



**E.V. Kalugina
N.E. Pochitalkina**

CULTURAL STUDIES THROUGH LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

**Министерство просвещения Российской Федерации
Федеральное государственное бюджетное образовательное
учреждение высшего образования
«Южно-Уральский государственный
гуманитарно-педагогический университет»**

**Е.В. Калугина
Н.Е. Почиталкина**

**ЛИНГВОСТРАНОВЕДЕНИЕ
И МЕЖКУЛЬТУРНАЯ КОММУНИКАЦИЯ**

УДК 42-8 (021)
ББК 81.432.1-923
К

Калугина, Е.В. Cultural Studies Through Language and Communication: учебное пособие / Е.В. Калугина, Н.Е. Почиталкина; Южно-Уральский гос. гуман.-пед. ун-т. – Челябинск: Изд-во Южно-Урал. гос. гуман.-пед. ун-та, 2023. – 175 с. – ISBN 978-58907790-10-0. – Текст: непосредственный.

Предлагаемое учебное пособие разработано в соответствии с требованиями ФГОС ВО для студентов очного отделения по направлению подготовки 44.03.05 Педагогическое образование (с двумя профилями), изучающих английский язык в качестве профильного. Целью данного учебного пособия является формирование у студентов коммуникативной компетенции как единства языковой, речевой и социокультурной компетенций в ходе изучения следующих курсов: «Лингвострановедение и страноведение англоязычных стран», «Лингвострановедение и страноведение», «Страноведение страны изучаемого языка», «Страноведение Великобритании», «Страноведения».

Материал основан на содержании базового лекционного курса и предполагает поэтапное формирование коммуникативной компетенции студентов в процессе развития всех видов речевой деятельности.

Во вступительной части представлены вводные тексты (Introductory Texts), содержащие общие сведения об исторических, социальных и политических реалиях Великобритании и США. Затем предлагается ряд вопросов по содержанию прочитанного, а также практические задания (Practical Tasks) для последующего обсуждения в аудитории.

ISBN 978-58907790-10-0

Рецензенты:

М.В. Раевская, канд.филол.наук, доцент

Л.Н. Овинова, канд.пед.наук, доцент

© Е.В. Калугина, Н.Е. Почиталкина составление, 2023

© Издательство Южно-Уральского государственного гуманитарно-педагогического университета, 2023

CONTENTS

ВВЕДЕНИЕ.....	8
INTRODUCTORY TEXTS:THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.....	11
MODERN GERMANIC LANGUAGES.	11
THE EARLIEST PERIOD OF GERMANIC HISTORY. PROTO-GERMANIC.	11
EAST GERMANIC.	11
NORTH GERMANIC.....	11
WEST GERMANIC.....	11
CHRONOLOGICAL DIVISIONS IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH. SHORT SURVEY OF PERIODS.....	11
THE GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION OF THE UK.....	21
THE GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND.	21
SEAS, OCEANS, RIVERS AND LAKES.....	21
MOUNTAINS.	21
CLIMATE.....	21
POPULATION.....	21
THE MAIN EVENTS IN THE HISTORY OF BRITAIN	25
THE FIRST SETTLERS ON THE BRITISH ISLES.	25
THE ROMAN INVASION.	25
THE FIRST KING OF ENGLAND.....	25
THE CONVERSION OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS TO CHRISTIANITY.	25
THE NORMAN CONQUEST.	25
THE ENGLISH BOURGEOIS REVOLUTION.	25
THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION. CHARTISM.....	25
VICTORIAN BRITAIN.....	25
CULTURAL LIFE IN BRITAIN. TRADITIONS. HOLIDAYS.....	34

CULTURAL LIFE IN BRITAIN.....	34
MUSIC.....	34
THEATRE.....	34
TRADITIONS.....	34
HOLIDAYS.....	34
BRITISH SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.....	39
Pre-school Education.....	39
Secondary Education.....	39
Higher Education.....	39
Further Education.....	39
ART. MUSEUMS AND GALLERIES. PAINTING IN ENGLAND.....	48
WILLIAM HOGARTH.....	48
JOSHUA REYNOLDS.....	48
THOMAS GAINSBOROUGH.....	48
JOSEPH TURNER.....	48
MUSEUMS AND GALLERIES.....	48
BRITISH STATE SYSTEM.....	59
THE MONARCHY.....	59
THE GOVERNMENT.....	59
PARLIAMENT.....	59
POLITICAL PARTIES.....	59
THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.....	69
GEOGRAPHY OF THE USA.....	69
THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.....	69
THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.....	69
THE CIVIL WAR.....	69
THE STRUCTURE OF THE GOVERNMENT.....	69

THE US STATE SYSTEM. CULTURE. EDUCATION	74
THE US STATE SYSTEM.	74
LOCAL GOVERNMENT.	74
THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN THE USA.	74
AMERICAN FOLK, JAZZ AND POPULAR MUSIC.	74
AMERICAN HOLIDAYS AND CUSTOMS.	74
THE AMERICAN VARIANT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE	74
PRACTICAL TASKS	83
GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES AS A MIRROR OF BRITISH ATTITUDES	83
THE BRITISH MONARCHY:ELIZABETH I AND THE	
"GOLDEN AGE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE"	106
<i>Spanish Armada</i>	114
THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT AND LOYALTY TO TRADITIONS	122
THE TOWER OF LONDON. THE HARMONY OF ANTIQUETY AND MODERN TIMES	138
THE BRITISH CHARACTER	158
ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ	170
BIBLIOGRAPHIC LIST	171

ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Становление коммуникативной компетенции как единства языковой, речевой и социокультурной компетенций студентов становится необходимым условием успешного функционирования в поликультурном пространстве, которое предполагает свободное общение между людьми разных стран и культур, глубинное понимание представителей разных народов.

Знание реалий стран изучаемого языка – неотъемлемая часть полноценного лингвокультурного образования на современном этапе развития поликультурного общества, когда культурная составляющая является основополагающей для осмысления и интерпретации действий и мотивов партнера в ходе акта межкультурной коммуникации.

При интеграции коммуникативного, когнитивного и социокультурного аспектов становления мировоззренческой картины языковое образование базируется на международной парадигме, при которой функция языка расширяется. Язык рассматривается не только как самостоятельная речевая деятельность, но и как средство общей деятельности в ходе культуротворческого развития социально активной и самостоятельной личности студента.

Предлагаемое учебное пособие разработано в соответствии с требованиями ФГОС ВО для студентов очного отделения по направлению подготовки 44.03.05 Педагогическое образование (с двумя профилями), изучающих английский язык в качестве профильного.

Формирование у студентов способности к межкультурной коммуникации выражается во внешней и внутренней активности при становлении в его сознании целостной картины мира в процессе приобщения к концептуальной основе иного лингвосоциума. Творческая активность обучающегося приобретает первостепенное значение в становлении коммуникативной компетенции, при которой успешное развитие навыков речевой деятельности напрямую связано со стремлением к активному

самополаганию в мирпредметной, социальной и духовной культуры многонационального общества.

Целью данного учебного пособия является формирование у студентов коммуникативной компетенции как единства языковой, речевой и социокультурной компетенций в ходе изучения таких курсов, как: «Лингвострановедение и страноведение англоязычных стран», «Лингвострановедение и страноведение», «Страноведение страны изучаемого языка», «Страноведение Великобритании», «Страноведение» по следующим направлениям:

- развитие практического коммуникативно-речевого творчества студентов, заключающегося в профессиональном овладении необходимыми речевыми навыками;
- становление социокультурной компетенции в ходе рассмотрения, осознания и интерпретации реалий иной культуры;
- формирование культуротворческого пространства студентов в ходе активного овладения страноведческой информацией как основы процесса научно-практического поиска.

Основой пособия являются современные методические принципы:

- коммуникативной направленности, предполагающий развитие коммуникативной компетенции как единства языковой, речевой и социокультурной компетенций;
- интерактивного обучения, основывающийся на активном взаимодействии участников образовательного процесса (студент – студент, преподаватель – студент) при совместном включении обучающихся в единое творческое пространство;
- интеграции языкового материала и речевой практики, позволяющий практиковать языковой материал в процессе речевой деятельности, а также развивать представленный языковой минимум в страноведческом контексте.

Материал для практической работы основан на содержании базового лекционного курса и предполагает поэтапное формирование коммуникативной компетенции студентов в процессе развития всех видов речевой деятельности.

Во вступительной части представлены вводные тексты (Introductory Texts), содержащие общие сведения об исторических, социальных и политических реалиях

Великобритании и США. С текстовым материалом рекомендуется ознакомить студентов после обзорной лекции-беседы с целью закрепления общей информации и детализации фактов. Затем предлагаются вопросы по содержанию прочитанного, а также для последующего обсуждения в аудитории.

Проектная работа студентов над индивидуально выбранной темой представляет наивысшую форму творческой активности в области лингвокультурного развития при изучении дисциплины, свидетельствует о достаточном уровне сформированности коммуникативных навыков, готовности студента к активному погружению в мир иной культуры и международному культурному обмену. Защита курсового и дипломного проектов в аудитории при готовности к тематической дискуссии показывает уровень понимания и осознания реалий иной культуры студентом, указывает на его осведомленность, осмысление и принятие норм чужого культурного социума, воспитывает толерантное отношение к партнерам по межкультурной коммуникации.

INTRODUCTORY TEXTS: THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

MODERN GERMANIC LANGUAGES.

THE EARLIEST PERIOD OF GERMANIC HISTORY. PROTO-GERMANIC.

EAST GERMANIC.

NORTH GERMANIC.

WEST GERMANIC.

CHRONOLOGICAL DIVISIONS IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH. SHORT SURVEY OF PERIODS

Languages can be classified according to different principles. The historical, or genealogical classification, groups languages in accordance with their origin from a common linguistic ancestor.

Genetically, English belongs to the Germanic or Teutonic group of languages, which is one of the Indo-European (IE) linguistic families. Most of the area of Europe and large parts of other continents are occupied today by the IE languages, Germanic being one of their major groups. The total number of people speaking Germanic languages approaches 400 million plus a number of bilingual people in the countries where English is used as an official language (50 countries).

The Germanic languages in the modern world are as follows:

English – in Great Britain, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the South African Republic and many other former British colonies and dominions;

German – in the Federal Republic of Germany, Austria, Luxemburg, Liechtenstein, part of Switzerland;

Netherlandish – in the Netherlands and Flanders (Belgium), (known also as Dutch and Flemish respectively);

Afrikaans – in the South African Republic; Danish – in Denmark;

Swedish – in Sweden and Finland; Norwegian – in Norway; Icelandic – in Iceland;

Frisian – in some regions of the Netherlands and the Federal Republic of Germany; Faroese – in the Faroe Islands;

Yiddish – in different countries.

All the Germanic languages are related through their common origin and joint development at the early stages of history. The survey of their external history will show where and when the Germanic languages arose and acquired their common features and also how they have developed into modern independent tongues.

The Earliest Period of Germanic History. Proto-Germanic. The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of what is known as the Proto-Germanic (PG) language (also termed Common or Primitive Germanic, Primitive Teutonic and simply Germanic). PG is the linguistic ancestor or the parent language of the Germanic group. It is supposed to have split from related IE tongues sometime between the 15th and 10th centuries B.C.

As the Indo-Europeans extended over a larger territory the ancient Germans or Teutons moved further north than other tribes and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe. This place is regarded as the most probable original home of the Teutons. It is here that they developed their first specifically Germanic linguistic features which made them a separate group in the IE family.

It is believed that at the earliest stages of history PG was fundamentally one language, though dialectally coloured. In its later stages dialectal differences grew, so that toward the beginning of our era Germanic appears divided into dialectal groups and tribal dialects. Dialectal differentiation increased with the migrations and

geographical expansion of the Teutons caused by overpopulation, poor agricultural technique and scanty natural resources in the areas of their original settlement.

Towards the beginning of our era the common period of Germanic history came to an end. The Teutons had extended over a large territory and the PG language broke into parts. The tri-partite division of the Germanic languages proposed by 19th century philologists corresponds, with a few adjustments, to Pliny's grouping of the Old Teutonic tribes. According to this division PG split into three branches: East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic. In due course three branches split into separate Germanic languages.

East Germanic. The East Germanic subgroup was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful of them were the Goths. They were among the first Teutons to leave the coast of the Baltic Sea and start on their migrations to the territory of Roman Empire and Northern Italy.

The Gothic Language, now dead, has been preserved in written records of 4th-6th centuries. The Goths were the first of the Teutons to become Christian. In the 4th century Ulfilas, a West Gothic bishop, made a translation of the Gospels from Greek into Gothic using a modified form of the Greek alphabet. It is one of the earliest texts in the languages of the Germanic group; it represents a form of language very close to PG and therefore throws light on the pre-written stages of history of all the languages of the Germanic group.

North Germanic. The Teutons who stayed in Scandinavia after departure of the Goths gave rise to the North Germanic subgroup of languages. The North Germanic tribes lived on the southern coast of the Scandinavian Peninsula and in Northern Denmark. The speech of the North Germanic tribes showed little dialectal variation until the 9th century and is regarded as a sort of common North Germanic parent-language called Old Norse or Old Scandinavian. It has come down to us in runic

inscriptions dated from the 3d to the 9th centuries. The disintegration of Old Norse into separate dialects and languages began after the 9th century, when the Scandinavians started out on their sea voyages.

The principal linguistic differentiation in Scandinavia corresponded to the political division into Sweden, Denmark and Norway. The three kingdoms constantly fought for dominance and the relative position of the three languages altered, as one or another of the powers prevailed over its neighbours. For several hundred years Denmark was the most powerful of the Scandinavian kingdoms. By the 14th century Norway fell under Danish rule too. Sweden regained its independence in the 16th century, while Norway remained a backward Danish colony up to the early 19th century. Consequently, both Swedish and Norwegian were influenced by Danish.

The earliest written records in Old Danish, Old Norwegian and Old Swedish date from the 13th century. In the later Middle Ages, with the growth of capitalist relations and the unification of the countries, Danish, Swedish and the Norwegian developed into national literary languages.

In addition to the 3 languages on the mainland the North Germanic subgroup includes two more languages: Icelandic and Faroese whose origin goes back to the Viking Age.

Beginning with the 8th century the Scandinavian sea-rovers and merchants undertook distant sea voyages and set up their colonies in many territories. Linguistically, in most areas of their expansion, the Scandinavian settlers were assimilated by the native population. In the Faroe Islands the West Norwegian dialects brought by the Scandinavians developed into a separate language called Faroese.

Iceland was practically uninhabited at the time of the first Scandinavian settlements. Their Western Scandinavian dialects eventually grew into an independent language, Icelandic. Old Icelandic written records date from the 12th

and 13th centuries. Modern Icelandic is very much like Old Icelandic and Old Norse, for it has not participated in the linguistic changes which took place in the other Scandinavian languages, probably because of its geographical isolation.

West Germanic. Around the beginning of our era the West Germanic tribes dwelt in the lowlands between the Oder and the Elbe. The dialectal differentiation of West Germanic was probably quite distinct. On the eve of their "great migrations" of the 4th and 5th centuries the West Germans included several tribes. The Franconians (or Franks) occupied the lower basin of the Rhine; from there they spread up the Rhine and are accordingly subdivided into Low, Middle and High Franconians. The Angles and the Frisians, the Jutes and the Saxons inhabited the coastal area of the modern Netherlands, the Federal Republic of Germany and the southern part of Denmark. A group of tribes known as High Germans lived in the mountainous southern regions of the Federal Republic of Germany.

In the early Middle Ages the Franks consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance, towards the 8th century their kingdom grew into one of the largest states in Western Europe. The Holy Roman Empire of the Franks embraced France and half of Italy and stretched northwards up to the North and Baltic Sea. The empire lacked ethnic and economic unity and in the 9th century broke up into parts. Its western part eventually became the basis of France, the population of which spoke a local variety of Latin, which developed into French.

The modern language of the Netherlands, formerly called Dutch, and its variant in Belgium, known as the Flemish dialect, are now treated as a single language, Netherlandish. About 300 years ago the Dutch language was brought to South Africa by colonists from Southern Holland. Their dialects in Africa eventually grew into a separate West Germanic language, Afrikaans. Afrikaans has incorporated elements from the speech of English and German colonists in Africa and from the tongues of the native. Writing in Afrikaans began at the end of the 19th century.

The High German group of tribes didn't go far in their migrations. The Alemanians, Bavarians and Thuringians expanded east, driving the Slavonic tribes from places of their early settlement.

The High German dialects consolidated into a common language known as Old High German. The first written records in it date from the 8 and 9 centuries. Towards the 12th century High German (known as Middle High German) had intermixed with neighbouring tongues and eventually developed into the literary German language, the Written Standard of New High German was established after the Reformation (16th century) though no Spoken Standard existed until the 19th century as Germany remained politically divided into a number of kingdoms and dukedoms.

Another offshoot of High German is Yiddish. It grew from the High German dialects which were adopted by numerous Jewish communities scattered over Germany in the 11th, 12th centuries. These dialects blended with elements of Hebrew and Slavonic and developed into a separate West Germanic language with a spoken and literary form. Yiddish was exported from Germany to many other countries.

At the later stage of the great migration period (the 5th century) a group of West Germanic tribes started out on their invasion of the British Isles. The dialects of the Angles, Saxons and Jutes in the British Isles develop into the English language, the first English written records have come down from the 7th century, which is the earliest date in the history of writing in the West Germanic subgroup.

Chronological Divisions in the History of English. Short Survey of Periods. The historical development of a language is a continuous uninterrupted process without sudden breaks or rapid transformations. Therefore any periodisation imposed on language history by linguists with precise date might appear artificial. Yet in all language histories division into periods is used for teaching and research purposes. The commonly accepted, traditional periodisation divides English history into

3 periods: Old English (OE), Middle English (ME) and New English (NE). OE begins with the Germanic settlement of Britain (5th century) or with the beginning of writing (7th century) and ends with the Norman conquest(1066); ME begins with the Norman Conquest and ends on the introduction of printing (1475), which is the start of the Modern or New English period (Mod E or NE); the New period lasts to the present day.

Division into chronological periods should take into account both aspects: external and internal (extra- and intralinguistic). The following periodisation of English history is partly based on the conventional three periods; it subdivides the history of the English language into 7 periods differing in linguistic situation and the nature of linguistic changes.

The 1st – pre-written or pre-historical period, which may be termed Early English, lasts from the West Germanic invasion of Britain till the beginning of writing, that is from the 5th to the close of the 7th centuries. It is the stage of tribal dialects of the West Germanic invaders (Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians), which were gradually losing contacts with the related continental tongues. The tribal dialects were used for oral communication, there was no written form of English. It was the period from PG to written OE. Early OE linguistic changes, particularly numerous sound changes, marked OE off from PG and from other OG languages.

The second historical period extends from the 8th century till the end of the 11th century. The English language of that time is referred to as Old English or Anglo-Saxon. The tribal dialects gradually changed into local or regional dialects. Towards the end of the period the differences between the dialects grew and their relative position altered. They were probably equal as a medium of oral communication, while in the sphere of writing one of the dialects, West Saxon, had gained supremacy over the other dialects because of the rise of the kingdom of Wessex at the time.

The language of this historical period is treated as a more or less stable system. Careful examination of OE texts has revealed the increasing in the 10th and 11th centuries, which testifies to growing divergence instability of the language.

The 3d period, known as Early Middle English, starts after 1066, the year of the Norman Conquest, and covers the 12th, 13th and half of the 14th centuries. It was the stage of the Great dialectal divergence caused by the feudal system and foreign influences – Scandinavian and French. The dialectal division of present-day English owes its origin to this period of history.

Under Norman rule the official language in England was French, or rather its variety called Anglo-French or Anglo-Norman; it was also the dominant language in literature. The local dialects were mainly used for oral communication and were but little employed in writing. Toward the end of the period their literary prestige grew, as English began to displace French in the sphere of writing as well as in other ones. Dialectal divergence and lack of official English made a favorable environment for intensive linguistic change.

Early ME was a time of great changes at all the levels of the language, especially in lexis and grammar. Grammatical alterations were so drastic that by the end of the period they had transformed English from a high inflected language into a mainly analytical one; the role of the syntactical connection grew.

The fourth period – from the later 14th century till the end of the 15th century. We may call it Late or Classical Middle English. It was the time of the restoration of English to the position of the state and literary language and the time of literary flourishing. The main dialect used in writing and literature was the mixed dialect of London.

In periods of literary efflorescence like the age of Chaucer, the pattern set by great authors becomes a more or less fixed form of language. Chaucer's language was a recognized literary form, imitated throughout the 15th century. Literary flourishing

had a stabilizing effect on language, so that the rate of linguistic changes was slowed down. At the same time the written forms of the language developed and improved.

The 5 period – Early New English – lasted from the introduction of printing to the age of Shakespeare that is from 1475 to 1660. The first printed book in English was published by William Saxton in 1475. This period is a sort of transition between two outstanding epochs of literary efflorescence the age of Chaucer and the age of Shakespeare (also known as the Literary Renaissance).

Saxton's English of the printed books was a sort of bridge between the London literary English of the ME period and the language of the Literary Renaissance. The London dialect had risen to prominence as a compromise between the various types of speech prevailing in the country and formed the basis of the growing national literary language.

The early NE period was a time of sweeping changes at all levels, in the first place lexical and phonetic. The growth of the vocabulary was a national reflection of the progress of culture in the new, bourgeois society, and of the wider horizons of man's activity. New words from internal and external sources enriched the vocabulary. Extensive phonetic changes were transforming the vowel system, which resulted, among other things, in the growing gap between the written and the spoken forms of the word (that is, between pronunciation and spelling). The loss of most inflectional endings in the 15th century justifies the definition "period of lost endings" given by H. Sweet to the NE period.

The sixth period extends from the mid 17th century to the close of the 18th century. In the history of the language it is often called "the age of normalization and correctness", in the history of literature – the "neo-classical" age. This age witnessed the establishment of "norms", which can be defined as received standards recognized as correct at the given period. The norms were fixed as rules and prescriptions of

correct usage in the numerous dictionaries and grammar books published at the time and were spread through education and writing.

It is essential that during the 18th century literary English differentiated into distinct styles, which is a property of a mature literary language. It is also important to note that during this period the English language extended its area far beyond the borders of the British Isles, first of all to North America.

The English language of the 19th and 20th centuries represents the seventh period in the history of English – Late New English or Modern English. By the 19th century English had achieved the relative stability typical of an age of literary florescence and had acquired all the properties of a national language, with its functional stratification and recognized standards though, like any living language, English continued to grow and change. The classical language of literature was strictly distinguished from the local dialects and the dialects of lower social ranks. The dialects were used in oral communication and, as a rule, had no literary tradition; dialect writing was limited to conversations interpolated in books composed of Standard English or to recording folklore.

The 20th century witnessed considerable intermixture of dialects. The local dialects are now retreating, being displaced by standard English. The "best" form of English, the Received Standard, and also the regional modified standards are being spread through new channels: the press, radio, cinema and television.

THE GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION OF THE UK

THE GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND.

SEAS, OCEANS, RIVERS AND LAKES.

MOUNTAINS.

CLIMATE.

POPULATION

The British Isles lie off the north-west coast of Europe. Their total area is about 244,100 square km. The two largest islands are Great Britain and Ireland. Great Britain, which forms the greater part of the British Isles, comprises England, Wales and Scotland. Ireland comprises Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic. The Isle of Wight is off the southern coast of England. The Isles of Scilly are off the south-west coast of England and Anglesey is off North Wales, The Orkneys and Shetlands are to the far north of Scotland. The Isle of Man is in the Irish Sea and the Channel Islands are between Great Britain and France. The Isle of Man and the Channel Islands are not part of England, Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland. They have a certain administrative autonomy.

England has a total area of 50,333 square miles (130,362 sq. km). It is divided into counties, of which there are 39 geographical ones and 46 administrative ones. Wales has a total area of 8,017 square miles (20,764 sq. km) and is divided into 13 counties. Scotland together with its 186 inhabited islands has a total area of 30,414 square miles (78,772 sq. km). It has 33 counties. Northern Ireland consists of

6 counties and has a total area of 5,462 square miles (14,121 sq. km). The total land area of the United Kingdom is 93,027 square miles (240,940 sq. km).

Great Britain is bordered by the Atlantic Ocean on the north-west, north and south-west. It is separated from Europe by the North Sea, the Straits of Dover or Pas de Calais, and the English Channel or La Manche, a French name which means "a sleeve". The North Sea and the English Channel are often called the "Narrow Seas". They are not deep but frequently are rough and difficult to navigate during storms, which makes crossing from England to France sometimes far from pleasant. On the west Great Britain is separated from Ireland by the Irish Sea and the North Channel.

The seas around Britain are shallow and provide exceptionally good fishing grounds. The British Isles appear to stand on a raised part of the sea bed, usually called the continental shelf, which thousands of years ago used to be dry land and which constituted part of mainland Europe. This shelf forms the sea floor around Britain and that is why the seas surrounding the British Isles are shallow (about 300 ft or 90 m).

The chief rivers of Great Britain are: the Severn, the Thames, the Trent, the Aire, the Great Ouse, the Wye, the Tay, the Clyde, the Spey, the Tweed, the Tyne. The rivers of Britain are of no great value as water-ways and few of them are navigable. The longest river is the Thames (200 miles). There are many beautiful lakes in the country.

The most important ports are: London, Liverpool, Southampton, Belfast, Glasgow and Cardiff. Southampton is Britain's largest port for ocean going liners. Portsmouth is a naval port with some shipbuilding. Milford Haven (in Wales) is one of British major oil ports.

