

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ХАРКІВСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
імені В. Н. Каразіна

ЛІНГВОКРАЇНОЗНАВСТВО ВЕЛИКОЇ БРИТАНІЇ
МАТЕРІАЛИ ЛЕКЦІЙ

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Видання призначене для студентів III курсу, які навчаються за напрямом «філологія», та структуроване відповідно до робочої програми з лінгвокраїнознавства Великої Британії, розробленої кафедрою англійської філології факультету іноземних мов Харківського національного університету імені В. Н. Каразіна. Матеріали лекцій також можуть використовуватись студентами IV курсу заочної та дистанційної форм навчання для самостійної підготовки.

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Лінгвокраїнознавство як культурознавча наука, на думку культурологів, орієнтоване, перш за все, на задачі та потреби вивчення іноземної мови, має справу з чинниками загальнонаціональними і відносно постійними. Лінгвокраїнознавство базується на масовій буденній свідомості носіїв мови і культури, де поряд з побутовими повсякденними знаннями представлені в якійсь мірі й знання наукового характеру, отримані в процесі виховання людини в даній культурі через різні засоби утворення і передачі інформації, і разом із звичайними буденними значеннями стають частиною мовної свідомості особистості.

Збірка матеріалів лекцій з лінгвокраїнознавства Великої Британії складається з восьми розділів, кожний з яких присвячений окремому аспекту життя британської громади. Це географічне положення, державний устрій, цінності та переконання даної лінгвокультурної спільноти, соціо-економічний розвиток Сполученого королівства, система охорони здоров'я та соціальний захист, дошкільна, середня та вища освіта, засоби масової інформації, спорт, їжа. Особливу увагу в кожному розділі приділено сучасному стану висвітлюваної проблематики.

Усі розділи побудовано за єдиною структурою: спочатку подається фактичний матеріал, за ним розташовується словник країнознавчих термінів, який містить національно-специфічні реалії суспільного життя, матеріального побуту тощо. Лінгвокраїнознавчі терміни в тексті лекцій виділені курсивом. Словник доповнено низкою спільних з тематикою слів та словосполучень, що не зустрічаються в основному тексті. Лексичні одиниці, читання яких може викликати складності, супроводжуються фонетичною транскрипцією. Для полегшення засвоєння студентами фактичної інформації кожний розділ завершується тестом на заповнення пропусків у реченнях, що містять інформацію, подану у даній лекції. У кінці посібника розміщено типовий тест на множинний вибір; його виконання допоможе студентам підготуватися до таких форм контролю, як модульна або екзаменаційна робота.

Матеріали лекцій мають ряд додатків. Вони являють собою завдання до відео- та аудіоматеріалів, які пропонуються студентам на кожній лекції. Таким чином, посібник може використовуватись як для аудиторної, так і для позааудиторної роботи.

Видання призначено для студентів III курсу, які навчаються за напрямом «філологія», його структуровано у відповідності до робочої програми з лінгвокраїнознавства Великої Британії, розробленої кафедрою англійської філології факультету іноземних мов Харківського національного університету імені В. Н. Каразіна. Посібник також може використовуватись студентами IV курсу заочної та дистанційної форм навчання для самостійної підготовки.

"GETTING TO KNOW BRITAIN" QUIZ

- Which of the following countries is the nearest continental neighbour to Great Britain?
a. Denmark b. Portugal c. France d. Greece
- Which of these cities are close to the same line of latitude as London?
a. Berlin b. Moscow c. Kyiv d. Nairobi
- Which of these islands is about the same size as Great Britain?
a. Ireland b. Iceland c. Madagascar d. Honshu
- How long would it take for a plane, travelling at 750 kilometres per hour, to fly over Great Britain from the far north to the south coast?
a. 80 minutes b. 90 minutes c. 100 minutes d. 120 minutes
- How many people (to the nearest million) live in the UK?
a. 23 million b. 48 million c. 59 million d. 63 million
- What percentage of the British population belongs to ethnic minorities?
a. 5.5% b. 10.3% c. 15% d. 17.8%
- Which country has the lowest population density?
a. England b. Wales c. Scotland d. Northern Ireland
- What is the birth rate in Britain (per 1,000 people)?
a. 7.4 births b. 12.3 births c. 19 births d. 21 births
- What percentage of the population in the UK under 16 years of age?
a. 10% b. 21% c. 32% d. 45%
- How many households in the UK have the use of two or more cars?
a. 14% b. 26% c. 31% d. 44%
- What percentage of households in the UK has their own home?
a. 38% b. 45% c. 54% d. 67%
- How many adults in the UK live on their own?
a. 9% b. 11% c. 14% d. 18%
- Which country has the largest proportion of its land devoted to National Parks and other countryside conservation areas?
a. England b. Wales c. Scotland d. Northern Ireland
- When did Elizabeth II become Queen?
a. 1945 b. 1952 c. 1964 d. 1977
- How often must General Elections be held in the UK?
a. every 3 years b. every 4 years c. every 5 years d. every 6 years
- Name the international organisation to which the UK does not belong:
a. the Peace Corps b. the UNO c. the EU d. the Commonwealth
- How much money did the Channel Tunnel Cost to build?
a. £ 5,000 mln b. £ 10,000 mln c. £ 15,000 mln d. £ 20,000 mln
- Which is the largest industrial sector in the UK?
a. agriculture b. manufacturing c. services d. other
- What percentage of British workforce are employed in agriculture?
a. 2% b. 5.4% c. 7.3% d. 14%

20. In the table of leading trade nations, where does the UK come?
a. third b. fifth c. tenth d. sixteenth
21. Over 50% of the UK exports go to:
a. North America b. South America c. the EU d. the Asia-Pacific Region
22. How long, on average, do the British live today?
a. 76 b. 78 c. 71 d. 69
23. What percentage of British people smoke cigarettes?
a. 19% b. 29% c. 39% d. 49%
24. At what age do British men and women currently receive a state retirement pension, correspondingly?
a. 50, 55 b. 55, 60 c. 60, 65 d. 65, 70
25. In the UK, what proportion of public money is spent on social welfare?
a. 8% b. 19% c. 33% d. 41%
26. Up to what age are British children required by law to attend school?
a. 14 b. 16 c. 18 d. 21
27. What percentage of children in the UK receive free education?
a. 63% b. 73% c. 83% d. 93%
28. Which subjects do British children spend most time studying?
a. English & Maths b. English & Art c. English & PE d. English & French
29. Which of the following subjects does not belong to the National Curriculum?
a. History b. Music c. Religion d. Technology
30. What proportion of young people in the UK enter higher education today?
a. one in three b. one in four c. one in five d. one in six
31. Which of the following sports and pastimes attracts the largest number of participants in the UK?
a. football b. swimming c. cricket d. walking
32. Which is the largest spectator sport in the UK?
a. football b. cricket c. rugby d. races
33. Where is the main tennis tournament in Britain held?
a. Ascot b. Wimbledon c. Wembley d. Chelsea
34. What is the Grand National?
a. a horserace over fences b. a greyhound race
c. a football cup final d. a tennis championship
35. What is the most popular leisure pastime in the UK?
a. playing darts b. going to the cinema c. birdwatching d. watching TV
36. When did the first draw of Britain's National Lottery take place?
a. 1794 b. 1894 c. 1994 d. 2004
37. How many people in the UK make use of public libraries?
a. 30% b. 40% c. 50% d. 60%

See page 90 for correct answers

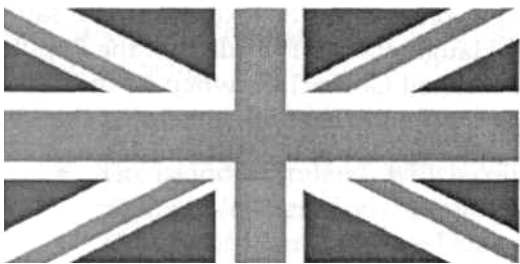
37-33 correct ...excellent 32-29 correct ...good 28-25 correct ...fair

THE UNITED KINGDOM: COUNTRY AND PEOPLE

“**Great Britain**” is a geographical expression but “the United Kingdom” is a political expression. Great Britain is the biggest of the group of islands which lie between *the North Sea* and the Atlantic Ocean and separated from Europe by the *English Channel*. It is approximately two and a half times the size of *Ireland*, the second largest, separated by *the Irish Sea*. “Britain” and “British” have two meanings. They sometimes refer to Great Britain alone and sometimes to the UK including Northern Ireland. “England” and “English” are often incorrectly used to refer to the whole of Great Britain.

The British Isles are shared today by two separate and independent states. The smaller of these is *the Republic of Ireland (or Eire)*, with its capital in *Dublin*. The larger, with *London* as its capital, is *the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland*. The long title is usually shortened to the United Kingdom or the UK. With an area of about 243, 000 sq km (93,000 sq mi), the UK is just under 1,000 km (about 600 mi) from the South coast to the extreme North of Scotland and just under 500 km (about 300 mi) across at the widest point.

The island of Great Britain contains three “nations” which were separate at earlier stages of their history: *England, Scotland and Wales*. Wales (with its capital city *Cardiff*) has become part of the English administrative system by the 16th century. The Welsh call their country *Cymru* and themselves *Cymry*, a word which has the same root as “a friend”. Scotland (poetically called *Caledonia* with its capital city *Edinburgh*) was not completely united with England until 1707. The United Kingdom is the name, which was introduced in 1801 when Great Britain was united with Ireland. When the Republic of Ireland became independent of London in 1922, the title was changed to its present form. (The capital city of Northern Ireland is *Belfast*). There are two small parts of the British Isles which have special political arrangements. These “*Crown Dependencies*” – the *Isle of Man* and the *Channel Islands* – are not part of the UK. They are largely self-governing with their own legislative assemblies and systems of law. The British Government is, however, responsible for their defence and international relations.



