hundred years old. The institutions that are part of the game have matured and some have become national treasures, even becoming part of the British heritage.

Water Sports

Given that Britain is an island – or more accurately a lot of islands – it is not surprising that sailing is a sport at which the British enjoy success, but more importantly a sport they simply enjoy.

Up and down the country, on the coast, the Norfolk Broads, on lakes and reservoirs, there are sailing clubs every weekend. The clubs range from the rather formally blazered yacht clubs of this world to groups sailing a few little dinghies for the joy of messing about in boats.

Sailing continues to be popular in the UK, reflecting their maritime heritage. A British sailor, Sir Francis Chichester, was the first person to sail single-handed around the world passing the Cape of Good Hope (Africa) and Cape Horn (South America), in 1966/67. Two years later, Sir Robin Knox-Johnston became the first person to do this without stopping. Many sailing events are

held throughout the UK, the most famous of which is at Cowes on the Isle of Wight.

Sailing is also a well-regarded sport in the UK. It is governed by the RYA, and there are many locations in the UK where sailing can take place, both inland and coastal.



Rowing is also popular, both as a leisure activity and as a competitive sport. In the nineteenth century, students at Oxford and Cambridge, Britain's two oldest universities, were huge fans of rowing. In 1829, the two schools agreed to hold a race against each other for the first time on the Thames River. The Oxford boat won and a tradition was born. Today, the University Boat Race is held every spring in either late March or early April.

The tradition was started in 1829 by Charles Merivale, a student at St John's College, Cambridge, and his Old Harrovian school friend Charles Wordsworth who was studying at Christ Church, Oxford. Cambridge challenged Oxford to a race at Henley-on-Thames but lost easily. Oxford raced in dark blue because five members of the crew, including the stroke, were from Christ Church, then Head of the River, whose colours were dark blue. There is a dispute as to the source of the colour chosen by Cambridge. The second race was in 1836, with the venue moved to a course from Westminster to Putney. Over the next two years, there was disagreement over where the race should be held, with Oxford preferring Henley and Cambridge preferring London. Following the official formation of the Oxford University Boat Club in 1839, racing between the two universities resumed on the Tideway and the tradition continues to the present day, with the loser challenging the winner to a rematch annually.

The first race was in 1829 and the event has been held annually since 1856, except during the First and Second World Wars. The course covers a 4.2-mile (6.8 km) stretch of the Thames in West London, from Putney to Mortlake. Members of both teams are traditionally known as blues and each boat as a "Blue Boat", with Cambridge in light blue and Oxford dark blue. As of 2015 Cambridge have won the race 81 times and Oxford 79 times, with one dead heat.

Rowing has been part of the Olympics since the second Olympiad in 1900 (it says something about participation in the sport that the 1896 Games should have had rowing but bad weather forced its cancellation). Baron de Coubertin is supposed to have borrowed ideas from Henley Regatta in his vision for the modern games. And some of Britain's greatest sporting names in recent years have been those of the rowers: Steve Redgrave; Matthew Pinsent, and James Cracknell among them. And arguably the greatest moment in Britain's entire Olympic history was the win by the coxless four in Sydney on September 23 2000, providing Redgrave with his fifth gold medal from five Games.

Rowing of course isn't just for those seeking Olympic glory, it can be a gentle pull up the

river in anything from single sculls to coxed eights; or a club versus club event where the Pimm's or a pint afterwards is the point of it all. But it does keep you fit; it is social and sociable, and at whatever level it still has that joy of being on the water and simply messing about in boats.

Skiing

Skiing is increasingly popular in the UK. Many people go abroad to ski and there are also dry ski slopes throughout the UK. Skiing on snow may also be possible during the winter. There are five ski centres in Scotland, as well as Europe's longest dry ski slope near Edinburgh.

There are 77 real snow and artificial ski slopes in Great Britain.

Scotland has the only natural ski resorts in Britain.

There are five areas in which to ski and all have invested heavily over the last few years to rival the standards in many European resorts.

Cairngorm, Glenshee and The Lecht resorts can be found in the Grampian mountain range, while the Nevis Range and Glencoe resorts are situated in the west of Scotland near Ben Nevis.

The ski season tends to run from December to April and because low cost airline carriers fly to Edinburgh, Glasgow and Inverness, the cost of skiing keeps coming down.

People can also ski in the Lake District in Cumbria when there is sufficient snow.

Orienteering

Orienteering is an exciting and challenging outdoor sport that exercises both mind and body. The aim is to navigate between control points marked on an orienteering map; as a competitive sport the challenge is to complete the course in the quickest time choosing your own best route; as a recreational activity it does not matter how young, old or fit you are, as you can run or walk making progress at your own pace on the courses planned to suit you.

Orienteering can take place anywhere from remote forest and countryside to urban areas, parks and school playgrounds. Orienteering is a fulfilling sport for runners and walkers of all ages who want to test themselves mentally as well as physically or who want to add variety to their leisure activities.

Orienteering is now a major sport in the UK. It is regulated by the British Orienteering Federation, and Britain generally puts on a very strong show at the World Orienteering Championships with Jamie Stevenson, second at WOC in 2006.

The British Orienteering Federation, sometimes branded British Orienteering, is the national sports governing body for the sport of orienteering in the United Kingdom. The federation was founded in June 1967, and is a member of the IOF. In February 1984, they collaborated with the BBC on an episode of the television drama series *Grange Hill*. In April 2008, they also collaborated with the BBC on an episode of the CBBC show *Sportsround*.

Angling

Angling is a method of fishing by means of an "angle" (fish hook). The hook is usually attached to a fishing line and the line is often attached to a fishing rod. Fishing rods are usually fitted with a fishing reel that functions as a mechanism for storing, retrieving and paying out the

line. The hook itself can be dressed with lures or bait. A bite indicator such as a float, and a weight or sinker are sometimes used.

Angling is the principal method of sport fishing, but commercial fisheries also use angling methods such as longlining or trolling. Catch and release fishing is increasingly practiced by recreational fishermen. In many parts of the world, size limits apply to certain species, meaning fish below and/or above a certain size must, by law, be released.

Angling is one of the most popular sports in the UK, with an estimated 3.3 million people participating in the sport on a regular basis. Fishermen can be seen sitting beside rivers and lakes

Bowling

Ten-pin bowling is a great sport that everyone can enjoy, young or old, regardless of ability. A night out bowling can provide fantastic fun for a group of friends, work colleagues or family.



Introduced into Britain in the 1960s, bowling enjoyed a period of huge popularity but fell on leaner times during the 1970s. However, it is back at full strength again and now there are even more bowling alleys than when the sport reached its previous peak in the 1960s. It is estimated that there are more than 200 alleys in Britain today, so there's bound to be one within easy reach of all but the most remote locations.

If you are looking for a venue to enjoy a special celebration then a bowling alley could be just the place to go. Modern bowling alleys are more than just a venue for playing ten-pin bowling. Today they are giant social clubs complete with licensed bars, cafes, restaurants and ancillary amusements all included in one venue. Kids are very well catered for and this does much to add to their attraction as a venue for hours of family fun.

Cycling

Since the days of the penny-farthing gentlemen and ladies have joined together in cycling clubs to enjoy communal rides in the country, the occasional race, and to talk about their machines - Jerome K. Jerome in *Three Men on the Bummel* gives a marvelous evocation of the cyclist's irresistible desire to tinker with bikes even in his day.

Though there are some famous riders from earlier times, like the tragic Tommy Simpson and the legendary world champion road racer Beryl Burton, Britain has had to wait until relatively

recently to become a world power in cycling: the names now trip easily off the tongue: Chris Boardman, Jason Queally, Nicole Cooke, Bradley Wiggins, Rebecca Romero, Victoria Pendleton and of course Sir Chris Hoy, knighted to mark his achievement in winning three golds at one games. And away from the Olympics Mark Cavendish in 2008 became the most successful British rider ever in the Tour de France, winning four stages.

Club cyclists range from those heading for the velodrome to train for glory or hitting the road for some hard miles, to a few friends out for a spin on a Sunday morning, with perhaps a country pub rather than Olympic gold their goal. A quick glance at those hunched over the handlebars shows that it keeps you fit – only cyclists get calves like that – and, even if you are not Chris Hoy, head down and going for it you can still dream of beating.

Martial arts

Martial arts enjoy a permanent place in sport in the UK. We tend to think of Kung Fu and the far east when we think of martial arts but of course any sport that includes combat is, strictly speaking, a martial art. But it is the fighting forms of the East that have captured our imagination and nowadays you can find a karate or kick boxing club in any major town or city.

Judo was probably the first martial art imported from the Far East to take a hold in Britain. Judo is an Olympic sport and is overseen in the UK by the British Judo Association. Karate, the Japanese and Okinawan method of self defence involving kicking and hand strikes has also long been settled in the UK. There are many different styles of Karate, such as Shotokan and Goju-ryu. Whichever style you choose, it is essential that you join a properly accredited club. Martial arts can be dangerous and should be learned and practised with proper instruction, equipment and supervision.

Tai-Kwon-Do is extremely popular in Great Britain and like Judo, it is also an Olympic sport. Tai Kwon Do, although a sport, places lots of emphasis on actual self-defense. It's an ideal sport for children who can even start training as early as aged four!

Hockey

Hockey, or games like it, has been played for centuries, millennia even, but the modern game like football and rugby came out of the British public school system, refined by clubs and formalised by the founding of the Hockey Association in 1886.

Hockey can take its history back to early Egyptians, who first took a stick to a ball. Today's elite hockey players require exceptional skills, and physical attributes such as great endurance, running speed and hitting power and agility to keep pace with the fast moving game.

Britain dominated the first Olympic hockey competition, but then Britain did provide four of the six teams – France and Germany sent the others. That gold for GB (England) in 1908 was followed by another in 1920. More recently Britain took bronze in 1984 at Los Angeles and gold in Seoul in 1988 where they beat West Germany in the final 3 - 1. For a time hockey was more fashionable, even regularly seen on TV in the era before television executives decided 99 per cent of sports coverage should be devoted to football. And British hockey at that period had its own superstar, Sean Kerly, goal scorer extraordinaire (rivalled perhaps by teammate Russell Garcia, still the youngest British Olympic champion at 18 years three months).

The sport may not feature much (at all) on TV, but it is thriving at club level, with the indoor version of the game offering different challenges for different conditions: both the indoor and outdoor game are fast paced, though clubs often have various teams to allow for differences in expertise, fitness and even age. And as an amateur game for players without pretensions to winning great riches hockey retains a friendly ethos of fair-play.

Hunting

Fox hunting has been occurring in different guises worldwide for hundreds of years. Indeed the practise of using dogs with a keen sense of smell to track prey has been traced back to ancient Egypt and many Greek and Roman influenced countries. However it is believed that the custom for a fox to be tracked, chased and often killed by trained hunting hounds (generally those with the keenest sense of smell known as 'scent hounds') and followed by the *Master of the Foxhounds* and his team on foot and horseback, originated from a Norfolk farmer's attempt to catch a fox using farm dogs in 1534.

Whilst foxes were widely regarded as vermin and farmers and other landowners had hunted the animals for many years as a form of pest control (both to curb their attacks on farm animals and for their highly prized fur) it wasn't until the eighteenth century that fox hunting developed into its most modern incarnation and was considered a sport in its own right as a result of the decline in the UK's deer population.

The decline in the deer population and subsequently the sport of deer hunting, or stalking as it is also known, occurred as a consequence of the Inclosure Acts passed between 1750 –1860, particularly the Inclosure (Consolidation) Act of 1801, which was passed to clarify previous acts of inclosure. These acts meant that open fields and common land where many deer chose to breed were fenced off into separate, smaller fields to cope with the increase in the demand for farm land. The birth of the Industrial Revolution saw the introduction of new roads, railways and canal paths which further reduced the amount of rural land in the United Kingdom, although conversely this improvement in transport links also made foxhunting more popular and easily accessible for those living in towns and cities who aspired to the life of the country gentleman.

For those hunters who had previously tracked deer, which required large areas of open land, foxes and hares became the prey of choice in the seventeenth century, with packs of hounds being trained specifically to hunt. England's oldest fox hunt, which is still running today, is the Bilsdale Hunt in Yorkshire, established by George Villiers, the Duke of Buckingham in 1668.

The sport continued to grow in popularity throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and in 1753 the 18-year-old Hugo Meynell, often called the father of modern foxhunting, began to breed hunting dogs for their speed and stamina as well as their keen scent at Quorndon Hall, his estate in North Leicestershire. The speed of his pack not only allowed for a more exciting and extended hunt, but it also meant that the hunt could begin later in the morning, which made it immensely popular with the young gentleman in his social circle.

Foxhunting continued to grow in popularity throughout the nineteenth century, particularly because of the inroads made by the Great British Railway which provided rural access to the masses. Despite the banning of the sport in Germany and other European countries from 1934 onwards, foxhunting in the United Kingdom remained popular well into the twentieth century. Indeed a shortage of foxes in England led to a demand for foxes to be imported from France,

Germany, Holland and Sweden.

These days however, foxhunting in the UK is much better known for the controversial views of those who champion the sport and those that oppose it. The debate between hunters and anti-hunting campaigners, who believe the sport to be cruel and unnecessary, eventually led to a Government inquiry in December 1999 into hunting with dogs, named the Burns Inquiry after the retired civil servant Lord Burns who chaired the inquiry.

Whilst the Burns Inquiry report noted that hunting with dogs "seriously compromises" the welfare of the foxes, it did not categorically state whether or not hunting should be permanently banned in the UK. As a result of the report, the Government introduced an 'options bill', so that each House of Parliament could decide on whether the sport should be banned or subject to licensed hunting or self-regulation. The House of Commons voted to ban the sport and in contrast the House of Lords voted for self-regulation.

So whilst in many parts of the world such as Australia, Canada, France, India and Russia the sport is still going strong, the resulting Hunting Act 2004, passed in November 2004, saw the outlawing of any hunting with dogs in England and Wales from 18 February 2005 (the Scottish Parliament had already banned foxhunting in Scotland in 2002 and in Northern Ireland the sport is still legal).

The controversy surrounding the sport doesn't end there though. Conversely, despite the ban, hunts have seen an increase in membership and the Masters of Foxhounds Association (MFHA) currently represents 176 active foxhound packs in England and Wales and 10 in Scotland. And whilst the suggested amendment to the Hunting Act 2004 to permit licensed hunting was rejected, despite support from the former Prime Minister Tony Blair and Lord Burns himself, many anti-hunting campaigners have complained that countless hunts have flaunted the ban and illegally continued hunting with hounds, whilst the hunts have maintained that they follow artificially laid trails.

London Marathon

The London Marathon(also known as the Virgin Money London Marathon) is a long-distance running event held in London, United Kingdom and is the third largest running event in the UK, after the Great North Run from Newcastle upon Tyne to South Shields and the Great Manchester Run 10,000 metre run around central Manchester, and it is also part of the World Marathon Majors. The event was first run on 29 March 1981 and has been held in the spring of every year since then. Since 2010, the race has been sponsored by Virgin Money. The most recent event was the 2015 London Marathon on 26 April 2015.

Set over a largely flat course around the River Thames, the race begins at three separate points around Blackheath and finishes in The Mall alongside St. James's Park. Since the first marathon, the course has undergone very few route changes. In 1982, the finishing post was moved from Constitution Hill to Westminster Bridge due to construction works. It remained there for twelve years before moving to its present location at The Mall.

In addition to being one of the top five international marathons run over the distance of 26 miles and 385 yards, the IAAF standard for the marathon established in 1921 and originally used for the 1908 London Olympics, the London Marathon is also a large, celebratory sporting festival, third only to the Great North Run in South Shields and Great Manchester Run in Manchester in

terms of the number of participants.

Snooker

Snooker is a cue sport played on a table covered with a green cloth or baize, with pockets at each of the four corners and in the middle of each of the long side cushions.

The game is played using a cue and 22 snooker balls: one white cue ball, 15 red balls worth one point each, and six balls of different colours: yellow (2 points), green (3), brown (4), blue (5), pink (6) and black (7). The red balls are initially placed in a triangular formation, and the other coloured balls on marked positions on the table known as "spots". Players execute shots by striking the cue ball with the cue, causing the cue ball to hit a red or coloured ball. Points are scored by sinking the red and coloured balls (knocking them into the pockets, called "potting") in the correct sequence. A player receives additional points if the opponent commits a foul. A player (or team) wins a frame (individual game) of snooker by scoring more points than the opponent(s). A player wins a match when a predetermined number of frames have been won.

Snooker, generally regarded as having been invented in India by British Army officers, is popular in many of the English-speaking and Commonwealth countries, with top professional players attaining multi-million-pound career earnings from the game. Touring professional players compete regularly around the world, the premier tournament being the World Championship, held annually in Sheffield, England.

The World Snooker Championship is the leading professional snooker tournament in terms of prize money, ranking points and prestige. It is one of the Triple Crown events along with the UK Championship and the Masters. The first championship was held in 1927, and since 1977 it has been played at the Crucible Theatre in Sheffield, England. In the modern era, the best record is that of Stephen Hendry, who has won the title seven times, while Steve Davis and Ray Reardon have both won six times. The reigning champion is Stuart Bingham, his first title.

The UK Championship is a professional men's ranking snooker tournament. It is the second biggest ranking tournament after the World Championship and is one of the Triple Crown events. Ronnie O'Sullivan is the reigning champion.

London and Olympic Games

London hosted the Olympic Games in 1908, 1948 and 2012. The 2012 Summer Olympics made London the first city to have hosted the modern Games of three Olympiads. London is the only city in the United Kingdom to have ever hosted the Olympics; the United States is the only country to have hosted Summer Olympics on more occasions than the UK. Also, London is the only city to have bid more than once and still hold a 100% record.

A century ago London hosted the Fourth Olympiad in 1908 Summer Olympics. It was first time London hosted Olympic Games, there are 24 sports and approximately 2,000 athletes participated, representing 22 countries.

The 1948 Summer Olympics, officially known as the Games of the XIV Olympiad which was held in London, a record 59 nations were represented by 4,104 athletes.

The 2012 Summer Olympics took place between 27 July 2012 and 12 August 2012. The London 2012 Olympic bid was announced as the winner of the bidding process on 6 July 2005,

following unsuccessful bid attempts for previous Olympics by Manchester and Birmingham. Team of Britain finished 3rd with 29 Gold medals, and 65 total medals, representing their best medal haul since London first hosted the Olympics in 1908.

The Games received widespread acclaim for their organisation, with the volunteers, the British military and public enthusiasm praised particularly highly. The opening ceremony, directed by Danny Boyle, received widespread acclaim throughout the world, particular praise from the British public and a minority of widely ranging criticisms from some social media sites. During the Games, Michael Phelps became the most decorated Olympic athlete of all time, winning his 22nd medal. Saudi Arabia, Qatar and Brunei entered female athletes for the first time, so that every currently eligible country has sent a female competitor to at least one Olympic Games. Women's boxing was included for the first time, thus the Games became the first at which every sport had female competitors.

Exercises

I.Choose the answer that best completes the statement or answer the question.

- (1) Which of the following sports did not begin in Britain?
 - A. cricket
 - B. football
 - C. lawn tennis
 - D. basketball
- (2) Which of the following sports is regarded as the national sport of England?
 - A. football
 - B. cricket
 - C. golf
 - D. rugby
- (3) Which sport is the most popular one in Britain?
 - A. netball
 - B. football
 - C. boxing
 - D. bungee jumping
- (4) Which of the competitions does not belong to Britain?
 - A. Wimbledon Championships
 - B. Royal Ascot
 - C. FA Premier League
 - D. US Open
- (5) How many times has the UK hosted the Olympic games?
 - A. once
 - B. twice
 - C. three times
 - D. four times

- (6) Which is the first city to have hosted the modern Games of three Olympiads?
- A. London
 - B. Paris
 - C. Los Angeles
 - D. Atlanta
- (7) Which of the following sentences is correct?
- A. The Ashes is a series of Test matches played between England and Australia.
 - B. The Ashes is a series of Test matches played between England and America
 - C. The Ashes is a series of Test matches played between Australia and America
 - D. The Ashes is a series of Test matches played between Australia and New Zealand
- (8) How many members are there in a cricket team?
- A. 9
 - B. 10
 - C. 11
 - D. 12
- (9) Which sport is regarded as gentleman's game?
- A. football
 - B. basketball
 - C. volleyball
 - D. cricket
- (10) Which of the following is not the important football club in the UK?
- A. Liverpool
 - B. Chelsea
 - C. Associazione Calcio Milan
 - D. Manchester United
- (11) How many times has Britain won the championship in the World Cup?
- A. once
 - B. twice
 - C. three times
 - D. four times
- (12) Which is the birthdate of modern football?
- A. 1861
 - B. 1862
 - C. 1863
 - D. 1864
- (13) When did the oldest football association in the world form?
- A. 1861
 - B. 1862
 - C. 1863
 - D. 1864
- (14) What is the most famous rugby union competition?
- A. the Six Nations Championship
 - B. the three Nation Championship

- C. the four Nation Championship
 - D. the five Nation Championship
- (15) Where did the tennis originate?
- A. Liverpool
 - B. Birmingham
 - C. Manchester
 - D. London
- (16) Which of the Grand Slam tournaments is held in Britain?
- A. the Australian Open
 - B. the French Open
 - C. Wimbledon
 - D. the US Open
- (17) Which statement of Wimbledon is correct?
- A. Wimbledon played on grass courts.
 - B. Wimbledon played on red clay courts.
 - C. Wimbledon played on hard courts.
 - D. Wimbledon played on sand courts
- (18) Which of the following sport has a long association with royalty?
- A. basketball
 - B. table tennis
 - C. netball
 - D. horseracing
- (19) Which one is the famous horse racing event?
- A. Wimbledon
 - B. Royal Ascot
 - C. FA Premier League
 - D. The Ashes
- (20) Which of the following sport is a team sport played on horseback?
- A. horseracing
 - B. polo
 - C. badminton
 - D. netball
- (21) When did the motor car racing start in the UK?
- A. 1900
 - B. 1901
 - C. 1902
 - D. 1903
- (22) Where is traditionally regarded as the home of golf?
- A. Scotland
 - B. Cambridge
 - C. Wales
 - D. Ireland
- (23) Who was the first person to sail single-handed around the world passing the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn?