In Scotland there are three distinct regions: the Highlands, the central plain or Lowlands and the southern uplands ("the Scott country") with their gently rounded hills. In England and Wales all the high land is in the west and north-west. The south-eastern plain reaches the west coast only at one or two places – at the Bristol Channel and by the mouths of the rivers Dee and Mersey.

In the north you find the Cheviots separating England from Scotland, the Pennines going down England and the Cumbrian mountains of the Lake District. In the west are the Cambrian mountains which occupy the greater part of Wales. The highest peak of the country is Ben Nevis (1343 m) in Scotland.

Lying in middle latitudes Britain has a mild and temperate climate. In the classification of climates Britain falls generally into the cool, temperate, humid type.

The prevalent westerly winds blowing into Britain from the Atlantic are rough and carry the warmth and moisture of lower latitudes into Britain. As the weather changes with the wind, and Britain is visited by winds from different parts of the world ranging from polar to tropical regions it is but natural that the most characteristic feature of Britain's weather is its variability. Although the weather is as changeable as it could be in such a relatively small region, the extremes are hardly ever severe. The temperature rarely exceeds 32 °C or falls below zero. Still the wind may bring winter cold in spring or summer days in October.

Britain's rainfall depends to a great extent on topography and exposure to the Atlantic. In the mountainous areas there is more rain than in the plains of the south and east. The heavy rain that falls in the mountains runs off quickly down steeply graded valleys where it can be stored in reservoirs which provide water for the lowland towns and cities. Droughts occur but rarely and crops are never a complete loss. The occasional little whirlwind (a twister) can uproot houses, heavy snowfalls can immobilize traffic locally, the rare glazed frost and the much commoner icy roads can cause great inconvenience, but fog is the worst weather hazard, causing collisions and death on roads and railways. The driest period is from March to June and the wettest months are from October to January.

The total population of the UK is over 59 million (59554000) people. The UK is inhabited by the English – 49856 million, who constitute about 83 % of the total population, the Scots – 5057 million (8,5 %), the Welsh – 2938 million (about 5 %), the Irish – 1703 million, constituting 2,9 % of the total population. Among other

nationalities inhabiting the UK there are Gaels, Jews, Poles, Germans, Frenchmen, Italians as well as migrants from India, Pakistan and African countries.

English is the official language of the country. Besides standard literary English there are many regional and social dialects. The vocabulary of the dialects died out, but the accents and few bits of distinctive grammar remain. And it is the accent which gives visitors with knowledge of the English language problems and even a shock. Some accents are so strong that they present problems for the British, too.

English is the language predominantly spoken in all the four parts of the UK. Wales, however, is bilingual as a result of the long struggle of the Welsh to preserve their language. Welsh is the first language of the majority of the population in most of western counties.

The Celtic language still exists as Gaelic in Scotland and Ireland. In Scotland some 100000 people, mainly in the Highlands and western coastal regions and in the Hebrides, are able to speak the Scottish form of Gaelic. A few families in Northern Ireland speak the Irish form of Gaelic. French is still the official language of Jersey (the Channel Isles) and on the Isle of Man. It is used for ceremonial and official procedure. Both French and English are used in courts.

Britain is a highly urbanized country, 90 % of its population live in cities and towns, and only 10 % are rural inhabitants. There are 8 major metropolitan areas known as conurbations which accommodate a third of Great Britain's people while comprising less than 3 % of the total land area. They are: Greater London, Central Clydeside, Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Tyne and Wear, the West Midlands and West Yorkshire. Most of the mountainous part, including much of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland and the central Pennines, are very sparsely populated.

As in many other developed countries the recent trend shows a movement of people away from the main conurbations (particularly their centres) to the surrounding suburbs.

THE MAIN EVENTS IN THE HISTORY OF BRITAIN

THE FIRST SETTLERS ON THE BRITISH ISLES.

THE ROMAN INVASION.

THE FIRST KING OF ENGLAND.

THE CONVERSION OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS TO CHRISTIANITY.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

THE ENGLISH BOURGEOIS REVOLUTION.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION. CHARTISM.

VICTORIAN BRITAIN

The people who now live in Britain are descended from various peoples who inhabited the British Isles many centuries ago. From the earliest times known a long succession of invaders and colonisers moved to the British Isles as they lay within the easy reach of the continent. The first settlers on the British Isles were Iberians who came from the Iberian peninsular (the area of Spain and Portugal) between **3000 BC and 2000 BC**. The Iberians stayed comparatively long before they were attacked, slain or driven westwards by the numerous Celtic tribes (Picts, Scots and Britons), which came from central Europe and the Rhine valley in the period between the 6th and 3d centuries BC. They were pagan, with priests known as Druids. In the middle of the 1st century AD Britain was successfully invaded by the Romans who stayed on the island for four centuries, living in military camps, building towns, roads, walls and bridges, so that to defend their gains (seized territories) from other invaders. The Romans left

behind them in the language of Britain many words denoting the names of things such as street, port, wall. After the Roman legions left Britain at the beginning of the 5th century to defend their own Empire from the barbarians, the British Isles were almost immediately attacked by numerous invaders from all sides. Germanic tribes – the Jutes, the Saxon and the Angles attacked Britain from the south and east, Danes and Norsemen from Scandinavia in the north-east. Again the native population was driven to the west (Wales) and north (Scotland). These tribes gave the name to the country, and their language formed the basis of the old English language.

In the 9th century the greatest kingdoms Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex struggled for predominance. In 829 Egbert, King of Wessex, was acknowledged by Kent, Northumbria and Mercia and Egbert became the first king of England. Under his rule all the small Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were united to form one kingdom which was called England from that time on.

The conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity began at the end of the 6th century (597) and was completed, in the main, in the second half of the 7th century. In 597 the Roman Pope sent about forty monks to Britain to convert the Anglo-Saxons. The first church was built in the town of Canterbury, the capital of Kent, that is why the Archbishop of Canterbury is now Head of the Church of England.

The last in the long successions of invaders on the British Isles were the Normans, the Norsemen who had assimilated in France. In 1066, led by Duke of Normandy (who went into history as William the Conqueror), they crossed the Channel and conquered England, subduing the Anglo-Saxons. For almost two centuries there were two languages, two nations and two cultures in the country. Norman-French was the language of the ruling class, the official language of the country, while Anglo-Saxon (old English) was spoken by the majority of the oppressed

native population. The victorious Normans gradually broke their ties with France and by the 13th century had mingled in blood and language with Anglo-Saxons and united into one nation, speaking one language, born as a result of the marriage of the two nations and the two languages. The new English (Middle English) greatly enriched and changed under the influence of Norman-French, had become the language of educated classes and the official language of the state by the end of the 13th century. Such words as baron, serve, court, battle, victory appeared in the English language.

The basis of feudal society was the holding of land, and its main purpose was economic. The central idea was that all land was owned by the king but it was held by others, called "vassals", in return for services and goods. The king gave large estates to his main nobles in return for a promise to serve him in war for up to forty days. The nobles also had to give him part of the produce of the land. The greater nobles gave part of their lands to lesser nobles, knights, and other "freemen". Some freemen paid for the land by doing military service, while others paid rent. The noble kept "serfs" to work on his own land. These were not free to leave the estate, and were often little better than slaves. There were two basic principles to feudalism: every man had a lord, and every lord had land. The king was connected through this "chain" of people to the lowest man in the country. At each level a man had to promise loyalty and service to his lord.

One of the most important events in the British history was the English **Bourgeois Revolution (1642–1648)** which marked the beginning of capitalism in the country. The bourgeoisie and the gentry led the peasants and the townsmen against the absolute monarchy. The struggle between Charles I and Parliament finished with the victory of the second. Oliver Cromwell was the leader in the English Revolution. He created an army of a New Model – of educated people, with able leaders, iron

discipline and regular pay. He consolidated his position by subjugating Ireland and Scotland and uniting them with England. The fact that popular masses took the side of Parliament (Roundheads, as they cut their hair short) against the Royalists (or Cavaliers) decided the results of the Civil War: The monarchy was overthrown, Charles I was beheaded, the House of Lords was abolished as "useless and dangerous", the Commonwealth (or Free State, or Republic) was proclaimed.

Cromwell, now titled the Protector, enforced justice and order at home and made England stronger and more respected abroad. The following democratic ideas initiated by the Levellers were proclaimed: all men should have equal opportunities and should make or mar their fortunes by their own efforts, not by accident of their birth and the class to which their parents belonged; all the citizens of the state should have a voice in making of its laws; no attempt should be made to interfere with sincere and honest views of any man about religion, if they did not tend to popery. After the death of Cromwell the monarchy was restored.

Well before the end of the eighteenth century Britain was as powerful as France. This resulted from the growth of its industries and from the wealth of its large new trading empire, part of which had been captured from the French. Britain now had the strongest navy in the world; the navy controlled Britain's own trade routes and endangered those of its enemies. It was the deliberate policy of the government to create this trading empire, and to protect it with a strong navy. This was made possible by the way in which government had developed during the eighteenth century.

For the first time, it was the king's ministers who were the real policy and decision-makers. Power now belonged to the groups from which the ministers came, and their supporters in Parliament. These ministers ruled over a country which had

become wealthy through trade. This wealth, or "capital", made possible both an agricultural and an industrial revolution which made Britain the most advanced economy in the world.

However, there was an enormous price to pay, because while a few people became richer, many others lost their land, their homes and their way of life. Families were driven off the land in another period of enclosures. They became the working "proletariat" of the cities that made Britain's trade and industrial empire of the nineteenth century possible. The invention of machinery destroyed the old "cottage industries" and created factories. The development of industry led to the sudden growth of cities like Birmingham, Glasgow, Manchester and Liverpool and other centres in the north Midlands.

Several influences came together at the same time to revolutionise Britain's industry: money, labour, a greater demand for goods, new power, and better transport. By the end of the eighteenth century, some families had made huge private fortunes. Growing merchant hanks helped put this money to use.

By the early eighteenth century simple machines had already been invented for basic jobs. They could make large quantities of simple goods quickly and cheaply so that "mass production" became possible for the first time. Each machine carried out one simple process, which introduced the idea of "division of labour" among workers. This was to become an important part of the industrial revolution. By the 1740s the main problem holding back industrial growth was fuel. There was less wood, and in any case wood could not produce the heat necessary to make iron and steel either in large quantities or of high quality. But at this time the use of coal for changing iron ore into good quality iron or steel was perfected, and this made Britain the leading iron producer in Europe. This happened only just in time for the many

wars in which Britain was to fight, mainly against France, for the rest of the century. The demand for coal grew very quickly. In 1800 Britain was producing four times as much coal as it had done in 1700, and eight times as much iron.

Increased iron production made it possible to manufacture new machinery for other industries. No one saw this more clearly than John Wilkinson, a man with a total belief in iron. He built the largest ironworks in the country. When James Watt made a greatly improved steam engine in 1769, Wilkinson improved it further by making parts of the engine more accurately with his special skills in ironworking. In this way the skills of one craft helped the skills of another. Until then steam engines had only been used for pumping, usually in coal mines. **But in 1781 Watt** produced an engine with a turning motion, made of iron and steel. It was a vital development because people were now no longer dependent on natural power.

One invention led to another, and increased production in one area led to increased production in others. Other basic materials of the industrial revolution were cotton and woollen cloth, which were popular abroad. In the middle of the century other countries were buying British uniforms, equipment and weapons for their armies. To meet this increased demand, better methods of production had to be found, and new machinery was invented which replaced handwork. The production of cotton goods had been limited by the spinning process, which could not provide enough cotton thread for the weavers. In 1764 a spinning machine was invented which could do the work of several hand spinners, and other improved machines were made shortly after. With the far greater production of cotton thread, the slowest part of the cotton clothmaking industry became weaving. In 1785 a power machine for weaving revolutionised clothmaking. It allowed Britain to make cloth more cheaply than elsewhere, and Lancashire cotton cloths were sold in every

continent. But this machinery put many people out of work. It also changed what had been a "cottage industry" done at home into a factory industry, where workers had to keep work hours and rules set down by factory owners.

In the Midlands, factories using locally found clay began to develop very quickly, and produced fine quality plates, cups and other china goods. These soon replaced the old metal plates and drinking cups that had been used. Soon large quantities of china were being exported. The most famous factory was one started by Josiah Wedgwood. His high quality bone china became very popular, as it still is.

The social effects of the industrial revolution were enormous. Workers tried to join together to protect themselves against powerful employers. They wanted fair wages and reasonable conditions in which to work. But the government quickly banned these "combinations", as the workers' societies were known. Riots occurred, led by the unemployed who had been replaced in factories by machines. In 1799 some of these rioters, known as Luddites, started to break up the machinery which had put them out of work. The government supported the factory owners, and made the breaking of machinery punishable by death. The government was afraid of a revolution like the one in France.

The stronghold of Chartism, as of Trade Unionism, lay in the industrial North, but its origin was among the Radical artisans of London. The London Working-Men's Association was formed in June 1836 as a political and educational body intended to attract the "intelligent and influential portion of the working class". In February 1837 the Association drew up a petition to Parliament in which were embodied the six demands that afterwards became known as the People's Charter. They were: equal electoral districts; abolition of the property qualifications for MPs; universal manhood suffrage; annual Parliaments; vote by ballot; the payment of MPs. These

demands were accepted with enthusiasm by hundreds of thousands of industrial workers who saw in them the means to remove their intolerable economic grievances.

In the spring of 1838 the Six Points were drafted into the form of a Parliamentary Bill, and it was this draft Bill which became the actual Charter of history. It was endorsed at gigantic meetings all over the country. At all these meetings the Charter received emphatic approval and the tactics by which it was proposed to secure its acceptance soon took shape. These were a campaign of great demonstrations, a mass petition to Parliament and, if the petition were rejected, a political general strike. A Reform Bill was rejected by Parliament and a number of demonstrations swept the country. Parliament had to use troops.

The failure of Chartism was partly a result of the weaknesses of its leadership and tactics. But they were only a reflection of the newness and immaturity of the working class. Politically, the twenty years after 1848 afford a striking contrast to the Chartist decade. The attempt to create a great, independent party of the working class was not repeated: political activity became more localized, or was confined to some immediate practical issue, but it never ceased to exist. Its strength was that while in Europe the working classes were still dragging at the tail of the industrial bourgeoisie, in England the workers were able by 1838 to appear as an independent force and were already realizing that the industrial bourgeoisie were their principal enemy.

QUEEN VICTORIA (1819–1901) came to the throne in 1837. Because of the growth of parliamentary government she was less powerful than previous sovereigns. However, she ruled over more lands and peoples than any previous sovereigns and enjoyed the respect and affection of her British subjects. Her reign is called "the

golden age" in the history of Britain. No other nation could produce as much at that time. By 1850 Britain was producing more iron than the rest of the world together.

Britain had become powerful because it had enough coal, iron and steel for its own enormous industry, and could even export them in large quantities to Europe. With these materials it could produce new heavy industrial goods like iron ships and steam engines. It could also make machinery which produced traditional goods like woollen and cotton cloth in the factories of Lancashire. Britain's cloth was cheap and was exported to India, to other colonies and throughout the Middle East, where it quickly destroyed the local cloth industry, causing great misery. Britain made and owned more than half the world's total shipping. This great industrial empire was supported by a strong banking system developed during the eighteenth century.

By the end of the nineteenth century Britain controlled the oceans and much of the land areas of the world. Most British strongly believed in their right to an empire, and were willing to defend it against the least threat. But even at this moment of greatest power, Britain had begun to spend more on its empire than it took from it. The empire had started to be a heavy load. It would become impossibly heavy in the twentieth century, when the colonies finally began to demand their freedom.

CULTURAL LIFE IN BRITAIN. TRADITIONS. HOLIDAYS

CULTURAL LIFE IN BRITAIN.

MUSIC.

THEATRE.

TRADITIONS.

HOLIDAYS

Artistic and cultural life in Britain is rather rich. It passed several main stages in its development. The Saxon King Alfred encouraged the arts and culture. The chief debt owed to him by English literature is for his translations of and commentaries on Latin works.

Art, culture and literature flowered during the Elizabethan age, during the reign of Elizabeth I; it was the period of English domination of the oceans. It was at this time that William Shakespeare lived. The empire, which was very powerful under Queen Victoria, saw another cultural and artistic heyday as a result of industrialization and the expansion of international trade.

But German air raids caused much damage in the First World War and then during the Second World War. The madness of the wars briefly interrupted the development of culture. Immigrants who have arrived from all parts of the Commonwealth since 1945 have not only created a mixture of nations, but have also brought their cultures and habits with them.

Monuments and traces of past greatness are everywhere. There are buildings of all styles and periods. A great number of museums and galleries display precious

and interesting finds from all parts of the world and from all stages in the development of nature, man and art. London is one of the leading world centres for music, drama, opera and dance. Festivals held in towns and cities throughout the country attract much interest. Many British playwrights, composers, sculptors, painters, writers, actors, singers and dancers are known all over the world.

The people living in the British Isles are very fond of music, and it is quite natural that concerts of the leading symphony orchestras, numerous folk groups and pop music are very popular.

The Promenade concerts are probably the most famous. They were first held in 1840 in the Queen's Hall, and later were directed by Sir Henry Wood. They still continue today in the Royal Albert Hall. They take place every night for about three months in the summer, and the programmes include new and contemporary works, as well as classics. Among them are symphonies and other pieces of music composed by Benjamin Britten, the famous English musician. Usually, there is a short winter season lasting for about a fortnight. The audience may either listen to the music from a seat or from the 'promenade', where they can stand or stroll about, or, if there is room, sit down on the floor.

Concerts are rarely given out-of-doors today except for concerts by brass bands and military bands who play in the parks and at seaside resorts during the summer.

Folk music is still very much alive. There are many folk groups. Their harmony singing and good humour win them friends everywhere.

Rock and pop music is extremely popular, especially among younger people. In the 60s and 70s groups such as the Beatles, the Rolling Stones, the Who, Led Zeppelin and Pink Floyd became very popular and successful.

The Beatles, with their style of singing new and exciting, their wonderful sense of humour became the most successful pop group the world has ever known. Many of the famous songs written by John Lennon and Paul McCartney are still popular.

Some of the more recent rock groups are Eurhythmies, Dire Straits, Black Sabbath, and many others. British groups often set new trends in music. New stars and styles continue to appear. One of the most popular contemporary musicians and composers is Andrew Lloyd Webber. The musicals and rock operas by A.L. Webber have been a great success both in Britain and overseas.

Britain is now one of the world's major theatres centres. Many British actors and actresses are known all over the world. They are Dame Peggy Ashcroft, Glenda Jackson, Laurence Olivier, John Gielgud and others.

Drama is so popular with people of all ages that there are several thousand amateur dramatic societies. Now Britain has about 300 professional theatres. Some of them are privately owned. The tickets are not hard to get, but they are very expensive. Regular seasons of opera and ballet are given at the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden in London. The National Theatre stages modern and classical plays, the Royal Shakespeare Company produces plays mainly by Shakespeare and his contemporaries when it performs in Stratford-on-Avon, and modern plays in its two auditoria in the City's Barbican Centre.

Shakespeare's Globe Playhouse, about which you have probably read, was reconstructed on its original site. Many other cities and large towns have at least one theatre.

There are many theatres and theatre companies for young people: the National Youth Theatre and the Young Vic Company in London, the Scottish Youth Theatre in Edinburgh. The National Youth Theatre, which stages classical plays mainly by Shakespeare and modern plays about youth, was on tour in Russia in 1989. The theatre-goers warmly received the production of Thomas Stearns Eliot's play 'Murder

in the Cathedral'. Many famous English actors started their careers in the National Youth Theatre. Among them Timothy Dalton, the actor who did the part of Rochester in 'Jane Eyre' shown on TV in our country.

The British people are very proud of their traditions, cherish them and carefully keep them up, because many of them are associated with the history and cultural development of the country. Speaking about British traditions we should distinguish bank, or public holidays, annual festivals, celebrations and pageant ceremonies.

There are eight public holidays a year in Great Britain, that is days on which people need not go in to work. They are: Christmas Day, Boxing Day, New Year's Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, May Day, Spring Bank Holiday and Late Summer Bank Holiday. Most of these holidays are of religious origin, though it would be true to say that for the greater part of the population they have long lost their religious significance and are simply days on which people relax, eat, drink and make merry. All the public holidays, except Christmas Day and Boxing Day observed on December 25th and 26th respectively, are movable, that is they do not fall on the same date each year. Good Friday and Easter Monday depend on Easter Sunday which falls on the first Sunday after a full moon on or after March 21st. May Day falls on the first Monday in May The Spring Bank Holiday fall: on the last Monday of May, while the Late Summer Bank Holiday comes on the last Monday in August.

Besides public holidays, there are other festivals, anniversaries and celebration days on which certain traditions are observed, but unless they fall on a Sunday, they are ordinary working days. They are: St. Valentine's Day, Pancake Day, April Fool's Day, Bonfire Night (or Guy Fawkes' Night), Remembrance (or Poppy) Day, Halloween and many others including Royal Ascot – the biggest horse race in Britain, the Proms – a series of classical music concerts, the London Marathon, Harvest Festival, Dog Shows and so on.

The British people are also proud of pageants and ceremonies of the national capital – London. Many of them are world famous and attract numerous tourists from all over the world. They include daily ceremonies and annuals. Changing of the Guard at Buckingham Palace at 11.30 a. m., Ceremony of the Keys at 10 p. m. in the Tower, Mounting the Guard at the Horse Guards square are most popular daily ceremonies. Of those which are held annually the oldest and the most cherished are: the glorious pageantry of Trooping the Colour; Opening of the Courts marking the start of the Legal Year in October; and the Lord Mayor's Show on the second Saturday in November, when the newly elected Lord Mayor is driven in the beautiful gilded coach pulled by 6 white horses to the Royal Court of Justice where he takes his oath of office and becomes second in importance in the City only to the Sovereign.

BRITISH SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Pre-school Education.

Secondary Education.

Higher Education.

Further Education

Pre-school education. Compulsory education in Britain begins at the age of 5 but in some areas there are Nursery Schools for children under 5 years of age. Some children between 2–5 receive education in nursery classes or in infant classes in Primary Schools. Many children attend informal pre-school play-grounds organized by parents in private homes. Nursery schools are staffed with teachers and students in training. There are all kinds of toys to keep the children busy from 9 o'clock in the morning till 4 o'clock in the afternoon – while their parents are at work. Here the babies play, lunch and sleep. They can run about and play in safety with someone keeping an eye on them. For day nurseries, which remain open all the year round, the parents pay according to their income. The local education authority's nurseries are free. But only about 3 children in 100 can go to them: there aren't enough places, and the waiting lists are rather long.

Primary (elementary) education. Most children start school at the age of 5 in a primary school. A Primary School is divided into Infant and Junior ones. At Infant Schools reading, writing and arithmetic (three "Rs") are taught for about 20 minutes a day during the first year, gradually increasing to about two hours in their last year. There is usually no written timetable. Much time is spent in modelling from clay

or drawing, reading or singing. By the time children are ready for the Junior School they will be able to read and write, do simple addition and subtraction of numbers.

At the age of 7 children go on from the Infants School to the Junior School. This marks the transition from play to "real work". The children have set periods of arithmetic, reading and composition which are all "Eleven Plus" subjects. History, Geography, Nature Study, Art and Music, Physical Education, Swimming are also on the timetable. Core subjects are English, Maths, Science. Exams in them are taken at the age of 7 and 11.

Pupils are streamed, according to their ability to learn, into A-, B-, C- and D-stream. The least gifted are in the D-stream. Formerly towards the end of their fourth year the pupils wrote their "Eleven Plus" Examination. The hated examination was a selective procedure on which not only the pupils' future schooling but their future careers depended. The abolition of selection at "Eleven Plus" Examination brought to life Comprehensive Schools where pupils of all abilities can get secondary education.

Secondary education. Comprehensive Schools dominate among all types of schools in secondary education: 90 % of all state-financed Secondary Schools are of this type. Most other children receive secondary education in Grammar, Secondary Modern and very few Secondary Technical Schools. Those who can pay go to Public Schools.

Comprehensive Schools. Comprehensive Schools were introduced in 1965. The idea of comprehensive education, supported by the Labour Party, was to give all children of whatever background the same opportunity in education. So Comprehensive Schools are non-selective ("all-in") schools, which provide a wide range of secondary education for all the children of a district. They are the most important type of school because they are attended by 88 % of all Secondary School pupils. All Scottish state pupils also attend nonselective schools.

There are various ways in which a Comprehensive School can be organized. It can be by "streaming" within the school try to keep children of approximately similar ability in one group or class; or it can leave the children to choose between large numbers of courses; or it can combine the two methods. Pupils may leave the school at the age of 16 or 18. Comprehensive Schools are often very large with up to 2000 pupils.

Grammar Schools. A Grammar School mainly provides an exam-centred academic course from 11 to 18. It is the main route to the universities and the professions. A large proportion of university students is recruited from Grammar Schools, though they make 3 % of all schools.

Most Grammar School pupils remain at school until 18 or 19 years old, especially if they want to go on to a university. Some degree of specialisation, especially as between arts and science subjects, is usual in the upper forms. The top form is always called the "sixth form". Pupils may remain in this form **for 2–3 years**, until they leave school. Selection of Primary School children for Grammar Schools is usually based on school record cards, teachers' reports, tests and consultation with parents. After the Reform Act of 1988 many Grammar Schools were turned into Comprehensives and the change was in many cases very painful.

Secondary Modern Schools give a general education with a practical bias. It is common for more time to be given to handicrafts, domestic sciences and other practical activities than in Grammar Schools. Foreign languages are not thought there. "Streaming" is practised in secondary modern schools. The children in each group are usually placed in three, streams A, B and C; C-stream is for children of the least academic type, concentrating mainly on practical work.

Secondary Technical Schools, a smaller group (less than 2 %), offer a general education largely related to industry commerce and agriculture. These schools

are not very popular and few places have them. They provide teaching up to the age of 18.