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

The emblems that appear on the Union Flag are the crosses of three patron saints: the red cross of St. George, for England, on a white ground; the white diagonal

cross of St. Andrew, for Scotland, on a blue ground; the red diagonal cross of St. Patrick, for Ireland, on a white ground. The cross remains in the flag although now only Northern Ireland is part of the UK. The final version of the flag appeared in 1801, following the union of Great Britain with Ireland.



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

The national flower of England is the *rose*. The flower has been adopted as England's emblem since the time of the Wars of Roses (civil wars) – 1455-1485 between the royal House of Lancaster (whose emblem was a red rose) and the royal House of York (whose emblem was a white rose). With the defeat of King Richard III (of York) by the future Henry VII on 22 August 1485, the two roses were united into the Tudor rose (a red rose with a white centre) when Henry VII married Elizabeth of York. The national flower of Northern Ireland is the *shamrock*, a plant similar to clover which is said to have been used by St. Patrick to illustrate the doctrine of the Holy Trinity. The Scottish national flower is the *thistle* which was first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defence. The national flower of Wales is usually considered to be the *daffodil*; however, humble *leek* is also considered to be a traditional emblem of Wales, possibly because its colours, white over green, echo the ancient Welsh standard.



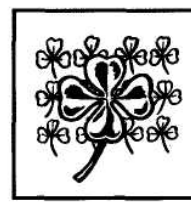
England



Scotland



Wales



Ireland

In the centre of the national emblem is situated a heraldic shield, divided into four parts. Left upper part and right lower part symbolize England (three gold leopards on a red ground). Right upper part – Scottish emblem (a red lion on a gold ground). Left lower part – Irish emblem (yellow harp on a blue ground). Around the shield there is a garter with French words “Honi soit qui mal y pense” (“Evil be to him who evil thinks”). This garter symbolizes the Order of Garter, an ancient order of knighthood founded by Edward III in 1348, of which the Queen is the Sovereign. The shield is held by two *Royal Beasts* – the Lion with the crown in the left, the Unicorn

in the right. Under them there is a blue ribbon with words “Dieu et mon droit” (God and my right) chosen by Richard I which since then have been the official motto of the Sovereign. In the background there is rose (England), thistle (Scotland), shamrock (Ireland), and leek (Wales).



The Royal Coat of Arms

Britain is unpredictable in climate and varied in scenery. There is a dramatic contrast between *Highland* and *Lowland Britain*. The most precise distinction is geological. The rocks of most of the North and West of Great Britain are harder and older than those of the South and East. These older rocks are covered by large areas of *moorland* such as the *Lake District*, the *Pennines* (England's main mountain chain, “the backbone of England”) and much of Scotland and Wales, where the soils are poor, thin and stony. In addition these areas are wetter and harder to reach than the lower land to the south and east. As a result these areas of the British Isles are thinly populated except where coal or iron have been discovered. The South and East are rarely flat, but instead of continuous moorland there are bands of hills which alternate with areas of lowland. The soils are generally deeper and richer, the climate is drier and better suited for farming. Industry benefits from easier communications. Thus human settlement in these areas is dense and more evenly spread.

- The highest mountain *Ben Nevis*, in the Highlands of Scotland, 1,343 m (4,406 ft)
- The longest river *the Severn*, 354 km (220 mi) which rises in central Wales and flows through Shrewsbury, Worcester, and Gloucester in England to the Bristol Channel. The largest lake is *Lough Neagh*, Northern Ireland, 396 sq km (153 sq mi).
- The closest point to mainland Europe: Dover, Kent. The Channel Tunnel, which links England and France, is a little over 50 km (31 mi) long, of which nearly 38 km (24 mi) are under the English Channel.

The weather. Britain is as far north as Canada's Hudson Bay or Siberia, yet its climate is much milder because of the Gulf Stream, which brings warm water and air across the Atlantic from the Gulf of Mexico. Snow only falls occasionally and does not remain for long, except in the Scottish mountains. Average temperatures in

England and Wales vary from +4C in January to +16C in July and August. In Scotland averages are one or two degrees cooler. The wind brings rain from the Atlantic to the hills of the west. This means that western parts of Britain are wetter than the east, which is fairly sheltered. London is drier than continental cities.

The UK population in mid-2000 was estimated at 59.8 mln, the second largest in the European Union. England accounts for about 84%, Scotland – 9%, Wales – 5%, Northern Ireland – 3%. The UK population is projected to rise to nearly 61.8 mln by 2011. The number of *households* in GB rose by almost half between 1961 and 2001, from 16.3 mln to 24.1 mln. Over the same period the average household size fell from 3.3 to 2.4 people per household. Although most people still live in a couple household, an increasing proportion of people are living on their own. In spring 2000 almost three in ten households in GB comprised one person living alone. During 1970s and 1980s there was emphasis on the provision of first public and then private housing which enabled households to occupy separate accommodation. Households containing a lone parent family living on their own formed one in seventeen out of all households in 1961, but one in eleven in 2000.

Analysis of the Labour Force Survey found the following patterns of population by ethnic groups. On average between spring 2000 and winter 2000/01 over 4 mln people (7.1%) in GB described themselves as belonging to a non-White ethnic group, about one person in fourteen. The Indian group forms the largest non-White ethnic group, representing about 1.7% of all groups in the UK. Ethnic minorities are concentrated in the cities. The percentage of members of ethnic minorities who are unemployed, or in low-grade jobs, is higher than in the population as a whole. Racial discrimination and poor living conditions have contributed to racial violence especially in day-to-day form of relations between young blacks and the police, or in the more extreme form of inner-city riots. This is despite the Race Relations Act (1976) designed to promote equality of opportunity for people of all races.

The 2001 Census included, for the first time in GB since 1851, a question of religion. Although many people say they are Christians, this is not reflected in church membership, which is only 13% of the population of England; it is much higher in Northern Ireland (80%).

Christianity is the predominant religious tradition in the UK in size of its followers. There are two churches legally recognised as the official churches of the state, or established churches: in England, *the Anglican Church of England*, and in Scotland, *the Presbyterian Church of Scotland*. There is no longer an established Church of Wales or Northern Ireland.

The *Hindu community* in the UK numbers between 400,000 and 550,000 although some community members suggest 1,000,000. The UK now has over 140 Hindu temples. The *Jewish community* in the UK numbers about 300,000 and around 30% are affiliated to synagogues. There are about 1.5 mln *Muslims* in the UK. There are about 1,000 mosques and numerous community Muslim centres. There are between 400,000 and 500,000 members of the *Sikh community* in the UK. Other faiths represented in GB include *Buddhism* (with some 50 monasteries and temples), the *Zoroastrian religion*, the *Baha'i* etc.

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

Except English, there are numerous native languages spoken in the UK. According to the 1991 census, 527,510 people spoke *Welsh*. It is increasingly used in schools and by some local authorities. A Welsh TV channel, S4C, began broadcasting in 1983 and there are radio stations and newspapers. The most common Welsh family names were all originally Christian names in some sort, (e.g. Geoffrey Jones – from John). Many other names come from the tradition of calling a child “son of” his father using the Welsh word *ap/ab*. This *p* can be found at the beginning of many common Welsh names, such as *Pritchard* (the same as the English Richardson). Welshmen are often nicknamed “*Taffy*”. This may come from the river Taff, which runs through the capital Cardiff, or may come from *Dafydd*, the Welsh form of David.

In 1991, there were about 69,000 speakers of *Gaelic* in Scotland according to that year’s census. The language, especially strong in the Outer Hebrides, is used in some schools but speakers have limited legal rights. It is not used in courts, and it plays no part in the national government. The *Scots language*, different from Gaelic, is so close a relative of English that it is often regarded simply as a northern dialect, spoken in central Scotland and the Lowlands. It was the everyday language from the 14th century until the 17th century. The upper classes slowly turned to English, influenced by the Union of England and Scotland. Most Scots speak a mixture of Scots and English, but English is the language of education and government. There has been the Scots revival in recent years: the New Testament in Scots was published in 1985, and Scots is used in parts of the Scottish press.

There are speakers of the *Irish Gaelic*, but it has no official status there. The influence of Irish Gaelic is found in the names of people: Sean (John), Seamus (James), Liam (William), Seanna (Joanna). Paddy (short for Patrick) and Micky (short for Michael) are not Gaelic names but they are found so often in Ireland that these two names are sometimes used jokingly to mean an “Irishman”. Many Irish surnames begin with O’ (O’Brien; O’Neil) meaning “from the family of”; Fitz (Fitzgerald) meaning “son of”; Mac (MacHugh) meaning “son of”; Kil (Kilmartin) meaning “son of”; Gil (Gilmurray) meaning “son of”.

Other native languages in GB include *Cornish* in Cornwall and *Manx Gaelic* on the Isle of Man. The last native speaker of Cornish died in 1777 and the last speaker of Manx in 1974. There have been recent revivals, although the languages have no legal status.