- A. Sir Francis Chichester
 - B. Allan Robertson
 - C. Thomas Buddo
 - D. Sir Robin Knox-Johnston
- (24) On which river is the University Boat Race is held every spring?
- A. Esk River
 - B. Thames River
 - C. Lyne River
 - D. Eden River
- (25) When did Britain win the championship in the World Cup?
- A. 1964
 - B. 1965
 - C. 1966
 - D. 1967
- (26) How many golden medals did the Britain get in 2012 Olympic Games?
- A. 23
 - B. 24
 - C. 25
 - D. 29
- (27) Which is the biggest ranking snooker tournament?
- A. The UK Championship
 - B. The World Snooker Championship
 - C. World Professional Championship
 - D. Rothmans Grand Prix
- (28) Which team does not belong to Premier League?
- A. Liverpool
 - B. Arsenal
 - C. Barcelona
 - D. Chelsea
- (29) Which of the following words cannot be used to describe "Hooliganism"?
- A. disorderly
 - B. aggressive
 - C. violent
 - D. competitive
- (30) Which of the following is not the Olympic badminton events?
- A. men's and women's singles
 - B. men's and women's doubles
 - C. mixed doubles
 - D. team competitions

II. True or false

- ____(1)Football, tennis and rugby all started in Britain.
- ____(2)The Olympic Games were held in the UK for the first time in 2012.

____ (3) More people in the UK like football than any other sport.
 ____ (4) The Six Nations Championship is a famous rugby league competition.
 ____ (5) The 'home of golf' is in Wales.
 ____ (6) At Wimbledon, the players play tennis on grass courts.
 ____ (7) Sir Francis Chichester was the first person to sail single-handed around the world passing the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn.
 ____ (8) A lot of motor-sport technology is produced in the UK.
 ____ (9) No British drivers have ever won the Formula 1 Championships. ____ (10) The longest dry ski slope in Europe is in Wales. ____ (11) Cricket originated in England.
 ____ (12) The most famous competition of cricket in the UK is Ashes.
 ____ (13) The bowler mustn't hit the ball so that it does not knock a bail off the wicket.
 ____ (14) Cricket is scored according to the number of runs, which is the number of times the batters exchange places.
 ____ (15) Football is the most popular sport in the UK, and it's also big business.
 ____ (16) The birthplace of football is Liverpool. ____ (17) The reputation of football as a violent game appears again and again throughout the 16th and 17th centuries.
 ____ (18) "Hooliganism" is the term used broadly to describe disorderly, aggressive and often violent behaviour perpetrated by spectators at sporting events.
 ____ (19) In the UK, hooliganism is almost exclusively confined to rugby. ____ (20) Rugby union and rugby league have the same rules. ____ (21) Rugby is similar to football, but played with an oval ball.
 ____ (22) Rugby was only played by the rich upper classes.
 ____ (23) Tennis originated in the United Kingdom.
 ____ (24) The British have won Wimbledon for many times.
 ____ (25) Tennis can only be played individually.
 ____ (26) The Championships, Wimbledon as it is more commonly referred to, is the oldest tennis tournament in the world.
 ____ (27) Wimbledon is the only one to still be played on grass in Grand Slams.
 ____ (28) The object of the game is to play the ball in such a way that the opponent is not able to play a good return. ____ (29) Netball is the largest male team sport in England. ____ (30) Netball is played only by women and girls. ____ (31) Ascot, a small town in the south of England, becomes the centre of horse-racing world for one week in June.
 ____ (32) Ascot called Royal Ascot because the Queen always goes to Ascot.
 ____ (33) Polo is played left handed for safety reasons.
 ____ (34) Polo is acknowledged by the International Olympic Committee.
 ____ (35) Badminton in its modern form was first established and codified in Britain.
 ____ (36) Many international sports were introduced by the British who take their leisure time very seriously.
 ____ (37) Football (or "soccer" as it is colloquially called), the most popular sport in England as well as in Europe, has its traditional home in America where it was developed in the 19th century. ____ (38) The game

"Rugby" was invented at Rugby School in Warwick shire in the early 19th century.

has been played for centuries, the modern game originated in England in late 19th. The main tournament is the annual Wimbledon fortnight, one of the 4 tennis "Grand Slam" tournaments.

The home of golf is Welsh where the game has been played since the 17th century and naturally the oldest golf club in the world is there: The Honourable Company of Edinburgh Golfers. The Walker Cup for amateurs and the Ryder Cup for professionals.

Aside from being a competitive sport, dart is also a pub game. Dart games originated in the United Kingdom.

World War 1, many pubs throughout the country had dart teams at that stage.

the game for men.

with the majority of the Formula One teams based in England.

The University Boat Race is held every spring in either late March or early April.

The University Boat Race has been held annually since 1856.

In the University Boat Race, Cambridge is known as light blue and Oxford is dark blue.

Rowing is not the sports of the Olympics.

Judo was probably the first martial art imported from the Far East to take a hold in Britain.

Judo is an Olympic sport.

Fox hunting is regarded as a sport in Britain by many people.

The London Marathon is the third largest running event in the UK.

Tai-Kwon-Do is extremely popular in Great Britain.

Today the laws of football are governed by the International Football Association.

Jacques Rogge said the United kingdom was widely recognized as the birthplace of modern sport at London Olympics Opening Ceremony.

The main Olympic site for the 2012 Games was in Wembley Stadium in London.

Cricket should be played in a gentlemanly manner.

Sometimes cricket games can last for several days but still result in a draw.

The Super League is the most well-known rugby league (club) competition.

(39) Although tennis

(42) Dart

(43) By the end of

(44) Nowadays, dart is still

(45) Britain is the centre of Formula One,

Unit 9 Tourism

Cultural Training

The United Kingdom is the world's 8th biggest tourist destination, with 32 million visiting in 2013. US\$17.2 billion was spent in the UK by foreign tourists. Nevertheless, the number of travellers originating from Europe is larger than those travelling from North America - 21.5 million compared to 3.5 million American/Canadian visitors.

The country's principal tourist destinations are in London, Manchester, Birmingham, Oxford, Cambridge, Liverpool and Bristol, with the Tower of London, Westminster Abbey, Buckingham Palace, Edinburgh Castle, British Museum, University of Cambridge and University of Oxford being the single most visited attraction in the country.

Edinburgh Castle

Edinburgh Castle dominates the city of Edinburgh like no other castle in Scotland, and Edinburgh Castle is unequalled in the whole of the British Isles. Over one thousand years of history sit on top of the famous Edinburgh rock, and when you see Edinburgh Castle you will understand why over a million visitors a year visit Edinburgh Castle. Edinburgh Castle is a historic fortress which dominates the skyline of the city of Edinburgh, Scotland from its position on the Castle Rock. When you come to Scotland and visit Edinburgh Castle you will see why the early inhabitants of the area we now call Edinburgh, made their first settlements here, in what is now the city of Edinburgh. Archaeologists have established human occupation of the rock since at least the Iron Age (2nd century AD), although the nature of the early settlement is unclear. There has been a royal castle on the rock since at least the reign of David I in the 12th century, and the site continued to be a royal residence until the Union of the Crowns in 1603. People have always sought a safe refuge, and the volcanic rock that forms the base of Edinburgh Castle, has always afforded the ultimate safe and defensive position in Edinburgh.

The City of Edinburgh grew outwards from the Castle rock, and the first houses in Edinburgh were built on the area in front of Edinburgh Castle, which is now known as the Lawn market, and then the house building continued down the High Street and The Cannon gate towards the Royal Palace of Holyrood House. From the 15th century the castle's residential role declined, and by the 17th century it was principally used as military barracks with a large garrison. These streets collectively form a single street known as The Royal Mile. The Royal Mile acquired its name over the ages as Scottish and English kings, queens and royalty in general, have travelled to and fro between the Palace of Holyrood House and Edinburgh Castle - hence the name The Royal Mile.

Edinburgh History and Edinburgh Castle history begins on the rock on which Edinburgh Castle stands. The rock was formed 70 million years ago. Recent archaeological excavations in Edinburgh Castle have uncovered evidence that Bronze-Age man was living on the rock as long ago as 850 BC. Two thousand years ago, during the Iron Age, the rock had a hill-fort settlement on

its summit.

In about AD 600, three hundred men gathered around their King. This is the first mention of the name of the place, which we call Edinburgh. The war-band was preparing to attack the Angles, recent heathen invaders from Europe. The war-band pledged them to die for their King and almost all did die, on a raid into the territories of the Angles, in Yorkshire. Shortly after, in AD 638, Din Eidyn was besieged and taken by the Angles and the place seems then to have received the English name which it has kept ever since - Edinburgh.

In 1093 Queen Margaret wife of Malcolm III was seriously ill in Edinburgh Castle. She was brought the news that her husband had been killed at Alnwick in Northumberland. Broken-hearted, she too died. Husband and wife were buried side by side in the church at Dunfermline. Queen Margaret was made a saint by Pope Innocent IV in 1250. A tiny chapel, built on the summit of the castle rock in the early twelfth century, is dedicated to her memory and is the oldest building in Edinburgh Castle. Its importance as a part of Scotland's national heritage was recognized increasingly from the early 19th century onwards, and various restoration programmes have been carried out over the past century and a half. As one of the most important strongholds in the Kingdom of Scotland, Edinburgh Castle was involved in many historical conflicts from the Wars of Scottish Independence in the 14th century to the Jacobite Rising of 1745. Research undertaken in 2014 identified 26 sieges in its 1100-year-old history, giving it a claim to having been "the most besieged place in Great Britain and one of the most attacked in the world".

The first documentary reference to a castle at Edinburgh is John of Fordun's account of the death of King Malcolm III. Fordun describes his widow, the future Saint Margaret, as residing at the "Castle of Maidens" when she is brought news of his death in November 1093. Fordun's account goes on to relate how Margaret died of grief within days, and how Malcolm's brother Donald Bane laid siege to the castle. However, Fordun's chronicle was not written until the later 14th century, and the near-contemporary account of the life of St Margaret by Bishop Turgot makes no mention of a castle. During the reigns of Malcolm III and his sons, Edinburgh Castle became one of the most significant royal centers in Scotland. Malcolm's son King Edgar died here in 1107. Malcolm's youngest son, King David I (r.1124–1153), developed Edinburgh as a seat of royal power principally through his administrative reforms (termed by some modern scholars the Davidian Revolution). Between 1139 and 1150, David held an assembly of nobles and churchmen, a precursor to the parliament of Scotland, at the castle. Any buildings or defenses would probably have been of timber, although two stone buildings are documented as having existed in the 12th century. Of these, St. Margaret's Chapel remains at the summit of the rock. The second was a church, dedicated to St. Mary, which stood on the site of the Scottish National War Memorial. Given that the southern part of the Upper Ward (where Crown Square is now sited) was not suited to being built upon until the construction of the vaults in the 15th century, it seems probable that any earlier buildings would have been located towards the northern part of the rock; that is around the area where St. Margaret's Chapel stands. This has led to a suggestion that the chapel is the last remnant of a square, stone keep, which would have formed the bulk of the 12th-century fortification. The structure may have been similar to the keep of Carlisle Castle, which David I began after 1135. David's successor King Malcolm IV (r.1153–1165) reportedly stayed at Edinburgh more than at any other location. But in 1174, King William "the Lion" (r.1165–1214) was captured by the English at the Battle of Alnwick. He was forced to sign the Treaty of Falaise to secure his release, in return for surrendering Edinburgh Castle, along with the castles of

Berwick, Roxburgh and Sterling, to the English King, Henry II. The castle was occupied by the English for twelve years, until 1186, when it was returned to William as the dowry of his English bride, Ermengarde de Beaumont, who had been chosen for him by King Henry. By the end of the 12th century, Edinburgh Castle was established as the main repository of Scotland's official state papers.

In 1296 Edward I of England invaded Scotland. He besieged and captured Edinburgh Castle. On the night of 14 March 1314, Sir Thomas Randolph, the nephew of King Robert the Bruce, and his men climbed the precipitous north face of Edinburgh Castle rock, took the English garrison by surprise and won the castle back. Robert the Bruce immediately ordered that Edinburgh castle be dismantled "lest the English ever afterwards might lord it over the land by holding the castles". Three months later, on 24 June 1314 near Stirling, the Scottish army crushed the English at the Battle of Bannockburn.

Few of the present buildings pre-date the Lang Siege of the 16th century, when the medieval defenses were largely destroyed by artillery bombardment. The most notable exceptions are St Margaret's Chapel from the early 12th century, which is regarded as the oldest building in Edinburgh, the Royal Palace and the early-16th-century Great Hall, although the interiors have been much altered from the mid-Victorian period onwards. The 1357 Treaty of Berwick brought the Wars of Independence to a close. David II resumed his rule and set about rebuilding Edinburgh Castle which became his principal seat of government. David's Tower was begun around 1367, and was incomplete when David died at the castle in 1371. It was completed by his successor, Robert II, in the 1370s. The tower stood on the site of the present Half Moon Battery and was connected by a section of curtain wall to the smaller Constable's Tower, a round tower built between 1375 and 1379 where the Portcullis Gate now stands.

In 1449, James II married Mary of Gueldres in Holyrood Abbey. That same year a great siege gun, made for the Queen's uncle, the Duke of Burgundy, was tested at Mons (now in Belgium). In 1457 Mons Meg (as she is now called) was shipped to Scotland as a present to the King and Queen. Three years later the King was dead, killed at the siege of Roxburgh Castle by one of his guns (not Mons Meg). Mons Meg was kept with the rest of the royal guns in Edinburgh Castle. She was used against the English and against rebellious Scottish noblemen. Her enormous bulk soon made her obsolete as a siege gun, but she was put to good use firing ceremonial salutes. In July 1565 Mary Queen of Scots married her first cousin and second husband, Henry, Lord Darnley. Almost a year later on 19 June 1566, she gave birth to their child, Prince James in Edinburgh Castle.

In 1621, King James granted Sir William Alexander the land in North America between New England and Newfoundland, as Nova Scotia ("New Scotland"). To promote the settlement and plantation of the new territory, the Baronetage of Nova Scotia was created in 1624. Under Scots Law, baronets had to "take sasine" by symbolically receiving the earth and stone of the land of which they were baronet. To make this possible, since Nova Scotia was so distant, the King declared that sasine could be taken either in the new province or alternatively "at the castle of Edinburgh as the most eminent and principal place of Scotland. "James' successor, King Charles I, visited Edinburgh Castle only once, hosting a feast in the Great Hall and staying the night before his Scottish coronation in 1633. This was the last occasion that a reigning monarch resided in the castle. In 1639, in response to Charles' attempts to impose Episcopacy on the Scottish Church, civil war broke out between the King's forces and the Presbyterian Covenanters. The Covenanters,

led by Alexander Leslie, captured Edinburgh Castle after a short siege, although it was restored to Charles after the Peace of Berwick in June the same year. The peace was short-lived, however, and the following year the Covenanters took the castle again, this time after a three-month siege, during which the garrison ran out of supplies. The Spur was badly damaged, and was demolished in the 1640s. The Royalist commander James Graham, 1st Marquis of Montrose was imprisoned here after his capture in 1650. In May 1650, the Covenanters signed the Treaty of Breda, allying themselves with the exiled Charles II against the English Parliamentarians, who had executed his father the previous year. In response to the Scots proclaiming Charles King, Oliver Cromwell launched an invasion of Scotland, defeating the Covenanter army at Dunbar in September. Edinburgh Castle was taken after a three-month siege, which caused further damage. The Governor of the Castle, Colonel Walter Dundas, surrendered to Cromwell despite having enough supplies to hold out, allegedly from a desire to change sides. In 1681, during a birthday salute for the Duke of Albany (later James VII and II, the last Stewart King) her barrel burst open and she was unceremoniously dumped beside Foog's Gate in Edinburgh Castle. The restored Mons Meg can proudly be viewed now on the upper levels of the Castle. The British Army is still responsible for some parts of the castle, although its presence is now largely ceremonial and administrative. Some of the castle buildings house regimental museums which contribute to its presentation as a tourist attraction.

On 19 March 1707 the Act uniting Scotland and England was passed in the Scottish Parliament. When it rose, the Crown, Sword and Sceptre were brought back to Edinburgh Castle and locked away. In time people wondered whether the honors of Scotland, as they were known really survived at all. In February 1818 Sir Walter Scott, with permission from the Prince Regent, broke into the room where the Honors had supposedly been locked away. He found them lying at the bottom of a chest covered with linen cloths "exactly as they had been left". They were immediately put on display in the room where they were discovered, so beginning Edinburgh Castle's new role as Scotland's premier visitor attraction.

Edinburgh Castle is every schoolboy's dream of what a castle should look like and the Edinburgh Castle website endeavors to give the Edinburgh visitor an in-depth view of Edinburgh Castle and its history from early times right up until the present day. The castle, in the care of Historic Scotland, is Scotland's most-visited paid tourist attraction, with over 1.4 million visitors in 2013. As the backdrop to the Edinburgh Military Tattoo during the annual Edinburgh International Festival the castle has become a recognizable symbol of Edinburgh and of Scotland and indeed, it is Edinburgh's most frequently visited visitor attraction - according to the Edinburgh Visitor Survey, more than 70% of leisure visitors to Edinburgh visited the



castle.

The visitor to the Castle is awarded with magnificent panoramas in every direction when they visit the Castle. No matter whether you are on the lowest levels of the Castle, or the highest points, visitors are delighted by what can be seen. When you look to the north, on a clear day, you can see the mountains of The Kingdom of Fife in the distance and immediately below you are the world famous Princes Street Gardens. Princes Street is unique in that the shops along its length are only on the north side of the street, so from them you have an uninterrupted view of the Castle. Beyond Princes Street is George Street the most original of Edinburgh's Georgian New Town Streets - with shops along its length. Continuing to the north you have Queen Street which runs parallel to it. Beyond Queen Street the remaining New Town Preservation area is mostly residential, and the city can boast of having the most intact Georgian city in the whole of Europe, and has UNICEF World Heritage Site status.

Apart from information on Edinburgh Castle, we have included lots of general information about Edinburgh in the website. You will notice we have sections covering Edinburgh accommodation which include Edinburgh Hotels, Edinburgh Bed and Breakfasts, Edinburgh Guest Houses, Edinburgh Self-catering Flats and Edinburgh Apartments. Other sections include Edinburgh Cafes, Edinburgh Entertainment, Edinburgh Restaurants, Edinburgh Weddings, Edinburgh Festivals and of course shopping in Edinburgh. On Edinburgh Pubs and Clubs Guide website you can also find lot of useful information on where to relax and have fun in Edinburgh.

The Edinburgh Castle website has many photographs of the various artifacts contained in Edinburgh Castle and pertaining to the Castle and Edinburgh itself. We act on what the Edinburgh Castle website visitors' request, and have added the Edinburgh Tattoo page complete with the derivation of the word Tattoo as a result. We are always interested in what our visitors would like to see in Edinburgh, and in the pages of the Edinburgh Castle website. We welcome requests from you whether your interest is Edinburgh Castle or the City of Edinburgh, as we want our website to

reflect what people really want to see and do when they visit Edinburgh. All photographs of Edinburgh and Edinburgh Castle used in our website are taken with state-of-the-art professional digital cameras by our resident Edinburgh Castle biz photographer, and we hope that his photos of Edinburgh and Edinburgh Castle reflect the diverse aspects of Edinburgh Castle and Edinburgh.

Edinburgh has a wealth of entertainment available, with live theatre, and a massive selection of cinemas, bars and restaurants, featuring live entertainment. Edinburgh, being a university town, offers a large range of clubs and entertainment slanted towards the large youth market. Edinburgh has new clubs and nightclubs opening all the time, the latest being the luxurious City Nightclub in Edinburgh's Market Street. A welcome arrival for local Edinburgh people, and visitors alike to Edinburgh, is the new Warner Village Cinema. This is a 12 plex cinema entertainment complex featuring a Warner Gold Section. The Edinburgh Warner Village Gold features a bar and the facility of ordering drinks and snacks to be delivered to your cinema seat. The Edinburgh Warner Village is the first large cinema in the true Edinburgh city center. Film buffs will be pleased to know that at the south west side of Edinburgh, in the Morningside area, we have a unique cinema complex. This is The Edinburgh Dominion Cinema, a family owned cinema with an original Art Deco frontage - there is even a restaurant and a bar in this unique Edinburgh cinema. Edinburgh also has the Edinburgh Film house Cinema in Lothian Road, which is in the west end of Edinburgh, providing excellent cinema entertainment and showing the latest, and in the case of the Film house Cinema "art house" and specialist films for the connoisseur. Edinburgh's Cameo Cinema is also worth checking out for films which you may not find on general release.

Edinburgh Playhouse Theatre (once the largest cinema in Britain), situated at the east end of The City of Edinburgh, is the largest theatre in Britain, entertaining 3000 people. The Edinburgh Playhouse entertainment specialty is large musicals, such as typically Miss Saigon and musicals by the likes of Andrew Lloyd Webber. Edinburgh is lucky to have a late Victorian masterpiece of a theatre in the Edinburgh Kings Theatre in the Toll cross area of the city, providing popular entertainment for theatre fans. Entering this theatre is like going back in time, to a period when all theatres had ornamentation of a manner which transported the patrons into a luxury world - even if it was for only one night's entertainment!