Independent schools are private schools charging tuition fees and that is why they are independent of public funds, independent of the state educational system, but they are open to government control and inspection. The Department for Education has the power to require them to remedy any objectionable features in their premises, accommodation or instruction (teaching) and to exclude any person regarded as unsuitable to teach or to be proprietor of a school.

There is a wide range of independent schools covering every age group and grade of education. They include Nursery Schools and Kindergartens (taking children of Nursery and Infant School ages), Primary and Secondary Schools of both day and boarding types.

The most important and expensive of the independent schools are known as Public Schools, which are private Secondary Schools taking boys from age of 13 to 18 years, and Preparatory Schools (colloquially called "Prep" Schools), which are private Primary Schools preparing pupils for Public Schools.

Preparatory Schools are usually small (for 50–100 children). They prepare the pupils for the Common Entrance Examination, set by independent Secondary Schools. "Prep" Schools are situated chiefly in the country or at the seaside resorts. They are much later development than the Public Schools. Few of them date back further than 1870. Preparatory Schools admit pupils aged 8 and teach them up to 13–14. Each pupil is given personal attention.

Public Schools form the backbone of the independent sector. With a few exceptions all Public Schools are single-sex boarding schools, providing residential accommodation for their pupils, though many of them take some day pupils too. A typical Public School has about 500 boys but a few have more (e. g. Eton has more than 1100 boys).

Some of the Public Schools date from the 16th century or earlier and they form the pinnacle of fee- paying education (in the 1990s the boarding Public School-fees were between 5000 and 15000 pounds annually). Of the several hundred Public Schools the most famous are the Clarendon Nine. Their status lies in an attractive combination of social superiority and antiquity. These are the oldest and most privileged Public Schools: Winchester (1382), Eton (1440), St. Paul's (1509), Shrewsbury (1552), Westminster (1560), The Merchant Taylor's (1561), Rugby (1567), Harrow (1571) and Charterhouse (1611).

When choosing a school some parents consider the availability of an "Old School Tie" network, which may help their child to get a job and to develop socially useful lifelong friendships, cooperative and self-help lines known as "jobs for the boys". The most famous of such networks may be the grouping of old Etonians, Harrowians and others known as the Establishment. Girls' schools offering access to this network would be Roedean, Benenden or Cheltenham Ladies College. (The cost of education in these privileged schools is 15 000 pounds per year.) There are about 35000 Secondary Schools in Britain, only 2 300 are independent, of which 427 are Public Schools.

Demand for Public school education is now so great that many schools register babies' names at birth. Eton maintains two lists: one for the children of "old boys", those who studied there, and the other for outsiders. Usually there are 3 applicants for every vacancy. For example, in 1988 there were 203 names down for only 120 places at Radley School in the year 2000. And it is not surprising that Public Schools cream off many of the ablest teachers from the state sector, and teaching standards are very high and much better than in any other Secondary Schools.

Public Schools admit pupils from private Preparatory Schools ("Preps") which prepare children for the Common Entrance Examination. Public Schools offer entrance scholarships (from 6 to 10 annually). But the fees remain heavy even

for scholarship winners. The competition for those scholarships is very severe, and the syllabuses of the scholarship examinations with their high standard in Latin and other subjects are quite out of keeping with the Primary School curriculum.

Independent fee-paying schools were exempted' from teaching according to the National Curriculum.

Higher education. The system of higher education in Britain includes universities, colleges of higher education and advanced courses in the further education. The British educational system on the higher level is still more selective and class-divided than secondary education, particularly so far as the oldest universities are concerned.

Most big towns in Britain have both a university and a college of higher education. There are 91 universities and 47 colleges of higher education today. Universities offer 3- and 4-year degree courses, though a number of subjects take longer, including medicine, architecture and foreign languages (where courses include a year abroad). Colleges of higher education offer both two-year HND (Higher National Diploma) courses, as well as degree courses.

Undergraduate courses normally take 3 years of full-time study and lead in most cases to a Bachelor degree in Arts, Science or Education (BA, BSc, BEd). Undergraduates, students who study for degrees, go to large formal lectures, but most of the work takes place in tutorials: lessons in groups of 10 or more when the students discuss their work with the lecturer.

There are various postgraduate one- or two-year research courses leading to degree of Master of Philosophy (PhM); Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) is awarded for some original research in Arts or Sciences on completion of a 3-year period of work. Students of law, architecture and some other professions can take qualifications awarded by their own professional bodies instead of degrees.

Uniformity of standards between universities is promoted by the practice of employing outside examiners for all examinations. The general pattern of teaching is similar throughout Britain — a combination of lectures, small group seminars or tutorials with practical classes where necessary.

Only 25 % of the student population go on to higher education. Competition to get into one of Britain's universities is fierce and not everyone who gets A-levels is admitted.

Students usually need three A-levels with high grades to go to university. Grades at A-level go from A to E. One university may require higher A-level grades than another. Most universities require two Bs and one C (BBC) grades.

Students apply to universities months before they take their A-levels. They are given a personal interview and then the universities decide which applicants they want, offer them a place which depends on A-level results. The more popular the university, the higher the grades it will ask for.

Over 90 % of full-time students receive grants to assist with their tuition, cost of living, books, transport and socializing. But parents with higher incomes are expected to make a contribution. Until 1990 the grants did not have to be paid back, but now a system of loans has been introduced.

Some students borrow money from the bank, which must be paid back after they leave the university and start working. In fact, the grant is not a lot of money. That's why students work during the holidays to earn more money. As it is difficult to find such jobs more and more students are dropping out, failing to finish their courses. So the system of grants and scholarships is unable to solve the financial problems of education which block educational opportunities for many people. About 15 % of British students leave universities without obtaining a degree.

British universities are popular among foreign students. In spite of the high fees a large number (over 70000) foreign students are getting high education there.

Although universities accept students mainly on the basis of their A-level results, there is an exception. The Open University, which was started in 1971, caters for adults who did not have these formal qualifications and who regret missed opportunities earlier. It conducts learning through correspondence, radio and television, also through local study centres.

Further Education is a broad term to cover education beyond the secondary stage. It includes vocational education, non-vocational education, recreational evening classes and adult education. Further education colleges have strong ties with commerce and industry. So the further education delivers a broad range of learning, including:

- academic and vocational learning for 16 to 19-year-old;
- vocational education and training for adults seeking employment;
- workforce development for employers;
- second chance general education for adults;
- learning for leisure and personal development.

Not all students study full-time at a university or college. Many people combine their studies with work. Some companies release their staff for training one or two days a week or for two months a year. Large companies often have their own in-house training schemes.

The British government is very enthusiastic about different training schemes working in the system of further education because so few people can get education at the universities.

The most further education establishments are either maintained or aided from public funds, so the tuition fees are moderate. Some students are paid different awards and scholarships to help them to cover tuition fees.

The courses in further education are different: full-time, sandwich (6 months of full time study in a technical college and 6 months of supervised experience

in industry), block release (on similar principles, but with shorter periods in college), day release (one day of attendance at a technical college a week during working hours).

Evening classes. There are also many business courses such as tourism, manufacturing, art and design and secretarial courses such as shorthand, typing, book-keeping and so on. For the unemployed there are two forms of training schemes: employment training for people who have been out of work for a long time and Youth Training schemes for school-leavers who cannot find a job.

Adult education includes courses of non-vocational education for people over 18. Many of the courses are practical, but there are widespread opportunities for academic study for those who left school at 16 and went straight into job, but later on realized that they need higher qualifications. Quite a lot of people in their mid-20s or older come back into education at the Further Education college and take a one year Access course. This gets them into university, where they are often more successful than younger students because they are more serious and focused.

It was in 1873 when Extension courses were first provided by Cambridge University. Now all the universities have Extramural Departments with its director and staff.

ART. MUSEUMS AND GALLERIES. PAINTING IN ENGLAND

WILLIAM HOGARTH.

JOSHUA REYNOLDS.

THOMAS GAINSBOROUGH.

JOSEPH TURNER.

MUSEUMS AND GALLERIES

Painting in England in the period of the 15–17th centuries was represented mostly by foreign artists. In the 16th century Hans Holbein the Younger, a well-known painter, was invited to London by King Henry VIII. Though he did not create any painting school in England he nevertheless played an important part in the development of English portrait art. Later Charles I made the Flemish painter Van Dyck (a pupil of Rubens) his court painter. Van Dyck founded a school of aristocratic portrait painting. Another painter Peter Lely came from Holland in 1641. He became celebrated for his portraits of the idle and frivolous higher classes.

The 18th century was the century during which a truly national painting school was created in England. Portrait art at that time was the main kind of painting. It depended upon the conditions under which the English painting school developed. The first man to raise British pictorial art to a level of importance was William Hogarth.

The Industrial Revolution in England greatly influenced art as a whole, and painting in particular. Such trends in painting as the genre school, realistic landscape

and portraiture schools expressed the social contradictions of English life. The new trends may be traced in the works of Wilkie, Lawrence and Constable.

Sir David Wilkie (1785–1841), the leader of the genre school, preferred pictures from which a moral concerning the simple virtues could be drawn. One of his well-known pictures is "Village Politicians". With this trend not only portraits of common people but their life and labour were introduced in art. David Wilkie dedicated himself to portraying the joys and sorrows of the "little man" – the Scottish farmers, shopkeepers, retired soldiers, etc. His picture "Old Woman with a Dog" is characteristic of the artist's ability to tell a story, be it even in a portrait.

In portraiture Sir Thomas Lawrence (1769–1830) continuing the manner of the 18th century introduced more realism. Thomas Lawrence, the last of the painters to begin his career in the Reynolds tradition, was a favourite of the English nobility. His magnificent paintings were glorified portraits of statesmen, military leaders, and diplomats – always handsome, self-possessed and imperious, a romantic pathos ennobling them more.

"Lady Raglan" is one of Lawrence's earlier works, done when he was still greatly influenced by Reynolds, but its easy manner and masterly brushwork are really wonderful. Sometimes Lawrence sacrificed realism to create a mild, idealized portrait. The artist is at his best as a society portraitist in his "Portrait of Count **M.S. Vorontsov**", a participant in the war of 1812. Lawrence's work was true to the traditions of the final period of a school of portrait painting. The tradition of realistic landscape was represented by John Constable.

In the second part of the nineteenth century England entered upon important stages of her artistic development. Some known painters — Dante Gabriel Rossetti and others formed themselves into a "brotherhood" with the title of Pre-Raphaelites that expressed their deep admiration for the masters who preceded Raphael. This school had a great influence on the development of English pictorial art.

A quick survey of English painting about 1880 would reveal a remarkably wide range of subject matter: the landscapes in photographic detail for tired urban eyes; the parade portraits and the costume-pieces like real charades in paint; the anecdote of contemporary life, widening now to include documents more deeply socially-minded; flower pictures, horse-pictures – an art of material prosperity.

Portrait art always occupied an important part in English painting and nowadays there are prominent portraitists who continue the traditions of the famous English masters. These traditions are apparent in the portraits by Graham Sutherland. Sutherland is well-known for his drawings of the destruction caused by the German fascists during World War II.

Realistic traditions found their expression in the works of Ruskin Spear who painted common people, their troubles and joys. Paul Hogarth is known for his drawings of scenes of life in Spain, Greece, China, etc. and greatly respected for the peaceloving motives in his art.

With the twentieth century impressionism, cubism, abstractionism entered English painting and certainly influenced it, though many gifted artists have found and are following their own realistic path in art. Most of the famous British painting collections may be seen in museums and art galleries of London: the Tate Gallery, the National Gallery and others.

WILLIAM HOGARTH (1697–1764) William Hogarth was born in London. His father was a schoolmaster. His early taste for drawing was remarkable and after schooling which was normal for his day he was apprenticed to a silverplate engraver. He attributed his success to hard labour. "I know of no such thing as genius," he wrote, "genius is nothing but labour and diligence." Hogarth became quite successful as a portrait painter, being particularly clever at painting children and families. In 1724 he produced his first set of engravings entitled "The Talk of the Town", a series

which satirized both the society and the current tendency of fashionable London to appreciate and invite only foreign singers.

Hogarth represented British life and people. His masterpiece on the life-size scale – "the portrait that I painted with most pleasure," as Hogarth said – was that of Captain Coram (1740). The sitter, a **former** captain, was a key figure in that moral socially philanthropic movement with which Hogarth felt such sympathy. (In 1738 Coram founded the Foundling Hospital, with which Hogarth was associated.)

Real success came to him when he turned to subjects that common people could appreciate and understand. There was "The Rake's Progress", for instance. These series of pictures were highly praised by Henry Fielding, the novelist, for their humour and moral force. Narrative pictures were nothing new, but Hogarth was the first artist to invent a story and illustrate it.

"The Marriage Contract" is the first of the series of his pictures forming the famous "Marriage a la Mode". The subject of the picture is a protest against marriage for money and vanity. Although his narrative pictures were comic and full of satire his portraiture was honest and original. One of his earlier portraits is "The Shrimp Girl", which has vivid characterization and extraordinary vivacity.

Hogarth was the first great English artist. He used to be called "the Father of English Painting".

He died at his house in London on October 26th, 1764.

JOSHUA REYNOLDS (1723–1792). Sir Joshua Reynolds, the first President of the Royal Academy of Arts, was not only a painter but the founder of the academic principles of a "British school". Reynolds was the most outstanding portraitist of the 18th century. He created a whole gallery of portraits of the most famous of his contemporaries – statesmen, scholars, writers and actors, depicting them in heroic style, showing them in all their glory as the best people of the nation. His deep psychological **approach** made his art far advanced for its time, yet his paintings

are not free of a certain idealization. He was influenced by the Venetians – Titian and Veronese.

Before Reynolds portraiture art was based on the formula: the sitter was posed centrally; with the background (curtain, chair, landscape) disposed behind; normally the head was done by the master; the body by the pupil. The portraits told little about their subjects. It was Reynolds who insisted in his practice that a portrait could and should be a full complex work of art. His people are no longer static, but caught between one movement and the next. He did not only paint portraits but produced characters.

The contradictory features of Reynolds' art are most evident in his historical and mythological paintings. His picture "The Infant Hercules Strangling the Serpents" was commissioned by Catherine II of Russia. In it Reynolds wished to portray in allegorical form the might of young Russia defeating its enemies as successfully as the infant Hercules, son of Zeus and Alcmena, battled the giant snakes planted into his cradle by the jealous Hera, wife of Zeus.

Reynolds devoted himself entirely to portraiture. He was one of the founders of the English school of portrait-painting at the time of the industrial revolution. Quite often he included real personages in his mythological works. For example the prophet in the picture "The Infant Hercules Strangling the Serpents" is actually Samuel Johnson, lexicographer, a close friend of Reynolds. The woman's head above is undoubtedly Sarah Siddons, the famous tragic actress.

THOMAS GAINSBOROUGH (1727–1788). Thomas Gainsborough was born in the small market town of Sudbury in Suffolk. He was the youngest of the nine children in the family. When a boy he was very good at drawing, and according to a story about him, he made such a good portrait from memory of a thief whom he had seen robbing a garden that the thief was caught. It was his early efforts at landscape painting that were the reason for his father allowing him to go to London to study.

Gainsborough was good-humoured and witty. His portraits of children have infinite charm. He had a great feeling and sympathy for them. The delightful portraits of his two little daughters have given pleasure for over 200 years and still do. His portraits are painted in clear tones. His colour is always tender and soft. Light tone scheme and use of light blues and yellows belong essentially to his earlier period.

Perhaps the best known today of all Gainsborough's portraits is the famous "The Blue Boy". But curiously enough it was little known in Gainsborough's days and there is no definite information about the date of the painting. There is an opinion that Gainsborough painted "The Blue Boy" in order to establish the point which he had made in a dispute with Reynolds and other painters, when he maintained that the predominant colour in a picture should be blue.

Thomas Gainsborough was Reynolds's rival and almost exact contemporary. He was also his most exact opposite. He brought an innate genius for drawing, delight in colour and movement. He is the purest lyricist among the painters.

"The Portrait of Lady Howe" (1765) is one of his masterpieces. It is a portrait in a Van Dyck habit. Behind the Lady you can see the English landscape which was so dear to Gainsborough's heart. Even in the portrait painting he is an out-of-door painter. If you think of his finest portraits you will immediately remember that the backgrounds are well-observed country scenes. The famous "The Blue Boy" is placed against an open sky and a background of brown and green landscape. In Mrs. Sheridan's portrait the background is the wide sky and broad view into the valley.

He loved the country-side of his childhood and often said that the Suffolk country-side had made him a painter. One of the most famous of his late landscapes is "The Market Cart" painted two years before he died. He lived in that period when landscape painting was not in fashion. Rich people did not spend money on landscapes. So, it's really remarkable that there were more than 40 unsold landscapes in his studio at the time of his death.

JOHN CONSTABLE (1776–1837). John Constable was born in the village of East Bergholt, Suffolk in 1776. His father was a man of some **property – he** had water mills and windmills, and John after leaving grammar school helped his father. From his boyhood Constable was devoted to painting and his father allowed him to visit London and to consult the landscape-painter J. Farington, but only in 1799 he could adopt the profession of painting and became a student at the Royal Academy. For Constable nature was the "source from which all originality must spring". In fact, Constable was better appreciated in France than in England, and was regarded there as the father of the French school of landscape. He interested himself in the study of colour, its theory and chemistry and became almost a professional meteorologist. He wrote: "Painting is a science, and should be pursued as an inquiry into the laws of nature." His sketch of "Brighton Beach, with Colliers" is typical of his method.

John Constable painted many well-known works, such as "Flatford Mill", "The Cottage in the Cornfield", "The Hay Wain", "The Lock", "Salisbury Cathedral from the Meadows" and others. Constable was winning recognition in England for a long time. However, his fresh and charming landscapes were an immediate success when exhibited in the Paris salon of 1824, influencing a great number of progressive young French painters. The realism of Constable in English art had no further followers towards the end of the 19th century, when academic trends grew stronger, idealism developed, and later turned to formalism.

JOSEPH MALLORD WILLIAM TURNER (1775–1851). The paintings of Joseph Mallord William Turner are among the outstanding art achievements of the nineteenth century. Turner's earliest works were watercolours. His first oils are sombre in colour but already reveal his preoccupation with contrasted effects of light and atmospheric effects such as storms and rainbows. The painting of light was his business. For Turner light was the main principle of the world, his theme was to show

that light dissolved all matter into its own qualities, the colours of the prism. Light is triumphant in his pictures.

The dream-like landscapes, often of Venice, represented one side of Turner's late style. The other was the more and more direct expression of the destructiveness of nature, apparent particularly in some of his sea-pieces. The force of wind and water was conveyed by his open, vigorous brushwork. His pictures "The Shipwreck", "Burning of the Houses of Parliament", "Snow Storm" and others are original and brilliant in their mastery. Of his life we know practically nothing. He lived only in and for his art. Son of a London barber, he started drawing and painting as a small boy, selling his drawings to the customers in his father's shop. When Turner was thirteen, he chose an artistic career. His oil paintings were exhibited in the Royal Academy in 1793 and in 1802 Turner was elected Academician of the Royal Academy.

He lived till he was seventy-six, painting with something like frenzy till the end. When his work came to be listed the records showed 200 important oil paintings, 300 water-colours, and no less than 20,000 sketches and drawings! An enormous number of his great canvases were his own, and the lonely old man, dying, bequeathed them to the nation.

The British have always been known as great art collectors. During the colonial times the aristocracy and rich merchants filled their houses and castles with valuable paintings, furniture and ornaments which they brought back from their travels abroad. So their collections can be seen today in palaces and castles, country houses and, of course, in museums and various picture galleries. In 1753 by an Act of Parliament the British Museum was founded, and the state itself became a big collector. London is the world's leading centre of museums and galleries, holding the richest variety of works of arts.

There are about 2,000 museums and galleries in Britain which include the chief national collections, and a great variety of independently or privately owned

institutions. But some of the most comprehensive collections of objects of artistic, archaeological, scientific, historical and general interest are contained in the national museums and galleries in London. Among them are the British Museum, the Victoria and Albert Museum, the Science Museum, the National Gallery, the Tate Gallery, the National Portrait Gallery, the Geological Museum, the Natural History Museum, Madame Tussaud's, the Tower of London and many other treasure institutions.

There are national museums and art galleries in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. In Edinburgh – the National Museum of Antiquities of Scotland, the Royal Scottish Museum; in Cardiff – the National Museum of Wales; in Belfast – the Ulster Museum.

Situated in Bloomsbury, THE BRITISH MUSEUM is the world's largest museum. It was built between 1823 and 1852. Most famous exhibits include the Rosetta Stone in the Southern Egyptian Gallery, and in the manuscript room, the Magna Charta, Nelson's log-book, and Scott's last diary.

The British Museum includes also the British Library, which is the national library of the United Kingdom and ranks among the greatest libraries in the world, such as the National Library of Congress in Washington or the National Library in Paris. The Library has the world-famous collections of about 12 million items of monographs, manuscripts, maps, stamps, newspapers and sound records. Publishers are obliged, by law, to supply the Library with a copy of each new book, pamphlet or newspaper published in Britain.

THE VICTORIA AND ALBERT MUSEUM is a national collection of fine and applied arts of all countries and periods. Of great interest are the costumes displays, the rooms of different historical periods, the jewellery and porcelain, the celebrated Raphael cartoons belonging to the Crown and the best collection of English miniatures to be found in the country. The Museum has about seven miles of galleries with various exhibits, including ethnic arts and crafts.

THE NATIONAL GALLERY exhibits all schools of European painting from the 13th century and includes works by Van Dyck, Rubens, Vermeer, Holbein, El Greco, Goya, Velasquez, Gainsborough and Leonardo da Vinci. It also includes the largest collection of Rembrandts outside Holland. There are over thirty rooms in the Gallery and lectures are given regularly by experts.

THE TATE GALLERY is really three galleries: a national gallery of British art, a gallery of modern sculpture and a gallery of modern foreign painting. Among the treasures to be found are modern sculptures by Rodin, Moore and Epstein.

THE SCIENCE MUSEUM houses the national collections of science, industry and medicine. Many exhibits are full size and there are many historic objects of scientific and technological significance. Additionally there are exhibits sectioned to show their internal construction and working models. The children's gallery gives a dioramic history of the development of transport.

THE NATURAL HISTORY MUSEUM is the home of the national collections of living and fossil plants and animals. It also has collections of rocks, minerals and meteorites, as well as coins, manuscripts and other treasures. At first these collections were all kept in the British Museum as part of its exhibits. But, over the years, so much was added to the collections that shortage of space became a major problem and, in 1860, it was decided to split off the natural history departments and house them separately. The architect Alfred Waterhouse designed a suitable building, the construction of which was completed in 1880. The building of the National History Museum, which is over one hundred years old, also houses a scientific research institution. More than 300 scientists are engaged in the identification and classification of animals, plants and minerals.

THE NATIONAL ARMY MUSEUM covers the history of the British Army from the formation of the Yeomen of the Guard by Henry VII in 1485 to the outbreak

of the First World War in 1914. It also displays the history of the Commonwealth armies up to independence.

THE IMPERIAL WAR MUSEUM gives a visual record of all the campaigns in which British and Commonwealth armed forces have been engaged since the outbreak of the First World War. Its portraits, books, photographs, maps and films constitute an important source of reference for historians.

MADAME TUSSAUD'S MUSEUM OF WAXWORKS in Marylebone Road is one of London's great attractions. Madame Tussaud first became associated with life-size wax portraits in 1770 when, at the age of 9, she helped her uncle open an exhibition in Paris. When she was 17 she made a wax portrait of Voltaire and followed this with death-masks of Marie Antoinette, Robespierre and other victims of the French Revolution.

She came to England in 1802, travelling with her exhibition for about thirty years before settling down permanently in Baker Street. The Museum was founded in 1884 not far from this street. Madame Tussaud continued to make wax models until she was 81. Her figures were extremely realistic, and their costumes could be characterized by great accuracy. The range of her works was really enormous. A visitor to London's great Wax Museum will see kings and queens, statesmen and writers, actors and musicians, artists and sportsmen, scientists, astronauts, world leaders and so on and so forth. Unsuspecting visitors will be struck by the Chamber of Horrors displaying many notorious criminals. The last of notable events on view includes those depicting the historical Battle of Trafalgar and the Battle of Britain.

BRITISH STATE SYSTEM

THE MONARCHY.

THE GOVERNMENT.

PARLIAMENT.

POLITICAL PARTIES

The monarchy is the most ancient secular institution in the United Kingdom, going back at least to the 9th century. The monarch can trace her descent from the Saxon King Egbert, who united all England under his sovereignty in 829. The continuity of the monarchy has been broken only once by a republic that lasted only 11 years (1649–1660). Monarchy is founded on the hereditary principle and it has never been abandoned. The succession passed automatically to the oldest male child or, in the absence of males, to the oldest female offspring of the monarch. Quite recently the rules of descent have been changed. Now the succession passes to the oldest child irrespective of its sex.

The coronation of the sovereign consists of recognition and acceptance of the new monarch by the people; the taking by the monarch of an oath of royal duties; the anointing and crowning (after communion); and the rendering of homage by the Lords Spiritual and Temporal. The coronation service, conducted by the Archbishop of Canterbury, is held at Westminster Abbey in the presence of representatives of the Lords, the Commons and all the great public interests in the United Kingdom, the Prime Minister and leading members of the Commonwealth countries,

representatives of foreign states. By the Act of Parliament, the monarch must be a Protestant.

For several centuries the monarch personally exercised supreme executive, legislative and judicial powers but with the growth of Parliament and the courts the direct exercise of these functions progressively decreased. The 17th-century struggle between the Crown and Parliament led to the establishment of a constitutional monarchy.