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY

Basic English	спрощена форма англійської мови
BBC English	мова дикторів Бі-Бі-Сі
Belfast ['belfRst]	Белфаст
Ben Nevis	гора Бен Невіс
Caledonia ['kxlI'dqVnIq]	Каледонія
Cardiff	Кардіфф
Channel Islands	Нормандські острови
Cornish	Корнська мова
Crown Dependency	залежна територія корони, «коронна територія»
Cymru [kum'rI]	Уельс
Cymry ['kImrI]	валійці
Dublin	Дублін
Edinburgh ['FdInbqrq]	Единбург
Eire ['Fqrq]	державна Ейре
England	Англія
English Channel	протока Ла-Манш
Gaelic ['geIlIk]	гельська мова
Highland Britain	гориста частина Великобританії
Hindu community ['hIndH]	індуїстська громада
Ireland	Ірландія
Irish Gaelic	ірландський варіант гельської мови
Isle of Man	о. Мен
Lake District	Озерний край
Lough Neagh ['lOh'neI]	озеро Лох Ней
Lowland Britain	низинна частина Великої Британії
Manx Gaelic	менкська мова
Oxford accent	оксфордський акцент
Queen's English	королівська/нормативна англійська мова
RP (Received Pronunciation)	нормативна вимова
Scotland	Шотландія
Scots language	шотландський діалект англійської мови
the Anglican Church of England	Англіканська церква
The British Isles	Британські острови
the Irish Sea	Ірландське море
the North Sea	Північне море
the Pennines ['pFnaln]	Пеннінські гори
the Presbyterian Church of Scotland ['prFzbI'tIqrIqn]	Пресвітеріанська церква Шотландії
the Republic of Ireland	Республіка Ірландія

the Severn [' sFv (q) n]	р. Северн
the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (UK)	Сполучене королівство Великої Британії та Північної Ірландії
Union Jack	державний прапор
Wales	Уельс
Welsh	валійська мова

DO YOU REMEMBER?

Fill in the missing word, word combination or phrase.

- The official name of the country under study is _____ (1). The official name of the country after the unification of its four parts was _____ (2). However, it was changed into the present variant after _____ (3).
- The North and the West of GB are _____ (4) and thus _____ (5) populated, the South and the East are _____ (6) and _____ (7) populated.
- The national flag is nicknamed _____ (8). It is made up of _____ (9) crosses – _____ (10) for England, _____ (11) for Scotland, _____ (12) for Northern Ireland. The national flag of _____ (13) – which is a red _____ (14) on the _____ (15) field – is not included into the Union Jack because by the time the latter was created this part had been unified with the UK for centuries.
- The national flower of England is the _____ (16), the one for Wales is _____ (17), the one for Scotland is _____ (18), and the one for Northern Ireland is _____ (19).
- The national emblem is made up of a shield which pictures three _____ (20) (the symbol of _____ (21)), a yellow _____ (22) (the symbol of _____ (23)) and a red _____ (24) (the symbol of _____ (25)). The shield is held by two _____ (26) – _____ (27) and _____ (28).
- The highest mountain of the UK is _____ (29). The longest river in the UK is _____ (30).
- The average temperature of January makes up _____ (31), the one of July is _____ (32).
- The number of British citizens is about _____ (33). The majority of population is located in England _____ % (34); the least populated is Northern Ireland – _____ % (35).
- The average family consists of _____ (36) people though there is a tendency to _____ (37).
- _____ (38) make up the biggest ethnic majority in the UK, while _____ (39) are the smallest ethnic group.
- The “least religious nation” in the UK are the _____ (40) “the most religious” – _____ (41).
- English spoken in _____ (42) or _____ (43) is considered the national standard or _____ (44). It is sometimes referred to as _____ (45).
- The national language of Wales is _____ (46), of Scotland – _____ (47) of Northern Ireland – _____ (48). *Pritchard* is a typical _____ (49) family name. There are three ways to translate the “son of” from English into Irish Gaelic – _____ (50), _____ (51), _____ (52).

CONSTITUTION. POLITICS. LAW

The Constitution of the UK has evolved over many centuries. Unlike the constitutions of the USA, France and many Commonwealth countries, the British constitution has never been assembled into a single consolidated document. Instead, Britain has some important *constitutional documents*, including the *Magna Carta* (1215) which protects the community against the Crown (61 clauses deal with “free church”, feudal law, towns, trade, and merchants, the behaviour of royal officials, royal forests); *the Bill of Rights* (1689) which extended the powers of parliament, making it impossible for the sovereign to ignore the wishes of government; the *Reform Act* (1832), which provided that all men could exercise their franchise, that members of parliament were paid, that electoral districts of roughly equal population were created. The Reform Act of 1867 extended the vote to working men in towns; The Reform act of 1884 gave the vote to agricultural labourers.

The Public Attitude to Politics. Politicians in Britain do not have a good reputation. To describe someone as a “politician” means to criticize them, suggesting a lack of trustworthiness. It is not that people hate their politicians. They just regard them with high degree of suspicion. They do not expect them to be corrupt or to use their position to amass personal wealth, but they do expect them to be frequently dishonest. People are not really shocked when the government is caught lying. On the other hand, they would be very shocked indeed if it was discovered the government was doing something anything really illegal.

The British were not always so unenthusiastic. In the centuries past, it was a maxim of gentlemen’s clubs that nobody should mention politics or religion in polite conversation. If anybody did there was a danger that the conversation would become too heated, people would become too bad-tempered and perhaps violent. However, there has not been any real possibility of a revolution or even of a radical change in the style of government for almost two centuries now. The stability is now taken for granted. Most people rarely see any reason to become passionate about politics and nobody regards it as a “dangerous” topic of conversation. They are more likely to regard it as a boring topic of conversation. Still, three-quarters of the adult population are interested enough in politics to vote at national elections.

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

The relationships between an individual and the state – both should “leave each other alone” as much as possible. The duties of an individual towards the state are confined to not breaking the law and to paying taxes. There is no military service; people are not obliged to vote at elections; people do not have to register their change of address with any authority if they move house. Similarly, if the government wants to make an important change in the way the country is run (e.g. the electoral system or the powers of Prime Minister) it does not have to ask people to vote in a referendum. It does not even have to have a special vote in Parliament with an especially high number of MPs in favour. It just needs to get Parliament agree.

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

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

The UK is *a constitutional monarchy*. The Queen is the official Head of State and, for many people, a symbol of the unity of the nation. Other countries have “citizens”, but in the UK people are legally described as “*subjects* of Her Majesty the Queen”. The Queen has a central role in state affairs, not only through her ceremonial functions, such as opening Parliament, but also because she meets the Prime Minister every week and receives copies of all Cabinet papers. However, she is expected to be impartial or “above politics”, and any advice she may offer the Prime Minister is kept secret. Moreover, there is a principle of English law that the monarch can do nothing that is generally wrong. In other words, Queen Elizabeth II is above the law.

Functions of the Sovereign:

- opening Parliament every autumn. The Queen makes a speech where she says what “my government” intends to do in the coming year. As far as the law is concerned, she can choose anybody to run the government for her. In reality, she appoints the head of the party that has won the majority of seats in the House of Commons. The same is true for the people to fill some hundred or so of ministerial positions. Officially speaking, they are all “servants of the Crown” (not servants of the country or the people). In reality, it is the Prime Minister who decides who the government ministers are going to be (although the Prime Minister simply “advises” the monarch who to choose). For the ceremony of *the State Opening of Parliament*, the speech she makes is written for her. She makes no secret of the fact and very obviously reads out of the script, word for word. If she strongly disagrees with one of the policies of the government she might ask to change the wording in the speech, but she cannot stop the government from pursuing the policy;

- approving the appointment of the Prime Minister;
- giving her *Royal Assent* to bills. In theory, the Queen could refuse it and so stop a bill becoming law, but no monarch has done so since 1708;
- giving honours such as peerages, knighthoods and medals. Traditionally,

by giving people titles, the monarch “honoured” them for their services. These days, the decision who gets which honour is made by the Prime Minister, so a high proportion of honours is given to politicians, civil servants, business people, sport stars, musicians and other entertainers;

- Head of the Commonwealth. *The Commonwealth* is a voluntary organisation of 54 independent countries who all share a common history as part of Britain’s imperial past. The countries are as diverse as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Pakistan, Cyprus, India, Barbados, Sri Lanka and Zambia. The British Commonwealth of Nations was set up in 1931 on dismantling of the British Empire, since 1949 it has been known simply as the Commonwealth. Any nation wishing to join must be independent, and its application must be acceptable to existing members. All member states recognise the British monarch as Head of the Commonwealth, though he\she is not necessarily the head of each individual state. Members of the Commonwealth have special links with the UK and with each other. All members are equal and agree to work together to advance democracy, human rights and social and economic development, and to organise special programmes to help promote trade, science, health, young people and many other specific issues in its member countries. There are no legal or constitutional obligations involved in the membership;

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

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

*God save our gracious Queen!
Long live our noble Queen!
God save the Queen!
Send her victorious,
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign over us,
God save the Queen!*

Many members of *the Royal Family* undertake official duties in Britain and abroad. Their various responsibilities reflect tradition, their own personal interests and Britain’s former imperial status.

The British Parliament works in a large building called *the Palace of Westminster* (popularly known as *the Houses of Parliament*). This contains offices, committee rooms, restaurants, bars, and libraries. It also contains two larger rooms. One is where *the House of Lords* meets, the other is where *the House of Commons* meets.