We welcome to Edinburgh Castle entertainment section the Edinburgh Party Bus and Katie Target Adams, the Edinburgh based harpist, the City Nightclub, and Sportsters Bar, three good additions to the Edinburgh Entertainment section, and make sure to check out the newly revamped Edinburgh Pubs website.

Tower of London

The Tower of London is poised to serve as the venue of one of the few national events to mark the Queen becoming the longest reigning British monarch. The historic landmark will host a celebration of her reign with projections across the walls and buildings of the Tower and host a charity gala to celebrate the occasion. On September 9 the Queen becomes the longest reigning monarch in British history passing the record set by her great-great-grandmother Queen Victoria.



The White Tower was started in 1076 and completed in 1097. It is the oldest of the twenty towers which used to stand here, of which many can still be seen today. The Tower of London was first built by William the Conqueror (who ruled from 1066 to 1087) for the use of protecting and controlling the city.

The Tower of London, officially Her Majesty's Royal Palace and Fortress of the Tower of London, is a historic castle located on the north bank of the River Thames in central London. It lies within the London Borough of Tower Hamlets, separated from the eastern edge of the square mile of the City of London by the open space known as Tower Hill. William the Conqueror built the White Tower in 1066 as a demonstration of Norman power, siting it strategically on the River Thames to act as both fortress and gateway to the capital. It is the most complete example of an 11th century fortress palace remaining in Europe. It was founded towards the end of 1066 as part of the Norman Conquest of England. The White Tower, which gives the entire castle its name, was built by William the Conqueror in 1078, and was a resented symbol of oppression, inflicted upon London by the new ruling elite. The castle was used as a prison from 1100 until 1952, although that was not its primary purpose. A grand palace early in its history, it served as a royal residence. As a whole, the Tower is a complex of several buildings set within two concentric rings of defensive walls and a moat. There were several phases of expansion, mainly under Kings Richard the Lion heart, Henry III, and Edward I in the 12th and 13th centuries. The general layout established by the late 13th century remains despite later activity on the site.

The Tower was also the scene of one of London's most famous mysteries, known as the mystery of the Princes in the Tower. King Edward IV died in 1483. He had two sons, Edward and Richard, and the older of these, Edward, became king on his father's death. As he was only twelve years old, his uncle (Richard, Duke of Gloucester) became his protector until the time of his coronation. Young Edward lived in the Tower and the Duke asked Edward's brother to come and live there as

well so that they could play together. But then the Duke announced that he was the new king. And he, not Edward, was crowned, calling himself Richard III.

After that, the boys were seen less and less and finally disappeared. It is said that they choked in bed by pillows being pressed over their mouths. It is believed that Richard ordered their deaths, although it has never been proved. In 1674, workmen at the Tower discovered two skeletons which were taken away and buried in Westminster Abbey in 1678. The bones were examined in 1933 and were declared to be those of two children, about the age of the Princes. However, the true facts have never been discovered. Today, the tower where the boys were imprisoned is known as the Bloody Tower.

The Tower of London has played a prominent role in English history. It was besieged several times and controlling it has been important to controlling the country. The Tower has served variously as an armory, a treasury, a menagerie, the home of the Royal Mint, a public records office, and the home of the Crown Jewels of England. From the early 14th century until the reign of Charles II, a procession would be led from the Tower to Westminster Abbey on the coronation of a monarch. In the absence of the monarch, the Constable of the Tower is in charge of the castle. This was a powerful and trusted position in the medieval period. In the late 15th century the castle was the prison of the Princes in the Tower. Under the Tudors, the Tower became used less as a royal residence, and despite attempts to refortify and repair the castle its defenses lagged behind developments to deal with artillery. A rare survival of a continuously developing ensemble of royal buildings, from the 11th to 16th centuries, the Tower of London has become one of the symbols of royalty. It also fostered the development of several of England's major State institutions, incorporating such fundamental roles as the nation's defense, its record-keeping and its coinage. It has been the setting for key historical events in European history, including the execution of three English queens.

The peak period of the castle's use as a prison was the 16th and 17th centuries, when many figures that had fallen into disgrace, such as Elizabeth I before she became queen, were held within its walls. This use has led to the phrase "sent to the Tower". Despite its enduring reputation as a place of torture and death, popularized by 16th-century religious propagandists and 19th-century writers, only seven people were executed within the Tower before the World Wars of the 20th century. Executions were more commonly held on the notorious Tower Hill to the north of the castle, with 112 occurring there over a 400-year period. After the Second World War, damage caused during the Blitz was repaired and the castle reopened to the public. Today the Tower of London is one of the country's most popular tourist attractions. Under the ceremonial charge of the Constable of the Tower, it is cared for by the charity Historic Royal Palaces and is protected as a World Heritage Site.

For both protection and control of the City of London, it has a landmark siting. As the gateway to the capital, the Tower was in effect the gateway to the new Norman kingdom. Sited strategically at a bend in the River Thames, it has been a crucial demarcation point between the power of the developing City of London, and the power of the monarchy. It had the dual role of providing protection for the City through its defensive structure and the provision of a garrison, and of also controlling the citizens by the same means. The Tower literally 'towered' over its surroundings until the 19th century.

The Tower of London was built as a demonstration and symbol of Norman power. The Tower represents more than any other structure the far-reaching significance of the mid-11th century

Norman Conquest of England, for the impact it had on fostering closer ties with Europe, on English language and culture, and in creating one of the most powerful monarchies in Europe. The Tower has an iconic role as reflecting the last military conquest of England.

The Tower was oriented with its strongest and most impressive defenses overlooking Saxon London, which archaeologist Alan Vince suggests was deliberate. It would have visually dominated the surrounding area and stood out to traffic on the River Thames. The castle is made up of three "wards", or enclosures. The innermost ward contains the White Tower and is the earliest phase of the castle. The property is an outstanding example of late 11th century innovative Norman military architecture. As the most complete survival of an 11th-century fortress palace remaining in Europe, the White Tower, and its later 13th and 14th century additions, belongs to a series of edifices which were at the cutting edge of military building technology internationally. They represent the apogee of a type of sophisticated castle design, which originated in Normandy and spread through Norman lands to England and Wales. Palace buildings were added to the royal complex right up until the 16th century, although few now stand above ground. The property has strong associations with State Institutions. The continuous use of the Tower by successive monarchs fostered the development of several major State Institutions. These incorporated such fundamental roles as the nation's defense, its records, and its coinage. From the late 13th century, the Tower was a major repository for official documents, and precious goods owned by the Crown. The presence of the Crown Jewels, kept at the Tower since the 17th century, is a reminder of the fortress' role as a repository for the Royal Wardrobe.

The role of the White Tower as a symbol of Norman power is evident in its massive masonry. It remains, with limited later change, as both an outstanding example of innovative Norman architecture and the most complete survival of a late 11th century fortress palace in Europe. Much of the work of Henry III and Edward I, whose additions made the Tower into a model example of a concentric medieval fortress in the 13th and early 14th centuries, survives. The Tower's association with the development of State institutions, although no longer evident in the physical fabric, is maintained through tradition, documentary records, interpretative material, and the presence of associated artifacts, for example, armor and weaponry displayed by the Royal Armouries. The Tower also retains its original relationship with the surrounding physical elements – the scaffold site, the Prisoners' or Water Gate, the dungeons — that provided the stage for key events in European history, even though the wider context, beyond the moat, has changed.

In the 21st century, tourism is the Tower's primary role, the remaining routine military activities, under the Royal Logistic Corps, having wound down in the latter half of the century and moved out of the castle. The Tower of London has become established as one of the most popular tourist attractions in the country. It has been a tourist attraction since at least the Elizabethan period, when it was one of the sights of London that foreign visitors wrote about. Its most popular attractions were the Royal Menagerie and displays of armor. The Crown Jewels also garner much interest, and have been on public display since 1669. The Tower steadily gained popularity with tourists through the 19th century, despite the opposition of the Duke of Wellington to visitors. Numbers became so high that by 1851 a purpose-built ticket office was erected. By the end of the century, over 500,000 were visiting the castle every year.

British Museum

The British Museum was founded in 1753, the first national public museum in the world. From the beginning it granted free admission to all 'studious and curious persons'. Visitor numbers have grown from around 5,000 a year in the eighteenth century to nearly 6 million today. The gift was accepted and on 7 June 1753, an Act of Parliament established the British Museum.



The origins of the British Museum lie in the will of the physician, naturalist and collector, Sir Hans Sloane (1660–1753). Over his lifetime, Sloane collected more than 71,000 objects which he wanted to be preserved intact after his death. So he bequeathed the whole collection to King George II for the nation in return for a payment of £20,000 to his heirs. In 1757 King George II donated the 'Old Royal Library' of the sovereigns of England and with it the privilege of copyright receipt. The British Museum opened in 1759, six years after Sir Hans Sloane died. At first the museum was only open three days a week and only ten people could enter in an hour. There wasn't much time to see things. Visitors had to run through the rooms.

The British Museum opened to the public on 15 January 1759. The founding collections largely consisted of books, manuscripts and natural specimens with some antiquities (including coins and medals, prints and drawings) and ethnographic material. It was first housed in a seventeenth-century mansion, Montagu House, in Bloomsbury on the site of today's building. Entry was free and given to 'all studious and curious Persons'.

From 1778, the museum's first notable addition towards its collection of antiquities, since its foundation, was by Sir William Hamilton (1730–1803), British Ambassador to Naples, who sold his collection of Greek and Roman artifacts to the museum in 1784 together with a number of other antiquities and natural history specimens.

In 1806, Thomas Bruce, 7th Earl of Elgin, ambassador to the Ottoman Empire from 1799 to 1803 removed the large collection of marble sculptures from the Parthenon, on the Acropolis in Athens and transferred them to the UK. In 1816 these masterpieces of western art, were acquired by The British Museum by Act of Parliament and deposited in the museum thereafter. In 1802 a Buildings Committee was set-up to plan for expansion of the museum, and further highlighted by the donation in 1822 of the King's Library, personal library of King George III's, comprising 65,000 volumes, 19,000 pamphlets, maps, charts and topographical drawings. In 1823 the gift to the nation by George IV of his father's library (the King's Library) prompted the construction of today's quadrangular building designed by Sir Robert Smirke (1780–1867). In 1840, the Museum became involved in its first overseas excavations, Charles Fellows's expedition to Xanthos, in Asia Minor, whence came remains of the tombs of the rulers of ancient Lycia, among them the Nereid and Payava monuments. To make more room for the increasing collections held by the Museum, the natural history collections were moved to a new building in South Kensington in the 1880s.

This became the Natural History Museum.

A key figure during this period was Sir Augustus Wollaston Franks (1826–97). Appointed to the Museum in 1851, he was the first person to be responsible for British and medieval material. Franks expanded the collection in new directions, collecting not only British and medieval antiquities but also prehistoric, ethnographic and archaeological material from Europe and beyond as well as oriental art and objects. The William Burges collection of armory was bequeathed to the museum in 1881. In 1882, the Museum was involved in the establishment of the independent Egypt Exploration Fund (now Society) the first British body to carry out research in Egypt. In 1931, the art dealer Sir Joseph DeVein offered funds to build a gallery for the Parthenon sculptures. Designed by the American architect John Russell Pope, it was completed in 1938.

By the 1970s the Museum was again expanding. More services for the public were introduced; visitor numbers soared, with the temporary exhibition "Treasures of Tutankhamen" in 1972, attracting 1,694,117 visitors, the most successful in British history. Visitor numbers increased greatly during the nineteenth century. The Museum attracted crowds of all ages and social classes, particularly on public holidays. Alongside their academic work, curators took an interest in broadening the Museum's appeal through lectures, improving the displays and writing popular guides to the collections.



Until 1997, when the British Library (previously centered on the Round Reading Room) moved to a new site, the British Museum housed both a national museum of antiquities and a national library in the same building. The museum is a non-departmental public body sponsored by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport, and as with all other national museums in the United Kingdom it charges no admission fee, except for loan exhibitions.

In 2013 the museum received a record 6.7 million visitors, an increase of 20% from the previous year. Popular exhibitions including "Life and Death in Pompeii and Herculaneum" and "Ice Age Art" are credited with helping fuel the increase in visitors. Plans were announced in September 2014 to recreate the entire building along with all exhibits in the video game Mine craft in conjunction with members of the public.

The British Museum houses the world's largest and most comprehensive collection of Egyptian antiquities (with over 100,000 pieces) outside the Egyptian Museum in Cairo. A collection of immense importance for its range and quality, it includes objects of all periods from virtually every site of importance in Egypt and the Sudan. Enormous statues, golden jewelry and hieroglyphic tablets which were feared lost forever have been reclaimed from the sea, and are to

be put on public display next year in a major exhibition by the British Museum. Egyptian antiquities have formed part of the British Museum collection ever since its foundation in 1753 after receiving 160 Egyptian objects from Sir Hans Sloane. Active support by the museum for excavations in Egypt continued to result in important acquisitions throughout the 20th century until changes in antiquities laws in Egypt led to the suspension of policies allowing finds to be exported, although divisions still continue in Sudan. The treasures belong to Heracleion and Canopus, cities built on the shifting ground of the Nile delta, which are now buried beneath three meters of silt. Ancient texts record the existence of the settlements, which were the gateway to Egypt before Alexandria rose to prominence. But the two trading hubs were lost - literally - to the sands of time until a chance discovery in 1996.

Divers in the mouth of the Nile unearthed the treasures, and have spent almost two decades since painstakingly dredging them out of the deep. Highlights of the collection include a 1.9m hieroglyphic tablet inscribed with a royal declaration from Pharaoh Nectanebo I and a 5.4m statue of Hapy, an Egyptian god who personifies the Nile's floods. The exhibition, called *Sunken Cities: Egypt's Lost World*, will run from May to November next year. It will combine items from the Museum's own archives with items on special loan from Egyptian authorities, who rarely let the artifacts leave their country. Around 300 items will be put on display, most of which were pulled from the sunken ruins. The exhibition will focus on the mingling of cultures in the Nile delta cities, particularly the interaction between Egypt and Ancient Greece. Other treasures on display will include a statue of Arsinoe II, a queen in the Ptolemaic dynasty which was founded after Alexander the Great conquered the country.

The British Museum has one of the world's largest and most comprehensive collections of antiquities from the Classical world, with over 100,000 objects. Archaeology was in its infancy during the nineteenth century and many pioneering individuals began excavating sites across the Classical world, chief among them for the museum were Charles Newton, John Turtle Wood, Robert Murdoch Smith and Charles Fellows.

With a collection numbering some 330,000 works, the British Museum possesses the world's largest and most important collection of Mesopotamian antiquities outside Iraq. The collections represent the civilizations of the ancient Near East and its adjacent areas. A representative selection from the Department of Middle East, including the most important pieces, is on display in 13 galleries throughout the museum and totals some 4,500 objects. A whole suite of rooms on the ground floor display the sculptured reliefs from the Assyrian palaces at Nineveh, Nimrud and Khorsabad, while 8 galleries on the upper floor hold smaller material from ancient sites across the Middle East. The remainder forms the study collection which ranges in size from beads to large sculptures. They include approximately 130,000 cuneiform tablets from Mesopotamia.

The Department of Prints and Drawings holds the national collection of Western prints and drawings. It ranks as one of the largest and best print room collections in existence alongside the Albertan in Vienna, the Paris collections and the Hermitage. The holdings are easily accessible to the general public in the Study Room, unlike many such collections. The department also has its own exhibition gallery in Room 90, where the displays and exhibitions change several times a year.

The Department of Prehistory and Europe was established in 1969 and is responsible for collections that cover a vast expanse of time and geography. Representative selections of Iron Age artifacts from Hallstatt were acquired as a result of the Evans/Lubbock excavations and from

Giubiasco in Ticino through the Swiss National Museum. In addition, the British Museum's collections covering the period AD 300 to 1100 are among the largest and most comprehensive in the world, extending from Spain to the Black Sea and from North Africa to Scandinavia; a representative selection of these has recently been redisplayed in a newly refurbished gallery.

The scope of the Department of Asia is extremely broad; its collections of over 75,000 objects cover the material culture of the whole Asian continent (from East, South, Central and South-East Asia) and from the Neolithic up to the present day. The principal gallery devoted to Asian art in the museum is Gallery 33 with its comprehensive display of Chinese, Indian subcontinent and Southeast Asian objects. An adjacent gallery showcases the Amravati sculptures and monuments. Other galleries on the upper floors are devoted to its Japanese, Korean, painting and calligraphy, and Chinese ceramics collections.

The British Museum houses one of the world's most comprehensive collections of Ethnographic material from Africa, Oceania and the Americas, representing the cultures of indigenous peoples throughout the world. Over 350,000 objects spanning thousands of years tells the history of mankind from three major continents and many rich and diverse cultures; the collecting of modern artifacts is ongoing. Many individuals have added to the department's collection over the years but those assembled by Henry Christy, Harry Beasley and William Oldman are outstanding. Objects from this department are mostly on display in several galleries on the ground and lower floors. A long suite of rooms (Gallery 25) on the lower floor display African art. There are plans in place to develop permanent galleries for showcasing art from Oceania and South America.

Buckingham Palace

The graceless colossus of Buckingham Palace, popularly known as "Buck House", has served as the monarch's permanent London residence only since the accession of Victoria. The history of the original building dates back to the early 1700's and finally became the official residence of the British monarch in 1837 after Queen Victoria came to the throne. Buckingham Palace is the London residence and principal workplace of the reigning monarch of the United Kingdom. Located in the City of Westminster, the palace is often at the center of state occasions and royal hospitality. It has been a focus for the British people at times of national rejoicing.

The 19 State Rooms at the palace are regularly used by the Royal family to entertain guests on their State, ceremonial and official visits to the United Kingdom. During August and September the Queen makes her yearly visit to Scotland allowing the palace to open up these lavish rooms to the public. The reception of the 2011 Royal Wedding was hosted by Her Majesty the Queen at the Palace, and Prince William and Duchess of Cambridge were greeted by hundreds of thousands rejoicing fans and well-wishers as they posed for pictures on the famous East Front balcony. Located in the heart of London and surrounded by 2 royal parks, a trip to Buckingham Palace is a must for any visitor to London during August and September.



Originally known as Buckingham House, the building which forms the core of today's palace was a large townhouse built for the Duke of Buckingham in 1703 on a site which had been in private ownership for at least 150 years. The Palace has of course seen many renovations and alterations, the first of which was in 1820 when Nash was commissioned by George IV. During the 19th century it was enlarged, principally by architects John Nash and Edward Blore, who formed three wings around a central courtyard. Buckingham Palace finally became the official royal palace of the British monarch on the accession of Queen Victoria in 1837. Nash, one of the foremost architects of the day added a new suite of rooms facing west into the garden; this doubled the size of the building. However the 'front' of the Palace, has remained virtually unchanged from the original design over 300 years ago

Queen Victoria was the first monarch to take up residence in Buckingham Palace in 1837. Once again extensive changes took place. The last major structural additions were made in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, including the East front, which contains the well-known balcony on which the royal family traditionally congregates to greet crowds outside. Today Buckingham Palace is used not only as the home of The Queen and her husband, The Duke of Edinburgh, but also for the administrative work for the monarchy.

The original early 19th-century interior designs, many of which still survive, included widespread use of brightly colored scagliola and blue and pink lapis, on the advice of Sir Charles Long. King Edward VII oversaw a partial redecoration in a Belle Époque cream and gold color scheme. Many smaller reception rooms are furnished in the Chinese regency style with furniture and fittings brought from the Royal Pavilion at Brighton and from Carlton House. The palace has 775 rooms, and the garden is the largest private garden in London. The state rooms, used for official and state entertaining, are open to the public each year for most of August, September, December and January.

In 1531, King Henry VIII acquired the Hospital of St James from Eton College, and in 1536 he took the Manor of Ebury from Westminster Abbey. These transfers brought the site of Buckingham Palace back into royal hands for the first time since William the Conqueror had given it away almost 500 years earlier.

Buckingham Palace finally became the principal royal residence in 1837, on the accession of Queen Victoria, who was the first monarch to reside there; her predecessor William IV had died before its completion. While the state rooms were a riot of gilt and color, the necessities of the

new palace were somewhat less luxurious. For one thing, it was reported the chimneys smoked so much that the fires had to be allowed to die down, and consequently the court shivered in icy magnificence. Ventilation was so bad that the interior smelled, and when a decision was taken to install gas lamps, there was a serious worry about the build-up of gas on the lower floors. It was also said that staff were lax and lazy and the palace was dirty. Following the queen's marriage in 1840, her husband, Prince Albert, concerned himself with a reorganization of the household offices and staff, and with the design faults of the palace. The problems were all rectified by the close of 1840. However, the builders were to return within the decade.



By 1847, the couple had found the palace too small for court life and their growing family, and consequently the new wing, designed by Edward Blore, was built by Thomas Cubitt, enclosing the central quadrangle. The large East Front, facing The Mall, is today the "public face" of Buckingham Palace, and contains the balcony from which the royal family acknowledges the crowds on momentous occasions and after the annual trooping the Color. The ballroom wing and a further suite of state rooms were also built in this period, designed by Nash's student Sir James Penne Thorne.

Widowed in 1861, the grief-stricken Queen withdrew from public life and left Buckingham Palace to live at Windsor Castle, Balmoral Castle and Osborne House. For many years the palace was seldom used, even neglected. In 1864, a note was found pinned to the fence of Buckingham Palace, saying: "These commanding premises to be let or sold, in consequence of the late occupant's declining business." Eventually, public opinion forced her to return to London, though even then she preferred to live elsewhere whenever possible. Court functions were still held at Windsor Castle, presided over by the sombre queen habitually dressed in mourning black while Buckingham Palace remained shuttered for most of the year.