The monarch in law is the head of the executive, an integral part of the legislature, the head of the judiciary, the commander-in-chief of all the armed forces of the Crown and the temporal governor of the established Church of England. But the Crown is only sovereign by the will of Parliament, and the monarch acts on the advice of her ministers which she cannot constitutionally ignore. And in most matters of state the refusal of the monarch to exercise her power according to the direction of her Prime Minister would risk a serious constitutional crisis. That's why it is often said that the monarch reigns but does not rule.

Nevertheless, the functions of the monarch are politically important. The powers of the monarch are to summon, prorogue (suspend until the next session) and dissolve Parliament; to give royal assent to legislation passed by Parliament. The monarch is the "fountain of justice" and as such can, on the advice of the Home Secretary, pardon or show mercy to convicted criminals. As the Commander-in-Chief of the armed services (the Royal Navy, the Army and the Royal Air Force) she appoints officers, and as temporal head of the established Church of England she makes appointments to the leading positions in the Church. In international affairs as Head of the State the monarch has the power to conclude treaties, to declare war and to make peace, to recognize foreign states and governments, and to annexe and cede territories.

An important function of the Sovereign is the appointment of a prime minister. Normally the appointment is automatic since it is a convention of the constitution that the sovereign must invite the leader of the party which won a majority in the House of Commons to form a government. If no party has a majority or if the party having a majority has no recognized leader, the monarch's duty is to select a prime minister consulting anyone she wishes.

Like the Monarchy, Parliament in Britain is an ancient institution dating from the beginning of the 13th century, though officially it was established in 1265 by Simon de Montfort. It is the third oldest parliament in the world in action (it was preceded by Althing of Iceland and the Parliament of the Isle of Man).

Parliament is the supreme legislative body of the United Kingdom. The overriding function of Parliament is legislating bills, making bills lawful. But Parliament is not only lawmaking body, it is also a law-enforcing body, *i. e. it has* judicial functions. Other functions of Parliament are to raise money through taxation so as to enable the government to function, to question and examine government policy and administration, particularly its financial programme, and to debate or discuss important political issues.

Every parliament is limited to a 5-year term of work. The work of Parliament is divided into sessions. Every session starts at the end of October or the beginning of November and lasts 36 weeks up to late August.

British Parliament is composed of two houses – the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The House of Lords appeared first as King's council of the nobility. The House of Commons originated later, in the second half of the 14th century.

The Houses work in different places, in the opposite parts of Westminster palace, but their debating Chambers are shaped in the same way which is vitally important. The arrangement of seats in both is of great significance, reflects and

maintains the two-party system of Britain. Both the Houses are rectangular (not semicircular as most European Chambers) in shape with rows of benches on either side and a raised platform for the throne in the House of Lords, which is a joint present of Australia and Canada, and the Speaker's Chair in the House of Commons.

To the right of the Speaker are the seats for the Government and its supporters, to his left – for the Opposition. So the debates are face to face debates, not figuratively. Facing the Speaker there are cross benches for Independent members, for those who do not belong to either of the two leading political parties.

There are 5 rows of benches in the House of Commons (4 – in Lords') on both of its sides. Front benches on either side are the seats of the Government (Cabinet members) and the Opposition (Shadow Cabinet members). Hence the division of MPs into front-benchers and back-benchers.

The proceedings in both the Houses are public and visitors are admitted into the Strangers' Gallery.

The House of Commons today is elected with a nation-wide representation. Of its 659 members 529 represent constituencies in England, 40 – in Wales, 72 – in Scotland and 18 – in Northern Ireland (119 MPs are women). When speaking about British Parliament the House of Commons is usually meant. "MP" is addressed only to the members of the House of Commons. This House is the centre of real political power and activity, most of its members being professional politicians, lawyers, economists, etc.

The party that has won the General Election makes up the majority in the House of Commons and forms the Government. The party with the next largest number of members in the House (or sometimes a combination of other parties) forms the official Opposition, and the Leader of the Opposition is a recognized post in the House of Commons.

There are seats for only 437 MPs. One of the most important members in the House of Commons is the Speaker who despite his name is the one who actually never speaks. The Speaker is the Chairman, or presiding MP of the House of Commons. He is elected by a vote of the House at the beginning of each new Parliament to preside over the House and enforce the rules of order. He cannot debate or vote. He votes only in case of a tie, i. e. when voting is equal and, in this case he votes with the Government. The main job of the Speaker is to maintain strict control over debates, to keep fair play between the parties, the Government and opposition, between back-benchers and front-benchers.

The House of Lords is a non-elected, hereditary upper chamber. It comprises 26 Lords Spiritual (2 of which are archbishops of Canterbury and York, the rest – senior bishops of the Church of England), 91 hereditary peers, 568 life peers and peeresses created under the Life Peerages Act of 1958, rewarded for specially good service. The title is not inherited by their children. 1/4 of life peers are women. The total number of persons thus qualified to sit in the House of Lords is in excess of 703 including the judges of the Supreme Court of Judicature (the Court of Appeal and the High Court of Justice). The Monarch belongs to the House of Lords so there is a throne in the Lords' Chamber from where she makes her State Opening Speech.

There is also a woolsack – the seat of the Lord Chancellor who presides in the House of Lords. Unlike the Speaker in the House of Commons the Lord Chancellor is not impartial, as he is a government officer, responsible for the administration of justice, and an automatic member of the Cabinet. Although he presides over the House he is not concerned with order. Any peer has the power to rise in his place and move thus demonstrating his disapproval to a fellow peer having the floor. No one calls to order.

The House of Lords is of Tory majority composed largely of company directors, landlords, bankers, steel and oil magnates, newspaper proprietors and so on. Its main

function is to defend the interests of the propertied people, to criticize the Labour Government, to delay, amend or bury altogether the bills which went contrary to their interests. For its utterly conservative character it is often called "the House of obstruction" or "a hangover from a past age".

The power of delaying a bill for a year is still a great privilege of the Lords. During a year the political situation may change in favour of the Conservatives, the propaganda work may divert the attention from the uneasy bill, it may be forgotten or amended unrecognizably leaving nothing of its essence.

Of all the parliaments in the world, the lowest quorum needed to adopt a decision is the British House of Lords. Three Lords present will make a quorum and will be capable to take any decision. Lords are far freer to vote according to their own convictions rather than party policy than are Members of the Commons. Average daily attendance is only about 300 and most of these are life peers.

Parliament is not only a law-making body, it is also a law-enforcing body, that is it has judicial functions. The main judicial work of Parliament today is that carried out daily by the House of Lords. This House serves as the final Court of Appeal for Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Appeals may be heard either in the Chamber of the House or in the Appellate Committee. Judgement is always given in the House itself – normally at a morning sitting specially held for this purpose. Only peers who hold or have held high judicial office sit to hear appeals, and they are sometimes presided over by the Lord Chancellor, who is the head of the English judicial system.

The Monarch's government governs in the name of the monarch and is responsible for the administration of national affairs. All ministers are appointed by the monarch on the recommendation of the Prime Minister. The number of ministers in the Government may vary from 80 to 100, all the ministers are members of either of the two Houses, but the majority of them are members of the House of Commons.

Naturally, the Prime Minister cannot belong to the House of Lords. Functionally ministers may be classified as:

- departmental ministers – who are in charge of government departments (they are also known as Secretaries of State);

- non-departmental ministers, or ministers "without portfolio". They include the holders of traditional offices: the Lord Privy Seal, the Lord President of the Council, the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster;

- ministers of State – usually appointed as subordinate to government departments where the work is particularly heavy or complex and where it involves frequent travelling abroad;

- junior ministers, or Parliamentary Under-secretaries – assistants of Secretaries of State.

The central institution, the core of the British Government is the Cabinet. The Cabinet is composed of about 20 ministers personally selected by the Prime Minister, who is the directing head and force of the Cabinet as well as of the whole government. Cabinet-making is a very important part of a Prime Minister's job and a Cabinet remains very much the expression of Prime Minister's personality. He not only appoints ministers but can require their resignation. He can replace a minister or break up the entire Cabinet. He controls the agenda of business to be dealt with at Cabinet meetings. He can dissolve the House of Commons and thus bring about a General Election at any time.

The Cabinet is the most powerful and strongly rooted organ of government in Britain. The powers of the Cabinet are immensely large in every sphere of government. The Cabinet of Ministers introduce legislation, control finance, arrange the time-table of the House of Parliament, conduct foreign affairs, control the colonies, exercise supervision over every department of administration.

Though Britain is a multiparty democracy its political scene is dominated by a two-party system: one party in power, the other in opposition. Now they are the Conservative and the Labour Parties. The two-party system has evolved since the 18th century when the conflicting groups within Parliament formed opposing parties known as Tories and Whigs.

The Conservative party emerged to defend the interests of big, reactionary landowners, of the cavaliers who supported the King (Charles I) in his struggle with Parliament, of the conservative gentry and the clergy of the Church of England. They were called Tories – an insult with a touch of racial prejudice, as the name meant "Irish thief".

Today the Conservative Party is the party of the Right, identified with the idea of economic freedom and mainly with the idea of resistance to change. The aims of the Party are: to uphold religion, to maintain defence forces adequate for the preservation of freedom and prevention of war, to provide freedom and opportunity by supporting free enterprise and initiative against socialist system of state-trading and nationalization, to encourage wider spread of ownership of property, to improve standards of life, to promote better health, to give greater educational opportunities. The Conservative party has successfully portrayed itself as the party of patriotism. As it appeals to a "property-owning democracy" it is supported by wealthier classes, receiving much money from major business and financial institutions. It gives emphasis to the importance of law and order, and it is highly disciplined, tending not to dissent from the leadership publicly.

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

Traditionally it has been committed to public ownership of major industries (nationalization) and to economic planning. By 1990 and later its politics had moved towards the centre so that in many aspects they were hardly different from those of the Liberal Democrats. It has now accepted more use of market forces and less central control, it encourages diversity, individual enterprise, decentralized economic organization. And contrary to its earlier policies now it fully supports Britain's membership in the European Community as essential to the country's political and economic future.

By its officially stated ideas and purposes the party has claimed to be progressive. Its central ideal has been the brotherhood of men. It has rejected discrimination on grounds of race or colour, it has defended the right of all peoples to freedom, independence and selfgovernment, it has supported the work for world disarmament, it has affirmed the duty of richer nations to assist poorer ones, it stood for social justice and the creation of the socialist community with a classless society and with planned economy. It claims to obtain and hold power only through free democratic institutions, by reforms.

The beginning of the Liberal Party goes back to the end of the 17th century as it descended from Whigs, an opposition to the Tory Party in Parliament. Officially it was formed in 1877. During the second half of the 19th century many working people looked to the Liberal Party to provide a policy different from that of the Tory Party and their supporters. So in the middle of the 19th century the Liberals represented the trading and manufacturing classes, supported by popular elements, who pressed for social reforms and extension of the franchise". "Civil and Religious Liberty" was taken as the Party's slogan. For long periods up to 1914 the Liberals had a parliamentary majority. While in power they introduced a number of reforms and innovations including free elementary education.

After World War I the Liberal Party was growing weaker, many representatives of the working class and bourgeoisie were leaving the liberals. Having suffered several defeats at the elections the party could never overcome the blow. It declined rapidly as a parliamentary force, its place being taken by the Labour Party which has become an opposition and alternative government to the Conservatives. In 1988 the Liberal Party merged with the new Social Democratic Party forming the Liberal Democrats.

In 1981 a new party was formed to try to break the dominance of the Conservative and Labour. Some Conservatives and extreme right wing of Labours left their own parties to join the new Social Democrats. The new party agreed to fight elections in alliance with the small but long-established Liberals, forming the Alliance. After unsuccessful results of the 1987 Election the Liberal Party merged with the Social Democratic Party (1988) to become the Liberal Democrats. Its aim is to attract the votes of the middle ground between Labour and the Conservatives and opponents of both parties, of those who are disillusioned with their policies. But there parliamentary representation is almost insignificant so far (26 % of vote but 8 % of MPs in 2001 General Elections). That is why it campaigns for a system of proportional representation in Parliament. But the Party plays a certain role with the possibility of tipping the scales between the two largest parties.

The Liberal Democratic Party aims to build a liberal democratic society in which every citizen shall possess liberty, property and security and none shall be enslaved by poverty, ignorance or conformity.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

GEOGRAPHY OF THE USA.

THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

THE CIVIL WAR.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE GOVERNMENT

Geography of the USA. Stretching between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans the United States is bounded by Canada in the north and by Mexico and the Gulf of Mexico in the south. Along the Atlantic coast the land is flat, and there are many good harbours where large cities have grown up. In the north the ground is stony and not very good for farming. There are forests in this part of the country, and lumbering is an important industry. In the middle of the Atlantic coast there are several large cities whose deep harbours have made them centres of trade. The southern part is good for farming. The climate is warm and tobacco, cotton, rice grow on the southern farms. Oranges, lemons, and other fruits grow well in the sunny state of Florida.

The Appalachian range of mountains are the "old" ones. West of the Appalachians is fertile farmland. One thousand miles away from the shore of the Atlantic is the Mississippi, the largest river in the United States. Beyond the Mississippi there are the great plains. People grow wheat and corn and raise cattle, sheep, and pigs. Westward, the land becomes higher and higher until you come to the Rocky Mountains, the second large mountain range in the United States. They

are larger than the Appalachians. The scenery is wild and beautiful. At the southern end of the Rockies lies a sandy desert, which is watered with the help of great dams.

You must travel another thousand miles to reach the Pacific Ocean. The climate along the Pacific coast is neither too hot nor too cold. In the south, in California, the weather is sunny and warm. Further to the north along the coast, the climate is cooler and it rains more. The forests here provide much of the lumbers for house-building. Fishing and fish canning are important industries along the Pacific Ocean beach.

The main historic events of the USA. The Vikings visited the continent of North America almost a thousand years ago, but they were seamen and fighters and they did not try to settle on the land or make its discovery known. It was not really discovered until Christopher Columbus, exploring for the King and Queen of Spain, arrived in 1492. He didn't know that the big continents of North and South America blocked the way. He was sure that because the Earth was round, he could reach India, China and Japan by sailing west. He died believing that he had found the Far East, and never understood that he had discovered new continents. After Columbus, there were many trips of exploration by the Spanish, the Dutch, the French and the English, but the first permanent English colony was not started until 1607. This was in Virginia, where the settlers found out from the Indians how to grow tobacco. Tobacco was very popular in Europe and Virginia became a rich colony. Farther north, in New England, the land was being settled by people who left their homes in England, and England had several growing colonies along the Atlantic coast. Most of the settlers were English and they brought the English language, culture and customs to the new land.

The war of Independence or the **American Bourgeois Revolution** (1775–1783). The rapid development of the British colonies in America in the 18th century gave rise to the so-called "American problem". The French and Indian War was over

in 1763. The American colonies helped England in this war. The northern country of Canada now belonged to England and the French were driven out of the fertile western river valleys. George III, King of England, wanted to draw the American colonies closer to the mother country. New laws were passed and the colonists had to pay new high taxes to support England. These post-war decisions stimulated an evergrowing movement of protest which exploded into the War of Independence.

In 1774 thirteen colonies sent their delegates to a Continental Congress in Philadelphia. On July 4, 1776 the delegates signed the document known as the Declaration of Independence, and declared the establishment of the United States of America. Since then July 4 is celebrated by the Americans as a national holiday – Independence Day.

The Continental Congress authorized an American army appointing George Washington its commander. But Britain didn't agree with the Declaration until 1783, when the American colonists won in the War of Independence. So after the years of bitter fighting the United States at last were recognized as a new independent country. George Washington had led the army in its successful fight. He was elected the new country's first president.

The Civil War (1861–1865). The American Revolution opened a new stage in the transformation from feudalism to capitalism, but it failed to abolish slavery. The struggle of the American colonies for political and economic freedom from Great Britain activated the anti-slavery movement.

Slavery as a source of cheap labour was instituted in America as early as the 1660s. Many poor people came to America to escape political oppression and economic exploitation. They had to work on a master's land for some years as payment for their transportation from Europe. But it was impossible to enslave the entire working population and therefore the enslavement of black Africans became a source of cheap labour available. Negroes brought by force from their African

homeland to America were turned to slaves. Almost all of them were in the South where southern planters made them plant and pick the great cotton crops. Cruelty was an integral part of the slave system. Slave revolts were frequent. Slavery became a shame to the American nation. Many people in the North opposed slavery and took part in anti-slavery actions. The problem was not solved even in Congress. The southern states left the Union and the Civil War between the North and the South broke out.

The Civil War greatly affected the course of American history. President Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation which committed the nation to stamp out slavery in the southern states. The American slavery was crushed, the nation was unified. But the fight for Negro rights has not been yet ended.

The structure of the government. The government in the United States is federal. The government shares its power with the states. The Constitution written about two hundred years ago is the foundation of the government of the USA. The Constitution divides power among the legislative, judicial and executive branches of the government. Each branch is almost independent. The head of the executive branch is the President. The head of the legislative branch is the Congress. The head of the judicial branch is the Supreme Court.

The legislative division is responsible for making the laws of the country. The executive division carries out these laws. The Congress is divided into two houses, the Senate, or Upper House, and the House of Representatives. Members of the Senate are elected to six-year terms, but they are not all elected at the same time. Members of the House of Representatives are elected for two years. They are to finish their terms of office at the same time. The House of Representatives has more than four times as many members as the Senate. Each state sends a different number of men according to the population of the state. A bill may be introduced in either the Senate

or the House of Representatives. A bill approved by both the Senate and the House of Representatives is sent to the President to sign.

The President and Vice-President are elected for a four-year term. The President may be reelected and serve eight years altogether, but no longer than that. There are eleven Cabinet officers. These men are appointed by the President with the approval of the Senate. The Cabinet takes care of such national business as defence, postal service, foreign relations, money and so on.

The third branch of the government is judicial. The Supreme Court is the highest court in the country. It has one Chief Justice and eight Associate Justices. The President appoints these men for life, but they must be approved by the Senate. The decision of the Supreme Court is final.

THE US STATE SYSTEM. CULTURE. EDUCATION

THE US STATE SYSTEM.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN THE USA.

AMERICAN FOLK, JAZZ AND POPULAR MUSIC.

AMERICAN HOLIDAYS AND CUSTOMS.

THE AMERICAN VARIANT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The government in the United States is federal. The government shares its power with the states. The Constitution written about two hundred years ago is the foundation of the government of the USA. The Constitution divides power among the legislative, judicial and executive branches of the government. Each branch is almost independent. The head of the executive branch is the President. The head of the legislative branch is the Congress. The head of the judicial branch is the Supreme Court.

The legislative division is responsible for making the laws of the country. The executive division carries out these laws. The Congress is divided into two houses, the Senate, or Upper House, and the House of Representatives. Members of the Senate are elected to six-year terms, but they are not all elected at the same time. Members of the House of Representatives are elected for two years. They are to finish their terms of office at the same time. The House of Representatives has more than four times as many members as the Senate. Each state sends a different number of men according to the population of the state. A bill may be introduced in either the Senate

or the House of Representatives. A bill approved by both the Senate and the House of Representatives is sent to the President to sign.

The President and Vice-President are elected for a four-year term. The President may be re-elected and serve eight years altogether, but no longer than that. There are eleven Cabinet officers. These men are appointed by the President with the approval of the Senate. The Cabinet takes care of such national business as defence, postal service, foreign relations, money and so on.

The third branch of the government is judicial. The Supreme Court is the highest court in the country. It has one Chief Justice and eight Associate Justices. The President appoints these men for life, but they must be approved by the Senate. The decision of the Supreme Court is final.

Local government. The United States allows a great deal of power to the individual states. Each state has a constitution, patterned after the national Constitution, with its three divisions of power: legislative, executive and judicial. The head of each state is the governor. Each state has control over its state government. But no state may pass a law contrary to the Constitution or to the United States' laws and treaties. Each state creates units of local government. Large cities have an elected mayor as head of the elected council to help him. The mayor and council have broad power. The mayor-council system is the most popular kind of local government. The elected council keeps the legislative power.

ELEMENTARY (PRIMARY) SCHOOLS. Most Americans start to school at the age of five when they enter kindergarten. Children do not really study at this time. They only attend school for half the day and learn what school is like. The kindergarten really is a link between the school and the home. Pre-school education in public nursery schools and kindergartens aims at the child's individual development.

There are two major divisions in the elementary and secondary school system in the USA — public schools and private schools. In public schools the education

is free of charge while in private schools the fee for education is paid by the parents of the children. Each state has its own laws for the educational system. Control over the school system of education belongs to the Board of Education.

Two of the most common ways to organize the schools are by plans designated as "8-4" and "6-3-3". The "8-4" plan refers to an elementary school which includes all pupils in grades on through an **eight- and** a four-year high school. The "6-3-3" plan has a six-year elementary school, a three-year junior school, and a three-year junior high school. Some schools have the kindergarten attended to the lower end of the ladder, but only about one of three American children attend a tax-supported public kindergarten. A few schools have a public nursery school below the kindergarten. Children attend elementary school for six years. They learn to read and write and work with numbers. They study the world and its people. Now there is a trend towards adding two years of public junior college at the other end of the ladder.

Some elementary schools, however, do not have grade designations such as first grade, second grade and third grade. In the last decades there has been a growing trend towards nongraded elementary school. Public schools are free to all boys and girls, but some parents prefer to send their children to private schools. Some private schools are connected with churches, and children receive religious instruction as well as their regular studies. Other private schools are not religious, but have small classes and very good teachers so that parents think their children will get a better education there than in the larger classes of the public schools.

HIGH SCHOOL. High school in the United States today is a unique educational form. The **tax-supported** high school became a permanent segment of the American educational system only in the nineteenth century. The general concept of education in the USA is that it should be available to all citizens who want it and can derive benefit from it.

In their secondary schooling children get more advanced knowledge and begin to concentrate on their special interests. They usually study further in history, geography, the English language and literature. They may choose to study foreign languages, advanced mathematics or sciences, such as physics or chemistry. Children who plan to go on to college or professional training must take some of these courses in order to enter college. Other students who do not intend to go on with school may take classes in accounting or typing or other subjects that will help them in the business world. Some senior high schools are vocational. Boys may learn to operate machines or do other work. Girls may learn cooking, sewing or office work.

In most places in the United States children must attend school until they are sixteen, or until they finish high school, usually at the age of seventeen or eighteen. Some children who are not good students drop out of school at the age of sixteen.

HIGHER EDUCATION. Higher education is given in colleges and universities either public or private. The average course is four years. Students choose a "major" subject and take many courses in this subject. After four years of study students get the degrees of Bachelor of Science (B. S.), Bachelor of Philosophy (Ph. B.), Bachelor of Letters (B. L.) or Bachelor of Arts (B. A.) (if they studied Greek or Latin). Then the students may go on studying and with a year or two of further study get a master's degree. After another year or two of study and research, they may get a still higher degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph. D.). Higher education trains people to become teachers, engineers, dentists or to do other professional work.

Students are classified as freshmen (a freshman is a first-year student), sophomores (a sophomore is a second-year student), and juniors (a junior is a third-year student).

Most cities have colleges or universities that hold classes at night as well as in the daytime. In this way people who have to work may attend school at night and work for a degree or just take a course in a subject that interests them. Community

groups often give courses and lectures, usually about leisure time activities. In many cities, the secondary schools also offer classes in adult education.

Since the United States was settled largely by Europeans, it is not surprising that classical music and folk songs were brought over from that continent. Beethoven, Brahms, Debussy, Tchaikovsky, Stravinsky, Bach, Mozart, Bartok and Verdi are but a few names of European composers often seen on orchestra or opera programs. English, Irish, Scottish folk songs are sung very often and have been sung in America by so many generations that Americans are not even conscious that these songs are of foreign origin.

There are many folk songs that grew out of work. Working people had their own ballads and love songs. But the greatest contribution to American music, however, has been made by the Negroes in the South. Negro songs are now part of the nation's most precious musical heritage.

Perhaps the Negro's greatest contribution to American music has been jazz. After the Civil War some of the brass instruments of the Confederate military bands fell into the hands of the Negroes, and the result was all kinds of rhythmical and melodic experiments. Thus jazz, free of conventions and written arrangements, was born. Such composers as Aaron Copland, and George Gershwin in America and Stravinsky, Ravel in Europe have been influenced by American jazz.

The greatest creative contribution to American folk and popular music was made by the black people. Near the middle of the 19th century the New Orleans-born Louis **Moreau Gottschalk** (1829–1869) who studied music in France and became an outstanding virtuoso pianist, created a number of little piano pieces treating Negro, Creole and Latin-American motifs with affectionate freshness and life.

In the 1890s the great Czech composer, Antonin Dvorak, then teaching in New York, declared that American composers should study their folk music, that the most beautiful American folk music he knew for this purpose was the Negro spirituals.

In the post-war period Walligford Piegger, Walter Piston, Roger Sessions, Virgil Thomson, Henry Cowell, Roy Harris and Aaron Copland struggled through their compositions, and in most cases through critical writing and teachings, to establish large-scale composition in American cultural life. They taught, each in his own way, to make it American.

American holidays. Each of the 50 American states established its own holidays. The federal government, through the President and Congress, can legally set holidays only for federal employees and for the District of Columbia. Most states, however, accept the federal legal holidays. They are:

- New Year's Day (January 1)
- Martin Luther King's birthday (third Monday in January)
- Washington's Birthday, sometimes called "President's Day" (third Monday in February)
- Memorial Day (last Monday in May)
- Independence Day (July 4)
- Labor Day (first Monday in September)
- Columbus Day (second Monday in October)
- Veteran's Day (November 11)
- Thanksgiving Day (fourth Thursday in November)
- Christmas Day (December 25)

The many religious holidays such as Good Friday, Hanukkah, or Ramadan are observed, of course, by the religious, but they have no national, or official legal status. Rather, each state sets its own laws, and whether or not an employee is given time off also depends on labour agreements.