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

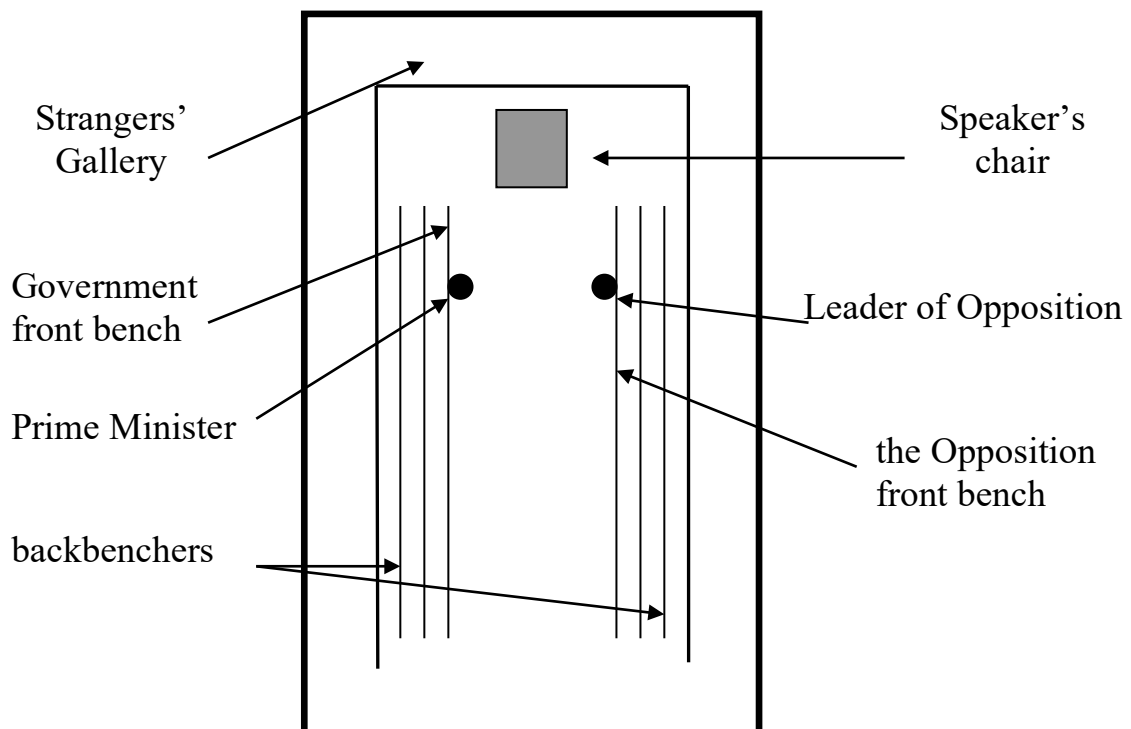
about 650 constituencies. They are known as *MPs*, or *Members of Parliament*.

As of February 13th 2006, the state of the parties in the House of Commons was as follows:

Labour	353
Conservative	196
Liberal Democrat	63
Scottish National Party	6
Sinn Fein (have not taken their seats)	5
Independent	2
Plaid Cymru (Welsh Nationalist)	3
Social Democratic and Labour Party	3
Ulster Democratic Unionist Party	9
Ulster Unionist Party	1
Respect	1
The Speaker and 3 Deputies (do not normally vote)	4
Total	646
There are 126 women MPs	

The design and the layout of the House of Commons differ from the interior of the parliament buildings in most other countries; these differences can tell us a lot what is distinctive of the British Parliament.

The seating arrangement. There are just two rows of benches facing each other. The MPs of the governing party sit facing the opposition MPs. There is no opportunity in this layout for a reflection of all the various shades of political opinion. This division is emphasised by the table on the floor of the House between the two rows of benches.



The Commons has no “front”, no obvious place from which an MP can address everybody. MPs simply stand up and speak from wherever they might be sitting. Although MPs do not have their own personal seats in the Commons, there are two seating areas reserved for particular MPs. These areas are the front benches on either side of the House. These are the benches where the leading members of the ruling party and the leading members of the main opposition party sit. These people are thus known as “*frontbenchers*”. MPs who do not hold the governing posts and who, therefore, in the House of Commons sit on the back benches are known as “*backbenchers*”; independent or neutral MPs, who belong neither to the Government nor to the Opposition are called “*crossbenchers*”. All these features result in a fairly informal atmosphere. The fairly small size of the House together with the lack of podium means that MPs do not normally speak the way they would at a large public meeting. MPs normally speak in a conversational tone and because they have nowhere to put their notes, they do not normally speak long.

The *Speaker’s* chair is also there. From here the Speaker: chairs and controls discussions in the House; decides which MP is going to speak next (“be called”); makes sure that the rules of the procedure are observed. The Speaker has the power to suspend the sitting in case of grave general disorder. The Speaker is, officially, the second most important commoner (“non-aristocrat”) in the UK after the Prime Minister. Speakers are elected at the beginning of each new Parliament. Once a Speaker has been appointed, he or she agrees to give up all party politics and remains in the job as long as he/she wants it on condition they return after the next General Election. Rt Hon Michael Martin has been Speaker since 2000.

A parliamentary day in the Commons from Monday to Thursdays.

14.30	Prayers
14.35	Question time (the most well-attended part of the parliamentary day. MPs are allowed to ask questions to government ministers. Opposition ministers have an opportunity to make the ministers look incompetent or perhaps dishonest. However, questions have to be “tabled” – written down and placed on the table below the speaker’s chair two days in advance. The risk is a “supplementary question” which can be asked relating the minister’s answer.)
15.30	A debate on a proposal of a new law, known as “bill”. Most of the bills are introduced by the government but there are also “private member bills” introduced by individual MPs.
22.00	The main business of the day stops and MPs are allowed to bring up another matter for the discussion.
22.30	The House rises (usually).

* On Fridays the House starts in the morning, finishing in the early afternoon for the weekend.

The House has long holidays: four weeks at Christmas, two weeks at Easter, two weeks at Whitsun, about eleven weeks in the summer (the beginning of August – the middle of October).

How a bill becomes a law. *The first reading* is a formal announcement only, with no debate. During *the second reading* the House debates general principles of the bill and, in most cases, takes a vote. A committee of MPs then examines the details of the bill and votes on amendments to its parts (*Committee stage*). The House considers the amendments during *the report stage*. *Third reading* presupposes that the amended bill is debated as a whole. The bill is sent to *the House of Lords* where it goes through the same stages. If the Lords make new amendments, these will be considered by the Commons. After both Houses have reached agreement, the bill is sent to the Queen for her signature (or '*Royal Assent*') at which point it becomes an Act of Parliament.

The House of Lords is organised on a party basis much the same way as the House of Commons, but with important differences: Lords are mainly unpaid and Members of the House of Lords are less rigidly partisan than in the Commons. Currently there are about 750 members and four distinct types of member.

- *Life peers* make up the majority of the membership (currently about 580). The power to appoint belongs formally to the Crown, but members are essentially created by the Queen on the advice of the Prime Minister. Life peers' titles cease on death;

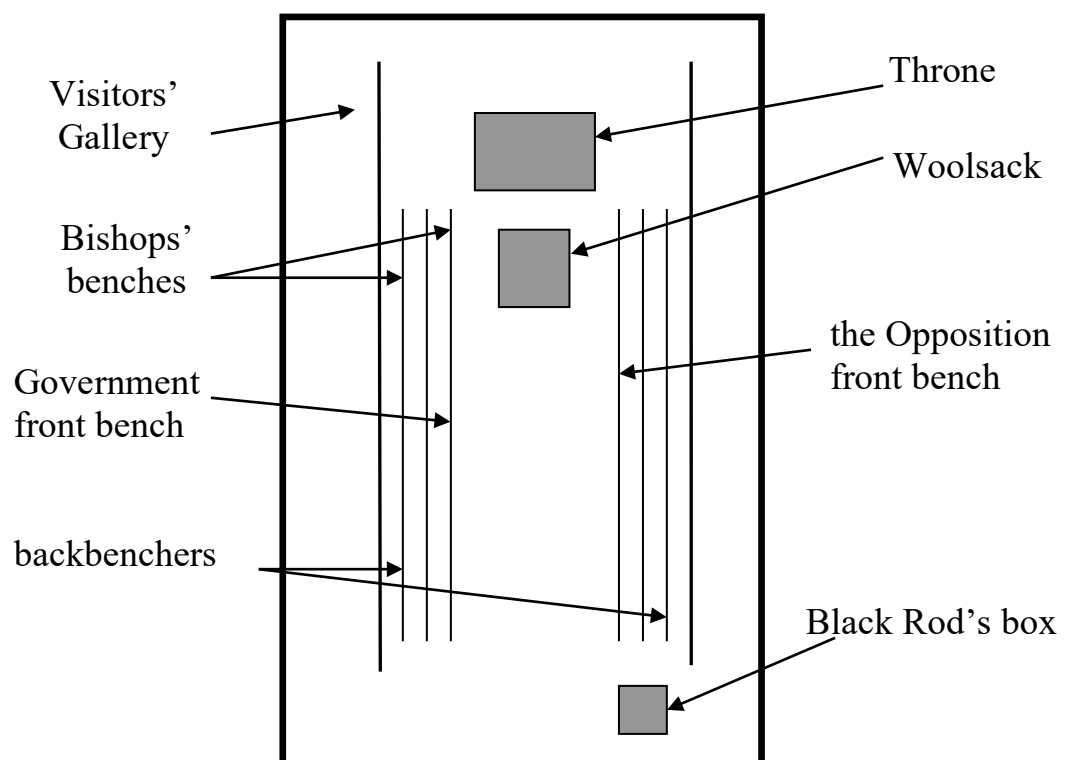
- *Law Lords* – up to 12 Lords of Appeal are specially appointed to hear appeals from the lower courts. They are salaried and can continue to hear appeals until they are 70 years of age. According to the Constitutional Reform Act of 2005, a separate, independent supreme court was set up (from October 2009) where the law lords move.