Between 1847 and 1850, when Blore was building the new east wing, the Brighton Pavilion was once again plundered of its fittings. As a result, many of the rooms in the new wing have a distinctly oriental atmosphere. The red and blue Chinese Luncheon Room is made up from parts of the Brighton Banqueting and Music Rooms, but has a chimney piece designed by W.M. Foot ham. The Yellow Drawing Room has wallpaper supplied in 1817 for the Brighton Saloon, and the chimney piece in this room is a European vision of what the Chinese equivalent may look like,

complete with nodding mandarins in niches and fearsome winged dragons, designed by Robert Jones. The original early 19th-century interior designs, many of which still survive, included widespread use of brightly coloured scagliola and blue and pink lapis, on the advice of Sir Charles Long. King Edward VII oversaw a partial redecoration in a Belle époque cream and gold color scheme.

The Queen holds small lunch parties, and often meetings of the Privy Council. Larger lunch parties often take place in the curved and domed Music Room, or the State Dining Room. On all formal occasions, the ceremonies are attended by the Yeomen of the Guard in their historic uniforms, and other officers of the court such as the Lord Chamberlain. Since the bombing of the palace chapel in World War II, royal christenings have sometimes taken place in the Music Room. The Queen's first three children were all baptized there.

In 1901 the accession of Edward VII saw new life breathed into the palace. Buckingham Palace—the Ballroom, Grand Entrance, Marble Hall, Grand Staircase, vestibules and galleries redecorated in the Belle époque cream and gold colour scheme they retain today—once again became a setting for entertaining on a majestic scale but leaving some to feel King Edward's heavy redecorations were at odds with Nash's original work.

The palace contains 775 rooms, including 19 state rooms, 52 principal bedrooms, 188 staff bedrooms, 92 offices, and 78 bathrooms. This is actually small in comparison to the Russian imperial palaces in Saint Petersburg and at Tsarskoe Selo, the Papal Palace in Rome, the Royal Palace of Madrid, the Stockholm Palace, or indeed the former Palace of Whitehall, and tiny compared to the Forbidden City and Potala Palace.

The palace fared worse during World War II; it was bombed no less than seven times, the most serious and publicized of which resulted in the destruction of the palace chapel in 1940. Coverage of this event was played in cinemas all over the UK to show the common suffering of rich and poor.

Every year some 50,000 invited guests are entertained at garden parties, receptions, audiences and banquets. The Garden Parties, usually three, are held in the summer, usually in July. The palace, like Windsor Castle, is owned by the British state. It is not the monarch's personal property, unlike Sandringham House and Balmoral Castle. Many of the contents from Buckingham Palace, Windsor Castle, Kensington Palace and St James's Palace are known collectively as the Royal Collection; owned by the Sovereign, they can, on occasions, be viewed by the public at the Queen's Gallery, near the Royal Mews. Unlike the palace and the castle, the gallery is open continually and displays a changing selection of items from the collection.

In May 2009, in response to a request from the Queen to the government for money to carry out a backlog of repairs to the palace, a group of MPs on the Public Accounts Committee proposed that in return for the extra £4 million in annual funds requested, the palace be open to the public more than the 60 days it is now, as well as when members of the royal family are in residence. In November 2015 the State Dining Room was closed for six months because its ceiling had become potentially dangerous.

Cambridge

The University of Cambridge is rich in history - its famous Colleges and University buildings attract visitors from all over the world. But the University's museums and collections also hold

many treasures which give an exciting insight into some of the scholarly activities, both past and present, of the University's academics and students. The University of Cambridge is one of the world's oldest universities and leading academic centers, and a self-governed community of scholars. Its reputation for outstanding academic achievement is known world-wide and reflects the intellectual achievement of its students, as well as the world-class original research carried out by the staff of the University and the Colleges.

There is archaeological evidence of settlement in the area in the Bronze Age and in Roman Britain; under Viking rule, Cambridge became an important trading center. The first town charters were granted in the 12th century, although city status was not conferred until 1951. When we first come across Cambridge in written records, it was already a considerable town. The bridge across the River Cam or Granta, from which the town took its name, had existed since at least 875. The town was an important trading centre before the Domesday survey was compiled in 1086, by which time a castle stood on the rising ground to the north of the bridge, and there were already substantial commercial and residential properties as well as several churches in the main settlement which lay south of the bridge.

Cambridge is the home of the University of Cambridge, founded in 1209 and one of the top five universities in the world. By 1200, Cambridge was a thriving commercial community which was also a county town and had at least one school of some distinction. The university includes the Cavendish Laboratory, King's College Chapel, and the Cambridge University Library. Then, in 1209, scholars taking refuge from hostile townsmen in Oxford migrated to Cambridge and settled there.

At first they lived in lodgings in the town, but in time houses were hired as hostels with a Master in charge of the students. By 1226 the scholars were numerous enough to have set up an organization, represented by an official called a Chancellor, and seem to have arranged regular courses of study, taught by their own members. From the start there was friction between the town and the students.

Cambridge is at the heart of the high-technology Silicon Fen with industries such as software and bioscience and many start-up companies spun out of the university. Over 40% of the workforce has a higher education qualification, more than twice the national average. Cambridge is also home to the Cambridge Biomedical Campus, one of the largest biomedical research clusters in the world, soon to be home to AstraZeneca, a hotel and relocated Papworth Hospital.



The students who flocked to Cambridge soon arranged their scheme of study after the pattern which had become common in Italy and France, and which they would have known in Oxford. It soon became necessary, to avoid abuse of the royal privileges conferred on scholars, to identify and authenticate the persons to whom degrees had been granted. They studied first what would now be termed a 'foundation course' in arts - grammar, logic and rhetoric - followed later by arithmetic, music, geometry and astronomy, leading to the degrees of bachelor and master. There were no professors; the teaching was conducted by masters who had them passed through the course and who had been approved or licensed by the whole body of their colleagues. Enrolment with a licensed master was the first step towards this; it was called matriculation because of the condition that the scholar's name must be on the master's matriculate or roll, but later the University itself assumed this duty. The teaching took the form of reading and explaining texts; the examinations were oral disputations in which the candidates advanced a series of questions or theses which they disputed or argued with opponents a little senior to themselves, and finally with the masters who had taught them.

Some of the masters, but by no means all, went on to advanced studies in divinity, canon and civil law, and, more rarely, medicine, which were taught and examined in the same way by those who had already passed through the course and become doctors. The grades of scholar became differentiated by a series of variations on the gown, hood and cap. Reminders of these terms and practices survive today.

In the 19th century, in common with many other English towns, Cambridge expanded rapidly. Despite these developments, there was in the first half of the nineteenth century a continued call for change and reform in the University, which in part reflected the political movements of the country as a whole. This was due in part to increased life expectancy and also improved agricultural production leading to increased trade in town markets. The election as Chancellor of Prince Albert the Prince Consort in 1847 is an indication of the strength of the movement for reform, and in 1850 a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into the two ancient universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

The Commission's report resulted in the promulgation of new Statutes for Cambridge in the Cambridge University Act of 1856. These Statutes have been much revised since their first appearance, but the form of government which they embodied has remained as a framework. The ultimate authority in the University was at first the Senate, the whole body of graduates, together with the Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, and doctors.

The University Library, substantially enlarged on the Old Schools site during the nineteenth century, outgrew its original home and moved in 1935 to splendid new buildings west of the River Cam with the aid of a very substantial benefaction from the Rockefeller Foundation. Resources for the study of art, architecture and archaeology had been provided, under the will of Sir Richard Fitzwilliam, by the establishment of the museum which bears his name. To develop these new branches of learning a number of new or remodeled professorships were established by the University and by private benefactors, the earliest being the Disney Professorship of archaeology in 1851. 'Extension lectures' in provincial centers were an important feature of University activities in the late nineteenth century. From the 1860s, Colleges began slowly to permit their Fellows to marry. This had a profound influence on Cambridge society and on the topography of the town when houses came to be built to accommodate the new families. Organized sport came to play a notable part in the life of the Colleges and University after 1851. The Proctors continued, in conjunction with College officers, to supervise public order and maintain discipline and it should be noted that until 1970 gowns were worn on the streets after dark by all junior members and Colleges closed their gates well before midnight.

In the First World War (1914-19), 13,878 members of the University served and 2,470 were killed. Teaching, and the fees it earned, came almost to a stop and severe financial difficulties followed. The Colleges retained control of individual teaching of their students and this division of responsibility continues today.

This period has seen an accelerated rate of development in almost every direction. University departments and research institutes were established as new areas of study developed, and with them new teaching courses. The 1950s and 1960s saw an unprecedented expansion of the University's teaching accommodation. The west Cambridge expansion continues today, and the area now houses many facilities including the Computer Laboratory and the Centre for Nano science. The University's own Industrial Liaison Office began in the 1970s with the support of the Wolfson Foundation, and has now developed into the Research Office. Meanwhile the undergraduate numbers were increased after the war by the admission to full membership from 1947 of women students, by the foundation of a third women's College, New Hall (1954, now Murray Edwards College), as well as the foundation of Churchill (1960) and Robinson (1977).

In 2009, the University of Cambridge reached a special milestone – 800 years of people, ideas and achievements that continue to transform and benefit the world. The opening ringing in the Year event attracted over 10,000 visitors to central Cambridge to watch a bespoke lightshow – a first for Cambridge. By time of the Summer Garden Party in July, a train had been named by the Chancellor to commemorate the Anniversary, the lightshow had been repeated in China, the Science Festival had celebrated 800 years of science and hundreds of universities around the world, as well as local school children, were busy writing Letters to the Future.

The River Thames

The River Thames is the second longest river in the United Kingdom and the longest river entirely in England, rising at Thames Head in Gloucestershire, and flowing into the North Sea at the Thames Estuary. While it is best known for flowing through London, the river also flows alongside other towns and cities, including Oxford, Reading, Henley-on-Thames and Windsor. The river is tidal in London with a rise and falls of 7 meters (23 ft.) and becomes non-tidal at Teddington Lock. The catchment area covers a large part of South Eastern and Western England and the river is fed by over 20 tributaries.

The river gives its name to three informal areas: the Thames Valley, a region of England around the river between Oxford and West London; the Thames Gateway; and the greatly overlapping Thames Estuary around the tidal Thames to the east of London and including the waterway itself. The river contains over 80 islands, and having both seawater and freshwater stretches supports a variety of wildlife. In an alternative name, derived from its long tidal reach up to Teddington Lock in south west London, the lower reaches of the river is called the Tideway.

Two broad canals link the river to other river basins: the Kennet and Avon Canal (Reading to Bath) and the Grand Union Canal (London to the Midlands). Along its course are 45 navigation locks with accompanying weirs. Its catchment area covers a large part of South Eastern and a small part of Western England and the river is fed by 38 named tributaries. The river contains over 80 islands. The marks of human activity are visible at various points along the river. Running through some of the driest parts of mainland Britain, the Thames's discharge is low considering its length and breadth: the Severn has a discharge almost twice as large on average despite having a smaller basin area.

The Thames through Oxford is sometimes called the River Isis. However, since the early 20th century this distinction has been lost in common usage outside of Oxford, and some historians suggest the name Isis is nothing more than a truncation of Thames, the Latin name for the Thames. The river was subject to minor redefining and widening of the main channel around Oxford, Abingdon and Marlow before 1850, since when further cuts to ease navigation have reduced distances further.



The Thames River Basin District, including the Medway catchment, covers an area of 6,229 square miles. The Thames itself provides two-thirds of London's drinking water while groundwater supplies about 40 per cent of public water supplies in the total catchment area. The River Thames

can first be identified as a discrete drainage line as early as 58 million years ago, in the Thanetian stage of the late Palaeocene epoch. About 450,000 years ago, in the most extreme Ice Age of the Pleistocene, the Anglian, and the furthest southern extent of the ice sheet was at Hornchurch in east London. The last advance from that Scandinavian ice flow to have reached this far south covered much of North West Middlesex and finally forced the Proto-Thames to take roughly its present course. The original land surface was around 350 to 400 ft. (110 to 130 meters) above the current sea level.

The East End of London, also known simply as the East End, was the area of London east of the medieval walled City of London and north of the River Thames, although it is not defined by universally accepted formal boundaries; the River Lea can be considered another boundary. The Thames contains both sea water and fresh water, thus providing support for seawater and freshwater fish.

The River Thames has played several roles in human history: as an economic resource, a maritime route, a boundary, a fresh water source, a source of food and more recently a leisure facility. The 16th and 17th centuries saw the City of London grow with the expansion of world trade. The wharves of the Pool of London were thick with seagoing vessels while naval dockyards were built at Deptford. By the 18th century, the Thames was one of the world's busiest waterways, as London became the centre of the vast, mercantile British Empire, and progressively over the next century the docks expanded in the Isle of Dogs and beyond. Throughout early modern history the population of London and its industries discarded their rubbish in the river. In the late 18th and 19th century's people known as Mudlarks scavenged in the river mud for a meagre living.

In the 19th century the quality of water in Thames deteriorated further. The dumping of raw sewage into the Thames was formerly only common in the City of London, making its tideway a harbor for many harmful bacteria. The Victorian era was one of imaginative engineering. The coming of the railways added railway bridges to the earlier road bridges and also reduced commercial activity on the river. The growth of road transport, and the decline of the Empire in the years following 1914, reduced the economic prominence of the river. In the early 1980s a pioneering flood control device, the Thames Barrier, was opened.

In summer, passenger services operate along the entire non-tidal river from Oxford to Teddington. The two largest operators are Salters Steamers and French Brothers. The Thames is maintained for navigation by powered craft from the estuary as far as Lechlade in Gloucestershire and for very small craft to Cricklade. The tidal river is navigable to large ocean-going ships as far upstream as the Pool of London and London Bridge.

Palace of Westminster

The Palace of Westminster is the meeting place of the House of Commons and the House of Lords, the two houses of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. The Palace lies on the northern bank of the River Thames in the City of Westminster, in central London. The first royal palace was built on the site in the eleventh century, and Westminster was the primary residence of the Kings of England until a fire destroyed much of the complex in 1512.

The remains of the Old Palace were incorporated into its much larger replacement, which contains over 1,100 rooms organized symmetrically around two series of courtyards. Construction started in 1840 and lasted for thirty years, suffering great delays and cost overruns, as well as the

death of both leading architects; works for the interior decoration continued intermittently well into the twentieth century. The Palace is one of the centers of political life in the United Kingdom; "Westminster" has become a metonym for the UK Parliament, and the Westminster system of government has taken its name after it.

The Palace of Westminster site was strategically important during the Middle Ages, as it was located on the banks of the River Thames. The oldest existing part of the Palace (Westminster Hall) dates from the reign of William I's successor, King William II. The Palace of Westminster was the monarch's principal residence in the late medieval period.

In 1512, during the early years of the reign of King Henry VIII, fire destroyed the royal residential area of the palace. Although Westminster officially remained a royal palace, it was used by the two Houses of Parliament and by the various royal law courts. Important state ceremonies were held in the Painted Chamber. In 1547 the building became available for the Commons' use following the disbanding of St Stephen's College.

The Palace of Westminster as a whole began to see significant alterations from the 18th century onwards, as Parliament struggled to carry out its business in the limited available space and ageing buildings. The palace complex was substantially remodeled, this time by Sir John Soane, between 1824 and 1827.



On 16 October 1834, a fire broke out in the Palace after an overheated stove used to destroy the Exchequer's stockpile of tally sticks set fire to the House of Lords Chamber. Immediately after the fire, King William IV offered the almost-completed Buckingham Palace to Parliament, hoping to dispose of a residence he disliked. In the meantime, the immediate priority was to provide accommodation for the next Parliament, and so the Painted Chamber and White Chamber were hastily repaired for temporary use by the Houses of Lords and Commons respectively, under the direction of the only remaining architect of the Office of Works, Sir Robert Smirke. Works proceeded quickly and the chambers were ready for use by February 1835. During the Second World War, the Palace of Westminster was hit by bombs on fourteen separate occasions. One bomb fell into Old Palace Yard on 26 September 1940 and severely damaged the south wall of St

Stephen's Porch and the west front.

The Palace of Westminster features three main towers. Of these, the largest and tallest is 98.5-metre (323 ft.) At the base of the tower is the Sovereign's Entrance, used by the monarch whenever entering the Palace to open Parliament or for other state occasions. At the north end of the Palace rises the most famous of the towers, Elizabeth Tower, commonly known as Big Ben. Five bells hang in the belfry above the clock. The four quarter bells strike the Westminster Chimes every quarter hour. The shortest of the Palace's three principal towers, the octagonal Central Tower stands over the middle of the building, immediately above the Central Lobby.

There are some other features of the Palace of Westminster which are also known as towers. There are a number of small gardens surrounding the Palace of Westminster. Victoria Tower Gardens is open as a public park along the side of the river south of the palace. The Palace of Westminster contains over 1,100 rooms, 100 staircases and 4.8 kilometers of passageways, which are spread over four floors. Instead of one main entrance, the Palace features separate entrances for the different user groups of the building. Members of Parliament enter their part of the building from the Members' Entrance in the south side of New Palace Yard. Their route passes through a cloakroom in the lower level of the Cloisters and eventually reaches the Members' Lobby directly south of the Commons Chamber.

The grandest entrance to the Palace of Westminster is the Sovereign's Entrance beneath the Victoria Tower. It was designed for the use of the monarch, who travels from Buckingham Palace by carriage every year for the State Opening of Parliament. The Queen's Robing Room lies at the southern end of the ceremonial axis of the Palace and occupies the center of the building's south front, overlooking the Victoria Tower Gardens.

The Palace of Westminster also includes state apartments for the presiding officers of the two Houses. The official residence of the Speaker stands at the northern end of the Palace; the Lord Chancellor's apartments are at the southern end. Each day, the Speaker and Lord Speaker take part in formal processions from their apartments to their respective Chambers. Animals are not allowed to enter the Palace of Westminster, with the exception of guide dogs for the blind. Sniffer dogs and police horses are also allowed on the grounds.

London Eye

The London Eye is a giant Ferris wheel on the South Bank of the River Thames in London. Since mid-January 2015, it has been known as the Coca-Cola London Eye, following an agreement signed in September 2014. The structure is 443 feet (135 m) tall and the wheel has a diameter of 394 feet (120 m). It is Europe's tallest Ferris wheel, and offered the highest public viewing point in London until it was superseded by the 804 feet (245 m) observation deck on the 72nd floor of The Shard, which opened to the public on 1 February 2013.



The London Eye adjoins the western end of Jubilee Gardens, on the South Bank of the River Thames between Westminster Bridge and Hungerford Bridge, in the London Borough of Lambeth. A predecessor to the London Eye, the Great Wheel, was built for the Empire of India Exhibition at Earls Court and opened to the public on 17 July 1895. It stayed in service until 1906, by which time its 40 cars (each with a capacity of 40 persons) had carried over 2.5 million passengers.

The London Eye was designed by architects Frank Anatole, Bailey, Steve Chilton, Malcolm Cook, Marand and the husband-and-wife team of Julia Barfield and David Marks. The wheel was constructed in sections which were floated up the Thames on barges and assembled lying flat on piled platforms in the river.

The London Eye was formally opened by then Prime Minister Tony Blair on 31 December 1999, although it was not opened to the public until 9 March 2000 because of technical problems. On 5 June 2008 it was announced that 30 million people had ridden the London Eye since it opened. In 2009 the first stage of a £12.5 million capsule upgrade began. Each capsule was taken down and floated down the river to Docks in Essex. On 2 June 2013 a passenger capsule was named the Coronation Capsule to mark the sixtieth anniversary of the coronation of Queen Elizabeth II.

On 25 May 2005, London mayor Ken Livingstone vowed that the landmark would remain in London. He also pledged that if the dispute was not resolved he would use his powers to ask the London Development Agency to issue a compulsory purchase order. In 2006 Tussauds bought out the other two joint owners, British Airways and the Marks Barfield family and became sole owner. On 12 August 2009 the London Eye saw another rebrand, this time being called "The Merlin Entertainments London Eye" to show Merlin Entertainments' ownership. In January 2011, lighting-up ceremony marked the start of a three-year deal between EDF Energy and Merlin Entertainments.

The lease agreement meant that the South Bank Centre, a publicly funded charity, would receive at least £500,000 a year from the attraction, the status of which is secured for the foreseeable future.

Royal Observatory, Greenwich

The Royal Observatory, Greenwich's an observatory situated on a hill in Greenwich Park, overlooking the River Thames. It played a major role in the history of astronomy and navigation, and is best known as the location of the prime meridian. The observatory was commissioned in 1675 by King Charles II, with the foundation stone being laid on 10 August. The scientific work of the observatory was relocated elsewhere in stages in the first half of the 20th century, and the Greenwich site is now maintained as a museum.

There had been significant buildings on this land since the reign of William I. The establishment of a Royal Observatory was proposed in 1674 by Sir Jonas Moore who, in his role as Surveyor General at the Ordnance Office, persuaded King Charles II to create the observatory, with John Flamsteed installed as its director. The original observatory at first housed the scientific instruments to be used by Flamsteed in his work on stellar tables, and over time also incorporated additional responsibilities such as marking the official time of day, and housing Her Majesty's Nautical Almanac Office.

British astronomers have long used the Royal Observatory as a basis for measurement. Four separate meridians have passed through the buildings, defined by successive instruments. Since the first triangulation of Great Britain in the period 1783-1853, Ordnance Survey maps have been based on an earlier version of the Greenwich meridian, defined by the transit instrument of James Bradley. This old astronomical prime meridian has been replaced by a more precise prime meridian. When Greenwich was an active observatory, geographical coordinates were referred to a local oblate spheroid called a datum known as a geoid, whose surface closely matched local mean sea level.

Greenwich Mean Time (GMT) was until 1954 based on celestial observations made at Greenwich. Thereafter, GMT was calculated from observations made at other observatories. To help others synchronize their clocks to GMT, Air John Pond had a time ball installed atop the observatory in 1833. During most of the twentieth century, the Royal Greenwich Observatory was not at Greenwich. After the onset of World War II in 1939, many departments were evacuated, along with the rest of London, to the countryside (Bradford, and Bath) and activities in Greenwich were reduced to the bare minimum.