There are many traditional holidays, observed by a large number of Americans, which are also neither legal nor official. Among these are St. Valentine's Day, St. Patrick's Day (not just people with Irish roots celebrate it), Mother's Day and Halloween Day (the last day of October).

Perhaps the two "most American" of the holidays are the Fourth of July-Independence Day and Thanksgiving. The Fourth of July is the day of signing

the Declaration of Independence. It is like a big, nationwide birthday party. Some towns and cities have parades with bands and flags. The nation's birthday is also the nation's greatest annual summer party.

Thanksgiving is a day for families to come together. Traditional foods are prepared for the feast-turkey or ham, corn dishes, breads and rolls, and a pumpkin pie. At the same time, Thanksgiving is a solemn occasion, a day to remember the many who are less well off, in America and in the world.

American customs. Americans are very punctual. It is important to be on time at business, social and public events. If you must miss an appointment for any reason, telephone ahead to the person you were supposed to meet, saying that you won't be able to come. In some homes the atmosphere is quite formal. In others, it is informal and you may sit at the kitchen table to eat dinner. Informality is a way of taking you into the warmth of the family circle.

The Americans may have a party on one occasion in several houses at a time. The party starts in one house where they have some light wine and snacks, and then move on to another house and still another, travelling from house to house, taking drinks and food with them; and previous arrangements are made about what food each family cooks. Normally three or four houses are involved. Such a party is called progressive dinner.

Generally Americans tend to be fairly informal. They often (but not always) address each other by their given names on first meetings. They also tend to abbreviate a lot. For example, Mass. means Massachusetts Avenue. Do not be surprised and ask what these abbreviations mean.

New Year's Day has traditionally been the occasion for starting new programs and giving up bad habits. People talk about "turning over a new leaf." Many Americans make New Year's resolutions, promising themselves and their families to improve their behaviour. Typical New Year's resolutions are to spend less money,

give up smoking, begin a diet, or control one's temper. To Americans the closing of one calendar year and the opening of another is a serious, yet happy occasion.

The American variant of the English language. Of all the many kinds of difference that exist among the myriad varieties of English, few give rise to fiercer discussion and greater speculation than those which differentiate British and American English. Both form part of the 'family' of English. Speakers of the one immediately recognize speakers of the other as being fellow English-speakers, and yet also as members of a distinct culture.

It is customary to think of English before about 1700 as being one language with no specifically American characteristics yet visible, since the British settlements were so young and so small. It is after this date that the history and development of English in America began to diverge from that of English in Great Britain, because of the geographical isolation of the settlers, their growing feelings of social and political independence, their intimate contact with American Indian, Spanish, and French cultures, and their assimilation of a large population of former slaves and of great numbers of immigrants of diverse linguistic and cultural origins. Undoubtedly this separate development and the distinctive American culture which it produced were sufficient to ensure separate modes of speech and writing. But the rate of change of the language was greater than one would expect on the basis of contemporary experience, for two reasons:

1) there was no such thing as a single Elizabethan English, so that among the early settlers there existed a wide range of dialects and accents, reflecting the diversity of forms of Elizabethan English but offering no single form from which deviations could be charted; and

2) in the early eighteenth century there existed few of the pressures for standardization and conformity in speech and **writing – such** as universal literacy, a large literature, the media of press, radio, and **television – which** in Britain and North

America today slow down the innate tendency for English, like all languages, to change.

During the first 200 years of separate development, one of the most striking features specific to English in America was the large number of borrowings from other cultures. For example: from the American Indian came hickory, hooch, totem, and squaw; from French came prairie, depot, cache, and rotisserie; from Spanish came bronco, rodeo, patio, and vigilante; from Dutch and German came boss, dumb (meaning stupid), and Santa Clous; and from African came gumbo, voodoo, and okra (see Marckwardt 1958; Mencken 1963).

The contemporary situation, then, is one of two distinct yet cognate cultures in Britain and America, each possessing a form of English as the mother tongue. The differences of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, orthography, semantics, and usage between the two reflect both the similarities and the differences between the cultures.

PRACTICAL TASKS

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES AS A MIRROR OF BRITISH ATTITUDES

Discuss these questions in your group:

– What is the geographical position of the British Isles? What islands do the British Isles consist of? Which waters separate the British Isles from the continent of Europe?

– Which four parts is the territory of the United Kingdom historically divided into? Characterize their geographical features.

– What three natural regions can the territory of Great Britain be divided into?

– What climate does Great Britain enjoy? What are the characteristic features of this climate?

– What are chief rivers in Great Britain?

– Does Great Britain have a rich natural vegetation? Is farming wide spread?

– What mineral resources is Great Britain rich in?

Read about geographical features of Great Britain to learn why they have become signs of British national attitudes.

Geographical features as a mirror of some British attitudes

It has been claimed that the British love of compromise is the result of the country's physical geography. This may or may not be true, but it is certainly true that the land and climate in Britain have a notable lack of extremes. Britain has mountains, but none of them are very high; it also has flat land, but you cannot travel

far without encountering hills; it has no really big rivers; it doesn't usually get very cold in the winter or very hot in the summer; it has no active volcanoes, and an earth tremor which does no more than rattle tea-cups in a few houses is reported in the national news media.

Climate

The climate of Britain is more or less the same as that of the north-western part of the European mainland. The popular belief that it rains all the time in Britain is simply not true. The image of a wet, foggy land was created two thousand years ago by the invading Romans and has been perpetuated in modern times by Hollywood. The amount of rain that falls on a lawn in Britain depends on where it is. Generally speaking, the further west you go, the more rain you get. The mild winters mean that snow is a regular feature of the higher areas only. Occasionally, a whole winter goes by in lower lying parts without any snow at all. The winters are in general a bit colder in the east of the country than they are in the west, while in summer, the south is slightly warmer and sunnier than the north.

Why has Britain's climate got such a bad reputation? Perhaps it is for the same reason that British people always seem to be talking about the weather. This is its changeability. There is a saying that Britain doesn't have a climate, it only has weather. It may not rain very much altogether, but you can never be sure of a dry day; there can be cool (even cold) days in July and some quite warm days in January. The lack of extremes is the reason why, on the few occasions when it gets genuinely hot or freezing cold, the country seems to be totally unprepared for it. A bit of snow and a few days of frost and the trains stop working and the roads are blocked; if the thermometer goes above 80 °F (27 °C), people behave as if they were in the Sahara and the temperature makes front-page headlines.

Land and Settlement

Britain has neither towering mountain ranges, nor impressively large rivers, plains or forests. But this does not mean that its landscape is boring. What it lacks in grandeur it makes up for in variety. The scenery changes noticeably over quite short distances. It has often been remarked that a journey of 100 miles (160 kilometres) can, as a result, seem twice as far. Overall, the south and east of the country is comparatively low-lying, consisting of either flat plains or gently rolling hills. Mountainous areas are found only in the north and west, although these regions also have flat areas.



Ben Nevis, Scotland, is the highest peak in the UK¹

¹ URL: <https://endorfeen.com/highest-mountain-in-the-uk/>

Britain has a greater proportion of grassland than any other country in Europe except the Republic of Ireland. One distinctive human influence, especially common in southern England, is the enclosure of fields with hedgerows. This feature increases the impression of variety.



Devon hedgerows²

Although many hedgerows have disappeared in the second half of the twentieth century (farmers have dug them up to increase the size of their fields and make them more efficient), there are still enough of them to support a great variety of bird life.

Much of the land is used for human habitation. This is not just because Britain is densely populated. Partly because of their desire for privacy and their love of the countryside, the English and the Welsh don't like living in blocks of flats in city centres and the proportion of people who do so is lower than in other European countries. As

² URL: <https://devonhedges.org/>

a result, cities in England and Wales have, wherever possible, been built outwards rather than upwards (although this is not so much the case in Scottish cities). For example, the London area has about three times the population of the Athens area but it occupies about ten times the area of land.

However, because most people (about 80 %) live in towns or cities rather than in villages or in the countryside, this habit of building outwards does not mean that you see buildings wherever you go in Britain. There are areas of completely open countryside everywhere and some of the mountainous areas remain virtually untouched.



Well Cottage, Wiltshire³

³ URL: <https://well-cottage.net/>

Love of Nature

Britain was the first country in the world to appoint a government- sponsored conservation body (the Nature Conservancy, in 1949) and it was in Britain that the first large green pressure group was founded (the World Wildlife Fund in 1961, now the Worldwide Fund for Nature). This is not a coincidence. One of the most striking aspects of popular mainstream culture in Britain is the love of the rural lifestyle. Ever since they became a nation of city dwellers, the British have had a reverence for nature and an idealized vision of the countryside. Many people, whether they live in a suburban house or in a flat in a high-rise block, would say their dream home was a country cottage with roses growing over the door. The British have a deep nostalgia for an idealized world of neat hedgerows, cottages and great country houses, surrounded by parkland and eighteenth-century style gardens that looked harmonious and natural.



A thatched cottage in rural England, Cotswolds⁴

⁴ URL: <https://discovercotswolds.co.uk/the-typical-english-cottage/>

To the British, the countryside has almost none of the negative associations which it has in some countries, such as poor facilities, lack of educational opportunities, unemployment and poverty. To them, the countryside means peace and quiet, beauty, good health and no crime. Most of them would live in a country village if they thought that they could find a way of earning a living there. Ideally, this village would consist of thatched cottages built around an area of grass known as a "village green". Nearby, there would be a pond with ducks on it. Nowadays such a village is not actually very common, but it is a stereotypical picture that is well-known to the British.

Perhaps this love of the countryside is another aspect of British conservatism. The countryside represents stability. Those who live in towns and cities take an active interest in country matters and the British regard it as both a right and a privilege to be able to go "into the country" whenever they want to. There is an organization to which thousands of enthusiastic country walkers belong, the Ramblers' Association. It is in constant battle with landowners to keep open the public "rights of way" across their lands. Maps can be bought which mark, in great detail, the routes of all the public footpaths in the country. Walkers often stay at youth hostels. The Youth Hostels Association is a charity whose aim is "to help all, especially young people of limited means, to a greater knowledge, love and care of the countryside". Their hostels are cheap and rather self-consciously bare and simple. There are more than 300 of them around the country, most of them in the middle of nowhere!

When they cannot get in to the countryside, many British people still spend a lot of their time with "nature". They grow plants. Gardening is one of the most popular hobbies in the country, and gardening programmes on radio and TV are also very popular. Even those people who do not have a garden can participate. Each local authority owns several areas of land which it rents very cheaply to these people in small parcels. On these "allotments", people grow mainly vegetables.

Along with love of nature comes a strong dislike of anything that seems “unnatural”. In the early years of this century, it was government policy to make Britain “the European hub” of genetically modified (GM) plant technology. But opposition to GM was so strong that all GM companies withdrew their application to grow GM crops in Britain. Similarly, most people are against building a new generation of nuclear power stations.



A typical English garden⁵

To preserve the health and beauty of the land the national parks were created in many parts of the country. They are areas of protected countryside that everyone can visit, and where people live, work and shape the landscape. And each one has an

⁵URL: <https://www.homesandgardens.com/ideas/english-garden-ideas>

organization that looks after the landscape and wildlife and helps people enjoy and learn about the area. The first national park was set in the Peak District, at the southern end of the Pennine Chain, in 1949. There are 15 members of the National Parks family, beautiful areas of mountains, meadows, moorlands, woods and wetlands. Ten of them are situated in England: Broads, Dartmoor, Exmoor, Lake District, New Forest, Northumberland, North York Moors, Peak District, South Downs and Yorkshire Dales. There are three national parks in Wales – Brecon Beacons, Pembrokeshire Coast and Snowdonia, and two in Scotland – Cairngorms, Loch Lomond and the Trossachs.



*View of Mam Tor, Peak District National Park*⁶

⁶ URL: <https://www.visitpeakdistrict.com/business-directory/mam-tor-shivering-mountain>



View of Llyn Llydaw, Snowdonia National Park⁷



Loch Lomond, Trossachs National Park⁸

⁷ URL: <https://www.shutterstock.com/ru/search/llyn-llydaw>

⁸ URL: <https://www.lochlomond-trossachs.org/>

The National Trust

A notable indication of the British reverence for both the countryside and the past is the strength of the National Trust. This is an officially recognized charity whose aim is to preserve as much of Britain's countryside and as many of its historic buildings as possible by acquiring them "for the nation". With more than three million members, it is the largest conservation charity in the world.

It is actually the third largest landowner in Britain (after the Crown and the Forestry Commission). Included in its property is more than 600 miles of the coastline. The importance of its work has been supported by several laws, among which is one which does not allow even the government to take over any of its land without the approval of Parliament.

Find the following words and word combinations in the text:

- примечательное отсутствие крайностей –
- случайно встретиться, натолкнуться на что-либо –
- увековечить –
- обычная черта –
- иногда, изредка, время от времени –
- попасть на первые полосы газет –
- иметь недостаточно грандиозности, пышности –
- компенсировать за счет разнообразия –
- значительное / осязаемое влияние людей –
- окружить поля живой изгородью –
- впечатление разнообразия –
- более рациональный –
- отличаться большим разнообразием –
- желание уединения –
- густонаселенный (район) –

совершенно незадействованная (открытая) местность –
практически оставаться нетронутым –
совпадение –
поражающий аспект массовой культуры –
почитать природу –
иметь идеализированное видение сельской местности –
выглядеть гармоничным и естественным –
не иметь отрицательных ассоциаций – стереотипная картина –
олицетворять стабильность –
активно интересоваться сельскими проблемами –
находиться в постоянной борьбе –
технология выращивания генетически модифицированных растений –
атомная электростанция –
сохранить здоровье и красоту местности –
ухаживать за ландшафтом и живой природой –
поддерживаться законом –
вступить во владение землей без согласия кого-либо –

Answer the following questions about the geographical features of the country:

- 1) In what way do you think the geographical features reflect British attitudes?
- 2) What is the stereotypical vision of the British climate? Why has Britain's climate got such a bad reputation?
- 3) Do you find the British landscape boring? Do you know any places which would be interesting to visit?
- 4) In what ways is the British reverence for nature expressed?

5) What images does the British countryside awake in your mind? What typical features do you remember?

6) Do you think it's a good idea to create the National Parks? Why do you think people like visiting them?

7) How is the pattern of human settlement in Russia different from that of Britain?

8) What stereotypical images of the Russian countryside can you give?

Translate the sentences into English. Reproduce:

1. Озерный край (the Lake District) – самый большой национальный парк в Англии, знаменит своими живописными горными и озерными ландшафтами, которые выглядят гармонично и естественно. Туристы, приезжающие сюда, почитают природу и стараются сохранить здоровье и красоту местности. Многие организации по охране окружающей среды помогают рационализировать уход за ландшафтом и живой природой.



The Skiddaw massif, town of Keswick and Derwent Water, the Lake District⁹

⁹ URL: <https://www.lakedistrictpeaks.co.uk/Skiddaw.html>

2. До осушения (drainage) местность в Восточной Англии под названием Болота (the Fens) была покрыта водой и совершенно не использовалась. Сейчас кажется, что на этой земле недостаточно пышности – здесь не встретишь ни традиционных живых изгородей или изящных садов – но отсутствие растительности компенсируется за счет богатства сельскохозяйственных угодий (farmland) с плодородной почвой.

3. Стоунхендж (Stonehenge), доисторический каменный памятник, располагается в английском графстве Уилтшир (the English county of Wiltshire) был увековечен в сознании людей как самое загадочное сооружение Великобритании. Оставаясь практически нетронутым на протяжении многих столетий, древний памятник не раз попадал на первые полосы газет, заставляя задуматься над гипотезами его возведения.



*Stonehenge*¹⁰

¹⁰ URL: <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Stonehenge>

4. Склонность британцев к идеализированному видению сельской местности, почитание природы и стремление к сельскому стилю жизни стали аспектом массовой культуры. Хотя большая часть населения сосредоточена в городах, люди активно интересуются сельскими проблемами и охотно проводят выходные в загородных домах, крытых соломой, которые традиционно олицетворяют стабильность английской сельской жизни.



Loch Ness, the Scottish Highlands¹¹

5. Шотландское Высокогорье (the Scottish Highlands) отличается поразжающим разнообразием пейзажей, являющихся действительно «дикими» землями. Стереотипную картину многих высокогорных долин (glens) составляют белые

¹¹ URL: <https://www.scottishtours.co.uk/scotlandtours/loch-ness-and-the-highlands/>

постройки винных заводов, которые производят шотландский ячменный виски (malt whiskey distilleries). Не является совпадением тот факт, что слово «Скотч» (“Scotch” is used to describe someone or something from Scotland) используется для обозначения виски по всему миру.

6. Приокско-террасный заповедник (Prioksko-Terrasny Reserve) расположен на реке Оке в Московской области. Небольшая площадь компенсируется за счет разнообразия растительного и животного мира. Кажется, что территория заповедника остаётся нетронутой местностью, здесь нет ощутимого влияния людей. Однако многие из них работают здесь над новыми технологиями выращивания растений, чтобы сохранить здоровье и красоту местности.



Prioksko-Terrasny Reserve, Russia¹²

¹² URL: <https://pt-zapovednik.org/>

7. Озеро Байкал, расположенное в Восточной Сибири, – глубочайшее озеро на земле, которое отличается уникальным разнообразием подводного мира.



Olchon Shaman Rock, Lake Baikal, Russia¹³

Туристы часто приезжают на побережье озера, чтобы увидеть живописную природу и насладиться захватывающими видами.

Watch a video about National Park authorities and other people who look after the British National Parks. National Park Authorities employ staff to do a wide range of jobs. Some staff work out in the National Park, like rangers or field workers, whilst other staff work in an office. The video shows some of the staff at Pembrokeshire Coast National Park. While watching pay attention to the activities the people are involved in (<https://www.nationalparks.uk/>).

¹³URL: <https://www.istockphoto.com/ru/search/2/image?phrase=shaman+rock+island+of+olkhon+lake+baikal+russia>



Marloes peninsula, Pembrokeshire Coast, Wales¹⁴

Watch again. Answer the following questions to make a narration about people who look after Pembrokeshire Coast National Park:

1. What's the authorities' first task? What aspects does the conservation work cover?
2. What are the planning authorities responsible for?
3. Why do the conservation team get out and talk to people?
4. An important part of the authorities' work is to communicate with people. What does this kind of communication involve? What means do they resort to make the communication successful?
5. Why are the communication and education teams created? What's the role of their leaders?
6. What job do the interpretation officers do?

¹⁴ URL: <https://www.pembrokeshirecoast.wales/things-to-do/access-for-all/walks-for-all/marloes-peninsula/>

7. What's the role of the graphic departments?
8. What is "Recreation Management"?
9. What job do the project teams do?
10. What other activities are essential to the authorities' work?

Write an essay to give your personal viewpoint as for the importance of the activity the British National Parks do. Consider the most efficient ways to protect the environment.

Rendering information into English.

Read the article. Find the sentences in the text in which you can use these topical words and phrases:

a calling card; a ferry port; marvelous cliffs, waterfalls and wonderful beaches; to have a huge strategic significance; a settlement; the most important treasure of Dover; white chalk cliffs; a defensive installation; a giant among all castles; to be a part of numerous armed conflicts; to become a command post; to be worth visiting; the art of fortification; a system of tunnels.

Дувр – визитная карточка Великобритании

В юго-восточной части Англии, на берегу Дуврского пролива, the Strait of Dover (Па-де-Кале, Pas de Calais), в графстве Кент (the county of Kent) расположен портовый город Дувр (Dover). Название города было взято из языка местных жителей и означало воду. На сегодняшний день Дувр один из самых красивых городов Великобритании – с удивительными скалами, водопадами и прекрасными пляжами.

Из-за близости Франции, находящейся всего в 34 км, город исторически обладал огромным стратегическим значением для защиты Британского островного королевства, а первые поселения появились здесь еще в доримские времена. Именно в этих местах оборудован въезд (выезд) в туннель под Ла-Маншем (the Channel Tunnel), открытый в 1994 г.

Самым главным достоянием Дувра считается «Ключ к Англии» – белые меловые скалы, которые, благодаря яркому белому цвету, видны даже на французской стороне пролива. Они издавна служили морякам сигналом приближения к берегам Англии и стали символом всей страны. Ослепительные меловые скалы Дувра не один век встречают гостей Англии, прибывающих с моря. Известно также, что именно этим скалам Англия обязана появлению своего второго названия «Туманный Альбион» (Albion), который получила от римлян, так как латинское слово «albus» переводится как «белый».



*Strait of Dover*¹⁵

Туристы, приезжающие в Дувр, могут сполна насладиться уникальным пейзажем Туманного Альбиона, тем более что местная железная дорога проходит у самого подножия скал.

¹⁵ URL: <https://www.britannica.com/place/Strait-of-Dover>

Меловые скалы можно встретить по всему южному побережью Англии, например, на Бичи Хед (Beachy Head) в восточном Сассексе (Sussex), где Саут Даунс (The South Downs) встречается с морем, но все они не породили так много популярных песен, стихов и картин, как белые скалы Дувра.

Самым известным среди оборонительных сооружений стал Дуврский замок (Dover Castle), который по праву считается одним из крупнейших и известнейших на всей территории Великобритании. Вознесенный на вершину белых скал на высоту около 114 м над уровнем моря замок Дувра, построенный около тысячи лет назад для отражения нашествий из Европы, является одной из самых впечатляющих и грандиозных крепостей в мире.



*Dover Castle*¹⁶

Замок расположен на знаменитых Белых Скалах, в наиболее узком месте Ла-Манша (the English Channel). Первые укрепления на этом месте существовали уже в доримскую эпоху. Здесь была крепость с земляными валами, которая

¹⁶ URL: <https://www.english-heritage.org.uk/visit/places/dover-castle/history-and-stories/history-dover/>

стояла и во время римской эпохи. От этого периода сохранился лишь маяк – старейшее здание Великобритании (около 50 г. н. э.).

Замок Дувра – гигант среди замков. Этому сооружению принадлежит самая длинная история среди основных крепостей Великобритании. Существует немного легенд об этом замке, однако, ему «довелось принять участие» во многих военных конфликтах как Средневековья, так и Новейшего времени, стать командным центром Великобритании во время Второй мировой войны.

Замок в Дувре, несомненно, стоит посещения еще и благодаря тому, что все его укрепления прекрасно сохранились и представляют собой особый интерес с точки зрения фортификационного искусства. Уникален замок и тем, что под ним существует целая сеть тоннелей общей протяженностью 3,5 мили, первые из которых были построены более 200 лет назад, во времена Наполеона.

a) Render the article into English. Express your viewpoint as for visiting places of interest in foreign countries and keeping national heritage of our own country.

b) Be prepared to speak about Dover in class; get ready for discussion.

Role play the situation. Follow your Role Cards.

Student A's Role Card:

Imagine you've just returned from Great Britain and you're talking to your friend about British symbolic places. He (she) asks you about the most important places which have become symbolic. You give some information about such places and their peculiarities. Together you should decide what places in Russia can be its calling card and exchange information about them.

Student B's Role Card

Choose a topic for your Project Work:

Imagine your friend has just returned from Great Britain and you're talking to him (her) about British symbolic places. You ask him (her) about the most important places which have become symbolic. He (she) gives some information about such places and their peculiarities. Together you should decide what places in Russia can be its calling card and exchange information about them.

1. Lowland Britain.
2. Highland Britain.
3. Wildlife and Vegetation in Great Britain.
4. Agricultural and Industrial Zones of Britain.
5. The Agricultural Uses of Land.
6. The environment and pollution in Great Britain.
7. Regions of Great Britain and their peculiarities.

You may choose a theme connected with British geography you are interested in for your project.

➤ Prepare a Presentation of your project.

Give your presentation at class. Let your groupmates ask you any questions and try to answer them. Bring some questions up for group discussion.

2. THE BRITISH MONARCHY: ELIZABETH I AND THE "GOLDEN AGE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE"

Discuss these questions in your group:

- What do you know about the British monarchy? Who is the head of the state in Great Britain? Who is the head of the state now?
- What are the functions of the sovereign in Great Britain?
- What Royal Houses ruled the country?
- What Royal House does Elizabeth II belong to? Who were the previous monarchs of the House?

*Read about the period of Elizabeth I's reign (1553–1603) to learn **why it** is considered one of the most important and contradictory periods in the history of England.*



Lion's cub, and I have a lion's heart. Elizabeth I¹⁷

¹⁷ URL: <https://www.rmg.co.uk/stories/topics/queen-elizabeth-i-facts-myths>

The British Isles have a rich history going back thousands of years.

The monarchical history of England begins with the Anglo-Saxons, the invaders from the Continent who began to raid the towns and villages of the Celtic inhabitants of the British Isles in the 5th century AD. In 828 Egbert, King of Wessex, was acknowledged as the overlord by Mercia and Northumbria, the strongest Saxon kingdoms formed in the central and southern parts of the island. This was the beginning of the United Kingdom of England. Hisson Alfred the Great did much for preserving and developing culture, otherkings started to expand the territories.



*Alfred the Great*¹⁸

¹⁸ URL: <https://www.thecollector.com/who-was-alfred-the-great/>

After the Norman Conquest there were five monarchical dynasties. William the Conqueror became the founder of the House of Normans. The Houses of Plantagenet, Tudor, Stuart and Hanover, now called Windsor, followed.

The Tudor dynasty or House of Tudor was a prominent European royal house of Welsh origin that ruled the Kingdom of England and its realms, including the Lordship and Kingdom of Ireland, from 1485 until 1603. Its first monarch was Henry Tudor (Henry VII), a descendant through his mother of a legitimized branch of the English royal House of Lancaster. The Tudor family rose to power in the wake of the Wars of the Roses, which left the House of Lancaster, to which the Tudors were aligned, extirpated.