- *Lords Spiritual* are the Anglican Archbishops of Canterbury and York, the Bishops of Durham, London and Winchester and the 21 senior bishops of the Church of England. When they retire, the bishops stop being members of the House.

- *Elected hereditary peers* – 92 of the existing hereditary peers remain as members after the 1992 House of Lords Act was adopted. (Until then there had been about 700 hereditary members.) The 92 peers are made up of: 15 “office holders”, i.e. Deputy Speakers or Chairmen elected by the entire house; 75 Party and Crossbench members elected by their own party group; 2 hereditary peers who hold Royal appointments – The *Lord Great Chamberlain*, who is the Queen's representative in Parliament, and the *Earl Marshal*, who is responsible for ceremonies such as the State Opening of Parliament.

Some key officials of the House of Lords. *The Lord Speaker (Lord Chancellor)* is elected by Members of the House of Lords and presides over the House, sitting on the *Woolsack*. Their role is different to that of Speaker of the House of Commons: the Lord Speaker does not call on Members to speak and has no powers to call the House to order because the House of Lords is a self-regulating House; it relies on the courtesy and judgment of its Members for its orderly behaviour. The Lord Speaker has other responsibilities, e.g. chairing the House Committee (the highest authority of the House of Lords) and acting as an ambassador for the House of Lords. *The Leader of the House* is a cabinet minister appointed by the Prime Minister. The Leader is the most senior member of

Government in the Lords and responsible for the Government's business in the House, however he/she also has obligations to the House as a whole. Although the House is self-regulating and business is expected to be conducted in an orderly and polite fashion, the Leader may give the House procedural advice and intervene if there is a dispute over who will speak next during question time (at other times it is the Lord Speaker who does so). *The Clerk of the Parliaments'* role is steeped in history but similar to that of a chief executive. As the House of Lords' most senior permanent official, he/she is responsible for the House's management, administration and finances. *Black Rod's* post, like the Clerk of the Parliaments', has existed for as long as the House itself. He/she is responsible for control of access to the House, maintaining order within the precincts and domestic arrangements within the House. He/she also has royal duties associated with the State Opening of Parliament.



Elections. The United Kingdom is divided into 646 parliamentary *constituencies*, each with an electorate of about 60,000 voters. Each British citizen over eighteen has the vote (although voting is not compulsory). Each constituency is represented by one MP in the House of Commons. More rural constituencies are known as “*county constituencies*”, more urban ones are called “*borough constituencies*”.

Any number of candidates can stand for election in each constituency. The main political parties are usually represented, and sometimes candidates representing minority parties also stand. The winner is the candidate who gets more votes than any other single candidate, even if the difference is only one vote. This is “*first past the post*” system.

The leader of the party with most seats becomes Prime Minister and forms a

Government, which can remain in power for up to five years unless the Prime Minister decides to hold an earlier election. The second biggest party becomes the official Opposition. Its leader forms a "*Shadow Cabinet*". Since 1945 the *Conservatives* and *Labour* have been either the Government or the Opposition.

Breaking Conservative and Labour dominance. The Westminster Parliament has traditionally been dominated by the two-party system. Over the years these have been Whigs and Tories, Liberals and Conservatives and, since the development of the Labour Party at the beginning of the 20th century, Labour and Conservatives. In 1981 a new party was formed to try to break this dominance. Some Conservative and Labour MPs left their own parties to join the new *Social Democrats*. The new party then agreed to fight elections in alliance with the small but long-established Liberals, forming the Alliance. In 1987 the two parties of the Alliance agreed to merge to form a new party, the *Liberal Democrats*, although some Social Democrats preferred to remain independent. After the 2005 election (see results on page 16) the Liberal Democrats were the third largest party with 62 seats.

The election timetable. In the UK there is no fixed-term Parliaments and there is no minimum length of a Parliament. Under the terms of the Septennial Act 1715 as amended by the Parliament Act 1911 the maximum life of a Parliament, the time between *general elections*, is 5 years. Since 1911 Parliaments have twice been exceptionally extended beyond 5 years, during the two World Wars. Within the legal period it is up to the Prime Minister to decide when to call a general election. A time is chosen which will give as much advantage as possible to the political party in power. About a month before the election the Prime Minister meets a small group of close advisers to discuss the date which would best suit the party. The date is announced to the Cabinet. The Prime Minister formally asks the Sovereign *to dissolve Parliament*. General elections are usually held 17 days after the dissolution of Parliament, excluding weekends and public holidays. Thursdays are popular general election days, although there is no law that says this should be so. General elections are frequently held in either spring or autumn: if the weather is bad, voters are less inclined to vote so winter is usually avoided, while many people are on holiday in the summer and may not bother to organise *a postal vote*.

The House of Lords is an unelected chamber so is not involved in the electoral process. It closes when Parliament dissolves and formally re-assembles for the State Opening of Parliament. If there is a change in Government the two main parties will change sides and the positions in the Lords which are party political appointments, e.g. the Leader of the House, will change.

Once Parliament is dissolved, all MPs are unemployed, but government officers continue to function. A general election campaign usually lasts for about three weeks. All the main political parties produce a wide range of publicity material. Manifestos will be published setting out a party's policies on each major issue. The national headquarters of each party is responsible for preparing party election advertising material and broadcasts for television and radio. Party election broadcasts are permitted and their number depends broadly on the number of candidates the party has in the election. The broadcasting authorities may refuse to allow material that they

consider offensive. Party leaders and senior figures will tour the country supporting local candidates and making speeches.

Voting is *by secret ballot* and takes place on *Polling Day*. Each constituency is divided into a number of polling districts, each of which has a *polling station*. Most polling stations are in public buildings such as schools, town halls or council offices, but other buildings can be used on request. Voting takes place on Election Day from 07.00 — 22.00 in each constituency. Voters are sent a polling card in advance, but it is not compulsory to take this to the polling station. Only those voters whose names appear on the electoral register are eligible to vote.

All ballot boxes are then taken to a central place in each constituency such as a town hall where counting takes place. Each ballot box is emptied, the papers mixed up and the votes counted by teams of helpers. This is done in the presence of the candidates. When all the votes have been counted the results are announced by the *Returning Officer*. Depending on the time it takes to bring all of the ballot boxes to the count, the final result may be announced before midnight. Most results will come in during the early hours of the morning, but some will not be known until well into the next day. As soon as it is clear that one party has a majority of seats in the House of Commons, its leader is formally invited by the Sovereign to form a government.

The Prime Minister, or leader of the Government, is also an MP, usually the leader of the political party with a majority in the House of Commons. He\she leads the majority party; runs the Government; appoints Cabinet Ministers and other ministers; represents the nation in political matters.

The Prime Minister is advised by a Cabinet of about twenty other ministers. The Cabinet includes the ministers in charge of major government departments or ministries. The Cabinet chosen by Tony Blair in May 2005 consisted of:

- Prime Minister, *First Lord of the Treasury* and *Minister for the Civil Service*;
- Deputy Prime Minister and First Secretary of State;
- *Chancellor of the Exchequer*;
- *Leader of the House of Commons* and the *Lord Privy Seal*;
- *Secretary of State* for Constitutional Affairs and *Lord Chancellor*;
- Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs;
- Secretary of State for the *Home Department*;
- Secretary of State for the Environment, Food and Rural Affairs;
- Secretary of State for International Development;
- Secretary of State for Work and Pensions;
- Secretary of State for Transport, and *Secretary of State for Scotland*;
- Secretary of State for Health;
- *Secretary of State for Northern Ireland and for Wales*;
- Secretary of State for Defense;
- Chief Secretary to the Treasury;
- Leader of the House of Lords and *Lord President of the Council*;
- Secretary of State for Trade and Industry;

- Secretary of State for Education and Skills;
- Secretary of State for Culture, Media and Sport;
- Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury (Chief Whip);
- Minister Without Portfolio and Party Chair;
- Minister for Communities and Local Government.

Departments and ministries are run by civil servants, who are permanent officials. Even if the Government changes after an election, the same civil servants are employed.

The legal system. British law comes from two main sources: laws made in Parliament (usually drawn up by government departments and lawyers), and Common Law, which is based on previous judgements and customs. Common law has never been clearly defined – it is deduces from custom or legal precedents and interpreted in court cases by judges. Many conventions derive from the historical events through which the British system of Government has evolved. Just as there is no written constitution, so England and Wales have no criminal code or civil code and the interpretation of the law is based on what has happened in the past. The laws which are made in Parliament are interpreted by the courts, but changes in the law itself are made in Parliament.

The most common type of law court in England and Wales is *the magistrates' court*. There are 700 magistrates' courts and about 30,000 magistrates. More serious criminal cases then go to *the Crown Court*, which has 90 branches in different towns and cities. Civil cases (for example, divorce or bankruptcy cases) are dealt with in *County courts*. Appeals are heard by higher courts. For example, appeals from magistrates' courts are heard in the Crown Court, unless they are appeals on points of law. The highest court of appeal in England and Wales is the House of Lords. Scotland has its own High Court in Edinburgh which hears all appeals from Scottish courts. Certain cases may be referred to the European Court of Justice (Luxembourg).