In February 2005 construction began on a £15 million redevelopment project to provide a new planetarium and additional display galleries and educational facilities. The 120-seat Peter Harrison Planetarium opened on 25 May 2007.

Madame Tussauds

Marie Tussaud was born as Marie Grosholtz in 1761 in Strasbourg, France. Tussaud created her first wax sculpture, of Voltaire, in 1777. During the French Revolution she modeled many prominent victims. She inherited his vast collection of wax models and spent the next 33 years travelling around Europe. She married to Francois Tussaud in 1795 lent a new name to the show: Madame Tussaud's. In 1802 she went to London, having accepted an invitation from Paul Philidor, a magic lantern and phantasmagoria pioneer, to exhibit her work alongside his show at the Lyceum Theatre, London. This became Tussaud's first permanent home in 1836. One of the main attractions of her museum was the Chamber of Horrors.

By 1835 Marie had settled down in Baker Street, London, and opened a museum. The name is often credited to a contributor to Punch in 1845, but Marie appears to have originated it herself,

using it in advertising as early as 1843. In 1842, she made a self-portrait which is now on display at the entrance of her museum. She died in her sleep on 15 April 1850.

By 1883 the restricted space and rising cost of the Baker Street site prompted her grandson (Joseph Randall) to commission the building at its current location on Marylebone Road. The new exhibition galleries were opened on 14 July 1884 and were a great success. Madame Tussaud's wax museum has now grown to become a major tourist attraction in London, incorporating (until 2010) the London Planetarium in its west wing.

In July 2008, Madame Tussauds' Berlin branch became embroiled in controversy when a 41-year-old German man brushed past two guards and decapitated a wax figure depicting Adolf Hitler. This was believed to be an act of protest against showing the ruthless dictator alongside sports heroes, movie stars, and other historical figures. In January 2016, the statue of Adolf Hitler was finally removed from the London museum, thanks to an open letter sent by a staff writer of The Jewish Journal of Greater Los Angeles, followed by significant support for its removal from social media.

National Museum of Scotland

National Museums Scotland was formed by Act of Parliament in 1985, amalgamating the former National Museum of Antiquities of Scotland and The Royal Scottish Museum. The National Museum of Scotland, Edinburgh, Scotland, was formed in 2006 with the merger of the new Museum of Scotland. The two buildings retain distinctive characters: the Museum of Scotland is housed in a modern building opened in 1998, while the former Royal Museum building was begun in 1861, and partially opened in 1866.



The National Museum incorporates the collections of the former National Museum of Antiquities of Scotland, and the Royal Museum. The museum contains artifacts from around the world, encompassing geology, archaeology, natural history, science, technology, art, and world cultures. Construction was started in 1861 and preceded in phases, with some sections opening before others had even begun construction. The original extent of the building was completed in 1888. The exterior, designed in a Venetian Renaissance style, contrasts sharply with the light-flooded main hall or Grand Gallery, inspired by The Crystal Palace. Numerous extensions at the rear of the building, particularly in the 1930s, extended the museum greatly. The major

redevelopment completed in 2011 by Gareth Hoskins Architects uses former storage areas to form a vaulted Entrance Hall of 1400 sq M at street level with visitor facilities.

The building's architecture was controversial from the start, and Prince Charles resigned as patron of the museum, in protest at the lack of consultation over its design. It is clad in golden Moray sandstone, which one of its architects, Gordon Benson, has called "the oldest exhibit in the building", a reference to Scottish geology. The building was a 1999 Sterling Prize nominee. In 1861 construction of the Industrial Museum of Scotland began, with Prince Albert laying the foundation stone. The organizational merger of the National Museum of Antiquities of Scotland and the Royal Scottish Museum took place in 1985, but the two collections retained separate buildings until 1995 when the Queen Street building closed, to reopen later as the Scottish National Portrait Gallery. Initially, much of the Royal Museum's collection came from the Museum of Edinburgh University, and there is a bridge connecting the museum to the university's Old College building. The Royal Museum displayed prank exhibits on April fool's Day on at least one occasion.

Palace of Holyroodhouse

Founded as a monastery in 1128, the Palace of Holyroodhouse in Edinburgh is The Queen's official residence in Scotland. Today, the Palace is the setting for State ceremonies and official entertaining. During The Queen's Holyrood week, which usually runs from the end of June to the beginning of July, Her Majesty carries out a wide range of official engagements in Scotland. According to legend, David I founded the Palace as an Augustinian monastery in 1128. The principal entrance is located on the west front in a recessed 2-storey range that links the 16th-century north-west tower with a matching south-west tower. The north and south fronts have symmetrical 3-storey facades that rise behind to far left and right of 2-storey range with regular arrangement of bays.

The gardens of the palace extend to some 10 acres (4.0 ha), set within the much larger Holyrood Park. The ironwork gates and ornamental screens (by George Washington Browne) were erected in the 1920s, along with a statue of Edward VII (by Henry Snell Gamley), unveiled by George V in 1922. The buildings to the west of the palace are the 19th-century guardhouse which replaced the tenements of a debtors' sanctuary, and adjacent to this, the former Holyrood Free Church and Duchess of Gordon's School built in the 1840s.

The ruined Augustinian Holyrood Abbey that is sited in the grounds was founded in 1128 at the order of King David I of Scotland. The name derives either from a legendary vision of the cross witnessed by David I, or from a relic of the True Cross known as the Holy Rood or Black Rood, and which had belonged to Queen Margaret, David's mother. In 1370, David II became the first of several Kings of Scots to be buried at Holyrood. Between 1501 and 1505, James IV constructed a new Gothic palace adjacent to the abbey. The chapel occupied the north range of the quadrangle, with the Queen's apartments occupying part of the south range. In 1544, during the War of the Rough Wooing, the Earl of Hertford sacked Edinburgh, and Holyrood was looted and burned. The royal apartments in the north-west tower of the palace were occupied by Mary, Queen of Scots, from her return to Scotland in 1561 to her forced abdication in 1567. During the subsequent Marian civil war, on 25 July 1571, William Kirkcaldy of Grange bombarded the Palace with cannon placed in the Black Friar Yard, near the Pleasance. When James became King

of England in 1603 and moved to London, the palace was no longer the seat of a permanent royal court. In 1650, either by accident or design, the east range of the palace was set on fire during its occupation by Oliver Cromwell's soldiers. In 1675 Lord Hatton became the first of many nobles to take up a grace-and-favor apartment in the palace. After the Union of Scotland and England in 1707 the palace lost its principal functions, although it was used for the elections of Scottish representative peers. The constables now form a ceremonial guard at the palace. Although Edward VII visited briefly in 1903, it was George V who transformed Holyrood into a 20th-century palace. In the 1920s the palace was formally designated as the monarch's official residence in Scotland, and became the location for regular royal ceremonies and events.

The present Queen spends one week at Holyrood in summer, during which time investitures are held in the gallery, audiences are held in the morning room, and garden parties are hosted. Holyroodhouse remains the property of the Crown. Prince Charles also stays at Holyrood for one week a year, carrying out official duties as the Duke of Rothesay, while other members of the royal family, including the Princess Royal, visit in a less official capacity.

University of Oxford

The University of Oxford is a collegiate research university located in Oxford, England. The university is made up of a variety of institutions, including 38 constituent colleges and a full range of academic departments which are organized into four divisions. Oxford is the home of several notable scholarships, including the Clarendon Scholarship which was launched in 2001 and the Rhodes scholarship which has brought graduate students to study at the university for more than a century. The University of Oxford has no known foundation date. The university was granted a royal charter in 1248 during the reign of King Henry III.

Among university scholars of the period were William Grocyn, who contributed to the revival of Greek language studies, and John Colet, the noted biblical scholar. The method of teaching at Oxford was transformed from the medieval scholastic method to Renaissance education, although institutions associated with the university suffered losses of land and revenues. In 1636, Chancellor William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, codified the university's statutes. These, to a large extent, remained its governing regulations until the mid-19th century. From the inception of the Church of England until 1866, membership of the church was a requirement to receive the B.A. degree from Oxford, and "dissenters" were only permitted to receive the M.A. in 1871. The mid-19th century saw the impact of the Oxford Movement (1833–1845), led among others by the future Cardinal Newman. Administrative reforms during the 19th century included the replacement of oral examinations with written entrance tests, greater tolerance for religious dissent, and the establishment of four women's colleges.

The University of Oxford began to award doctorates in the first third of the 20th century. The first Oxford DPhil in mathematics was awarded in 1921. At the start of 1914 the university housed approximately three thousand undergraduates and about 100 postgraduate students. The mid-20th century saw many distinguished continental scholars, displaced by Nazism and communism, relocating to Oxford.



The university passed a statute in 1875 allowing its delegates to create examinations for women at roughly undergraduate level. The university is a "city university" in that it does not have a main campus; instead, colleges, departments, accommodation, and other facilities are scattered throughout the city center. The University Parks are a 70-acre (28 ha) parkland area in the northeast of the city. It is open to the public during daylight hours. The Botanic Garden on the High Street is the oldest botanic garden in the UK. The university's formal head is the Chancellor, currently Lord Patten of Barnes, though as at most British universities, the Chancellor is a titular figure, and is not involved with the day-to-day running of the university. Two university proctors, elected annually on a rotating basis from two of the colleges, are the internal ombudsmen who make sure that the university and its members adhere to its statutes.

The University of Oxford is a "public university" in the sense that it receives some public money from the government, but it is a "private university" in the sense that it is entirely self-governing and, in theory, could choose to become entirely private by rejecting public funds. Undergraduate teaching is centered on the tutorial, where 1–4 students spend an hour with an academic discussing their week's work, usually an essay (humanities, most social sciences, some mathematical, physical, and life sciences) or problem sheet (most mathematical, physical, and life sciences, and some social sciences). The university itself is responsible for conducting examinations and conferring degrees. There are many opportunities for students at Oxford to receive financial help during their studies. Students successful in early examinations are rewarded by their colleges with scholarships and exhibitions, normally the result of a long-standing endowment, although since the introduction of tuition fees the amounts of money available are purely nominal.

The university maintains the largest university library system in the UK, and, with over 11 million volumes housed on 120 miles (190 km) of shelving, the Bodleian group is the second-largest library in the UK, after the British Library. The renovation is designed to better showcase the library's various treasures (which include a Shakespeare First Folio and a Gutenberg Bible) as well as temporary exhibitions. Oxford maintains a number of museums and galleries open for free to the public. The Ashmolean Museum, founded in 1683, is the oldest museum in the UK, and the oldest university museum in the world. The University Museum of Natural History holds the University's zoological, entomological and geological specimens. It also hosts the

Simonyi Professorship of the Public Understanding of Science, currently held by Marcus du Sautoy. The Museum of the History of Science is housed on Broad St in the world's oldest-surviving purpose-built museum building. It contains 15,000 artefacts, from antiquity to the 20th century, representing almost all aspects of the history of science. Oxford has been among the top ten universities in different league tables. Oxford is ranked 5th best university worldwide and 1st in the United Kingdom for forming CEOs according to the Professional Ranking World Universities. In the 2016 Complete University Guide, 34 out of the 35 subjects offered by Oxford rank within the top 10 nationally meaning Oxford was one of only four multi-faculty universities in the UK to have over 90% of their subjects in the top 10.

Sport is played between college teams, in tournaments known as cuppers (the term is also used for some non-sporting competitions). In addition to these there are higher standard university wide groups. Most academic areas have student societies of some form which are open to all students, regardless of course, for example the Scientific Society. The Oxford Union (not to be confused with the Oxford University Student Union) hosts weekly debates and high profile speakers. The Oxford University Student Union, better known by its acronym OUSU, exists to represent students in the University's decision-making, to act as the voice for students in the national higher education policy debate, and to provide direct services to the student body. The importance of collegiate life is such that for many students their college JCR (Junior Common Room, for undergraduates) or MCR (Middle Common Room, for graduates) is seen as more important than OUSU. JCRs and MCRs each have a committee, with a president and other elected students representing their peers to college authorities.

Calton Hill

Calton Hill is one of Edinburgh's main hills, set right in the city center. It is unmistakable with its Athenian acropolis poking above the skyline. The acropolis is in fact an unfinished monument - originally called the "National Monument". Initiated in 1816, a year after Napoleon's defeat at Waterloo, it was meant to be a replica of the Parthenon in Athens, as a memorial to those who had died in the Napoleonic Wars. Building began in 1822, but funds ran dry and celebrated Edinburgh architect William Playfair only saw a facade of his building completed. It was dubbed "Edinburgh's shame", but it's now a popular landmark and it's a lot of fun crawling up and down its giant steps.

By his charter of 1456, James II granted the community of Edinburgh the valley and the low ground between Calton Hill and Greenside for performing tournaments, sports and other warlike deeds. In May 1518 the Carmelite Friars were granted lands by charter from the city at Greenside and built a small monastery there. The Calton area was owned by the Logan family of Restalrig but their lands were forfeited in 1609 following the posthumous sentence of treason on Robert Logan. Calton remained a burgh of barony (although it was not administered as such) until it was formally incorporated into Edinburgh by the Municipality Extension Act of 1856. In 1631, the then Lord Balmerino granted a charter to The Society of the Incorporated Trades of Calton forming a society or corporation. Calton was in South Leith Parish and Calton people went to church in Leith.



The Old Calton Burial Ground was the first substantial development on Calton Hill and lies on the south-western side of the hill. This is in memory of five campaigners for political reform and universal suffrage who were convicted of sedition and sent in 1793 to Botany Bay, Australia. The eastern end of the ornate Regent Bridge is built into the side of the hill, crossing a deep gorge to connect the hill with Princes Street, now Edinburgh's main shopping street. The renowned Scottish architect William Henry Playfair was responsible for the elegant thoroughfare that encircles the hill on three sides. The gardens that cover over one half of the summit of the hill are privately administered by the local Residents Association. Playfair was responsible for many of the monumental structures on the summit of the hill most notably the Scottish National Monument. For a number of years, while the Royal High School was earmarked for the site of the future Scottish Assembly, and subsequently as a potential site for the Scottish Parliament, Calton Hill was the location of a permanent vigil for Scottish devolution. It was also the venue in October 2004 for the Declaration of Calton Hill which outlined the demands for a future Scottish republic. Calton Hill is still very much revered as a common ground to many Edinburghers. Attempts, in recent years, to create a theme park and railway up the hill have met with a chorus of protest.

Hampton Court Palace

Hampton Court Palace is a royal palace in the London Borough of Richmond upon Thames. It has not been inhabited by the British Royal Family since the 18th century. In the following century, King William III's massive rebuilding and expansion project, which destroyed much of the Tudor palace, was intended to rival Versailles. Today, the palace is open to the public and is a major tourist attraction, easily reached by train from Waterloo Station in central London and served by Hampton Court railway station in East Moseley, in Transport for London's Zone 6.

Thomas Wolsey, Archbishop of York, Chief Minister and favorite of Henry VIII, took over the site of Hampton Court Palace in 1514. Over the following seven years, Wolsey spent lavishly to build the finest palace in England at Hampton Court. Today, little of Wolsey's building work remains unchanged. In building his palace, Wolsey was attempting to create a Renaissance

cardinal's palace of a rectilinear symmetrical plan with grand apartments on a raised piano nobile, all rendered with classical detailing. Wolsey was only to enjoy his palace for a few years. In 1528, knowing that his enemies and the King were engineering his downfall; he passed the palace to the King as a gift. Wolsey died two years later in 1530. Within six months of coming into ownership, the King began his own rebuilding and expansion. Between 1532 and 1535 Henry added the Great Hall and the Royal Tennis Court. During the Tudor period, the palace was the scene of many historic events. In 1537, the King's much desired male heir, the future Edward VI, was born at the palace and the child's mother, Jane Seymour and died there two weeks later.

On the death of Elizabeth I in 1603, the Tudor period came to an end. The Queen was succeeded by her first cousin-twice-removed, the Scottish King, James VI, who became known in England as James I of the House of Stuart. King James was succeeded in 1625 by his son; the ill-fated Charles I. Hampton Court was to become both his palace and his prison. After the Restoration, King Charles II and his successor James II visited Hampton Court but largely preferred to reside elsewhere. The palace houses many works of art and furnishings from the Royal Collection, mainly dating from the two principal periods of the palace's construction, the early Tudor and late Stuart to early Georgian period. Much of the original furniture from the late 17th and early 18th centuries, including tables by Jean Pelletier, "India back" walnut chairs by Thomas Roberts and clocks and a barometer by Thomas Since the reign of King George II, no monarch has ever resided at Hampton Court. In 1796, the Great Hall was restored and in 1838, during the reign of Queen Victoria, the restoration was completed and the palace opened to the public. On 2 September 1952, the palace was given statutory protection by being grade I listed. Throughout the 20th century in addition to becoming a major London tourist attraction, the palace housed 50 grace and favor residences given to esteemed servants and subjects of the crown. Throughout the 20th century in addition to becoming a major London tourist attraction, the palace housed 50 grace and favor residences given to esteemed servants and subjects of the crown.

Scott Monument

The Scott Monument is a Victorian Gothic monument to Scottish author Sir Walter Scott. It is the largest monument to a writer in the world. The tower is 200 feet 6 inches (61.11 m) high, and has a series of viewing platforms reached by a series of narrow spiral staircases giving panoramic views of central Edinburgh and its surroundings. In terms of its location, it is placed on axis with South St David Street, the main street leading off St Andrew Square to Princes Street, and is a focal point within that vista, its scale being large enough to totally screen the Old Town behind.

Following Scott's death in 1832, a competition was held to design a monument to him. John Steel was commissioned to design a monumental statue of Scott to rest in the space between the tower's four columns. The monument carries 64 figures (carried out in three phases) of characters from Scott's novels by a variety of Scots sculptors including, Alexander Handyside Ritchie, John Rhind, William Birnie Rhind, William Brodie, William Grant Stevenson. The foundation stone was laid on 15 August 1840. The total cost was just over £16,154 when the monument was inaugurated on 15 August 1846; George Meikle Kemp himself was absent; Kemp having fallen into the Union Canal while walking home from the site on the foggy evening of 6 March 1844 and drowned.

Windermere

Windermere is the largest natural lake in England. It is a ribbon lake formed in a glacial trough after the retreat of ice at the start of the current interglacial period. Historically forming part of the border between Lancashire and Westmorland, it is now within the county of Cumbria and the Lake District National Park. Its name suggests it is a mere, a lake that is broad in relation to its depth, but despite the name this is not the case for Windermere, which in particular has a noticeable thermocline, distinguishing it from typical meres. The name Windermere or Windermere was used of the parish that had clearly taken its name from the water. The poet Norman Nicholson comments on the use of the phrase 'Lake Windermere'.



Windermere is long and narrow, like many other ribbon lakes. It was formed 13,000 years ago during the last major ice age by two glaciers, one from the Troutbeck valley and the other from the Fairfield Horseshoe. The lake is drained from its southernmost point by the River Leven. There is debate as to whether the stretch of water between Newby Bridge and Lakeside at the southern end of the lake should be considered part of Windermere, or a navigable stretch of the River Leven. There is only one town or village directly on the lakeshore, Bowens-on-Windermere, as the village of Windermere does not directly touch the lake and the center of Ambleside is a mile (1.6 km) to the north of Waterhead. In about 1859, the residents began to call their new village by the name of Windermere, much to the chagrin of the people of Bowens, which had been the center of the parish of Windermere for many centuries. There is a regular train service to Oxenholme on the West Coast Main Line, where there are fast trains to Edinburgh, Glasgow, Manchester Airport, Birmingham and London. The lake contains 18 islands. By far the largest is the privately owned Belle Isle (16.18 hectares (40.0 acres)) opposite Bowens and around a kilometer in length. A high percentage (29.4%) of the lake's drainage area is under cultivation. The lake has a relatively low percentage of lake bed above 9 meters (30 ft.) in depth which is rocky (28%).

The Freshwater Biological Association was established on the shore of Windermere in 1929 and much of the early work on lake ecology, freshwater biology and limnology was conducted here. Passenger services run the whole length of the lake, from Lakeside railway station, on the Lakeside and Haverthwaite heritage steam railway at the southern end of the lake, to Waterhead Bay near Ambleside in the north. The Windermere Ferry, a vehicle-carrying cable ferry, runs across the lake from Ferry Nab on the eastern side of the lake to Far Sawyer on the western side of the lake. There are four large boating clubs based around the lake: the Windermere Motor Boat Racing Club, the Lake District Boat Club, the Royal Windermere Yacht Club, and the Windermere Cruising Association. At the south end of the lake is South Windermere Sailing Club, based at Fell Foot Park on the east shore. It was started in 1961, as a family sailing club and has been the

starting point for many successful British dinghy racing competitors including British, European and World Champions.

Stirling Castle

Stirling Castle, located in Stirling, is one of the largest and most important castles, both historically and architecturally, in Scotland. Castle Hill, on which Stirling Castle is built, forms part of the Stirling Sill, a formation of quartz-dolerite around 350 million years old, which was subsequently modified by glaciation to form a "crag and tail". Other legends have been associated with Stirling, or "Showdown" as it was more poetically known. The first record of Stirling Castle dates from around 1110, when King Alexander I dedicated a chapel here. It appears to have been an established royal centre by this time, as Alexander died here in 1124. During the reign of his successor David I, Stirling became a royal burgh, and the castle an important administration centre.