The Tudor rose – is a combination of a red rose and a white rose

In total, Tudor monarchs ruled the country for just over a century. Henry VII let the political power fall from the hands of aristocracy of blood to aristocracy of money. Henry VIII became the founder of the Church of England in 1531 having broken away from the Roman Catholic Church.



*King Henry VIII*¹⁹

Queen Elizabeth I is regarded as one of the greatest monarchs in English history, reigning as queen of England and queen of Ireland from 1558 until her death in 1603.

Elizabeth was born the second daughter of King Henry VIII. King Henry had the marriage to his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, annulled as she had given birth to a daughter, Mary, and he had started a romance with Anne Boleyn, whom he married. She gave birth to Elizabeth on September 7, 1533, and although Anne Boleyn was pretty, intelligent, witty, clever, and a devout Protestant, her inability to give Henry VIII a son essentially caused her to be executed, although the charge leveled against her was incestuous adultery.

¹⁹ URL: <https://www.history.com/topics/european-history/henry-viii>

As a result, Elizabeth, who was three when her mother was executed, grew up secluded from the court.

When Henry VIII died in 1547, he was succeeded by his sickly son Edward VI. By this time Elizabeth could speak and read not only English and Latin, but also ancient Greek, French, Italian, and Spanish.



Queen Mary, "Bloody Mary"²⁰

She managed to keep a low profile during the reign of Edward VI and tried to do the same during the reign of her older sister Mary, after Edward had died in 1553. Mary, however, was a devout Roman Catholic and determined to rebuild the Catholic Church in England.

Elizabeth, by contrast, was Protestant but she was careful to keep herself removed from plots against her Catholic sister. The most serious of these was Wyatt's Rebellion of 1554, which sought to depose Mary and replace her with Elizabeth.

²⁰ URL: <https://www.britannica.com/biography/Mary-I>

Even though she was not involved, Elizabeth was, nevertheless, arrested and placed in the Tower of London, making the entry by boat through “Traitor’s Gate”.

The death of Mary on November 17, 1558, led to Elizabeth’s succeeding to the throne. She was crowned on January 15, 1559, by Owen Oglethorpe, bishop of Carlisle, as the Roman Catholic archbishop of Canterbury, Reginald Pole, had already fled and refused to take part in the coronation. It was to be the last coronation where the Latin service was used; all subsequent coronations except that of George I in 1714 were in English. In 1559, Queen Elizabeth enacted the Act of Uniformity whereby all churches had to use the Book of Common Prayer.



William Cecil and Elizabeth I²¹

In the same year, she also signed into law the Act of Supremacy whereby all public officials had to acknowledge, by oath, Elizabeth’s right, as sovereign, to be head of the Church of England. In these two acts, her main adviser, who would remain as such for the rest of her reign, was Sir William Cecil (Lord Burghley). In fact,

²¹ URL: <https://thetudortravelguide.com/>

queen Elizabeth wanted to bring together again those parts of English society (Catholic and Protestant) which were in disagreement.

There were many stories regarding whether Queen Elizabeth I wanted to marry. Certainly she enjoyed a long affair with Robert Dudley, earl of Leicester, whom she appointed as master of the Queen's Horse. She was acutely aware of her sister's bad move in marrying Philip II of Spain, and anxious not to marry any foreign Roman Catholic prince, although there were moves made by the French. She never married, but used its possibility as a diplomatic tool. She became known as "the virgin queen". The area which later became the state Virginia in the USA was named after her by Sir Walter Raleigh, a famous English explorer of the time.

With constant plots against Elizabeth, she faced trouble in Scotland from Mary, Queen of Scots, who was her first cousin once removed.



*Mary, Queen of Scots and Elizabeth I*²²

²² URL: <https://www.history.com/news/elizabeth-mary-queen-of-scots-imprisonment-death>

Mary was the granddaughter of Margaret, sister of Henry VIII. Mary was, however, unpopular in Scotland and after the death of her first husband in France, she returned to Scotland, where her second husband was murdered, most probably by the man whom she was subsequently to marry, Lord Bothwell. Mary was hounded out of Scotland, fleeing to England, where she was arrested and held in close confinement for the next 18 years.

In 1569, the Northern Rebellion led by Thomas Howard, the fourth duke of Norfolk; Charles Neville, the sixth earl of Westmoreland; and Thomas Percy, the seventh earl of Northumberland, failed, although it led to Elizabeth's being excommunicated by the pope. With Elizabeth allying herself to the Protestants in France and the Netherlands (United Provinces), she viewed the developments in Europe with concern, especially when Philip II of Spain became the king of Portugal after the last Portuguese king, Henry, died childless.

There was also a rebellion in Ireland, and when Sir Francis Walsingham, Elizabeth's main spymaster, uncovered the Babington Plot implicating Mary, Queen of Scots. Mary was put on trial for treason, sentenced to death, and beheaded on February 8, 1587, at Fotheringay Castle.

With Mary having willed her lands to Philip II, Elizabeth was facing a major threat from the Spanish king, who was also angered at the way in which English ships attacked his treasure ships and others bringing wealth from the Americas.



*Spanish Armada*²³

Francis Drake, who circumnavigated the world in 1577–1579, Walter Raleigh, and John Hawkins, and Martin Frobisher were among the “sea dogs” preying on the Spanish ships.

In 1588, Philip II sent a massive navy and expeditionary force known as the Spanish Armada against England. By a mixture of luck and good planning, the Spanish Armada was crushed, with a few ships managing to escape around the northern coasts of Scotland and Ireland. Queen Elizabeth I’s speech at Tilbury, rallying her soldiers and sailors, is one of the most famous in history.

During the 1590s, Elizabeth continued to receive threats to her rule in Ireland, and in 1599 a plot was mounted by Robert Dudley’s stepson, Robert Devereaux, the earl of Essex, who had emerged as Elizabeth’s new favorite. Essex was executed on February 25, 1601.

²³ URL: <https://www.rmg.co.uk/stories/topics/spanish-armada-history-causes-timeline>

The Spanish wars had crippled the English exchequer, inflation soared, and in 1601 Elizabeth had to go to Parliament to get more money. Sensing hostility, as Parliament was angry about the privileges she had granted her favourites, she gave way graciously, and gave a "Golden Speech" which became in later years a model for the relationship between monarch and the nation – with obligations on both sides.

Gradually Elizabeth's health had declined, but the choice of successor was not straightforward. She was the last of Henry VIII's children and none of them had any children themselves. Elizabeth delayed making her choice of successor until she was on her death bed. When she died on March 24, 1603, James Stuart, who was King of Scotland, and son of Mary Queen of Scots, whom Elizabeth had executed as a traitor, succeeded her.

The reign of Queen Elizabeth I, known as the Elizabethan age, was also a period of great prosperity in England. Being one of the most glorious eras of British history, it is often called "the golden age of the British Empire". This was also the England of Shakespeare, Marlow and Bacon. Many books were published, playwrights wrote large numbers of plays.

Elizabeth I was given the name "Good Queen Bess" by her successors for her glorious ability to run the country in one of the most difficult periods in English history.

Find the following words and word combinations in the text:

история британской монархии –

сохранение и развитие культуры –

известная европейская королевская династия –

королевство –

потомок –

праведный протестант –

вырасти изолированным от двора –

занять сдержанную позицию –

быть настроенным сделать что-либо –
остаться незамешанным в интригах –
взойти на престол –
быть коронованным –
принимать участие в коронации –
выпустить Акт о единообразии –
узаконить Акт о супрематии –
иметь разногласия –
назначить на должность –
использовать в качестве дипломатического средства –
быть в заключении –
поднять восстание –
отлучить от церкви –
следить за событиями в Европе настороженно –
раскрыть заговор –
столкнуться с серьезной угрозой –
комбинация удачного стечения обстоятельств и мудрого планирования –
министерство финансов Англии –
ощущение враждебности –
откладывать назначение преемника –
период великого процветания –
одна из наиболее замечательных эр –
управлять страной в сложный период –

Answer the following questions about the reign of Elizabeth I:

- 1) Why do you think the Elizabethan age became one of the most glorious periods in England's history?
- 2) When did Elizabeth succeed to the throne? Under what circumstances did she become the Queen?

- 3) What was her position in religion? What do you think were her motives?
- 4) Did she face any serious threats in time of her reign? What were these threats? Why do you think she overcame them?
- 5) What do you think were her reasons to be unmarried?
- 6) What misfortunes did England face at the end of the XVI century? What factors caused them?
- 7) Do you think it is good for a woman to become the monarch? Give your reasons.

Translate some information about Elizabeth II. Make good use of new vocabulary.

Женщина в роли монарха одной из великих держав – возможно ли это? Не вызовет ли такое враждебного отношения людей? Сможет ли женщина управлять страной в сложный период? Хватит ли у нее моральных сил занять сдержанную позицию в мировых конфликтах и использовать свою мудрость в качестве дипломатического средства?

Многие страны имеют разногласия в этом вопросе, оставляя женщин вне руководства страной. История английской монархии явно свидетельствует, что и женская рука в управлении государством бывает твердой. Взойдя на престол двадцатилетней женщиной, Елизавета, представительница известной европейской королевской династии, с достоинством несла символ монаршей власти Великобритании.

Элегантная седая женщина с добрым взглядом полвека олицетворяла монархию в Соединенном Королевстве. Ей симпатизировали практически все слои населения Великобритании. Престиж Дома Виндзоров, престиж английской монархии непоколебим.

Но жизнь королевы не всегда была безоблачной. Елизавета II сталкивалась со многими испытаниями. Одним из наиболее серьезных потрясений оказался громкий скандал между принцем Чарльзом и Дианой. Королева тяжело переживала эти события не только как удар по престижу королевской семьи, но и как личную трагедию. А 2002 год принес еще больше горя – в год своего юбилея Елизавета лишилась младшей сестры Маргарет и матери.

Время ее правления стало эрой больших изменений в Англии и во всем мире. Не так давно Англия перестала быть империей и предоставила независимость странам, которыми королева когда-то управляла. Вместо империи – теперь Содружество наций, собрание прежних колониальных стран. И только настороженное наблюдение за событиями в мире и мудрое планирование политики правительства помогает обеспечить мирное политическое и экономическое сотрудничество между этими независимыми государствами.

Но, несмотря на все трудности, Елизавета была сильной, красивой и спокойной женщиной, и преданно служила своему народу.

Complete the text about The State Opening of Parliament with the following verbs in the correct tense form:

to take place	to slam	to deliver
to summon	to knock	to follow

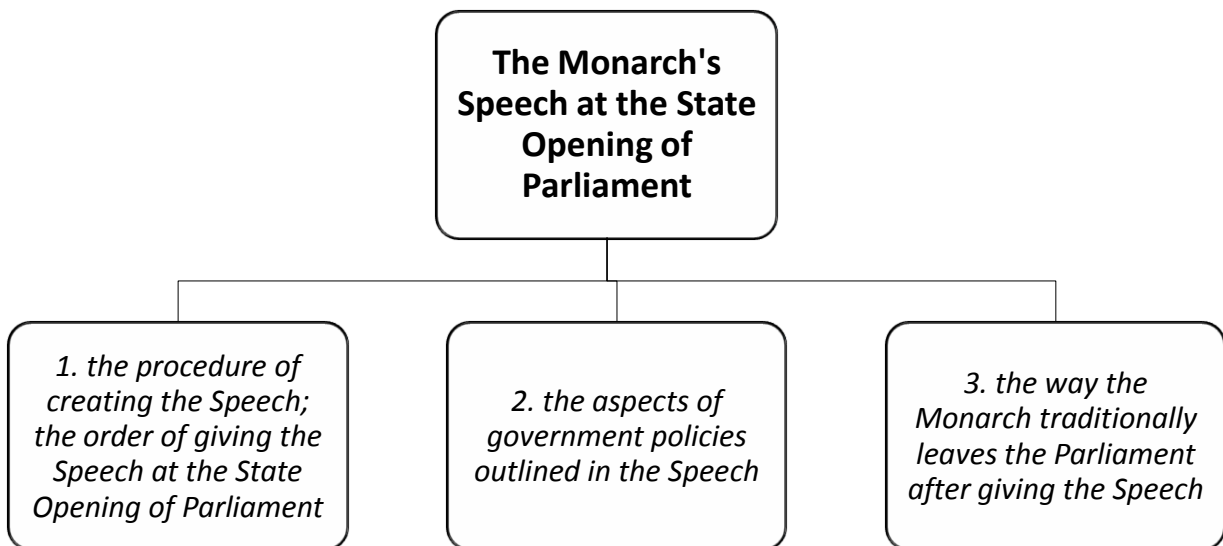
The State Opening of Parliament marks the beginning of the parliamentary session an _____ in November or December on the first day of the new parliamentary session. State Opening is the main ceremonial event of the parliamentary calendar, attracting large crowds, both in person and watching on television and the internet. The official known as "Black Rod" is sent _____ the Commons. In a symbol of the Commons' independence, the door to their chamber _____ in his face and not opened until he _____ on the door with his staff of

office (mace). The Members of the House of Commons _____ Black Rod and the Commons Speaker to the Lords Chamber and stand behind the Bar of the House of Lords to hear the Monarch's Speech, which traditionally _____ by the sovereign.

Watch the video "The State Opening of Parliament":

<http://www.royal.gov.uk/RoyalEventsandCeremonies/Eventsandceremoniesvideogallery.aspx>

Watch again. Sum up the facts and use the prompts to give some information about the Monarch's Speech in Parliament. Follow the numbers.



Write an essay on the topic "the ceremonial role of the monarch – a tradition or a national attitude". Give your opinion as for the role of monarchy in modern British society.

Rendering information into English.

a) Read the article. Find the sentences in the text in which you can use these topical words and phrases:

to be reluctant to do smth, the institution of monarchy, a national day, to carry out duties, to represent the country, the legislative process, to govern the country, national unity, the right to appoint the prime minister, to dissolve the Parliament, an audience, justice, the unitary judicial system, the chief justice, to grant titles, to announce amnesty, to reduce a sentence, a bishop/archbishop, Lord Chamberlain, the Red Cross, to honour the memory of the fallen (people), the anthem, Whitehall, to lay wreaths on the memorial

b) Be prepared to speak about the British monarchy in class; get ready for discussion.

Role play the situation. Follow your Role Cards.

Student A's Role Card:

Imagine you are a journalist working for the magazine "Vokrug Sveta". You're writing an article on modern monarchical leaders and today you have a unique opportunity to meet the monarch of some country. You've got only 10 minutes for the interview. What questions would you ask the King (Queen).

Prepare 6–8 questions.

Student B's Role Card

Imagine you are the monarch of some country. You agree to an interview with a journalist. He is going to ask you some questions. Answer them. Show you are confident that your people respect the institution of monarchy.

Choose a topic for your Project Work:

1. The birth of the British Monarchy in the Anglo-Saxon Period.

2. William the Conqueror, the founder of the first monarchical dynasty in Britain.

3. The Century of Crusades.

4. The Representatives of the House of Plantagenets (Henry II, Edward I).

5. The Houses of York and Lancaster.

6. The Wars of the Roses.

7. Tudor England.

8. The Stuarts (James I, Charles I).

9. The Conflict between King and Parliament. The Civil War.

10. The Republic. Oliver Cromwell, Lord Protector.

11. The Restoration of the Monarchy. The Bill of Rights.

12. The Stuarts (William and Mary).

13. The Hanoverians (George I, II, III, IV – “Georgian Period”, Victoria – “Victorian Period”).

14. The House of Saxe-Coburg (Edward VII – “Edwardian Period”).

You may choose a theme connected with Great Britain you are interested in for your project.

➤ Prepare a Presentation of your project.

Give your presentation at class. Let your groupmates ask you any questions and try to answer them. Bring some questions up for group discussion.

3. THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT AND LOYALTY TO TRADITIONS

Discuss these questions in your group:

– What are the characteristic features of the British Government? How many branches does it have? What are these branches? In what way are they interconnected?

– What is the function of the British Parliament? What role does it have in making the British state system?

– How many chambers are there in the Parliament? What are their functions?

– What do you know about the procedure of passing laws? What are its stages?

– The British Parliament is often called "the Father of Parliaments". In what way did it serve as a model for parliaments in other countries?

Read about some important features of the British Parliament to see why they are considered perfect example of loyalty to ancient national traditions:

The British Parliament: some important issues

The Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is the supreme legislative body in the United Kingdom and British over-seas territories.

The parliament is bicameral, with an upper house, the House of Lords, and a lower house, the House of Commons. The monarch is the formal head of the legislature. The House of Lords includes two different types of members: Lords Spiritual (the senior bishops of the Church of England) and the Lords Temporal (members of the Peerage) whose members are not elected by the population at

large, but are appointed by the Sovereign on advice of the Prime Minister. The House of Commons is a democratically elected chamber with elections to it held at least every five years. The two Houses meet in separate chambers in the Palace of Westminster (commonly known as the Houses of Parliament), in London.



*The Palace of Westminster, London*²⁴

Rules and customs

The origins of Parliament go back to the 13th century, so there are many rules about how it runs. Some of these are written down and are called "Standing Orders". Other rules are set out in resolutions of the House (decisions of either House expressing a collective opinion). However, much of how Parliament does its business is not determined by rules but has become established through continued use over the centuries – this is sometimes known as "custom and practice".

²⁴ URL: https://www.cs.mcgill.ca/~rwest/wikispeedia/wpcd/wp/p/Palace_of_Westminster.htm

Standing Orders

Standing Orders are written rules under which Parliament conducts its business. They regulate the way Members behave, Bills are processed and debates are organized. Some Standing Orders are temporary and only last until the end of a session or a parliament. There are around 150 standing orders relating to parliamentary business and public Bills, and about 250 relating to private business.

Much of parliamentary procedure is not written into the Standing Orders but exist as the custom and practice of Parliament. Some stem from Speaker's rulings in the House of Commons chamber, other procedures are followed because that's the way things have been done in the past, so a custom has been set. An example of a well-known practice is of Bills being "read" three times in both Houses, this is not in the Standing Orders.



*The House of Commons. The House of Lords*²⁵

²⁵ URL: <https://www.britannica.com/biography/Leonard-Henry-Courtney-Baron-Courtney-of-Penwith>

Traditions of Parliament

A number of traditions are involved in the working of Parliament. Below are some examples.

Dragging the Speaker of the House of Commons

The Speaker of the House of Commons is the presiding officer of the House of Commons, the United Kingdom's lower chamber of Parliament.

The Speaker presides over the House's debates, determining which members may speak. The Speaker is also responsible for maintaining order during debate, and may punish members who break the rules of the House.

Unlike presiding officers of legislatures in many other countries, the Speaker remains strictly non-partisan, and renounces all affiliation with his or her former political party when taking office. The Speaker does not take part in debate nor vote (except to break ties, and even then, subject to conventions that maintain his or her non-partisan status), although the Speaker is still able to speak. Aside from duties relating to presiding over the House, the Speaker also performs administrative and procedural functions, and remains a constituency Member of Parliament (MP). The Speaker has the right and obligation to reside in the Parliamentary estate, near to Big Ben.

When a new Speaker of the House of Commons is elected, the successful candidate is customarily physically "dragged unwillingly" to the Chair by other MPs. This custom has its roots in the Speaker's original function to communicate the Commons' opinions to the monarch. Historically, the Speaker, representing the House to the Monarch, potentially faced the Monarch's anger – 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.

Voting

When MPs vote in the Commons they say "aye" or "no". There is one particular feature about the procedure of voting. When making decisions on new laws MPs come to special corridors. On the left there is the "aye" lobby. MPs who agree with a bill go there. On the right there is the "no" lobby for MPs who want to vote against the bill. Then the officials count the "ayes" and the "noes" to get the results. So in the British Parliament MPs don't vote by pushing a button: they vote with their feet.

In the Lords, Members vote saying "content" or "not content".

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.

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". The Woolsack in the House of Lords.

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 Woolsack was introduced by King Edward III (1327–1377) and originally stuffed with English wool as a reminder of England's traditional source of wealth – the wool trade – and as a sign of prosperity. Over the years its stuffing changed to hair but in 1938 it was restuffed with wool from each of the countries of the Commonwealth, to symbolize Commonwealth unity.

The Lord Speaker presides over debates 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.

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 mediaeval Parliaments, when judges attended to offer legal advice. During normal sittings of the House, any Member of the Lords may sit on it.

Parliament and government

The organs of government in the United Kingdom are: the legislature which consists of the monarch in Parliament, and is the supreme authority of the realm; it's responsible for the process of lawmaking; the executive which consists of a) the Cabinet and other ministers of the Crown; b) government departments; c) local authorities and d) statutory boards; it's responsible for the process of law execution; the judiciary which determines common law and interprets statutes; it's responsible for the process of law observation.

Parliament and government both play a part in forming the laws of the United Kingdom. They are separate institutions that work closely together, so it's easy to mix-up exactly what each one is responsible for!

The government runs the country. It has responsibility for developing and implementing policy and for drafting laws. It is also known as the Executive. Parliament, the highest legislative authority in the UK, has responsibility for checking the work of government and examining, debating and approving new laws. It is also known as the Legislature.

The political party that wins the most seats in a general election forms the new government, led by their party leader – who becomes Prime Minister. The Prime

Minister appoints ministers, including the Cabinet, who often work in a government department, and run and develop public services and policies.

Government ministers are chosen from MPs and Lords in Parliament. Your MP may be a member of the party forming the current Government, but it doesn't necessarily mean they are working "in government". Ministers must regularly respond to oral and written questions from MPs and Lords.

Parliament checks the work of the government on behalf of UK citizens through investigative select committees and by asking government ministers questions. The House of Commons also has to approve proposals for government taxes and spending.

Parliament and Crown



State Opening of Parliament – UK Parliament²⁶

²⁶ URL: <https://www.mirror.co.uk/news/uk-news/state-opening-parliament-what-happens-26922099>

Along with the House of Commons and the House of Lords, the Crown is an integral part of the institution of Parliament. The monarch plays an essential role in opening and dissolving Parliament and approving Bills before they become law. Crown is another way of referring to the monarchy – which is the oldest part of the system of government in this country. Time has reduced the power of the monarchy, and today it is broadly ceremonial.

The day after a general election the monarch invites the leader of the party that won the most seats in the House of Commons to become Prime Minister and to form the government.

The Crown opens Parliament through the State Opening (marking the beginning of the Parliamentary year). The Crown dismisses Parliament **before** a general election at the request of the Prime Minister (dissolution).

The Crown informs Parliament of the government's policy ideas and plans for new legislation in a speech delivered from the throne in the House of Lords. Although the monarch makes the speech, the government draws up the content.

When a Bill has been approved by a majority in the House of Commons and the House of Lords it is formally agreed to by the Crown. This is known as the Royal Assent. This turns a Bill into an Act of Parliament, allowing it to become law in the UK.

Find the following words and word combinations in the text:

верность традициям –

высший законодательный орган –

двухпалатный (парламент) –

духовные лорды –

светские лорды –

быть избранным большинством (населения) –

быть назначенным по рекомендациям кого-либо –

избираться демократическим путем –

устанавливаться в резолюциях –
быть определенным правилами –
устанавливаться вековой практикой –
осуществлять свою деятельность –
относиться к деятельности парламента / частной деятельности –
парламентская процедура –
председатель, председательствующее лицо –
председательствовать –
поддерживать порядок –
нарушать правила –
беспартийный –
отказываться –
принадлежность к политической партии –
передавать свои взгляды (мнения, убеждения) –
дать согласие занять должность –
традиционный источник богатства –
знак процветания –
законодательная власть –
исполнительная власть –
судебная власть –
самостоятельные институты –
готовить законопроект –
рассмотреть, обсудить и одобрить новый закон –
формировать настоящее правительство –
государственные налоги и государственные расходы –
неотъемлемая часть –
по требованию кого-либо –
быть одобренным большинством (членов парламента) –

Answer the following questions about the British Parliament:

1) What do you think are the most impressive traditions of the British Parliament? What features make you think that the parliamentary procedure shows the loyalty to ancient traditions?

2) During World War II the House was badly damaged by bombing. Why do you think they decided to rebuild it in the same size and shape, instead of enlarging the debating chamber?

3) Everybody in Britain agrees that the House of Lords needs further re-form. How do you think it should be reformed?

4) What's the name of the highest legislative body in Russia? What are the characteristic features of the Russian Parliament? What traditions of the Russian Parliament do you know?

5) In what ways do the seating arrangements in the House of Commons differ from those in the Russian Parliament? What difference do you think it makes?

Translate the following situations into English. Make good use of new vocabulary. Reproduce:

1. Парламент Великобритании олицетворяет верность вековым традициям. По праву называемый «отцом парламентов» он осуществляет свою деятельность уже на протяжении многих столетий. Поддержание порядка и ненарушение правил – одна из характерных британских черт, которая строго соблюдена в парламентской процедуре, одним из основных аспектов которой является подготовка законопроектов, а также рассмотрение, обсуждение и одобрение новых законов.

2. Россия, также как и многие европейские государства, имеет двухпалатный парламент. Высший законодательный орган государства, Федеральное Собрание (the Federal Assembly), состоит из Государственной Думы (the State

Duma) и Совета Федерации (the Federation Council). Палаты Российского парламента являются самостоятельными институтами, которые ответственны за разработку и реализацию политики государства.

3. Государственная Дума рассматривает, обсуждает и принимает федеральные законы большинством голосов от общего числа депутатов, а также участвует в процессе формирования настоящего правительства. Порядок работы Госдумы определен правилами, установленными Конституцией РФ, а также многолетним опытом работы. Депутаты, имеющие принадлежность к разным политическим партиям, избираются демократическим путем сроком на пять лет.