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY

backbencher	рядовий член парламенту
the Bill of Rights	Білля про права
Black Rod	"Чорний жезл", герольдмейстер (постійний посадовець, що відповідає за порядок в палаті лордів; призначається монархом)
borough constituencies	міський електорат
Chancellor of the Exchequer [ˈks ˈtʃɛkə]	канцлер казначейства (міністр фінансів Великої Британії)
Chief Whip	головний організатор парламентської фракції, "головний батіг"
Clerk of the Parliaments	секретар палати лордів
the Commonwealth	(Британське) співтовариство (націй)

constituency [kɒn'stɪtjʊənsɪ]	виборчий округ
constitutional monarchy	конституційна монархія
the Conservative Party	Консервативна партія
county constituencies	сільський електорат
County court	Суд графства
the Crown Court	Суд корони
crossbencher	незалежний член парламенту
to dissolve Parliament	розпускати парламент
Earl Marshal	граф-маршал (головний церемоніймейстер)
First Lord of the Treasury ['trɪz(ə)rɪ]	перший лорд казначейства (номінальна посада голови ради казначейства, яку посідає прем'єр-міністр)
first past the post	той, хто прийде першим
frontbencher	міністр або член «тіньового кабінету»
General Election	загальні вибори
hereditary peer [hɪ'rɛdɪtɔːrɪ]	спадкоємний пер
Home Department	Міністерство внутрішніх справ
the House of Commons	Палата громад
the House of Lords	Палата лордів
the Labour Party	Лейбористська партія
Law Lord	судовий лорд, лорд-суддя
Leader of the House of Lords	Лідер Палати лордів
Leader of the House of Commons and the Lord Privy Seal	лідер палати громад, лорд-хранитель печатки
the Liberal Democratic Party	Партія ліберал-демократів
life peer [pɪə]	довічний пер
Lord Chancellor	спікер палати лордів
Lord Great Chamberlain	лорд-обер-гофмейстер
Lord President of the Council	лорд голова Таємної ради (представляє королеву в Таємній раді у її відсутність)
Lord Spiritual ['spɪrɪtʃuəl]	духовний лорд
the magistrates' court ['mæɡɪstreɪt]	магістратський суд
Magna Carta ['mæɡnə'kɑːtə]	Велика хартія вільностей
Member of Parliament (MP)	член парламенту
Minister for the Civil Service	міністр у справах державної служби (пост посідає прем'єр-

	міністр)
the Palace of Westminster (the Houses of Parliament)	Вестмінстерський палац (будинок парламенту)
Polling Day	день виборів
polling station	виборча дільниця
a postal vote	голосування поштою
Royal Assent [q' sFnt]	королівська санкція (схвалення монархом законопроекту)
the Reform Act	Акт про реформу парламентського представництва
Returning Officer	уповноважений по виборах
secret ballot	таємне голосування
Secretary of State	міністр, голова одного з семи міністерств
Secretary of State for Scotland	міністр у справах Шотландії
Secretary of State for Northern Ireland and for Wales	міністр у справах Північної Ірландії та Уельсу
Shadow Cabinet	Тіньовий кабінет
the Social Democratic Party	Соціал-демократична партія
Speaker	спікер
the State Opening of Parliament	Офіційне відкриття сесії парламенту
subjects	піддані
The Queen reigns but does not rule	Королева править, але не управляє
Woolsack	набита вовною подушка, на якій сидить голова (лорд- канцлер) в палаті лордів; офіційне місце голови

DO YOU REMEMBER?

Fill in the missing word, word combination or phrase.

1. The Constitution of the UK is made up of _____ (1), _____ (2), and _____ (3).
2. The so-called constitutional documents include _____ (4), _____ (5), and _____ (6).
3. The three branches of power – _____ (7), _____ (8), _____ (9) – are headed by _____ (10). The first line of the national anthem is _____ (11).
4. The duties of the monarch in the modern UK include _____ (12), _____ (13), _____ (14).
5. The Commonwealth, officially referred to as _____ (15) numbers _____ (16) members. It was established in _____ (17). Among its member-

- countries are _____ (18), _____ (19), _____ (20), _____ (21). This organisation aims at _____ (22), _____ (23), and _____ (24).
6. The UK Parliament consists of two chambers – _____ (25) and _____ (26). The latter has _____ (27) members, including _____ (28) women. The first is elected every _____ (29) years after Parliament is _____ (30) by the Queen.
 7. Functions of Parliament which works in the Palace of _____ (31) include _____ (32), _____ (33) and _____ (34).
 8. The Speaker of the House of Commons is the _____ (35) most important commoner after _____ (36). His\her functions include _____ (37) and _____ (38). The Speaker's colleague in the House of Lords is titled _____ (39) or _____ (40). He/she traditionally sits on the _____ (41).
 9. Currently there are _____ (42) members in the House of Lords and four member types: _____ (43), _____ (44), _____ (45) and _____ (46). The chief officials of the House are _____ (47), _____ (48), _____ (49) and _____ (50).
 10. Elections are held in the UK on the so called _____ (51) Day. The maximum life of a Parliament is _____ (52) years. Elections are usually held _____ (53) days after the dissolution of Parliament excluding days-off, so the electoral campaign lasts _____ (54) weeks. Traditionally, the British vote on _____ (55) in _____ (56) or in _____ (57).
 11. Each constituency is divided into a number of _____ (58) each of which has a _____ (59). Most of them are situated in public buildings such as _____ (60) or _____ (61).
 12. Prime Minister is usually the leader of the party which _____ (62). To win, a party needs _____ (63) which is known as _____ (64) system. The Prime Minister's duties include _____ (65) and _____ (66). In running the country he\she is assisted by the _____ (67) made up of _____ (68) Ministers, some of whom are _____ (69), _____ (70), _____ (71), _____ (72).
 13. The second largest party, having lost the elections, forms _____ (73). Its members sit _____ (74) and thus are called _____ (75). MPs supporting this party sit _____ (76) and are called _____ (77). Neutral MPs are nicknamed _____ (78).
 14. The _____ (79) is not dissolved. In case the leading party changes, its members will _____ (80) and some positions in the Lords which are _____ (81) will also change.
 15. The three biggest parties of the UK at present are _____ (82), _____ (83) and _____ (84).
 16. The most common type of law court in England and Wales is _____ (85). More serious criminal cases go to _____ (86). Civil cases are dealt with in _____ (87). The highest court of appeal in England and Wales is _____ (88) while for Scotland it is _____ (89).

THE NATIONAL IDENTITY

Ethnic identity: the native British. National ('ethnic') loyalties can be strong among the people in Britain whose ancestors were not English. For some people living in England who call themselves Scottish, Welsh or Irish, this loyalty is little more than a matter of emotional attachment. But for others, it goes a bit further and they may even join one of the sporting and social clubs for “exiles” from these nations.

People in *Scotland* have constant reminders of their distinctiveness:

- several important aspects of public life are organised separately, and differently, from the rest of Britain – notably, education, law and religion.
- the Scottish way of speaking English is very distinctive. A modern form of the dialect known as Scots is spoken in everyday life by most of the working classes in the Lowlands. It has many features which are different from other forms of English and cannot usually be understood by people who are not Scottish.

However, the feeling of being Scottish is not that simple. This is partly because of the historical cultural split between Highland and Lowland Scotland. A genuinely Scottish Gaelic sense of cultural identity is, in modern times, felt only by a few tens of thousands of people in some of the western isles of Scotland and the adjoining mainland. These people speak Scottish Gaelic which they call “Gaelic” as a first language.

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

However, there is one single highly-important symbol of Welsh identity – the Welsh language. Everybody in Wales can speak English but it is not everybody's first language. For about 20% of the population (that's more than half a million people), the mother-tongue is Welsh. For these people Welsh identity obviously means more than just living in the region known as Wales. Moreover, in comparison to the other small minority languages of Europe, Welsh shows signs of continued vitality. Thanks to successive campaigns, the language receives a lot of public support. All children in Wales learn it at school, there are many local newspapers in Welsh, there is a Welsh television channel and nearly all public notices and signs are written in both Welsh and English.

As for *English* identity, most people who describe themselves as English usually make no distinction in their minds between “English” and “British”.

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

Being British (British identity and loyalty). Because of the long tradition of a clear separation between the individual and the state, British people, although many of them feel proud to be British, are not normally actively patriotic. They are individualistic and do not like to feel that they are personally representing their country. During the last quarter of the 20th century there has been a severe loss of confidence in British public institutions accompanied by a change in the previous rather patronising attitude to foreigners and foreign ways. In the days of empire, foreigners were often considered amusing, even interesting, but not really to be taken seriously. These days, many foreign ways of doing things are admired (although perhaps a bit resentfully) and there is a greater openness to foreign influences. Along with this openness, however, goes a sense of vulnerability, so that patriotism often takes a rather defensive form. The modern British are not really chauvinistic. Open hostility to people from other countries is very rare.

Geographical identity. A sense of identity based on the place of birth is not very common or strong in most parts of Britain. People are just too mobile and very few live in the same place all their lives. There is quite a lot of local pride and people find many opportunities to express it. This pride, however arises because people are happy to live in what they consider to be a nice place and often when they are fighting to preserve it. It does not mean that people of the locality feel strongly that they belong to the place.

A sense of identity with a larger geographical area is a bit stronger. Nearly everybody has a spoken accent that identifies them as coming from a particular large city or region. In some cases there is quite a strong sense of identification.