Stirling remained a center of royal administration until the death of Alexander III in 1286. In 1296, Edward invaded Scotland, beginning the Wars of Scottish Independence, which would last for the next 60 years. The English found Stirling Castle abandoned and empty, and set about occupying this key site. Next summer, the castle changed hands again, being abandoned by the Scots after the English victory at Falkirk. Edward strengthened the castle, but it was besieged in 1299 by forces including Robert Bruce. The war was not over, however. The second War of Scottish Independence saw the English in control of Stirling Castle by 1336, when Sir Thomas Rokeby was the commander, and extensive works were carried out, still largely in timber rather than stone. In 1360, Robert de Forsyth was appointed governor of Stirling Castle, an office he passed on to his son John and grandson William, who was governor in 1399. Almost all the present buildings in the castle were constructed between 1490 and 1600, when Stirling was developed as a principal royal center by the Stewart kings James IV, James V and James VI. The architecture of these new buildings shows an eclectic mix of English, French and German influences, reflecting the international ambitions of the Stewart dynasty.

James IV (reigned 1488–1513) kept a full Renaissance court, including alchemists, and sought to establish a palace of European standing at Stirling. The building works begun by James IV had not been completed at the time of his death at the Battle of Flodden. Queen Mary returned to Scotland in 1561, and visited Stirling Castle frequently. She nursed Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, through an illness here in 1565, and the two were soon married. After their departure, Stirling's role as a royal residence declined, and it became principally a military center. It was used as a prison for persons of rank during the 17th century, and saw few visits by the monarch. The Royal Lodgings have now been returned to something approaching their former glory. A major programme of research and re-presentation, lasting 10 years and costing £12 million, was completed in summer 2011. Stirling Castle remains the headquarters of the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders, although the regiment is no longer garrisoned there. The regimental museum is also located within the castle.

The Outer Defenses comprise artillery fortifications, and were built in their present form in the 18th century, although some parts; including the French Spur at the east end, date back to the regency of Mary of Guise in the 1550s. Following the attempted Jacobite invasion of 1708, improvements to the castle's defenses were ordered as a matter of priority. The oldest part of the

Inner Close is the King's Old Building, on the western side, which was complete by around 1497. At the south-west end of the range is a linking building, once used as kitchens, which is on a different alignment to both the King's Old Building and the adjacent Royal Palace. It has been suggested that this is an earlier 15th-century structure, dating from the reign of James I. On the east side of the Inner Close is the Great Hall, or Parliament Hall. This was built by James IV following on from the completion of the King's Old Building in 1497, and was being plastered by 1503. The collegiate chapel established by James IV in 1501 lay between the King's Old Building and the Great Hall, but was further south than the present building. The new building was erected within a year, north of the old site to improve access to the hall. The interior was decorated by the painter Valentine Jenkin prior to the visit of Charles I in 1633. The chapel too was later modified for military use, housing a dining room. The wall paintings were rediscovered in the 1930s, and restoration began after the Second World War. There are two gardens within the castle, the southern one including a bowling green. Below the castle's west wall is the King's Knot, a 16th-century formal garden, now only visible as earthworks, but once including hedges and knot-patterned parterres.

The castle esplanade, or parade ground, has been used as an open-air concert venue for several noted acts, some of whom have used Stirling Castle and the surrounding scenery to film "in concert" DVDs. These acts include R.E.M., Ocean Color Scene, Bob Dylan, Wet and Runrig. The esplanade also hosts the city's Hogmanay celebrations. The Regimental Museum and Home Headquarters of the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders are located in the King's Old Building. The castle is open to the public year round. Stirling Castle is a popular place for tourists, and according to figures released by the Association of Leading Visitor Attractions, nearly 380,000 people visited in 2010. An illustration of Stirling Castle features on the reverse side of a current series of £20 notes issued by the Clydesdale Bank, with Robert the Bruce on horseback in the foreground.

Exercises

I. Choose the answer that best completes the statement or answer the question.

- (1) _____ was the home of the Lake Poets William Wordsworth, Samuel Taylor, Coleridge and Robert Southey of 19th century Britain.
 - A. Lough Neagh
 - B. Windermere
 - C. Lake District
 - D. Coniston Water
- (2) The flag of the United Kingdom, known as the Union Jack, is made up of _____ crosses.
 - A. one
 - B. two
 - C. three
 - D. four
- (3) The tower of London, a historical sight, located in the center of London, was built by _____.
 - A. King Harold

- B. Robin Hood
 - C. Oliver Cromwell
 - D. William the Conqueror
- (4) What is the name of Britain's highest mountain?
- A. Anne Boleyn
 - B. Ben Nevis
 - C. Snowdonia
 - D. Scafell
- (5) Big Ben was named after ____.
- A. Christopher Wren
 - B. Benjamin Hall
 - C. Ben John
 - D. G. Stephenson
- (6) The river Thames is in ____.
- A. Wales
 - B. Scotland
 - C. England
 - D. Northern Ireland
- (7) The Tower of London, a historical site, located in the center of London, was built by ____.
- A. King Harold
 - B. Robin Hood
 - C. Oliver Cromwell
 - D. William the Conqueror
- (8) The longest river in Britain is ____.
- A. the Missouri River
 - B. the Thames River
 - C. the Severn River
 - D. the Ohio River
- (9) Westminster Palace is the ____?
- A. seat of British House of Parliament
 - B. seat of English church
 - C. residence of king of queen
 - D. residence of Prime Minister
- (10) Which one is the famous British attraction?
- A. Edinburgh Castle
 - B. Triumphal arch
 - C. Eiffel Tower
 - D. Statue of Liberty

II .Fill in the following blanks with appropriate words or expressions.

- (1) Edinburgh _____ begins on the rock on which Edinburgh Castle stands.
- (2) David II resumed his rule and set about rebuilding _____ which became his principal seat of government.

- (3) The _____ was started in 1076 and completed in 1097.
- (4) In 2013 _____ received a record 6.7 million visitors, an increase of 20% from the previous year.
- (5) The graceless colossus of _____, popularly known as "Buck House", has served as the monarch's permanent London residence only since the accession of Victoria.
- (6) _____ is rich in history - its famous Colleges and University buildings attract visitors from all over the world.
- (7) _____ is the second longest river in the United Kingdom.
- (8) _____ is the meeting place of the House of Commons and the House of Lords, the two houses of the Parliament of the United Kingdom.
- (9) _____ was formally opened by then Prime Minister Tony Blair on 31 December 1999.
- (10) The Royal Observatory, _____ an observatory situated on a hill in Greenwich Park, overlooking the River Thames.
- (11) _____ has now grown to become a major tourist attraction in London.
- (12) _____ was formed by Act of Parliament in 1985, amalgamating the former National Museum of Antiquities of Scotland and The Royal Scottish Museum.
- (13) _____ is one of Edinburgh's main hills, set right in the city center.
- (14) _____ began to award doctorates in the first third of the 20th century.
- (15) _____ is a royal palace in the London Borough of Richmond upon Thames.
- (16) _____ is a Victorian Gothic monument to Scottish author Sir Walter Scott.
- (17) _____ is the largest natural lake in England.
- (18) _____ is one of the largest and most important castles, both historically and architecturally, in Scotland.

III. True or false

- ____(1) Edinburgh Castle dominates the city of Edinburgh like no other castle in Scotland, and Edinburgh Castle is unequalled in the whole of the British Isles.
- ____(2) There has been a royal castle on the rock since at least the reign of David I in the 13th century, and the site continued to be a royal residence until the Union of the Crowns in 1603.
- ____(3) The base of Edinburgh Castle is volcanic rock
- ____(4) From the 15th century the castle's residential role declined, and by the 17th century it was principally used as military barracks with a large garrison.
- ____(5) In AD 600, Din Edinburgh was besieged and taken by the Angles and the place seems then to have received the English name which it has kept ever since - Edinburgh.
- ____(6) In 1296 Edward I of Scotland invaded England. He besieged and captured Edinburgh Castle.
- ____(7) The 1357 Treaty of Berwick brought the Wars of Independence to a close. David II resumed his rule and set about rebuilding Edinburgh Castle which became his principal seat of government.
- ____(8) The Edinburgh Castle website has many photographs of the various artifacts contained in Edinburgh Castle and pertaining to the Castle and Edinburgh itself.
- ____(9) Edinburgh has a wealth of entertainment available, with live theatre, and a massive

selection of cinemas, bars and restaurants, featuring live entertainment.

- ____(10)Edinburgh Playhouse Theatre, situated at the east end of The City of Edinburgh, is the largest theatre in Britain, entertaining 3000 people.
- ____(11)The White Tower was started in 1076 and completed in 1097.
- ____(12)The Tower of London, officially Her Majesty's Royal Palace and Fortress of the Tower of London, is a historic castle located on the south bank of the River Thames in central London.
- ____(13)The castle was used as a prison from 1100 until 1952, although that was primary purpose.
- ____(14)The Tower was also the scene of one of London's most famous mysteries, known as the mystery of the Princes in the Tower.
- ____(15)The Tower of London has played a prominent role in English history.
- ____(16)Today the Tower of London is one of the country's most popular tourist attractions.
- ____(17)The Tower literally 'towered' over its surroundings until the 18th century.
- ____(18)The Tower was oriented with its strongest and most impressive defenses overlooking Saxon London, which archaeologist Alan Vince suggests was deliberate.
- ____(19)The Tower steadily gained popularity with tourists through the 18th century, despite the opposition of the Duke of Wellington to visitors.
- ____(20)The British Museum was founded in 1753, the first national public museum in the world.
- ____(21)The British Museum opened to the public on 1753.
- ____(22)To make more room for the increasing collections held by the Museum, the natural history collections were moved to a new building in South Kensington in the 1880s.
- ____(23)By the 1970s the British Museum was again expanding.
- ____(24)In 2013 the museum received a record 6.7 million visitors, an increase of 20% from the previous year.
- ____(25)The British Museum has one of the world's largest and most comprehensive collections of antiquities from the Classical world, with over 10000 objects.
- ____(26)The British Museum possesses the world's largest and most important collection of Mesopotamian antiquities outside Turkey.
- ____(27)The British Museum houses one of the world's most comprehensive collections of Ethnographic material from Africa, Oceania and the Americas, representing the cultures of indigenous peoples throughout the world.
- ____(28)The graceless colossus of Buckingham Palace, popularly known as "Buck House", has served as the monarch's permanent London residence only since the accession of Victoria.
- ____(29)Originally known as Buckingham House, the building which forms the core of today's palace was a large townhouse built for the Duke of Buckingham in 1603 on a site which had been in private ownership for at least 150 years.
- ____(30)Buckingham Palace finally became the principal royal residence in 1837, on the accession of King Henry, who was the first monarch to reside there.
- ____(31)The palace contains 775 rooms, including 19 state rooms, 52 principal bedrooms, 188 staff bedrooms, 92 offices, and 78 bathrooms.
- ____(32)The Buckingham palace fared worse during World War II; it was bombed no less than seven times, the most serious and publicized of which resulted in the destruction of the palace chapel in 1940.

- ____(33)The University of Cambridge is rich in history - its famous Colleges and University buildings attract visitors from all over the world.
- ____(34)The University of Cambridge is not one of the world's oldest universities and leading academic centers, and a self-governed community of scholars.
- ____(35)Cambridge is the home of the University of Cambridge, founded in 1209 and one of the top six universities in the world.
- ____(36)Cambridge is at the heart of the high-technology Silicon Fen with industries such as software and bioscience and many start-up companies spun out of the university.
- ____(37)The students who flocked to Cambridge soon arranged their scheme of study after the pattern which had become common in Italy and France, and which they would have known in Oxford.
- ____(38)In the 18th century, in common with many other English towns, Cambridge expanded rapidly.
- ____(39)The Commission's report resulted in the promulgation of new Statutes for Cambridge in the Cambridge University Act of 1856.
- ____(40)In theSecond World War, 13,878 members of the University served and 2,470 were killed.
- ____(41)In 2009, the University of Cambridge reached a special milestone – 800 years of people, ideas and achievements that continue to transform and benefit the world.
- ____(42)The River Thames is the second longest river in the United Kingdom and the longest river entirely in England, rising at Thames Head in Gloucestershire, and flowing into the North Sea at the Thames Estuary.
- ____(43)The Thames through Cambridge is sometimes called the River Isis.
- ____(44)The Thames River Basin District, including the Medway catchment, covers an area of 6,229 square miles.
- ____(45)The Palace of Westminster is the meeting place of the House of Commons and the House of Lords, the two houses of the Parliament of the United Kingdom.
- ____(46)The Palace of Westminster site was strategically important during the Middle Ages, as it was located on the banks of the Severn River.
- ____(47)There are some other features of the Palace of Westminster which are also known as towers.
- ____(48)The grandest entrance to the Palace of Westminster is the Sovereign's Entrance beneath the Victoria Tower.
- ____(49)The London Eye is a giant Ferris wheel on the North Bank of the River Thames in London.
- ____(50)On 5 June 2008 it was announced that 30 million people had ridden the London Eye since it opened.
- ____(51)On 12 August 2009 the London Eye saw another rebrand, this time being called "The Merlin Entertainments London Eye" to show Merlin Entertainments' ownership.
- ____(52)The Royal Observatory, Greenwich's an observatory situated on a hill in Greenwich Park, overlooking the Severn River.
- ____(53)Greenwich Mean Time was until 1833 based on celestial observations made at Greenwich.
- ____(54)By 1835 Marie had settled down in Baker Street, London, and opened a museum.

- ____(55)National Museums Scotland was formed by Act of Parliament in 1985, amalgamating the former National Museum of Antiquities of Scotland and The Royal Scottish Museum.
- ____(56)Founded as a monastery in 1128, the Palace of Holyroodhouse in Edinburgh is The Queen's official residence in Scotland.
- ____(57)In the 1820s the palace was formally designated as the monarch's official residence in Scotland, and became the location for regular royal ceremonies and events.
- ____(58)The university maintains the largest university library system in the Europe.
- ____(59)Calton Hill is one of Edinburgh's main hills, set right in the city center.
- ____(60)Hampton Court Palace is a royal palace in the London Borough of Richmond upon Thames.

Unit10 British Holidays and Customs

Cultural Training

Passage One

Straddling the line between fall and winter, plenty and paucity, life and death, Halloween is a time of celebration and superstition. It is thought to have originated with the ancient Celtic festival of Samhain, when people would light bonfires and wear costumes to ward off roaming ghosts. In the eighth century, Pope Gregory III designated November 1 as a time to honor all saints and martyrs; the holiday, All Saints' Day, incorporated some of the traditions of Samhain. The evening before was known as All Hallows' Eve and later Halloween. Over time, Halloween evolved into a secular, community-based event characterized by child-friendly activities such as trick-or-treating. In a number of countries around the world, as the days grow shorter and the nights get colder, people continue to usher in the winter season with gatherings, costumes and

sweet treats.

Ancient origins of Halloween

Halloween's origins date back to the ancient Celtic festival of Samhain (pronounced sow-in). The Celts, who lived 2,000 years ago in the area that is now Ireland, the United Kingdom and northern France, celebrated their new year on November 1. This day marked the end of summer and the harvest and the beginning of the dark, cold winter, a time of year that was often associated with human death. Celts believed that on the night before the new year, the boundary between the worlds of the living and the dead became blurred. On the night of October 31 they celebrated Samhain, when it was believed that the ghosts of the dead returned to earth. In addition to causing trouble and damaging crops, Celts thought that the presence of the



otherworldly spirits made it easier for the Druids, or Celtic priests, to make predictions about the future. For a people entirely dependent on the volatile natural world, these prophecies were an important source of comfort and direction during the long, dark winter.

One quarter of all the candy sold annually in the U.S. is purchased for Halloween.

To commemorate the event, Druids built huge sacred bonfires, where the people gathered to burn crops and animals as sacrifices to the Celtic deities. During the celebration, the Celts wore costumes, typically consisting of animal heads and skins, and attempted to tell each other's fortunes. When the celebration was over, they re-lit their hearth fires, which they had extinguished earlier that evening, from the sacred bonfire to help protect them during the coming winter.

By 43 A.D., the Roman Empire had conquered the majority of Celtic territory. In the course of the four hundred years that they ruled the Celtic lands, two festivals of Roman origin were combined with the traditional Celtic celebration of Samhain. The first was Feralia, a day in late October when the Romans traditionally commemorated the passing of the dead. The second was a day to honor Pomona, the Roman goddess of fruit and trees. The symbol of Pomona is the

apple and the incorporation of this celebration into Samhain probably explains the tradition of “bobbing” for apples that is practiced today on Halloween.

On May 13, 609 A.D., Pope Boniface IV dedicated the Pantheon in Rome in honor of all Christian martyrs, and the Catholic feast of All Martyrs Day was established in the Western church. Pope Gregory III (731–741) later expanded the festival to include all saints as well as all martyrs, and moved the observance from May 13 to November 1. By the 9th century the influence of Christianity had spread into Celtic lands, where it gradually blended with and supplanted the older Celtic rites. In 1000 A.D., the church would make November 2 All Souls’ Day, a day to honor the dead. It is widely believed today that the church was attempting to replace the Celtic festival of the dead with a related, but church-sanctioned holiday. All Souls Day was celebrated similarly to Samhain, with big bonfires, parades, and dressing up in costumes as saints, angels and devils. The All Saints Day celebration was also called All-hallows or All-hallowmas (from Middle English Alholowmesse meaning All Saints’ Day) and the night before it, the traditional night of Samhain in the Celtic religion, began to be called All-hallows Eve and, eventually, Halloween.

Halloween comes to America

Celebration of Halloween was extremely limited in colonial New England because of the rigid Protestant belief systems there. Halloween was much more common in Maryland and the southern colonies. As the beliefs and customs of different European ethnic groups as well as the



American Indians meshed, a distinctly American version of Halloween began to emerge. The first celebrations included “play parties”, public events held to celebrate the harvest, where neighbors would share stories of the dead, tell each other’s fortunes, dance and sing. Colonial Halloween festivities also featured the telling of ghost stories and mischief-making of all kinds. By the middle of the nineteenth century, annual autumn festivities were common, but

Halloween was not yet celebrated everywhere in the country.

In the second half of the nineteenth century, America was flooded with new immigrants. These new immigrants, especially the millions of Irish fleeing Ireland’s potato famine of 1846, helped to popularize the celebration of Halloween nationally. Taking from Irish and English traditions, Americans began to dress up in costumes and go house to house asking for food or money, a practice that eventually became today’s “trick-or-treat” tradition. Young women believed that on Halloween they could divine the name or appearance of their future husband by doing tricks with yarn, apple parings or mirrors.

In the late 1800s, there was a move in America to mold Halloween into a holiday more about community and neighborly get-togethers than about ghosts, pranks and witchcraft. At the turn of the century, Halloween parties for both children and adults became the most common way to celebrate the day. Parties focused on games, foods of the season and festive costumes. Parents

were encouraged by newspapers and community leaders to take anything “frightening” or “grotesque” out of Halloween celebrations. Because of these efforts, Halloween lost most of its superstitious and religious overtones by the beginning of the twentieth century.

By the 1920s and 1930s, Halloween had become a secular, but community-centered holiday, with parades and town-wide parties as the featured entertainment. Despite the best efforts of many schools and communities, vandalism began to plague Halloween celebrations in many communities during this time. By the 1950s, town leaders had successfully limited vandalism and Halloween had evolved into a holiday directed mainly at the young. Due to the high numbers of young children during the fifties baby boom, parties moved from town civic centers into the classroom or home, where they could be more easily accommodated. Between 1920 and 1950, the centuries-old practice of trick-or-treating was also revived. Trick-or-treating was a relatively inexpensive way for an entire community to share the Halloween celebration. In theory, families could also prevent tricks being played on them by providing the neighborhood children with small treats. A new American tradition was born, and it has continued to grow. Today, Americans spend an estimated \$6 billion annually on Halloween, making it the country’s second largest commercial holiday.

Today’s Halloween traditions

The American Halloween tradition of “trick-or-treating” probably dates back to the early All Souls’ Day parades in England. During the festivities, poor citizens would beg for food and families would give them pastries called “soul cakes” in return for their promise to pray for the family’s dead relatives. The distribution of soul cakes was encouraged by the church as a way to replace the ancient practice of leaving food and wine for roaming spirits. The practice, which was referred to as “going a-souling” was eventually taken up by children who would visit the houses in their neighborhood and be given ale, food, and money.

The tradition of dressing in costume for Halloween has both European and Celtic roots. Hundreds of years ago, winter was an uncertain and frightening time. Food supplies often ran low and, for the many people afraid of the dark, the short days of winter were full of constant worry. On Halloween, when it was believed that ghosts came back to the earthly world, people thought that they would encounter ghosts if they left their homes. To avoid being recognized by these ghosts, people would wear masks when they left their homes after dark so that the ghosts would mistake them for fellow spirits. On Halloween, to keep ghosts away from their houses, people would place bowls of food outside their homes to appease the ghosts and prevent them from attempting to enter.

Halloween superstitions

Halloween has always been a holiday filled with mystery, magic and superstition. It began as a Celtic end-of-summer festival during which people felt especially close to deceased relatives and friends. For these friendly spirits, they set places at the dinner table, left treats on doorsteps and along the side of the road and lit candles to help loved ones find their way back to the spirit world. Today’s Halloween ghosts are often depicted as more fearsome and malevolent, and our customs and superstitions are scarier too. We avoid crossing paths with black cats, afraid that they might bring us bad luck. This idea has its roots in the Middle Ages, when many people believed that witches avoided detection by turning themselves into cats. We try not to walk

under ladders for the same reason. This superstition may have come from the ancient Egyptians, who believed that triangles were sacred; it also may have something to do with the fact that walking under a leaning ladder tends to be fairly unsafe. And around Halloween, especially, we try to avoid breaking mirrors, stepping on cracks in the road or spilling salt.