State Duma Building²⁷

²⁷ URL: <http://duma.gov.ru/en/>

4. Являясь двухпалатным, Австралийский парламент смоделирован согласно Вестминстерской традиции и многолетнему опыту Конгресса США. Как правило, спикером палаты представителей (The House of Representatives) становится член палаты, имеющий принадлежность к правящей политической партии. Он председательствует на заседаниях, поддерживает порядок парламентской процедуры. Сенат (the Senate), являющийся верхней палатой, регулирует работу палаты представителей.

5. Парламент Индии носит название Сансад (Sansad) и включает в свою структуру президента Индии и две палаты. Неотъемлемой частью парламентской деятельности является осуществление контроля за государственными налогами и расходами.



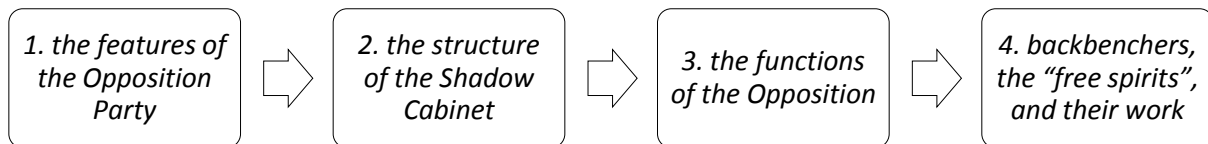
Sansad Bhawan, New Delhi, India²⁸

²⁸ URL: <https://www.shutterstock.com/ru/search/sansad-bhavan>

Watch a video episode with Adam Afriyie, an MP, speaking about the opposition in the British Parliament:

<http://www.parliament.uk/education/online-resources/videos/mps-in-their-own-words/mp-opposition/>

Watch again. Give some information about the opposition. Follow the numbers:



Write an essay to give your viewpoint as for the importance role of the opposition in the work of the British Parliament as well as in the modern parliamentary system worldwide.

Rendering information into English.

➤ *Read the article. Find the sentences in the text in which you can use these topical words and phrases:*

the rational system of government, to have the absolute supremacy, legal limitations, financial bills, a delay, to have a dependent position, to have large powers, an absolute veto, to represent the government, to carry out rulemaking activity, the loss of confidence, to dissolve the House of Commons, reforming.

Великобритания: рациональная система государственной власти?

Формально парламент Великобритании обладает абсолютным верховенством, так как не существует никаких юридических ограничений его полномочий, фактически же принятие законов и бюджета осуществляется правительством.

Правовое положение палат парламента различно. Финансовые законопроекты (билли) могут быть внесены только в палату общин, и для их принятия не требуется согласия палаты лордов. В отношении других биллей за палатой лордов сохраняется право отсрочки их окончательного одобрения. Таким образом, хотя палата лордов занимает в законодательном процессе подчиненное положение, при известных обстоятельствах она играет роль тормоза в отношении законопроектов, принятых в палате общин.

Порядок прохождения законопроектов в обеих палатах примерно одинаков, однако председатель палаты общин – спикер – обладает широкими полномочиями и оказывает решающее воздействие на весь ход работы палаты, в то время как лорд-канцлер, председательствующий в палате лордов, этих полномочий лишен.

Король или королева обладает правом окончательного отклонения закона (так называемое абсолютное вето), но с начала восемнадцатого века это право не применяется.

Законодательная инициатива почти полностью осуществляется правительством. Подавляющее большинство министров является членами палаты общин, небольшая их часть представляет правительство в палате лордов. Правительство возглавляет премьер-министр. Как правило, на эту должность назначается лидер партии, располагающей большинством в палате общин. Фактически, с начала XVIII века высший орган исполнительной власти Великобритании – кабинет министров, который сосредоточивает в своих руках все важнейшие полномочия по осуществлению внутренней и внешней политики.

Хотя кабинет не может издавать нормативные акты, фактически он осуществляет всю нормотворческую деятельность. Состав кабинета подбирается

лично премьер-министром, и в него входит лишь часть министров, занимающих наиболее важные посты в правительстве.

Юридически правительство несет ответственность за свою политическую деятельность перед палатой общин и в случае утраты доверия обязано уйти в отставку. Однако такая ситуация не возникала уже много лет. На практике кабинет, почувствовав слабость своих парламентских позиций, распускает палату общин и назначает новые выборы.

Рассматривая систему государственной власти Великобритании, видишь британскую приверженность традициям. Однако стремительный поток изменений в современном мире заставляет многих задуматься над рациональностью системы государственной власти в этой стране, а также над необходимостью и возможностью ее реформирования.

a) Render the article into English. Express your viewpoint to the problem of reforming the system of government in Great Britain.

b) Be prepared to speak about the British system of government in class; get ready for discussion.

Role play the situation. Follow your Role Cards.

Student A's Role Card:

Imagine you are a correspondent working for an international political magazine and you are to investigate the differences in the British and Russian government systems. You meet a press representative of the British Parliament and ask him (her) some questions which cover the most important aspects of parliamentary business. You discuss these aspects and compare them with the Russian system. Then you draw a conclusion about the similar and different points in the government systems of Great Britain and Russia.

Student B's Role Card

I. Choose a topic for your Project Work:

1. The Rise of Parliamentarism in Great Britain. "Magna Carta".
2. The atmosphere of Parliament.
3. The procedures in the House of Commons. Parliamentary business.
4. The House of Lords – its structure and members.

You may choose a theme connected with Great Britain you are interested in for your project.

You are a press representative of the British Parliament. A Russian correspondent asks you some questions which cover the most important aspects of parliamentary business. You discuss these aspects together and you ask him about the Russian system of government. You compare the both systems and draw a conclusion about the similar and different points in the government systems of Great Britain and Russia.

II. Prepare a Presentation of your project. *Give your presentation at class. Let your groupmates ask you any questions and try to answer them. Bring some questions up for group discussion.*

For more information about the British Parliament you can visit the official website: <http://www.parliament.uk/>

4. THE TOWER OF LONDON. THE HARMONY OF ANTIQUETY AND MODERN TIMES

Discuss these questions in your group:

- What are the famous sights of London?
- What interesting historical facts about London and its sights do you remember?
- Which places would you most like to visit? Why?
- When visiting a historical place would you like to listen to the guide or you'd better walk alone and observe? Why?

Read about the Tower of London to know some important facts of ancient times and modern ways of preserving antiquity.

The Tower of London

London is the city of many faces. Being the capital of the United Kingdom it is one of the major metropolitan cities of the world as well as one of the most beautiful. Visitors are captivated by the skyline of the city with the twisting River Thames crisscrossed by a number of beautiful and decorative bridges. People who arrive in London preserve a life-time memory of their visit.

There is a lot to see and to marvel at: the famous Picadilly Circus with the statue of Eros; Leicester Square, the centre of the city's nightlife; Soho, the multi-cultural quarter; innumerable Asian restaurants and shops, located in China Town; the Mall, taking the visitors from Trafalgar Square to Buckingham Palace, the residence of the monarch, where we can watch the changing of the guard; St. Paul's

Cathedral which lies in the middle of the financial centre and is the third biggest domed cathedral in the world.

For all art lovers, London offers innumerable museums and galleries. For example the British Museum, the Tate Gallery and many more. Among the most popular attractions are the wax museum of Madame Tussaud as well as London's most recent constructions – the London Eye, the biggest ferris wheel, opened on New Year's Eve 1999 to celebrate the millenium; the Millenium Dome, and the Millenium Bridge. But the most famous sight in London is probably Tower Bridge. There is a fine view of the Tower of London from the bridge, which is one of the most imposing and popular of London's historical sites. Nowadays thousands of tourists visit daily the Tower of London, because of the Tower's evil reputation as a prison.



*The Tower of London*²⁹

²⁹ URL: <https://www.hrp.org.uk/tower-of-london/#gs.z7zewa>

Her Majesty's Royal Palace and Fortress, more commonly known as the Tower of London, is a historic castle 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 City of London by the open space known as Tower Hill. As a whole, the Tower is a complex of several buildings set within two concentric rings of defensive walls and a moat.



The White Tower dates from the late 11th century³⁰

³⁰ URL: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/White_Tower_\(Tower_of_London\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/White_Tower_(Tower_of_London))

The Tower of London has played a prominent role in the history of England. It was besieged several times and controlling it has been important to controlling the country. It was considered the most impregnable fortress in Europe. The Tower has served variously as an armoury, a treasury, a menagerie, the home of the Royal Mint, a Public Record Office, and the home of the Crown Jewels of the United Kingdom².

The Tower of London was founded by King William the Conqueror. After his coronation on Christmas Day, 1066, William hastily ordered the erection of a wooden fortress between the Thames and the ancient Roman wall which then surrounded London.

William began building the White Tower, the oldest part of the castle, ten years later. A rectangular stone keep, designed as an impregnable fortress **became** an impressive and awesome demonstration of his power to the Londoners. With ramparts fifteen feet thick at the base and walls ninety feet high, the dominating shadow of the Tower loomed forebodingly over the huddled wooden buildings of medieval London and was a visible expression of Norman power.

The White Tower consists of three storeys and contains the austere Norman Chapel of St. John, which remains one of the best-preserved examples of a Norman chapel in England. The present castle covers eighteen acres. It evolved around the Conqueror's keep, being added to by successive generations.

Historically the Tower of London is the oldest and most important castle in England. Since at least 1100, the castle has been used as a prison, although that was not its primary purpose. Early in its history, the Tower was a grand palace and served as a royal residence. The castle underwent several expansions, mainly under Kings Richard the Lionheart, Henry III, and Edward I in the 12th and 13th centuries.

The castle was used as a prison until the 17th century. Throughout its long and bloodstained history, the Tower played host to a number of famous prisoners. Many

noble people were kept there, including Sir Thomas More and Princess Elizabeth, the future Elizabeth I. This use has led to the phrase "sent to the Tower".

One of the mysteries associated with the Tower of London is that of the tragic disappearance of the so-called Princes in the Tower within its walls. At his death, Edward IV left his brother Richard,

Duke of Gloucester, as Lord Protector to his young son, the new king. Richard imprisoned his nephews Edward V and Richard, Duke of York in the Tower in 1483 and seized the throne for himself.

The two boys were seen playing in the garden, but after Richard's coronation began to be seen less and less behind the bars and windows of the Tower, rumours said that they were murdered and never again seen alive.

The children were housed in what was then known as the Garden Tower, but was renamed the Bloody Tower only after the disappearance of the young princes and their likely murder.

What is believed to be the remains of these two children were found by workmen nearly two hundred years later, in 1674. Although they have never been proved conclusively to be the bones of the two princes, King Charles II placed them in the Henry VII Chapel at Westminster Abbey, where they now lie close to their supposed sister, Elizabeth of York. The bones were subjected to an examination in 1933, which controversially concluded that they were the bones of the two princes.

The Tower became a symbol of oppression in the period of Reformation. Henry VIII, "the bloody king", who was obsessed with the desire to have a son and a successor, broke off any relations with the Roman Catholic Church and started in pursuit of everyone who refused to recognize him as the head of the Church of England. His second wife, Anne Boleyn and her brother were executed in the Tower. Catherine, Henry VIII's fifth wife suffered the same fate. She was also beheaded there.

The Tower is famous as home of the Crown Jewels. A small Jewel House had been erected at the Tower site by Henry III, but much of the royal regalia were still stored at Westminster Abbey. After a daring and successful robbery at the Abbey in the reign of Henry's son and successor, Edward I, when thieves escaped with much of the crown's treasure, a decision was reached that the Royal Treasury should be transferred to the greater security of the Tower. It has remained there ever since and today they can be viewed in their new jewel house. They are the greatest working collection of Crown Jewels in the world and priceless symbols of the British Monarchy.



The Imperial State Crown³¹

The Tower of London has been keeping the traditional medieval traits in the clothing of the yeoman warders of the Tower or "Beefeaters". They still wear dark-blue tunics with red braid, a uniform designed in 1536. There are thirty-eight Beefeaters, all ex-army men, who guard the Tower and work as tourist guides. They

³¹ URL: <https://somethingaboutrocks.com/article/what-is-the-imperial-state-crown/>

are the oldest royal bodyguard in the world. At 10 o'clock every night the yeoman warders and the Chief Warder perform one of the oldest and most impressive ceremonies in England – a ceremony which dates back at least 700 years. This ceremony is known as “The ceremony of the keys”. The Chief Warder, with a guard escort, performs the ritual locking up of the Tower for the night. After each of the Tower gates has been locked, the last post is sounded by a trumpeter before the keys are secured in the monarch’s House.



The yeoman warders of the Tower (“Beefeaters”)³²

³² URL: <https://projectbritain.com/Beefeaters.htm>

Of course, no visit to the Tower would be complete without seeing the ravens; huge black birds who are an official part of the Tower community. Ravens have lived in the Tower for hundreds of years.

Long before the conquest, ravens had been a familiar sight in the streets of London, where they were welcomed as natural scavengers who picked up bones and edible refuse from the gutters. Legend states that if the ravens were to leave the Tower the Crown will fall, and Britain with it. The legend of the ravens, of unknown antiquity, has become of such importance that royal decrees have been issued protecting the birds for hundreds of years. The decree requires that at least six birds be kept at the Tower at any time. The ravens are lodged by the Wakefield Tower.

Under the special care of the Raven Master, the ravens are fed a daily diet of raw meat. And there is no danger of them flying away, because their wings are clipped.



Tower of London Raven Master Derrick Coyle holding one of the ravens³³

³³ URL: https://www.sallykindberg.co.uk/curator_ravenmaster.html

Nowadays the Tower of London is one of the country's most popular tourist attractions. It is cared for by the charity Historic Royal Palaces ⁸ and is protected by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site.

Find the following words and word combinations in the text:

многоликий город –

быть очарованным чем-либо –

архитектурный пейзаж города –

извилистый –

восхищаться чем-либо –

смена караула –

третий по величине купольный собор –

ценитель искусства –

недавнее сооружение –

колесо обозрения –

грандиозный, впечатляющий –

недобрая репутация –

королевский дворец и крепость –

исторический замок –

открытое пространство –

комплекс из нескольких зданий –

оборонительные стены и ров –

включать; заключать в себе, содержать –

играть выдающуюся роль в истории Англии –

быть осажденным –

неприступная крепость –

драгоценности из королевской казны –

приказать –

деревянная крепость –

прямоугольная каменная цитадель –
впечатляющий и приводящий в трепет –
средневековый Лондон –
состоять из трех этажей –
строгая нормандская часовня –
последующие поколения –
основное назначение –
служить королевской резиденцией –
подвергнуться дальнейшему строительству –
запятнанный кровью –
принимать гостей –
трагическое исчезновение –
захватить трон –
слухи (молва) –
останки –
окончательно доказать / установить доподлинно –
подвергаться экспертизе –
символ тирании –
быть одержимым желанием –
разорвать все отношения –
Римско-католическая церковь –
начать преследование кого-либо –
признать кого-либо главой чего-либо –
обвинить в измене и предательстве –
казнить –
пострадать от той же участи –
быть обезглавленным –
бесценные символы Британской монархии –
сохранить средневековые черты –

работать туристическим гидом –
королевская служба охраны –
излюбленное место туристов –
объект Всемирного наследия –

Answer the following questions for the text:

- 1) Why do you think the Tower of London played a prominent role in England's history?
- 2) When was the Tower of London founded? Who founded it?
- 3) Were there any expansions?
- 4) Why do you think the castle became a symbol of oppression?
- 5) How long was the Tower used as a palace and prison?
- 6) What prisoners were kept in the castle? Do you think the Tower was a prison?
- 7) What is there in the castle today?
- 8) Who are Beefeaters? What kind of uniform do they wear? When was the uniform designed?
- 9) What role do the ravens play for England? How are they cared?
- 10) Do you think the Tower of London has been keeping the traditional medieval traits today? What are these traits?

Translate the sentences into English. Reproduce:

1. Замок Марксбург (Marksburg Castle), расположенный на правом берегу Рейна (the Rhine (*Rhein, Germ*)), – один из великих замков Европы, сохранивший традиционные средневековые черты.

Марксбург – это единственная неразрушенная высотная крепость (hill fortress). Туристы очарованы архитектурным пейзажем крепости, представляющей собой грандиозное старинное сооружение.



Marksburg Castle, Braubach, Germany³⁴

2. Каждый год тысячи туристов приезжают в Мещеру (Meshchera), чтобы ознакомиться с местными достопримечательностями и узнать множество интересных исторических фактов. Гиды, которые владеют обширной информацией, проводят интересные экскурсии по излюбленным местам туристов.

3. Одно из наиболее интересных исторических мест в пригороде Лондона (suburban London) – это Виндзорский замок (Windsor Castle), который находится в двадцати километрах от города. Это величественный комплекс из нескольких зданий, используемый в качестве королевской резиденции на протяжении долгого времени. Туристы, приезжающие в замок, чувствуют его средневековую атмосферу и сохраняют воспоминания об этом месте на всю жизнь.

³⁴ URL: <https://www.romantischer-rhein.de/en/a-marksburg>



Windsor Castle (together with Buckingham Palace in London and Holyrood Palace in Edinburgh, it is one of the three principal official residences of the British monarch)³⁵

4. Петропавловская крепость (Peter and Paul Fortress), – одна из наиболее известных достопримечательностей Санкт-Петербурга, расположена на маленьком Заячьем острове (Hare Island). Эта крепость сыграла значительную роль в истории нашей страны. Хотя она была местом расположения городского гарнизона (the city garnison), крепость на протяжении долгих лет использовалась как тюрьма для политических заключенных.

³⁵ URL: <https://www.rct.uk/visit/windsor-castle>



*Peter and Paul Fortress*³⁶

5. Брестская крепость (Brest Fortress), памятник оборонной архитектуры (defence architecture) XIX века, расположена у западной окраины Бреста, на границе сегодняшних Беларуси (Belarus) и Польши. Крепость была осаждена несколько раз и по праву считается (properly considered) одной из неприступных цитаделей.

6. Ни одна экскурсия по Шотландии не будет полной без посещения Эдинбургского замка (Edinburgh Castle) – главной туристической достопримечательности этих мест. Древняя крепость, называемая шотландцами «замок замков», возвышается над современной столицей Шотландии.

³⁶URL: <http://www.saint-petersburg.com/museums/peter-paul-fortress/>



*Edinburgh Castle, Scotland*³⁷

7. Нью-Йорк – многоликий город. Люди, приезжающие в «Большое яблоко» (“The Big Apple”), восхищаются бесчисленными современными небоскребами и другими грандиозными строениями. Известный как наиболее многонациональный город Нью-Йорк ежедневно привлекает тысячи туристов. Статуя Свободы, объект Всемирного наследия, является символом города и приветствует гостей в Нью-Йоркской Гавани (New York Harbour).

8. Одна из тайн, ассоциируемых с недоброй репутацией замка Дракулы (Dracula’s Castle) в Трансильвании (Transylvania), в Румынии, – это связь старинного здания необычной формы с легендой о Дракуле (the Dracula legend), одной из самых противоречивых драматичных фигур мировой истории и культуры.

³⁷URL: https://www.tripadvisor.com/Attraction_Review-g186525-d187653-Reviews-Edinburgh_Castle-Edinburgh_Scotland.html

Ходят слухи, что легендарный румынский граф, прототипом (prototype) которого является средневековый князь Влад Тепеш (Vlad Tepesh), жил в этом замке, но это не установлено доподлинно. Говорят, что Влад был символом тирании для этих мест, многие торговцы были обезглавлены в его замке, даже близкие друзья князя пострадали от такой участи.



*Dracula's Castle (Bran Castle), Romania*³⁸

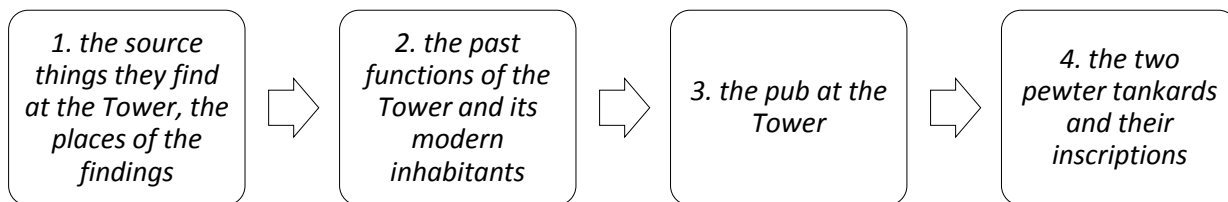
There are a lot of amazing things found at the Tower every day. Watch the video "A pewter tankard", an interview with Sally Dixon-Smith, collections curator, on the archaeology collection at the Tower of London.

³⁸ URL: <https://bran-castle.com/>

Sally shows a pair of late 17th century pewter tankards, which are one of the last remnants of the Stone Kitchen, the pub which once stood near the Byward Tower:

www.hrp.org.uk/discoverthepalaces/MediaPlayerhomepage/TowerOfLondonplaylists.aspx

Watch again. Use the prompts to give some information about the findings. Follow the numbers.



Write an essay to give your viewpoint as for the activity people are involved in to keep ancient features of the Tower; consider the most efficient ways to preserve antiquity in modern times.

Rendering information into English.

a) Read the article about Roman remains found in London. Find the sentences in the text in which you can use these topical words and phrases:

relics of the Roman period, amphitheatre, to be discovered by chance, a foundation pit, to be built of stone and brick, white chalk cliff, a new military setting, the Celtic language, an indispensable attribute, an arena, a public festival, a ground bank, gladiator battles, to serve the civilian service, to boast of smth, a basilica forum, the temple of the Persian god Mitra, the decline of the Roman Empire, public baths, a legionary.

Римский Лондон

В Лондоне открыт еще один памятник римских времен. На этот раз – амфитеатр. Его остатки сохранились на глубине пяти метров и были случайно вскрыты строительными рабочими, копавшими котлован под фундамент нового

здания. Стены амфитеатра, по мнению английского журнала «Нейче» ("Nature"), построены в I веке нашей эры из камня и кирпича.

Как известно, Лондон был основан после завоевания Альбиона (Albion) римлянами в 43 году при императоре Клавдии (Claudius). Кстати, Альбионом (от латинского слова «альбус» – белый) римляне называли Англию за белые известняковые скалы около нынешнего города Дувра (Dover), видные в хорошую ясную погоду с французского берега. Когда римские легионеры прибыли на берега Темзы, как-то надо было назвать новое военное поселение. Иначе оно стало бы очередным «каструм» ("castrum"), что по-латыни означает «лагерь», слово, которое впоследствии англичане переделали в «честер» ("chester"), вошедшее в название многих городов.

Сам город Честер был тогда самой западной точкой Римской империи – дальше простирался океан. Неподалеку от Честера сегодня лежит всем известный Манчестер (Manchester), кроме того, есть города Сирен-честер (Cirencester), Чичестер (Chichester), Честерфилд (Chesterfield), Честер-ле-Стрит (Chester-le-Street) и Честертон (Chesterton)... Итак, римляне решили назвать будущую английскую столицу пооригинальнее и дали ей имя в честь древних жителей страны лондов (londs), как они сами себя называли (в кельтском языке слово «лонд» означало сильного мужчину, бесстрашного воина). В Лондиниуме (Londinium) римляне устроились надолго, ведь пробыли они в Англии четыре столетия.

Непременным атрибутом римских городов были цирк или арена, на которой устраивались празднества для народа. Чаще всего амфитеатры представляли собой просто земляные валы, где в праздники собирались люди, чтобы посмотреть бои гладиаторов. Такие амфитеатры были раскопаны в Румынии, Венгрии, Австрии и Германии. В самой Британии амфитеатры открыты в Сиренчестере, в Южном Уэльсе и в Честере. В самом Лондоне поначалу на месте амфитеатра была площадка для муштры солдат вспомогательных когорт из

местных жителей. Только потом, с возведением валов и стен, амфитеатр стал служить гражданским целям.

Помимо амфитеатра, скрытого ныне в самом центре лондонского Сити, английская столица может похвастаться и многими другими римскими «объектами»: это и большой форум с базиликой на улице Корнхилл (Cornhill) в том же Сити – сейчас здесь стоит церковь Грэйсчёрч (Graceschurch), храм персидского божества Митры, ставшего популярным в период заката Римской империи, остатки стен римского города и двух публичных бань, а также несколько мозаичных полов римских вилл, которые были раскрыты еще в XIX веке. И поныне любители старины находят на дне Темзы римские монеты, оброненные, возможно, пьяными легионерами, а возможно, и теми, кто надеялся еще раз вернуться сюда...

b) Render the article into English. Express your attitude to the importance of archaeological research of ancient times.

c) Be prepared to speak about Roman findings in London in class; get ready for discussion.

Role play the situation. Follow your Role Cards.

Student A's Role Card:

You've never been to London but you're planning to go there soon. You're eager to make your visit fantastic and preserve a life-time memory of the British capital. You've found some information about the city in your guide book or surfing the web, etc, but you want to know much more about London and its sights.

Student B's Role Card

You visited London last year and enjoyed your visit very much. You know much about the city and its sights.

Your friend has never been to London but he's planning to go there soon.

So he asks your advice for visiting the city.

Give your partner the necessary information and recommend him to visit the Tower of London and some other places you find the most interesting to see. Persuade your friend using some amazing facts (historical, modern) you know and find some new interesting facts.

Choose a topic for your Project Work:

1. Great Britain. History and modern times (spheres at your option).
2. London. Its districts and modern life.
3. London for art-lovers.
4. The Greater London (Лондон и пригород).
5. Historical places and tourist attractions in Great Britain (at your option).
6. Amazing facts of British history (at your option).

You may choose a theme connected with Great Britain you are interested in for your project.