In other cases, identity is associated with a county. These are the most ancient divisions of England. Although their boundaries and names do not always conform to the modern arrangement of local government, they still claim the allegiance of some people.

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

Religious and political identity. In comparison with some other European countries, and with the one notable exception of Northern Ireland, neither religion nor politics is an important part of people's social identity in modern Britain. This is partly because the two do not, as they do in some other countries, go together in any significant way. Of course, there are many people who regard themselves as belonging to this or that church or party. Some people among the minority who are regular churchgoers and the very small minority who are active members of political parties feel this sense of belonging strongly and deeply. It may form a very important part of their own idea of themselves as individuals. But even for these people it plays little part in determining other aspects of their lives such as where they work, which trade union they belong to, who their friends are or who they would like their neighbours to be. For the vast majority of parents in the country (some ethnic groups excepted), the religion or voting habits of their future son-in-law's or daughter-in-law's family are of only passing interest and rarely the major cause of objection to the proposed marriage.

Men and women. Generally speaking, British people invest about the same amount of their identity in their *gender* as people in other parts of northern Europe do. On the one hand, society no longer overtly endorses differences in the public and social roles of men and women, and it is illegal to discriminate on the basis of sex. On the other hand, people still (often unconsciously) expect a fairly large number of differences in everyday behaviour and domestic roles.

In terms of everyday habits and mannerisms, British society probably expects a sharper difference between the sexes than most other European societies do. As far as roles are concerned, most people assume that a family's financial situation is not just the responsibility of the man. On the other hand, they would still normally complement the woman, not the man, on a beautifully decorated or well-kept house. Everyday care of the children is still seen as mainly the woman's responsibility. Although almost as many women have jobs as men, nearly half of the jobs done by women are part-time. In fact, the majority of mothers with children under the age of twelve either have no job or work only during school hours. Men certainly take a more active domestic role than they did forty years ago. Some things, however, never seem to change. A comparison of child-rearing habits of the 1950s and the 1980s

showed that the proportion of men who never changed a baby's nappy had remained the same (40%)!

At the public level there are contradictions. Britain was one of the first European countries to have a woman Prime Minister (Margaret Thatcher) and a woman chairperson of debate in its Parliament (Betty Boothroyd). However, in the early nineties women formed only a tiny fraction of the total number of MPs (about 5%), only one out of five lawyers in Britain was a woman, less than one in ten accountants was a woman and there was only one female consultant brain surgeon in the whole country.

Nearly every institution in the country has opened its doors to women now. One of the last to do so was the Anglican Church, which, after much debate, decided in favour of the ordination of women priests in 1993. However, there are a few institutions, which, at the time of writing, still do not accept female members – for example, the Oxford and Cambridge Club in London, an association for graduates of these two universities.

Class. Historians say that the class system has survived in Britain because of its flexibility. It has always been possible to buy or marry or even work your way up, so that your children (and their children) belong to a higher social class than you do. As a result, the class system has never been swept away by a revolution and an awareness of class forms a major part of most people's sense of identity.

People in modern Britain are very conscious of class differences. They regard it difficult to become friends with somebody from a different class. This feeling has little to do with conscious loyalty, and a positive belief in the class system itself. Most people say they do not approve of class divisions. It results from the fact that different classes have different sets of attitudes and daily habits. Typically, they tend to eat different food at different times of day (and call the meals by different names, e.g. *pudding*, *sweet*, *dessert*). They like to talk about different topics using different styles and accents of English, they enjoy different pastimes and sports, they have different values about what things in life are most important and different ideas about the correct way to behave.

An interesting feature of the class structure in Britain is that it is just, or even mainly, relative wealth or the appearance of it which determines someone's class. Of course, wealth is part of it - if you become wealthy, you can provide the conditions to enable your children to belong to a higher class than you do. But it is not always to guess reliably the class to which a person belongs by looking at his or her clothes, car or bank balance. The most obvious immediate sign comes when a person opens his or her mouth, giving the listener clues to the speaker's attitudes and interests, both of which are indicative of class.

During the last quarter of the twentieth century, the way that people wish to identify themselves seems to have changed. In Britain, as anywhere else where there are recognised social classes, a certain amount of “social climbing” goes on; that is, people try to appear as if they belong to as high a class as possible. These days, however, nobody wants to be thought of as snobbish.

Working-class people in particular are traditionally proud of their class membership and would not usually wish to be thought of as belonging to any other class. In general, the different classes mix more readily and easily with each other than they used to. There has been a great increase in the number of people from working-class who do traditionally middle-class jobs.

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

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

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

Multiculturalism. In the cities, at least, Britain is a multicultural society due to large-scale immigration to Britain in the 20th century. The “new British people” have brought widely differing sets of attitudes with them. The new British have made their own contribution to British life and attitudes. They have probably helped to make people less formal; the most popular, well-attended festival in the whole Britain is the annual Notting Hill Carnival in London at the end of August, which is of Caribbean inspiration and origin.

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

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

- The two most popular children’s writers are noticeably un-modern (and both dead): Roald Dahl, whose fantasy stories are set in a rather old-fashioned world; Enid Blyton, whose stories take place in a comfortable white middle-class world before 1960s. They contain no references to other races or classes and mention nothing more modern than a radio.

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

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

- The British government has been trying for years to promote the metric system of measurement and to get British people to use the same scales that are used

nearly everywhere in the world. British manufacturers are obliged to give the weight of their tins and packets in kilos and grams but everybody in Britain still shops in pounds and ounces. The weather forecasters on television use the Celsius scale of temperature but nearly everybody still thinks in Fahrenheit. Even the use of the 24-hour clock is comparatively restricted.

<i>Imperial</i>	<i>Metric</i>	<i>Imperial</i>	<i>Metric</i>
1 inch	2.54 cm	1 ounce	28.35 gr
12 inches (1 foot)	30.48 cm	16 ounces (1 pound)	0.456 kg
3 feet (1 yard)	0.92 m	14 pounds (1 stone)	6.38 kg
1760 yards (1 mile)	1.6 km	1 pint	0.58 l
2 pints (1 quart)	1.16 l	8 pints (1 gallon)	4.64 l

The love of nature. Most of the British live in towns or cities. But they have an idealised vision of the countryside. To the British, the countryside has almost none of the negative associations such as poor facilities, lack of educational opportunities, unemployment and poverty. To them countryside means peace and quiet, beauty, good health and no crime. Most of them would live in a village if they thought 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 in it. Nowadays such a village is not common, but it is a stereotypical picture that is well-known to the British.

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 the country matters and the British regard it as both the right and privilege to be able to “go into the country” whenever they want to. Large areas of the country are official “national parks” where almost no building is allowed. 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 recognised 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”.

Even if they cannot go into the countryside, many British people spend a lot of their time “with nature”. They grow plants. Gardening is one of the most popular hobbies in the country. Even those unlucky 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 those “*allotments*” people grow mainly vegetables.

The love of animals. Nearly half of the households in Britain keep at least one domestic pet. The status of pets is taken seriously. The love of animals goes beyond sentimental attachment to domestic pets. Wildlife programmes are by far the most popular kind of TV documentary. Millions of families have “bird-tables” (raised platforms where birds can eat) in their garden. There is even a special hospital (St Tiggywinkles) which treats injured wild animals. Thousands of people are

enthusiastic bird-watchers. This peculiarly British pastime often involves hours lying in wet and cold undergrowth, trying to get a glimpse of some rare species.

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

Perhaps because many have to follow clothing formalities during the week, the British, unlike many other countries, like to “*dress down*” on Sundays, slip into sth really scruffy. The British are comparatively uninterested in clothes. They spend a lower proportion of their income on clothing than people in most other EU countries do. Many people buy second hand clothes and are not embarrassed to admit it.

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

- *not* addressing someone by his/her title (Mr, Mrs, Professor);
- *not* dressing smartly when entertaining guests;
- *not* shaking hands when meeting;
- *not* saying “please” when asking for sth.

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

Respect for privacy underlies many aspects of British life. It is not just privacy in your own home which is important. Just as important is the individual’s right to keep information about himself/herself private. Despite the increase in informality, it is still seen as rude to ask people what is called “personal questions” (e.g. about how much money they earn or about their family or sex life) unless you know them well.

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY

allotment	ділянка, що віддається в оренду; город
community centre	(районний або міський) культурно-спортивний центр
council estate	мікрорайон, забудований муніципальними будинками
council house	житловий будинок, що належить муніципальній раді
granny flat	«бабусина квартира», невелика квартира для літнього члена родини, звичайно пристроюється до будинку
home help	прибиральниця-поденниця
lower class	нижчий клас, простолюди

happy hour	час доби, коли товари відпускаються за пільговою ціною (у барі й т. п.)
housing estate	район житлової забудови; група будинків
kilt	спідниця шотландського горця
lower middle class	дрібна буржуазія
stately home	старовинний дім, що має історичну значущість
tartan [' tRt (q) n]	тартан, шотландський плед
U / non-U	той, що (не) є прийнятним у вищому товаристві, "культурний"
upper middle class	велика буржуазія
village green	галявина в центрі села, що найчастіше є місцем для відпочинку або суспільних зборів

DO YOU REMEMBER?

Fill in the missing word, word combination or phrase.