But what about the Halloween traditions and beliefs that today's trick-or-treaters have forgotten all about? Many of these obsolete rituals focused on the future instead of the past and the living instead of the dead. In particular, many had to do with helping young women identify their future husbands and reassuring them that they would someday—with luck, by next Halloween—be married. In 18th-century Ireland, a matchmaking cook might bury a ring in her mashed potatoes on Halloween night, hoping to bring true love to the diner who found it. In Scotland, fortune-tellers recommended that an eligible young woman name a hazelnut for each of her suitors and then toss the nuts into the fireplace. The nut that burned to ashes rather than popping or exploding, the story went, represented the girl's future husband. (In some versions of this legend, confusingly, the opposite was true: The nut that burned away symbolized a love that would not last.) Another tale had it that if a young woman ate a sugary concoction made out of walnuts, hazelnuts and nutmeg before bed on Halloween night she would dream about her future husband. Young women tossed apple-peels over their shoulders, hoping that the peels would fall on the floor in the shape of their future husbands' initials; tried to learn about their futures by peering at egg yolks floating in a bowl of water; and stood in front of mirrors in darkened rooms, holding candles and looking over their shoulders for their husbands' faces. Other rituals were more competitive. At some Halloween parties, the first guest to find a burr on a chestnut-hunt would be the first to marry; at others, the first successful apple-bobber would be the first down the aisle.

Of course, whether we're asking for romantic advice or trying to avoid seven years of bad luck, each one of these Halloween superstitions relies on the good will of the very same "spirits" whose presence the early Celts felt so keenly.

Exercises

I.Choose the answer that best completes the statement or answer the question.

- (1) According to the author, which of the following is INCORRECT?
- A. Halloween is both a secular festival and religious holiday.
 - B. It originates from ancient Celtic festival of Samhain.
 - C. It was designated as a time to honor all Saints and martyrs.
 - D. It is only celebrated in Britain.
- (2) The Celts believe all the following except_____on the Samhain day.
- A. The ghosts of the dead returned to earth.
 - B. The ghosts of the dead blur the living and the death.
 - C. Otherworldly spirits cause trouble and destroy the crops.
 - D. Priests can tell people's fortune exactly on that day.

- (3) People do the following except _____ during the Samhain celebrations.
- A. burning crops and animals as sacrifices
 - B. wearing animal heads and skins
 - C. inviting the priests to predict people's fortune
 - D. keeping the bonfire burning all the night.
- (4) The festival is moved to November 1 and expanded to commemorate all Saints in addition to martyrs by _____.
- A. Feralia
 - B. Pomona
 - C. Pope Boniface IV
 - D. Pope Gregory III
- (5) Which of the following statements is true about Halloween?
- A. Halloween is characterized by child-friendly activities.
 - B. Half of the candy sold annually in America is purchased for Halloween.
 - C. Halloween came to America in the middle of the nineteenth century.
 - D. People from Europe helped popularize the celebration of Halloween nationally in America.
- (6) When Halloween first came to America, the colonial Halloween festivities include _____.
- A. telling stories about mischief-making
 - B. holding public events
 - C. visiting neighbors
 - D. going to parties
- (7) National celebration of Halloween became popular in America because _____.
- A. Young women in America believed that they could foresee their husband during Halloween.
 - B. American people wanted to mold Halloween into a holiday.
 - C. American people loved the Irish and English traditions.
 - D. Immigrants from Ireland helped popularize the celebration of Halloween.
- (8) Why is trick-or-treat a very common festivity in America?
- A. Because Halloween became popular during the baby boom period in U.S.
 - B. Because Halloween has been a holiday directed mainly at the young.
 - C. Because children loved Halloween for the candies they can get.
 - D. Because it is an inexpensive way for all people to celebrate Halloween.
- (9) Halloween traditions include the following except _____.
- A. giving candies and money to kids from neighborhood
 - B. dressing in costumes
 - C. consoling the souls of the dead
 - D. telling ghost stories
- (10) Halloween has always been a holiday filled with mystery and superstition because _____.
- A. It originated from a festival when people felt close to dead ones.
 - B. People believe they may have bad luck during Halloween.
 - C. Halloween superstitions came from the ancient Egyptians.
 - D. Doing something peculiar like breaking a mirror may bring bad luck.

II .Fill in the following blanks with appropriate words or expressions.

- (1) Halloween's origins date back to the ancient Samhain festival of the_____.
- (2) The most popular activity of Halloween is_____.
- (3) _____is the most popular commodity sold during Halloween.
- (4) Celebration activities were extremely limited in_____when Halloween first came to America.
- (5) Halloween became popular in America because of thefrom Ireland in the second half of the nineteenth century.
- (6) Halloween lost most of its superstitions and religious overtones by the beginning of_____.
- (7) Families can prevent tricks made by neighborhood children by giving them_____.
- (8) Halloween is the largestholiday because people about \$6 billion on it every year.
- (9) The tradition of Halloween costumes originates from mask worn in order not to be recognized by_____.
- (10) People would give some treats and light candles for their dead loved one to help them find their way to_____.
- (11) Crossing paths with black cats should be avoided because it is believed to bring_____.
- (12) Trick-or-treat was popular when Halloween came to America because it was_____.

III.True or false

- ____(1) Halloween is a time full of celebration and superstition.
- ____(2) Halloween's origin is related to the ancient Celts.
- ____(3) At first, Halloween in America was only celebrated in colonial areas.
- ____(4) Halloween was popularized by new immigrants in the first half of nineteenth century.
- ____(5) When Halloween first became popular in America, it was mainly not about ghosts and souls.
- ____(6) American adults went from door to door asking for food or money when they celebrated Halloween in the past.
- ____(7) Halloween was not as superstitious as before since the twentieth century.
- ____(8) Families would give candies or money to neighborhood children for help with housework.
- ____(9) Dressing costumes for Halloween originates from wearing masks in winter for more food supplies.
- ____(10) Some Halloween rituals had to do with helping young women identifyingtheir future husband.

IV. Work in groups and discuss the following questions.

- (1) Among all the Halloween activities introduced above, which one would you like to do? Please explain your reasons.
- (2) Do we have any Chinese festivals similar with Halloween?
- (3) What would you do if some children play trick-or-treat on you?

V . Essay Writing

What is the most important spirit of celebrating Halloween? Please write a short essay of about 200 words to present your understanding.

Passage Two

Tea Time Etiquette and the History of Afternoon Tea

History of Afternoon Tea

There are many ideas about tea etiquette and the when and how tea was first made popular in England. Charles the II grew up in exile at the Hague and thus was exposed to the custom of drinking tea. He married Catharine of Braganza who was Portuguese and who also enjoyed tea. Catharine had grown up drinking tea in Portugal-the preferred beverage of the time. It is said that when she arrived in England to marry Charles II in 1662, she brought with her a casket of tea. She became known as the tea-drinking queen-England's first.

In England she invited her friends into her bedroom chamber to share tea with her. "Tea was generally consumed within a lady's closet or bedchamber and for a mainly female gathering. The tea itself and the delicate pieces of porcelain for brewing and drinking it were displayed in the closet and inventories for wealthy households during the 17th and 18th centuries list tea equipage not in kitchens or dining rooms but in these small private closets or boudoirs." (Taken from "A Social History of Tea" by Jane Pettigrew-my favorite book about tea which is currently out of print). In the 18th century it was custom for highborn ladies to receive callers with their morning tea while "abed and bare-breasted."

Queen Anne drank tea so regularly that she substituted a large bell-shaped silver teapot for the tiny Chinese tea pots. The earliest tea service dates from her reign.

Coffeehouses were popular in the 18th century. Women were forbidden to enter them. In 1675 members of the government persuaded Charles II to suppress them as centers of sedition. The men were so outraged that the king canceled the proclamation. Coffeehouses were also called "penny universities," in reference to the conversation they bred and the penny admittance fee.



During the 18th century tea gardens became popular. The whole idea of the garden was for ladies and gentlemen to take their tea together outdoors surrounded by entertainers. They attracted everybody including Mozart and Handel. The tea gardens made tea all the more

fashionable to drink, plus they were important places for men and women to meet freely.

History of the Afternoon Tea Party

While drinking tea as a fashionable event is credited to Catharine of Braganza, the actual taking of tea in the afternoon developed into a new social event some time in the late 1830's and early 1840's. Jane Austen hints of afternoon tea as early as 1804 in an unfinished novel. It is said that the afternoon tea tradition was established by Anne, Duchess of Bedford. She requested that light sandwiches be brought to her in the late afternoon because she had a "sinking feeling" during that time because of the long gap between meals. She began to invite others to join her and thus became the tradition.

Various Tea Times

Cream Tea-A simple tea consisting of scones, clotted cream, marmalade or lemon curd and tea.

Low Tea/Afternoon Tea-The traditional time for afternoon tea is four o'clock. Today, most hotels and tearooms in North America serve from three to five o'clock with the hours often stretched slightly in either direction. Along with a choice of teas, there are three distinct courses:

- savones (tiny sandwiches) first to blunt the appetite,
- then scones, and finally,
- pastries.

Afternoon tea has also been called "low tea" because it was taken at low tables placed beside armchairs. (It's never properly referred to as "high tea".)

An afternoon meal including sandwiches, scones, clotted cream, curd, 2-3 sweets and tea.

Elevenies-Morning coffee hour in England.

Royale Tea-A social tea served with champagne at the beginning or sherry at the end of the tea.

High Tea-High tea conotates an idea of elegancy and regal-ness when in fact is was an evening meal most often enjoyed around 6 pm as laborers and miners returned home. High tea consists of meat and potatoes as well as other foods and tea. It was not exclusively a working class meal but was adopted by all social groups. Families with servants often took high tea on Sundays in order to allow the maids and butlers time to go to church and not worry about cooking an evening meal for the family.

Invitations

Invitations may be extended and accepted by telephone, face-to-face, or by mailing them at least a week in advance. Depending on the geographic location, perhaps two weeks or longer in advance is not unreasonable. Invitations may be informal or engraved, handwritten in calligraphy, or by a calligraphy computer program.

Invite a close friend or two also as "pourers" and set up a schedule of when each will be "on duty" dispensing tea. No one should pour for more than fifteen or twenty minutes. It is an honor to be asked to pour tea. The pourer is considered the guardian of the teapot, which implies sterling social graces and profound trust.

Teatime

Traditional teatime is four o'clock; however any time between two and five o'clock is appropriate for certain areas.

Guest of honor

Let your guests know whom you are honoring. When there is a guest of honor, it is your duty

as host to stand with that person near the entrance of the room and introduce each arriving guest to the guest of honor. When the tea is over, guide your guest of honor back to the room entrance to say good-bye to your guests.

Tea etiquette used to dictate that no one departs a function until the guest of honor had left the primacies. The exception was when the guest of honor was also a houseguest. In today's social gatherings, you will find this rule practically nonexistent.

The protocol of the guest of honor departing first, however, is still practiced at diplomatic and official functions. At the White House, the guest of honor departs, then others are free to leave. This protocol is practiced universally at events where world leaders are in attendance.

Equipment

If it is not a large formal tea, a silver tray and tea service are not necessary.

A china tea set, consisting of

- a teapot,
- a creamer for the milk,
- a sugar bowl,
- a pitcher of hot water (for those who prefer weak tea), and
- a plate for lemon slices arranged on a wooden or tin tray are fine.

The tea tray and china tea set are placed at one end of the table.

On the right, set out the necessary number of cups and saucers and teaspoons to accommodate your guests. Plates, flatware, and tea napkins are placed on the left.

Platters of refreshments can include tea sandwiches in fancy shapes, various kinds of nut breads, cakes, pastries, and cookies.

Flatware

Flatware is defined as flat table utensils- knives, forks, spoons, plates, platters, and so forth. Flatware is necessary at teas in the following situations:

When serving cake that is very soft and sticky or filled with cream, forks must be laid on the tea table.

If jam or cream is to be eaten on scones or bread, there must be knives or butter spreaders.

If there are dishes with jam and cream where everyone takes a portion, each dish should have its own serving spoon. Never use your own utensils to dip into the jam or cream dish.

When seated at a table in a private home or in a tearoom, there should be at each place setting:

- a knife or butter spreader on the right side of the plate and
- a fork on the left side.

A teaspoon may be placed on the saucer holding the cup or to the right of the knife.

How to hold cups and saucers

Place the saucer holding the cup in the palm of your left hand and move it forward to rest on the four fingers, which are slightly spread apart.

Steady the saucer



with your thumb resting on the rim. A left-handed person simply reverses the procedure.

A handled cup is held with the index finger through the handle, the thumb just above it to support the grip, and the second finger below the handle for added security.

The next two fingers naturally follow the curve of the other fingers. It is an affectation to raise the little finger, even slightly.

Faux pas

Cradling the cup in one's fingers when it has a handle.

Swirling the liquid around in the cup as if it were wine in a glass.

The gaiwan

Tea cups did not always have handles. Chinese tea bowls influenced the first European teacups. At first, the English made cups without handles in the traditional Chinese style. Not until the mid 1750s was a handle added to prevent the ladies from burning their fingers. This improvement was copied from a posset cup, used for hot beverages-hot drink made of milk with wine, ale or spirits. The saucer was once a small dish for sauce. In Victorian days, tea drinkers poured their tea into saucers to cool before sipping, this was perfectly acceptable. This is what writers of the period mean by "a dish of tea."

Originally tea was poured into small handle-less Chinese porcelain bowls that held about 2-3 tablespoons of tea. It is said that the idea of the saucer developed in the 17th century when the daughter of a Chinese military official found it difficult to handle the hot bowls of tea she brewed for him and asked a local potter to devise a little plate on which to place the bowl. (Taken from "A Social History of Tea" by Jane Pettigrew).

The gaiwan (Chinese covered cup) is held, when not drinking from it, very much like a teacup and saucer are held. Place the saucer holding the cup in the palm of your right hand and move it forward to rest on the four fingers, which are slightly spread apart. Steady the cup with your thumb resting on the rim. A left-handed person simply reverses the procedure.

To drink from the gaiwan, use the thumb and index finger of your left hand to hold the lid by its knob, and let the other three fingers follow the curve of the gaiwan, Tilt the lid slightly away from your lips so that it serves as a filter holding back the leaves as you drink the liquid. The cup is never removed from the saucer.

Faux pas

Striking the lid against the cup.

It is considered poor form in most cultures to make unnecessary noises with the accoutrements one uses while eating or drinking.

A scene in the award-winning film *The Last Emperor*, directed by Bernardo Bertolucci, emphasizes this point with great style. Several Chinese empresses have gathered in a room at the palace and are drinking tea from gaiwans.

Stirring a cup of tea

Stirring a cup of tea is done gently and noiselessly by moving the teaspoon in a small arch back and forth in the center of the cup. Do not allow the teaspoon to touch the sides or rim of the cup. Remove the spoon and place it on the saucer behind the cup, with the handle of the spoon pointing in the same direction as the handle of the cup. Visualize the face of a clock on the saucer and properly place the handle of the cup and the handle of the spoon at four on the clock.

Faux pas

Leaving a spoon upright in the cup.

Placing the spoon on the saucer in front of the cup.

Making unnecessary noise by touching the sides of the cup with the spoon while stirring.

Letting the spoon drop, after stirring the tea, with a clank onto the saucer.

Tea spills in your saucer

In upscale establishments or someone's home, tea spills may be remedied by requesting a clean saucer. In a very casual setting, it is acceptable to fold a paper napkin and slip it under the cup to soak up the liquid. Remove the unsightly soggy napkin from the saucer and place it on another dish if one is available.

You can prevent saucer spills by filling the teacup only three-quarters full.

Napkins

The word napkin derives from the old French naperon, meaning "little tablecloth."

The first napkins were the size of today's bath towels. This size was practical because one ate the multi-course meal entirely with the fingers. The ancient Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans used them to cleanse the hands during a meal, which could last many hours. At many such meals, it was proper to provide a fresh napkin with each course to keep diners from offending each other, since it was believed they would get sick watching each other wipe their mouths on filthy napkins.

Today, in all dining situations, the napkin is properly picked up and unfolded on the lap, not above the table level. A large dinner napkin is folded in half with the fold facing the body, while a luncheon or tea napkin may be opened completely. In upscale restaurants, the wait staff is



trained to place the napkin on your lap, often with too much of a flourish to suit me. Pause for a moment to make sure you and the wait staff do not reach for the napkin simultaneously.

If you need to leave the table temporarily, place your napkin on your chair, not on the table. Push your chair back under the table if the setting is appropriate.

In upscale restaurants, the wait staff will refold the napkin and place it on the table to the left side of your plate or on the arm of your chair, a practice I thoroughly abhor, even though they are trained to handle the napkin as little as possible. Return the napkin to your lap when the host or

hostess picks up his or her napkin to signal the close of the tea. He or she makes certain all of the guests have finished before making this move.

At the end of the tea, the napkin is not refolded but picked up by the center and placed loosely to the left of the plate.

Faux pas

Placing a used napkin back on the table before the meal is over.

Tea infusers / filters are used to contain the leaves and permit easy removal of the used tea leaves. Some teapots are fitted with infusion baskets, also called filters. Be sure to give the leaves inside room to expand in the water when using the stainless-steel wire-mesh infusers, called "tea balls." It is advisable to employ two tea balls in making a six-cup pot. Avoid cute infusion devices made of pot metal. These often impart an unpleasant metallic taint and are, besides, inefficient.

Tea filters work best because they allow a lot of water to circulate without releasing the leaves into the brew.

Tea strainers are designed to be held above or to rest on top of the cup to catch leaves that escape from the teapot when the tea is poured. I still use one, even though I don't need to since the leaves are contained in my tea filter. It's the ritual of holding that little silver object over the cup, and the pouring of tea into it, that forces me to slow down and enjoy the whole process.

A mote spoon or mote skimmer is usually made of silver with holes in the bowl. It is used to transfer tea leaves from the caddy to the teapot and also to skim off any stray leaves, or "motes", that may have escaped into the cup. The sharp point on the end is used to unblock the teapot spout if it gets clogged with tea leaves.

Caddy spoons have short handles so they will fit in the tea caddy. They are used to convey the tea from the tea caddy to the teapot.

Enjoy your own afternoon tea!

Exercises

I. Choose the answer that best completes the statement or answer the question.

(1) The traditional afternoon tea is served at _____ O'clock.

- A. 4
- B. 3-5
- C. 6
- D. 2

(2) Afternoon tea is also called low tea because _____.

- A. the quality of the tea is not very strong
- B. the tea time is in the afternoon
- C. the tea table is low
- D. the tea is not drunk in a formal occasion

(3) If you want to invite somebody to have the afternoon tea, you should do as following EXCEPT _____.

- A. If you intend to invite your guest you should phone him on the day several hours

before your anticipated time.

- B. Invite him face to face on the day several hours before the anticipated time.
- C. Send them an e-mail a week in advance or longer.
- D. Let others to pass on the word to your guest for you.

(4) During the afternoon tea_____.

- A. The host should pour the tea for the guest all the time.
- B. Several people including the guests take turns to pour tea for others.
- C. To ask guests to pour tea is considered to be impolite in western cultures.
- D. Pouring for more than twenty minutes is a great honor, which is considered as profound trust.

(5) Which of the following is NOT considered as bad manners?

- A. striking the lid against the cup when using a gaiwan to drink tea
- B. stirring a cup of tea slightly and noiselessly using a teaspoon
- C. leaving the spoon upright in the cup after stirring the tea
- D. tea spilling in your saucer

(6) Afternoon tea invitation includes the following except_____.

- A. calling in advance
- B. telling face-to-face
- C. sending a message
- D. sending mails in advance

(7) What is the host supposed to do for the guest of honor?

- A. introducing all the other guests to him or her
- B. staying with the person in the room
- C. letting him or her the last one to leave
- D. let him or her decide when the tea is over

(8) Which is not necessary for a normal afternoon tea?

- A. a china teapot
- B. a silver tray
- C. a bowl for sugar
- D. a milk creamer

(9) Which statement is true about flatware?

- A. Forks should be laid on tea table when serving cakes.
- B. Knives or butter spreaders are necessary for cream eaten on scones.
- C. A public spoon is necessary for dishes with jam and cream.
- D. A teaspoon is placed on the left side of the knife.

(10) Which is wrong about holding cups and saucers?

- A. The saucer should be held on the left palm.
- B. The cup should be cradled in fingers if it has a handle.
- C. Left handed people should also hold the saucer with the left hand.
- D. A handled cup is held by putting the index finger through the handle and thumbing supporting the grip.

II . Fill in the following blanks with appropriate words or expressions.

- (1) A simple tea consisting of scones, clotted cream, marmalade or lemon curd and tea is_____.
- (2) The host of the afternoon tea must introduce every guest to the_____.
- (3) _____and _____are necessary for a large formal tea.
- (4) Plates, flatware, and tea napkins are placed on the_____side of the table.
- (5) In the mid 1750s, a_____was added to tea cups to prevent the ladies from burning their fingers.
- (6) Making unnecessary_____while eating or drinking is considered poor form in most cultures.
- (7) Stirring a cup of tea is done gently and noiselessly with a_____.
- (8) The first napkins were much larger than today's because people used to eat the multi-course meal entirely with the_____.
- (9) A used napkin should never be placed on the table before the meal is_____.
- (10) When the tea is supposed to come to an end, the host or hostess picks up his or her_____to make a sign.

III. True or false

- ____(1) In formal occasions, other guests are supposed not to leave until the departure of the guest of honor.
- ____(2) Even if not in a large formal tea, a silver tray and tea service is also necessary.
- ____(3) Plates, flatware, and tea napkins are placed on the right.
- ____(4) The knife or butter spreader on the left side of the plate and the fork on the right.
- ____(5) Hold the cup with your palm when the cup has a handle.
- ____(6) The size of the first napkin is as the same size as the ones of today.
- ____(7) The napkin is properly picked up and unfolded on the lap, not above the table.
- ____(8) When you leave the table for a short moment, place your napkin on the table.
- ____(9) Little noise should be made when stirring a cup of tea.
- ____(10) If a person needs to leave the table for a moment, he or she should place the napkin on the table.