- Prepare a Presentation of some interesting historical monument (monuments) of your region. Give recommendations for visiting the place(places).

Give your presentation at class. Let your groupmates ask you any questions and try to answer them. Bring some questions up for group discussion.

5. THE BRITISH CHARACTER

Discuss these questions in your group:

- What characteristics are given to the British all over the world? What stereotypes do people have about them?
- What things traditionally symbolize British life?
- What British traditions do you know?
- Which traditional British holidays do you know?
- Can you name any British festivals or carnivals? Have you visited any of them?
- What do you know about British theatre and cinema?
- Do you remember any British painters, architects?

Read about the British to learn some important information about their lifestyle and character

The British as seen by themselves and by others

Britain is a land built on tradition. The Englishman has, in fact, so great a love for tradition that he often pretends to believe himself bound by some venerable convention which in reality has long ago lost the greater part of its force, and if one does not know of this curious attitude, one can never hope to understand him. There are certain types of behavior, manners and customs which are peculiar to Britain, and are different from those in other countries.

1. English people tend to be rather conservative – a little more so, perhaps, than most others. This conservative attitude consists of an acceptance of things which

are familiar, and an important aspect of it is an inclination to be suspicious of anything that is strange (or foreign).

For example, most English people were inclined to resist attempts at rational reforms, such as the introduction of a decimal coinage or the metric system of measurements, or the use of the twenty-four-hour clock for railway timetables.

English people tend to be hostile, or at least bored, when they hear any suggestion that some modification of their habits, or the introduction of something new and unknown into their lives, might be to their advantage. England is full of small-scale and local conservatisms, some of them of highly individual or particular character. Regiments in the army, municipal corporations, schools and societies have their own private traditions. Such groups have customs of their own which they are very reluctant to change, and they like to think of their private custom as differentiating them as groups from the rest of the world. Most English people remain strongly attached to the open coal fire, although it causes much work and adds to the pollution of the air, and sometimes pours smoke into the room which it is heating. Many rooms are, in fact, heated by gas or electric fires, but these are usually placed in front of old-style fire-places.

2. Generally speaking, however, a foreigner will notice that in England there are more social fences than in his own land, and that life is more formal. The country has sharper divisions than the towns and the north is less conservative than the south.

3. English hospitality is gracious and beautiful. Much humour has been extended on the Englishman's aloofness and his insistence of introductions. Gilbert's story of the two Englishmen wrecked on a desert island, who, because they had not been introduced could not meet to exchange turtle for oysters, each loathing the food he had and longing for the other's, is a classic.

Such satire must have a foundation in fact. The Englishman doesn't wear the heart of his hospitality on the sleeve of his business suit. He must know you and approve you before he asks you to his home; or you must be properly recommended to him.

4. It is true that Englishman does not talk freely about himself or easily disclose the things nearest his heart, and for that reason he often deceives. A casual acquaintance who talks all the way about golf or cricket or detective stories is very rarely met.

It is true that many of the national characteristics have also been deliberately cultivated by the upper classes, for their own purposes.

5. In general, the British are more polite in public than, for example, the Germans or the Spanish. Queueing, for instance, is governed by a strict code of fairness in Britain. Woe betide anyone who attempts to jump the queue.

6. "The Englishman's home is his castle" is a well-known saying, and it is true that English people prefer small houses, built to house one family, perhaps with a small garden. But nowadays the shortage of building land and inflated land values mean that more blocks of flats are being built especially by the local councils.

7. The Englishman loves jokes, especially when they are familiar and reliable, like a pair of comfortable old slippers. The following facts form the basis of many a laugh on radio or television, or in the public bar. However fanciful they may be, they play an important part in everyday talking and thinking.

"Advice to a Young Man Going to London"

You are going to live in a far country, far not in distance, but in customs and ideas. You are going to live in a difficult and mysterious country. For the first few days you will think: "This venture is hopeless, I shall never get to know them, the gulf is too wide". Be reassured. The gulf can be crossed.

Do not talk too much until you have found your depth. No one there will blame you for silence. When you haven't opened your mouth for three years, they will think: "This is a nice quiet fellow". Be modest. An English man will say: "I have a little house in the county"; when he invites you to stay with him, you will discover that the little house is a place with three hundred bedrooms.

If you are a world tennis champion, say: "Yes, I don't play too badly". If you have crossed the Atlantic alone in a small boat, say "I do a little sailing". If you have written books, say nothing at all. They will discover for themselves, in time, this regrettable but inoffensive weakness; they will laugh and say: Now I know all about you", and they will be pleased with you.

Golden Rule: Never ask questions. For six months during the war I lived in the same tent and shared a bath-tub with an Englishman: he never asked me if I was married, what I did in peace time, or what were the books I was reading under his nose.

If you insist on making confidences, they will be listened to with polite indifference. Avoid making confidences about other people: gossip exist here as elsewhere, but they are at the same time less common and more serious. There is no middle course between silence and scandal. Choose silence. (From *Three Letters on the English* by A. Maurois.).

The Character of the English Nation

(The extract that follows is from a letter supposed to have been written by a Chinese philosopher visiting England)

The English, in general, seem fonder to gain the esteem than the love of those they converse with. This gives a formality to their amusement; their gayest conversations have something too wise for innocent relaxation: though a company, you are seldom disgusted with the absurdity of a fool you are seldom lifted into

rapture by those strokes of vivacity, which give instant, though not permanent pleasure.

What they want, however, in gaiety, they make up in politeness. You smile at hearing me praise the English for their politeness, but I must still respect it, the English seem more polite than any of their neighbours: great art in this respect lies in endeavouring, while they oblige, to the force of the favour. Other countries are fond of obliging a stranger, but seem desirous that he should be sensible of their obligation. The English confer their kindness with an appearance of indifference, and give away benefits with an air as if they despised them. (From *The Citizens of the World* by O. Goldsmith.)

Find the following words and word combinations in the text:

- страна, построенная на традициях –
- определенный тип поведения, манер и обычаев, свойственный гражданам Великобритании –
- склонность к подозрительности –
- противостоять попыткам проведения рациональных реформ –
- стремиться выразить враждебность –
- быть на пользу кому-либо –
- в высшей степени индивидуальный и особенный по характеру –
- свои собственные традиции –
- не соглашаться изменить что-либо –
- выделять, делать отличным что-либо, кого-либо –
- оставаться крайне приверженным чему-либо –
- социальные барьеры –
- отчужденность, равнодушие –
- очень хотеть, страстно желать чего-либо –

раскрывать то, что близко к сердцу –
умышленно развивать (культивировать) что-либо для своих целей –
управляться строгим кодексом справедливости –
недостаток земли для строительства –
взвинченные цены на землю –
известные и испытанные –
сложная и таинственная страна –
преодолеть пропасть –
обвинять кого-либо в молчании –
вызывающая сожаление, но безобидная слабость –
настаивать на откровенных разговорах –
избегать откровенных разговоров –
выслушивать с вежливым безразличием –
добиться уважения –
придавать оттенок формальности –
испытывать отвращение к абсурдности –
быть приведенным в восторг проявлениями оживленности –
доставлять мгновенное удовольствие –
веселье, празднество –
компенсировать вежливостью –
хвалить, восхвалять за вежливость –
стремиться показать расположение –
даровать свою доброту с выражением безразличия –
отдавать преимущества –

Answer the following questions about the geographical features of the country:

1) What facts prove that Britain is a land built on tradition?

2) Which types of behavior and manners are peculiar to Britain? Are they different from those of Russia?

3) What advice would you follow to achieve success while working with British partners?

4) Do you agree that well-known English reserve gives a formality to their relationships? Is this way of communication common in your country? How is it different?

5) Have you ever been to Great Britain? Have you got any British friends? Do you like communicating with them? What aspects do you find difficult? How do you overcome these difficulties?

Translate the sentences into English. Reproduce:

1. Любой турист, побывавший в Великобритании, будет утверждать, что это сложная и таинственная страна, построенная на традициях. Британцы всегда остаются крайне приверженными известному и испытанному образу жизни, свойственному Великобритании еще с давних времен. Этим объясняется то, что люди здесь неохотно меняют свои собственные традиции, хотя эти изменения бывают им на пользу.

2. Очевидно, что британцы страстно желают казаться равнодушными и всегда избегают откровенных разговоров, не обвиняя своих собеседников в молчаливости. Это придает человеческим отношениям оттенок формальности. Если Вы хотите добиться уважения у жителей этой страны, нужно научиться даровать свою доброту с выражением безразличия, хотя иностранцы часто испытывают отвращение к такому непривычному стилю общения.

3. Индия – особенная страна, со своими собственными традициями и условиями. Социальные барьеры здесь особенно значимы. Общественные условия диктуют определенный тип поведения, манер и обычаев, свойствен-

ный представителям разных каст (castes). Индийцы стремятся показать расположение гостю, однако преодолеть пропасть между разными социальными слоями практически невозможно.



*Indian people*³⁹

4. Русские люди известны широтой своей души. В России не приветствуется ни отчужденность, ни склонность к подозрительности. Люди не стесняются раскрывать перед другими то, что близко их сердцу.

5. Люди, эмигрирующие в другие страны, часто сталкиваются с трудностями, вызванными различиями в поведении и манерах общения, свойственными представителям этих стран. Преодолеть этот барьер не просто, однако не стоит враждебно относиться к чужой культуре и стереотипам, которые в высшей степени индивидуальны и особенны по характеру.

³⁹ URL: <https://stockphoto.com/ru/search/2/image?phrase=indian+birthday+party+pictures>

6. Ирландский национальный характер отличается приветливостью и дружелюбностью. Ирландцы склонны к шумному веселью, что отличает их от многих других наций мира. Их шутки и анекдоты доставляют людям мгновенное удовольствие. Обладая сильным национальным самосознанием (national identity), они остаются крайне приверженными своим собственным традициям и стремятся выразить враждебность ко всему, что угрожает их индивидуальности.



Irish people celebrating St. Patrick's Day⁴⁰

The British are fond of carnivals and festivals which form a significant feature of British national culture. British festivals and carnivals are known all over the world and many people visit Britain to enjoy watching these curious events or even to take part in them.

⁴⁰ URL: <https://www.wallpaperflare.com/people-celebrating-st-patrick-s-day-saint-patrick-s-day-ireland-wallpaper-sgrbi>

Notting Hill Carnival is London's most vibrant celebration of diversity, colour and sound. Originally started as an offshoot of the Trinidad Carnival in 1964, the Notting Hill Carnival has become an internationally acclaimed event which remains true to its Caribbean roots. Over the last four decades, it's matured into a melting pot of diverse cultural and musical genres that come together in modern West London streets. Today it's Europe's largest street festival with hundreds of thousands of regular visitors enjoying live Masquerade bands, Soundsystems, street food, dancing and much more. And London's 2011 is going to be bigger and better than ever.



*Notting Hill Carnival*⁴¹

⁴¹ URL: <https://www.sarova-rembrandthotel.com/notting-hill-carnival-history-culture/>

Watch the video about Notting Hill Carnival "London's Carnival. Love it!" and say what the idea of organizing such a carnival in London is. Share your impressions of this event. Do you know any similar carnivals in Russia or in other countries? Do you approve of organizing such carnivals?

URL: <http://www.nottinghill-carnival.co.uk>

Write an essay to give your personal viewpoint as for organizing carnivals throughout the world. Consider the factors which make people of different social walks, religions, etc. participate in these events

Rendering information into English.

➤ *Read the article. Find the sentences in the text in which you can use these topical words and phrases:*

a favourite and respected holiday, to join family members, an occasion for fun and games, a traditional Christmas picture or poem, a Christmas stocking, to sing carols and take offerings, staging of Christmas pantos, an implication, monarch's Christmas speech, green wreaths, really impressive illuminations, to compete in grandeur of Christmas decorations, magnetic charm.

Рождество в Лондоне: главный праздник

В Англии, как и во всей Европе, именно Рождество является самым любимым и почитаемым праздником. Связано это с тем, что Рождество – праздник для европейцев личный, по-настоящему объединяющий членов семьи, так что период рождественских каникул – это то время, когда большинство англичан озабочены не работой и не заветной карьерой, а подбором подарков для своих близких. Климат в Англии в это время обычно мягкий, но бывает, что погода балует англичан небольшим снегом. Это обстоятельство весьма радует детей, ведь снег для них – повод для игр и забав.

В Англии Рождество празднуется 25 декабря. Официально рождественский сезон открывает Адвент (the Advent season) – предрождественский пост,

начинающийся за 4 недели до Рождества. Первые декорации, которые появляются в домах – Адвент-календари. Это особенный календарь на 24 дня с маленькими дверками для каждой даты. За ними скрывается картинка или стихотворение традиционно рождественской тематики. Каждый день можно открывать только одну дверку, соответствующую наступившей дате. Таким образом, дети ведут отсчет до Рождества. В это время люди начинают украшать свои дома. Наши традиции во многом схожи: по дому развешивают гирлянды, устанавливают рождественскую елку, ее макушку украшают звездой или ангелом.

Еще одна традиция – это рождественский чулок. Накануне Рождества дети вешают на камин или край кровати рождественский чулок, чтобы Санта Клаус наполнил его подарками. Что касается «разносчика» подарков, т. е. нашего Деда Мороза, в Англии его называют (Old) Father Christmas или иногда Santa Claus.

Другая добрая традиция Рождества – рождественские песни (carols). В предрождественские дни собираются группы людей, включая и детей, которые ходят по округе, исполняя рождественские песни, и собирают пожертвования.

Чисто английской считается традиция постановки рождественских пантомим (pantos). Подобного вы не найдете в других странах. Это комедийные сценки, основанные на историях и сказках, которые знают все, но в пантомимах они «перекручены» и имеют двойной смысл. Вообще, рождественские пантомимы трудно описать словами, их нужно смотреть. 25 декабря, когда все подарки уже распакованы, большинство семей направляются в церковь, а после нее собираются за праздничным столом. Традиционные рождественские блюда в Англии: запеченная индейка с картошкой (roast turkey and potato), сладкий пирог с начинкой (mince pies), рождественский пудинг (Christmas pudding) и рождественский фруктовый пирог (Christmas cake). Также в этот день в 3 часа по всем радио и телеканалам передается праздничное обращение королевы. Рождественское настроение в Великобритании царит около месяца, это, можно сказать, целый сезон, поэтому одной из законных фраз данного периода,

наравне с Merry Christmas and Happy New Year, является и пожелание Have a Happy Holiday Season! На открытках, в СМС-сообщениях или чатах часто используют сокращения, например, Xmas или Merry Christmas.

Как и в других странах, в период Рождества в Лондоне на двери домов вешаются зеленые венки, однако, стоит посмотреть и украшенные к Рождеству дома, и улицы города, представляющие собой зрелище очень красивое, с поистине впечатляющей иллюминацией. Владельцы как частных домов, так и магазинов буквально соревнуются в роскоши праздничного оформления.

Рождественская столица Британии обладает своим притягательным очарованием, так что обязательно стоит хоть раз в жизни встретить Рождество в Лондоне – воспоминания об этом визите и позитивное настроение надолго останутся в памяти.

b) Render the article into English. Compare the British Christmas traditions with the Russian ones.

c) Be prepared to speak about the British Christmas in class; get ready for discussion.

Role play the situation. Follow your Role Cards.

Student A's Role Card:

Imagine you are a journalist working for the magazine "National Geographic" and responsible for its culture section. You're writing an article on modern holiday traditions in Great Britain. You meet an expert in modern British culture development and ask him(her) some questions about tendencies for changes in ancient traditions that Britain faces today. Ask about reasons for these tendencies. Together discuss what changes take place in Russian culture. Let your partner ask you some questions about modern tendencies in Russian culture.

for Student B's Role Card turn to page 114.

Imagine you are an expert in modern British culture development. You meet a Russian journalist who writes essays on culture for "National Geographic". He (she) asks some questions about tendencies for changes in ancient traditions that Britain faces today. Together you discuss what changes take place in Russian culture. You ask him (her) about modern tendencies in Russian culture.

I. Choose a topic for your Project Work:

1. Daily life in Great Britain.
2. Education in Great Britain: modern issues.
3. The British Pub.
4. Religions in Great Britain.
5. English Art.
6. Architecture in Great Britain (British town architecture. British country architecture).
7. Mass Media in Great Britain.
8. Famous British castles and country houses.
9. The language of English painting.

You may choose a theme connected with British culture you are interested in for your project.

II. Prepare a Presentation of your project.

Give your presentation at class. Let your groupmates ask you any questions and try to answer them. Bring some questions up for group discussion.

ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

Задачи формирования социокультурной компетенции предполагают усвоение и использование культурно-специфической информации большого и изменяющегося объема в целях адекватного общения и взаимопонимания межкультурной коммуникации. Дальнейшее изучение лингвострановедения как дисциплины, рассматривающей язык и культуру в их взаимосвязи, ставит цель формирования и постоянного совершенствования социокультурной компетенции в процессе усвоения типичного содержания национальной картины мира носителя языка, изучения языковых этноспецифических реалий, национальных особенностей социального взаимодействия, научно-исследовательские задачи отбора лингвострановедческого материала в целях организации обучения иностранным языкам.

Основные рекомендации по организации самостоятельного изучения следующие:

1. Работая с аутентичными материалами, обращайтесь внимание не только на содержание, но и на контекст использования культурно-специфических единиц.
2. Иногда значение национально-культурных языковых единиц не исчерпывается словарным значением. Обращайте внимание на широкий контекст их использования, включающий словоупотребление в других текстах.
3. Систематизируйте вновь изученные единицы не только с точки зрения тематической принадлежности, но и с точки зрения групп этноспецифических единиц.
4. Обращайте внимание на культурные особенности социального взаимодействия, включающие типичные модели поведения в повседневных ситуациях общения.
5. Проводите аналогии с родным языком и родной культурой, усваивайте стратегии представления родной культуры средствами иностранного языка.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC LIST

1. Артемова, А.Ф. Географические названия Великобритании / А.Ф. Артемова, О.А. Леонович // Иностр. яз. в шк. – 2010. – № 1. – С. 60–67.
2. Беляева, Е.С. Страноведение Великобритании в процессе коммуникации: Culture Studies of Great Britain Through Communication: учебно-методическое пособие / Е.С. Беляева; Ряз. гос. ун-т им. С.А. Есенина. – Рязань, 2012. – 120 с. – ISBN 978-5-88006–2.
3. Британия: учеб. пособие для ин-тов фак. иностр. яз. / В.Р. Куприянова [и др]. – Ленинград: Просвещение, 1990. – 438 с.
4. Бурлакова, В.В. Великобритания. Физическая и экономическая география: учебное пособие / В.В. Бурлакова. – Ленинград: Просвещение, 1989. – 151 с.
5. В Великобритании принято так: (Об англ. обычаях): учеб. пособие для пед. ин-тов / Т.Н. Химунина, Н.В. Конон, И.А. Уоми. – 2-е изд., дораб. – Москва: Просвещение, 1984. – 239 с.
6. Воевода, Е.В. Великобритания: история и культура = Great Britain: Culture Across History: учебное пособие / Е.В. Воевода; Московский государственный институт международных отношений (Университет) МИД России. – 2-е изд., испр. и доп. – Москва: Аспект Пресс, 2015. – 223 с. – ISBN 978-5-9228-0540-7.
7. Голицынский, Ю.Б. Великобритания: пособие по страноведению / Ю.Б. Голицынский. – Санкт-Петербург: КАРО, 2010. – 480 с. – ISBN 978-5-9925-1350-9.
8. Города и графства: лингвострановед. справ. / сост. Г.Д. Томахин. – 2-е изд. – Москва: Просвещение, 2001. – 112 с. – ISBN 5-09-008643-5.

9. Зайцева, С.Д. Англия в далеком прошлом / С.Д. Зайцева. – Москва: Просвещение, 1990. – 254 с.

10. Зырянов, А.В. Великобритания: взгляд из России / А.В. Зырянов; авт. предисл. Ю.А. Сенкевич; худ. А.В. Елецкий // Great Britain: a View from Russia / A.V. Zuryanov. – Екатеринбург: Урал. рабочий, 2005. – 622, [2] с.: ил., табл. – Текст рус., англ. – С. 606–620. – ISBN 5-85383-271-9.

11. История английского языка / В.Д. Аракин; под ред. М.Д. Резвевой; [предисл. О.В. Афанасьевой и др.]. – 2-е изд. – Москва: Физматлит, 2003. – 265 с. – ISBN 5-922-10032-7.

12. Леонович, О.А. Страноведение Великобритании: учеб. пособие. – 4-е изд. – Москва: КДУ, 2009. – 254 с. – ISBN 978-5-98227-600-1.

13. Маркова, Н.Н. По Англии – в Шотландию / Н.Н. Маркова. – Москва: Просвещение, 1989. – 237 с.

14. Маркушевская, Л.П. Великобритания: учеб. пособие по страноведению / Л.П. Маркушевская. – Санкт-Петербург: СПбГУ ИТМО, 1990. – 130 с.

15. Михайлов, Н.Н. Лингвострановедение Англии: учеб. пособие для студентов филол. фак. и фак. иностр. яз. высш. учеб. заведений / Н.Н. Михайлов. – 3-е изд. – Москва: Академия, 2010. – 208 с. – ISBN 978-5-7695-7196-1.

16. Нестерова, Н.М. Страноведение: Великобритания: учеб. пособие / Н.М. Нестерова. – Москва: Феникс, 2006. – 368 с. – ISBN 5-222-07287-8.

17. Нестерчук, Г.В. США и американцы: учеб. пособие / Г.В. Нестерчук, В.М. Иванова. – 4-е изд., доп. – Минск: Высшая школа, 2004. – 264 с. – ISBN 985-06-0903-6.

18. Они говорят по-английски: информ. стат. справ.: Австралия. Ирландия. Канада. Великобритания. США. – Новая Зеландия, 2009. – 64 с.

19. Ощепкова, В.В. О Британии кратко: кн. для чтения на англ. яз. / В.В. Ощепкова, И.И. Шустилова. – Москва: Иностранный язык; КДУ, 2007. – 256 с. – ISBN 5-98227-213-2.
20. Парахина, А.В. Познакомьтесь – Великобритания и США / А.В. Парахина, В.Г. Базилевич. – Москва: Высшая школа, 1988. – 144 с.
21. Письменная, О.А. Окна в англоязычный мир (история, география, социальные аспекты, языковая ситуация) / О.А. Письменная. – Москва: ООО «ИП Логос», 2005. – 544 с. – ISBN 5-8112-0681-X.
22. Токарева, Н.Д. Страницы истории Великобритании и США / Н.Д. Токарева. – Москва: Высшая школа, 2003. – 127 с. – ISBN 5-06-003039-3.
23. Усова, Г.С. История Англии: тексты для чтения на английском языке / Г.С. Усова. – Санкт-Петербург: Изд-во «Лань», 2001. – 256 с. – ISBN 5-8114-0042-X.
24. Хьюитт, К. Понять Британию = Understanding Britain: учебное пособие / Карен Хьюитт. – Москва: Высшая школа, 2004. – 198 с. – ISBN 5-06-003288-4
25. Britain for learners of English / J.O'Driscoll. Britain for Learners of English – online resources. – URL: <http://www.oup.com/elt/britain>
26. Collins, A. British Life / A. Collins. – Penguin Readers. Pearson education Limited, 2001. – 44 p. – ISBN 0-582-42733-9.
27. David Mc Dowall. An illustrated history of Britain / David Mc Dowall. – Longman, 2006. – 188 p. – ISBN 0-582-74914-X
28. Focus on Britain / written the Office of National Statistics. – London: Foreign & Commonwealth Office, 2000. – 48 p.
29. Information on English-speaking countries: history, modern times; tips on learning and teaching English. – URL: <http://www.anglik.net>
30. London: information guide for tourists. – URL: <http://www.visitlondon>.

31. McDowall, D. Britain in Close-up: An indepth study of contemporary Britain / D. McDowall. – Pearson education Limited, 2000. – 208 p. – ISBN 978-0-582-32826-6.
32. O’Driscoll, J. Britain for Learners of English. Students’Book / J. O’Driscoll. –Oxford University Press, 2009. – 224 p. – ISBN 978-0-194-30647-8.
33. The British Parliament. – URL: <http://www.parliament.uk/>
34. The Monarchy in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and North ern Ire-land. – URL: <http://http://www.royal.gov.uk>
35. The most famous attractions in Great Britain. – URL: <http://www.britainexpress.com>
36. The Mysteries of the British Map / О.И. Кирдяева // Иностр. яз. в шк. – 2012. – № 2. – С. 90–94.
37. The National Parks of Great Britain. – URL: <http://www.nationalparks.gov.uk>
38. The system of government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. – URL: <http://www.direct.gov.uk>
39. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland: history, geog-raphy, politics, economy, population. – URL: <http://en.wikipedia.org>
40. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland: information guide (England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland). – URL: [http:// www.great-britain.co.uk](http://www.great-britain.co.uk)
41. Tourist information on Great Britain: destination, sights, accommodation, transport. – URL: <http://www.visitbritain.com>

Учебное издание

Елизавета Владимировна Калугина

Наталья Евгеньевна Почиталкина

CULTURAL STUDIES THROUGH LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

Учебное пособие

ISBN 978-5-907790-10-0

Работа рекомендована РИС ЮУрГГПУ

Протокол № 28, 2023 г.

Редактор Е.М. Сапегина

Технический редактор Н.А. Усова

Издательство ЮУрГГПУ

454080, г. Челябинск, пр. Ленина, 69

Подписано в печать 28.07.2023 г.

Объем 16,4 усл.п.л. 6,4 уч.-изд.л.

Формат 84x90/16 Тираж 100 экз.

Заказ №

Отпечатано с готового оригинал-макета в типографии ЮУрГГПУ

454080, г. Челябинск, пр. Ленина, 69