IV. Guess the meanings of the following boldfaced words.

- (1) Charles the II grew up in **exile** at the Hague and thus was exposed to the custom of drinking tea.
- (2) Families with servants often took high tea on Sundays in order to allow the maids and **butlers** time to go to church and not worry about cooking an evening meal for the family.
- (3) **Platters** of refreshments can include tea sandwiches in fancy shapes, various kinds of nut breads, cakes, pastries, and cookies.
- (4) It is considered poor form in most cultures to make unnecessary noises with the **accoutrements** one uses while eating or drinking.
- (5) Tea **filters** work best because they allow a lot of water to circulate without releasing the leaves into the brew.

V. Work in groups and discuss the following questions.

- (1) Have you ever had afternoon tea? If not, would you like to have a try? Which is your favorite part?
- (2) It is known that tea originated from China, but why is afternoon tea so popular in Britain?

Appendix

Key to the Exercises

Unit1

Key to the Cultural Training

- I. (1) B (2) D (3) A (4) D (5) C (6) B (7) A (8) A (9) C (10) A (11) A (12) A (13) B (14) A (15) B (16) B (17) B (18) B (19) A (20) A (21) B (22) B (23) C (24) B (25) B (26) C (27) B (28) D (29) D (30) B
- II. (1) Northwestern (2) Great Britain, Northern Ireland (3) Scottish, Welsh (4) England (5) London (6) Northern Ireland (7) 1921 (8) Ben Nevis (9) Pennines (10) Thames (11) London (12) Northern Ireland (13) Atlantic Gulf Stream (14) 57 (15) Irish (16) Welsh (17) English (18) Inner, 20 (19) Edinburgh (20) God Save the Queen (21) North (22) West (23) Clyde (24) Thames (25) Cardiff (26) Britain's, center, three, in the world (27) 1801 (28) Lough Neagh (29) The London Eye (30) June

III.(1) London is the capital of the UK and it is the largest city located in the south of the country. It's dominant in Britain in all sorts of ways. It's the cultural and business center and the headquarters of the vast majority of Britain's big companies. It's not only the financial center of the nation, but also one of the three major international financial centers in the world.

(2) The British Isles lie northwest of Europe in the Atlantic Ocean. They are made up of two main islands—Britain and Ireland---and several small islands.

(3) Flag of United Kingdom: the flag of the United Kingdom, which combines the flags of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

(4) Lake District: region of mountains and lakes in Cumbria, northwestern England. The district extends about 50 km/30 mi from north to south and 40 km/25 mi from east to west.

(5) They were two groups of Germanic peoples who settled down in England from the 5th century. They were regarded as the ancestors of the English and the founders of England.

IV.

(1) Great Britain is a geographical name, including England, Scotland and Wales. The United Kingdom is the official name, but the full name is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The British Commonwealth is a free association of independent countries that were once colonies of Britain.

(2) Britain's favorable climate is mild climate, a steady reliable rainfall throughout the whole year. The temperature varies within a small range. The factors that influence the climate in Britain are as follows: Firstly, the surrounding waters tend to balance the seasonal differences by heating up the land in winter and cooling it off in summer. Secondly, the south-west winds blow over the country all the year round, bringing warm and wet air in winter and keeping the temperatures moderate. Finally, The North Atlantic Drift passes the western coast of the British Isles and warms them.

Unit2

Key to the Cultural Training

I. (1) B (2) B (3) A (4) A (5) B (6) B (7) D (8) A (9) A (10) A (11) A (12) A (13) C (14) C (15) B (16) D (17) D (18) C (19) B (20) C (21) D (22) C (23) A (24) C (25) D

II. (1) Iberians (2) 700 BC (3) Julius Caesar (4) Anglo-Saxon (5) William (6) Magna Carta (7) Guy Fawkes (8) Hastings (9) feudalism (10) Conqueror (11) Great Council (12) Glorious Revolution (13) Lancastrians, Yorkists (14) 15th (15) Paris (16) Chartered (17) international, national (18) Bloody (19) feudal civil (20) Invincible Armada (21) Stuart (22) Roundheads, Cavaliers (23) Lord Protector (24) Tory, Whig (25) splendid isolation (26) Commonwealth (27) Poland (28) 18th (29) Italy (30) 4

III.

(1) He was also known as William, Duke of Normandy. In 1066, he invaded England, defeated and killed Harold near Hastings in Sussex and conquered England. He confiscated almost all the land and gave it to his Norman followers. He replaced the weak Saxon rule with a strong Norman government. So the feudal system was completely established in England.

- (2) The Great Charter has been also known as Magna Carta which King John was forced to sign in 1215. The Great Charter has been regarded as the foundation of English liberties, a guarantee of the freedom of the Church and the spirit of it was the limitation of the powers of the King.
- (3) The name Wars of the Roses was referred to the battles between the House of Lancaster, symbolized by the white, from 1455 to 1485. Henry Tudor, descendant of Duke of Lancaster won victory at Bosworth Field in 1485 and put the country under the rule of the Tudors. From these wars, English feudalism received its death blow. The great medieval nobility was much weakened.
- (4) It's the nickname given to Mary I, the English Queen who succeeded to the throne after Henry VIII. She was a devout Catholic and had so many Protestants burnt to death that she is remembered less by her official title Mary I by her nickname Bloody Mary.
- (5) It refers to monarchy of Britain under Queen Victoria from 1837 to 1901, the longest reign in British history. The Victorian Age was an age of national development and national optimism. The Victorians were very religious and conservative in family life. It was also, in its later stages, an age of imperialism.
- (6) Also called the Anglican Church, it's one of the many Protestant sects which broke away from Roman Catholic church during the Reformation in the 16th century. It's an established church which means that it represents the official state religion. Its religious leader is the Archbishop of Canterbury and its secular leader is the British Monarch.

IV.

- (1) In the 43AD Britain was invaded by the Roman Empire and England and Wales became part of the Roman Empire for nearly 400 years. Influence: one of the best known English legend, the story of King Arthur, derives from this time and has been embellished by singers, poets, novelists and even filmmakers ever since.

In the late 8th century, raiders from Scandinavia, the ferocious Vikings, threatened the Britain shores. Large areas of northern and eastern England were under their control. Influence: Until today, there is still certain cultural divide between northerners and southerners. The richer southerners tend to think northerners as less sophisticated than themselves, while northerners think southerners arrogant and unfriendly. They also have different accent.

In 1066, the descendants of Vikings crossed the English Channel under William of Normandy. This marks the last time that an army from the outside the British Isles succeeded in invading. Influence: the Tower of London built by William. Imported ruling class. The next 30 years may be thought of as a Norman aristocracy ruling a largely Saxon and English-speaking population.

- (2) Though the Power of the King used to be seen as derived from the "divine law", there always existed a power from the vassals and the local nobles that can substantially restrict the exercise of King power as was shown in the Magna Carta. The King had to rely on the power of nobles for money and thus a compromise was reached between the King and the Parliament. When James I and Charles I wanted to reassert the divine power of Kingship, conflict arose between the two sides and this led to the civil war and the execution of the King.

Cause of Revolution:

- ① The inability of Central Government to effectively penetrate power down to the society and exploit social resources.
- ② Power division between the king and nobles grown customarily.

- ③ Rising productivity of Capitalist productive forces added to the power of noble parliament.
- ④ Social disintegration of the old bandages created a group of atomized mass that can be potential source of soldiers. This made civilian army more easy to be organized by the nobles.
- ⑤ Imprudent action taken by the King to dissolve the parliament.
- ⑥ Rising doubt about the Divine right of the King and more thoughts about natural rights.

Unit3

Key to the Cultural Training

I.

(1) B(2) B(3) C(4)C(5) B(6) D(7) C(8) B(9) A (10) D(11)C (12)C (13)C(14)C(15)B(16)
 A (17) A(18)C (19) B (20) C(21) D(22) C (23) B(24) B(25) D (26) C(27) D(28) A
 (29)A(30) C(31) A(32) D(33) D(34) A(35) D

II.

- (1) monarchy
- (2) Elisabeth II, Charles
- (3) customs, conventions, ordinary
- (4) ministers
- (5) legislative
- (6) monarch/ sovereign, Commons, Lords
- (7) Lord Chancellor, Mr. Speaker
- (8) debate, laws, government, financing
- (9) Prime Minister, ministers, Parliament
- (10) senior, chairmanship, policies
- (11) Cabinet, Parliament
- (12) orders, proclamations
- (13) council
- (14) Chairman, Mayor, Lord Mayor
- (15) bourgeois, monopolists, democracy
- (16) Tory, Whig
- (17) Trade, Independent, Fabian
- (18) 651, one
- (19) majority
- (20) majority
- (21) Chancellor, Home, Scotland, Northern Ireland
- (22) customs, common
- (23) statutes, previous
- (24) High Court of Justice, Appeal, Lords, Privy

- (25) Chancery, Family, Queen's Bench
- (26) magistrate
- (27) House of Lords
- (28) Criminal, Court, Inner, Outer
- (29) fine, imprisonment, 1969
- (30) local, councils
- (31) Lords; Commons
- (32) the Prime Minister; the Sovereign/Queen
- (33) the Queen; the House of Commons
- (34) Conservative Party; Labor Party
- (35) Conservative

III.

- (1) F(2) T(3) T(4) F(5) F(6) F(7) T(8) T(9) T(10) F

IV.

- (1) The Conservative Party is one of the two principal parties in Britain. It developed out of the Tory Party. The Conservative Party is in favor of privatization and openly helps the monopolists to make profits.
- (2) The Labor Party is one of two principal parties in Britain. It was formed in 1900 by a union between the trade union, the Independent Labor Party and the Fabian Society. It took the place of the Liberal Party after the First World War and came into office immediately after the Second World War and since then it has taken turns in office with the Conservative Party. The Labor Party practices bourgeois democracy or social reformation and nationalization of public enterprises.
- (3) The Chancery Division is one of the three divisions of the High Court of Justice. It consists of the Lord Chancellor and ten judges, dealing with questions of company law, bankruptcy, trusts and administration of the estates of people who have died.
- (4) The Queen's Bench Division consists of the Lord Chief Justice and 39 other judges, dealing with questions arising in trade and maritime affairs, etc.
- (5) Scotland Yard is the popular name of the Criminal investigation Department, which gets the name from New Scotland Yard, where its offices are situated.

Unit4

Key to the Cultural Training

I.

- (1) B(2) A(3) C (4) C(5) C(6) D(7) C(8) A(9) B(10) D(11) C(12) C(13) D(14) B(15) D(16) B
(17) A(18) D(19) C(20) A(21) B(22) A(23) D(24) C (25) A(26) B(27) D(28) A(29) C(30)
C(31) A(32) B(33) D (34) A(35) C

II.

- (1) the United States
- (2) 1947
- (3) international obligations

- (4) invest
- (5) absolute
- (6) reduced, lifted, loosened, restricted
- (7) privatization
- (8) taxation
- (9) inward
- (10) 55
- (11) North, English, Ireland, Iceland
- (12) position
- (13) drug
- (14) BMW
- (15) invisible
- (16) Textiles
- (17) eighteenth
- (18) electricity
- (19) Canary Wharf
- (20) 19 9
- (21) The Copenhagen criteria
- (22) Denmark and United Kingdom
- (23) wind energy
- (24) electricity
- (25) low earnings
- (26) Western European countries
- (27) the United States
- (28) Unemployment
- (29) Commercial
- (30) St Paul's Cathedral
- (31) fishing
- (32) Scottish
- (33) the North Sea
- (34) Life insurance
- (35) income tax

III.

- (1) T(2) F(3) F(4) T(5) F(6) F(7) T(8) T(9) F(10) T

IV.

- (1) The Group of Seven large industrial economies include the United States, Britain, Germany, France, Italy and Canada.
- (2) NATO is the abbreviation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, a military block in Europe.
- (3) Primary industries refer to those providing primary products, such as agriculture and fishing.
- (4) Secondary industries are those manufacture complex goods from those primary products
- (5) Tertiary industries, are often referred to as services, such as banking, insurance, tourism and the selling of goods.

Unit5

Key to the Cultural Training

I.(1) D (2) B (3) A (4) C (5) D (6) A (7) D (8) A (9) D (10)A

II. (1) Geoffrey Chaucer (2) Beowulf (3) Robin Hood (4) Francis Bacon (5) Lyrical Ballads (6) Spanish (7) Robinson Crusoe (8) Ode To the West Wind (9) Thomas Hardy (10) sonnet

Unit6

Key to the Cultural Training

I. (1) A (2) D (3) C (4) B (5) C (6) B (7) D (8) C (9) D (10)A

II.

- (1) State Schools
- (2) 5 and 16
- (3) Co-educated
- (4) the National Curriculum
- (5) 11
- (6) Grammar
- (7) the central government
- (8) College system, Tutorial system
- (9) Open
- (10) London

Unit7

Key to the Cultural Training

I.(1) D (2) B (3) C (4) D (5) C (6)

II.(1) television, radio, newspapers, magazines, Web sites (2) ITV plc, News Corporation (3) Daily Mail (4) lingering nineteenth-century ideals, the press's increasingly commercial environment (5) quality, middle market, mass market (6) The Times, the Guardian, the Daily Telegraph, the Independent, the Financial Times, broadsheet (7) "quality", serious-minded newspapers, "broadsheets", "tabloid" (8) "checkbook" journalism (9) national (10) Sundays (11) The Newsroom (12) national (13) Indy, youngest (14) conservative, tabloid (15) 1903 (16) Labour Party (17) fortnightly (18) politics, culture (19) *New Musical Express* (NME) (20) BBC (21) 33 (22) television licence (23) 1922 (24) private broadcasting, state sponsorship (25) small,

micro-local, non-profit (26) chartered public broadcasting companies, ITV, Channel 5 (27) BBC One, BBC Two, Channel 4 (28) second, Channel Islands (29) 24-hour (30) commercial

III. (1) F (2) F (3) F (4) T (5) T (6) F (7) T (8) F (9) T (10) T (11) T (12) T (13) F (14) F (15) T (16) T (17) F (18) T (19) F (20) F (21) F (22) F (23) T (24) T (25) F (26) F (27) T (28) F (29) F (30) T

IV.

(1) BBC: The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) is the public service broadcaster of the United Kingdom, headquartered at Broadcasting House in London. It is the world's oldest national broadcasting organisation and the largest broadcaster in the world by number of employees, with over 20,950 staff in total, of whom 16,672 are in public sector broadcasting; including part-time, flexible as well as fixed contract staff, the total number is 35,402. BBC Television is a service of the British Broadcasting Corporation.

(2) The broadsheet is the largest of newspaper formats and is characterized by long vertical pages (typically 22 inches or 560 millimetres). The term derives from types of popular prints usually just of a single sheet, sold on the streets and containing various types of material, from ballads to political satire. The first broadsheet newspaper was the *Dutch Courante uyt Italien, Duytslandt, &c.* published in 1618.

(3) A tabloid is a newspaper with compact page size smaller than broadsheet, although there is no standard for the precise dimensions of the tabloid newspaper format.

(4) *The Financial Times* (FT) is an English-language international daily newspaper with a special emphasis on business and economic news. Starts in 1888 as the London Financial Guide, the paper describes itself as “the friend of the honest financier and the respectable broker”.

(5) *The Sun* is a daily tabloid newspaper published in the United Kingdom and Ireland. It is one of Britain's most famous and widely consumed media brands, reaching almost 8 million readers in the UK every day. Founded in 1964 as a successor broadsheet to the *Daily Herald*, it became a tabloid in 1969 after it was purchased by its current owners. It is published by the News Group Newspapers division of News UK, itself a wholly owned subsidiary of Rupert Murdoch's News Corp.

(6) *The Economist* is an English-language weekly newspaper owned by the Economist Group and edited in offices in London. *The Economist* was founded by the British businessman and banker James Wilson in 1843, to advance the repeal of the Corn Laws, a system of import tariffs. *The Economist's* primary focus is world events, politics and business, but it also runs regular sections on science and technology as well as books and the arts.

(7) *Nature* is a British interdisciplinary scientific journal, first published on 4 November 1869. *Nature* is the world's most highly cited interdisciplinary science journal, according to the 2013 Journal Citation Reports Science Edition (Thomson Reuters, 2014).

(8) BBC One is the flagship television channel of the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) in the United Kingdom, Isle of Man and Channel Islands. It was launched on 2 November 1936 as the BBC Television Service, and was the world's first regular television service with a high level of image resolution. It was renamed BBC TV in 1960, using this name until the launch of sister channel BBC2 in 1964, whereupon the BBC TV channel became known as BBC1, with the current spelling adopted in 1997.

(9) ITV is a commercial TV network in the United Kingdom. Launched in 1955 as Independent Television under the auspices of the Independent Television Authority (ITA, then after the Sound

Broadcasting Act 1972, Independent Broadcasting Authority, now Ofcom) to provide competition to the BBC, it is also the oldest commercial network in the UK.

(10) Channel 4 is a British public-service television broadcaster that began transmission on 2 November 1982. The channel was established to provide a fourth television service to the United Kingdom in addition to the television licence-funded BBC's two services and the single commercial broadcasting network, ITV.

V.

(1) tabloidization: n. 小报化; 市井化, 媚俗化

(2) circulation: n. The circulation of a newspaper or magazine is the number of copies that are sold each time it is produced. 发行量

(3) archive: n. Archives are a collection of documents and records that contain historical information. You can also use archives to refer to the place where archives are stored. 档案; 档案馆

(4) subsidiary: n. A subsidiary or a subsidiary company is a company which is part of a larger and more important company. 子公司 [商业]

(5) interdisciplinary: adj. Interdisciplinary means involving more than one academic subject. 跨学科的 [usu ADJ n]

VI.

(1) *The Economist's* primary focus is world events, politics and business, but it also runs regular sections on science and technology as well as books and the arts.

(2) First, to serve scientists through prompt publication of significant advances in any branch of science, and to provide a forum for the reporting and discussion of news and issues concerning science. Second, to ensure that the results of science are rapidly disseminated to the public throughout the world, in a fashion that conveys their significance for knowledge, culture and daily life. *Nature's* original mission statement was published for the first time on 11 November 1869.

(3) The largest operator of radio stations is Global Radio, owner of the major Heart and Galaxy radio brands. It also owns Classic FM and London's most popular commercial radio station, 95.8 Capital FM.

(4) The BBC radio services began in 1922.

(5) Channel 5 provides viewers with a varied mix of programming which includes entertainment, sport, documentaries, kids, drama, News and films. Channel 5 is also home to the biggest US dramas. As well as continuing with hit series such as CSI, NCIS and The Mentalist in the past year we have introduced UK audiences to new acquisitions such as Once Upon A Time, Body Of Proof, Person Of Interest and Dallas.

Unit8

Key to the Cultural Training

I. (1) D (2) B (3) B (4) D (5) C (6) A (7) A (8) C (9) D (10) C (11) A (12) C (13) C (14) A (15) B (16) C (17) A (18) D (19) B (20) B (21) C (22) A (23) A (24) B (25) C (26) D (27) B (28) C (29) D (30) D

II. (1) T (2) F (3) T (4) F (5) F (6) T (7) T (8) T (9) F (10) F (11) T (12) T (13) F (14) T (15) T (16) F (17) T (18) T (19) F (20) F (21) T (22) F (23) T (24) F (25) F (26) T (27) T (28) T (29) F (30) F (31) T (32) T (33) F (34) T (35) T (36) T (37) F (38) T (39) T (40) F (41) T (42) T (43) T (44) F (45) T (46) T (47) F (48) T (49) F (50) T (51) T (52) T (53) T (54) T (55) T (56) T (57) F (58) T (59) T (60) T

Unit9

Key to the Cultural Training

I.(1) C (2) C (3) D (4) B (5) B (6) C (7) D (8) C (9) A (10) D

II.(1) History (2) Edinburgh Castle (3) White Tower (4) The British museum (5) Buckingham Palace (6) The University of Cambridge (7) The River Thames (8) The Palace of Westminster (9) The London Eye (10) Greenwich's (11) Madame Tussaud's wax museum (12) National Museums Scotland (13) Calton Hill (14) The University of Oxford (15) Hampton Court Palace (16) The Scott Monument (17) Windermere (18) Stirling Castle

III.(1)T (2)F (3) T (4) T (5)F (6) F (7) T (8) T (9) T (10) T (11) T (12) F (13) F (14) T (15)T (16) T (17) F (18) T (19) F (20) T (21) F (22) T (23) T (24) T (25) F (26) F (27) T (28) T (29) F (30) F (31) T (32) T (33) T (34) F (35) F (36) T (37) T (38) F (39) T (40) F (41) T (42) T (43) F (44) T (45) T (46) F (47) T (48) T (49) F (50) T (51) T (52) F (53) F (54) T (55) T (56) T (57) F (58) F (59) T (60) T

Unit10

Key to the Cultural Training

Passage One

I.(1) D (2) B (3) D (4) C (5) A (6) B (7) D (8) D (9) C (10) A

II.(1) Celts (2) trick-or-treat (3) candy (4) New England (5) new immigrants (6) the twentieth century (7) small treats (8) commercial (9) ghosts (10) the spirit world (11) bad luck (12) inexpensive

III.(1) T (2) T (3) T (4) F (5) T (6) T (7) T (8) F (9) F (10) T

IV. 省略

V.省略

Passage Two

I. (1) A (2) C (3) C (4) B (5) B (6) C (7) A (8) B (9) B (10) C

II.(1) cream tea (2) guest of honor (3) A silver tray, tea service (4) left (5) handle (6) noises (7) spoon (8) fingers (9) over (10) napkin.

III. (1) T (2) F (3) T (4) F (5) F (6) F (7) T (8) F (9) T (10) F

IV.

- (1) exile: the state of being sent to live in another country that is not your own
 - (2) butler: the main male servant in a large house
 - (3) platter: a large plate that is used for serving food
 - (4) accoutrements: pieces of equipment that you need for a particular activity
 - (5) filter: a device that liquid or gas is passed through in order to remove materials not wanted
- V.省略

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