1. Anti-intellectualism" of the British is reflected in _____ (1).
2. The "new British" are the people who\whose _____ (2).
3. The examples of the conservatism of the British are _____ (3), _____ (4), _____ (5).
4. Within the Imperial system of measurements distances can be measured in f _____ (6) and i _____ (7), liquids – in p _____ (8) and g _____ (9), substances can be weighed in o _____ (10) and p _____ (11).
5. The ideal place for the British to live is _____ (12). If they can't afford this, at least for the weekend, they rent _____ (13) from local authorities.
6. The function of the National Trust is _____ (14).
7. When the British "dress down", they _____ (15).
8. The feature of "privacy" is not discussing _____ (16) and _____ (17) even with close friends.
9. The Scottish feel different from the rest of the country because _____ (18). The people in Wales probably do not consider themselves to be especially Welsh at all because _____ (19). The characteristic feature of the English is _____ (20). In Northern Ireland people in terms of religion are either _____ (21) or _____ (22), in terms of ethnicity are those whose _____ (23) and those whose _____ (24). In terms of politics, the former prefer _____ (25), the latter _____ (26).
10. A sense of identity based on the place of birth is _____ (27).
11. The "southerners" are traditionally considered to be _____ (28), while the "northerners" are thought to be _____ (29).

THE ECONOMY AND EVERYDAY LIFE

Britain used to be one of the wealthiest countries in Europe. At present it is, by most standards of measurement, poorer than the EU average. By the year 2000 Britain's working population was 27 mln (nearly 50% of the total population). Those in employment include *full-time*, *part-time* and *self-employment* people. Britain has a *mixed economy*, based partly on state ownership but mainly on private enterprise. In the mid-1980s the private sector accounted for 72% of total employment and 74% of the goods and services produced in Britain. Government policy throughout the 1980's was to sell state-owned industries such as British Telecom and British Airways to private investors thereby further increasing the size of the private sector.

Earning money. People are employed in the three sectors: *primary*, *manufacturing* and *services*. Earlier in history, Britain had a very large manufacturing sector. Food, fuel and raw materials such as cotton were imported in large quantities and paid for with finished goods manufactured in Britain: it was known as "the workshop of the world". Today, the manufacturing sector and the small primary sector are employing even fewer people mainly through the increase of productivity, so that fewer workers are producing the same output more efficiently. Meanwhile, service industries like banking and catering are expanding their workforce.

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

The old distinction between the white-collar and blue-collar workers has become less clear as Britain's new technology has become more important. The Institute of Practitioners in Advertising defines six social classes, based on the occupation of the head of the household:

<i>Class</i>	<i>Occupation</i>
A	Higher managerial, administrative or professional
B	Intermediate managerial, administrative or professional
C1	Supervisory or clerical, junior managerial, administrative or professional
C2	Skilled manual workers
D	Semi- and unskilled manual workers
E	State pensioners, casual or lowest grade workers, or long-term unemployed

In 1951, 96% of the people in work in Britain had full-time jobs and the majority of these (70%) were held by men. By 2000 21% of jobs were part-time and 44% of workers were women. The basic employment trend of the 1980s continued, with a general rise in the number of part-time jobs for women, particularly in service industries. The number of people who were self-employed also rose due partly to new technologies and to changing work patterns. The high unemployment of the 1980s fell during the 1990s. As well as regional and occupational variations there are big differences in pay between men and women. The average full-time wage for woman is still only 80% of the male average, even when the same job is involved. Certain highly-paid occupations such as surgery are still almost exclusively confined to men.

The traditional lack of enthusiasm for work is the reason why the working day, in comparison with most European countries, starts rather late (usu. 8 o'clock for manual workers and around 9 for non-manual workers). The normal lunch-break is an hour or less, and most people unless they work part-time continue working until 5 or later. Many people work several hours overtime a week. In addition, a comparatively large proportion of the British stay in the workforce for comparatively large proportion of their lives. The normal retiring age for most people is 65 (60 for a greater proportion of women).

There are two main ways in which British people look for work in Britain. One is through newspapers (national ones for posts demanding the highest qualifications, or local ones). The other is through the local *job centre*, which is run as a government service. The level of unemployment is gradually rising and most jobs opportunities are in the service sector (communications, health care and social care).

London has been an important centre of finance for many years. The financial district, known simply as the City, occupies one square mile in the centre of London. In contrast with the entertaining district of the West End, the City is almost deserted at night. Although hundreds of thousands of people work in its offices by day, only about eight thousand actually live within the square mile. When London was an imperial capital, the City was its financial heart, but in the age of telecommunications, the City can be situated anywhere.

The Bank of England is Britain's central reserve bank. It controls other British banks, issues banknotes (although the Scottish banks still issue their own notes), and acts as the government's banker. The City has the greatest concentration of banks in the world and is responsible for about a quarter of international bank lending. The Stock Exchange that deals with stocks and shares has existed in London for over 200 years. Since 1973 it has been the single International Stock Exchange for the UK and the Republic of Ireland. In March 1986 membership of the London Stock Exchange was opened to overseas companies, and commissions became negotiable. In October 1986 it became possible for stockbrokers to deal in shares through telephones and computers instead of face-to-face interaction. These changes linked London much more closely with the other international finance centres in Tokyo and New York. A number of international exchanges are situated in the City. These provide an international market where materials and services can be bought and sold, e.g. the London Metal Exchange deals with metals and the Baltic Exchange arranges the sale

of half of the world's ships and most of the world's ship cargo. Lloyd's of London insures everything from houses to ships through its underwriters who accept risks on behalf of groups of members responsible for meeting any insurance claims. Lloyd's currently receives £8,000 mln in payments each year, 75% from abroad.

Spending money: shopping. The British are not very adventurous shoppers. They like reliability and buy brand-name goods, preferably with the price clearly marked (they are not very keen on haggling over prices). It is therefore not surprising that a high proportion of the country's shops are branches of chain stores. Visitors from Europe are surprised by the shabbiness of shop-window displays, even in prosperous areas. This is not necessarily a sign of economic depression. It is just that the British do not demand art in their shop windows. In general, they have been rather slow to take on the idea that shopping might actually be fun. On the positive side, visitors are also sometimes struck by the variety of types of shop. Most shops are chain stores but among those that are not, there is much individuality. Independent shop owners feel no need to follow conventional ideas about what a particular shop does and does not sell. In the last quarter of the twentieth century supermarkets were moving out of town, they were becoming bigger and turning into "hypermarkets" stocking a wider variety of items. However, this trend has not gone as far as it has in some EU countries. For example, few supermarkets sell clothes, shoes, kitchen utensils or electrical goods. They still concentrate mainly on everyday needs.

The move out of town however is already well established, with many of the country's chain stores following the supersets into specially built *shopping centres*. The area in town where the local shops are concentrated is known as the *High Street*. British high streets have suffered from the move towards out-of-town shopping. In the worst-affected towns, as many as a quarter of the shops in the High Street are vacant. But High Streets have often survived by adapting. In larger towns, shops have tended to become either more specialised or to sell especially cheap goods (for people who are too poor to own a car and drive out of town). Many have become *charity shops* (selling second-hand items and staffed by volunteers) and *discount stores*.

A shop in a residential area is often referred to as *the corner shop*. These sometimes sell various kinds of food, but they are not always general grocers. Usually their main business is newspapers, magazines, sweets and tobacco products. Only in corner shops do shopkeepers know their customers personally, only in these is the interaction across the counter often social as well as transactional. People working in other shops are often very helpful but the conversation usually has some clear purpose. In the last quarter of the 20th century, many corner shops were taken over by people from southern Asia and delighted the neighbourhood by staying open very long hours.

The best known supermarket chains are Sainsbury and Tesco. Asda is the best known of many discount stores. There is only one department store with a large number of branches. This is Marks & Spencer. It is so well-known that it is often referred to as "Marks and Sparks" or just "M and S". To the British, clothes at M&S are typical of the middle range: of fairly good quality, neither cheap nor expensive, and rather conservative. In a category all by itself is Woolworth's which used to have

a branch in almost every high street in the country. It sells mostly sweets, music, toys and clothes of the cheaper kind.

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY

assisted area = development area	субсидований урядом район
the Bank of England	Банк Англії
blue-collar worker	«синій комірєць», виробничий працівник
chain stores	однотипні роздрібні магазини однієї фірми
charity shop	магазин, що торгує уживаними речами і що віддає виручку на благодійні цілі
closed shop	підприємство, що приймає на роботу тільки членів даної профспілки
corner shop	кутовий магазин; крамниця /магазинчик/ на розі вулиці
discount store	дискаунтер, магазин знижених в ціні товарів
fringe benefits [frɪŋg]	доплати (до заробітної плати), зазначені в колективних договорах
full-time employment	зайнятість повний робочий день
girl Friday	секретарка, що служить у конторі, яка допомагає начальникові
golden handshake	велика вихідна допомога (службовцеві, від якого хочуть позбутися)
industrial estate	промислова зона
jobcentre	центр зайнятості
jobs for the boys	роздача дохідних містечок
Lloyd's of London	«Лондонський Ллойд» (асоціація страхувальників)
mixed economy	країна зі змішаною економікою
nine-to-five job	робота «від 9 до 5 години»
part-time employment	часткова (неповна) зайнятість
primary industry	видобувна промисловість
secondary industry	обробна промисловість
service industries	сфера послуг
skill centre	навчальний центр
shopping centre	торговий центр / комплекс
self-employment	самостійна підприємницька діяльність
the Stock Exchange	Лондонська фондова біржа
white-collar worker	службовець, «білий комірєць»

DO YOU REMEMBER?

Fill in the missing word, word combination or phrase.

1. About _____% (1) or _____mln (2) of the UK adult population are employed though the general attitude towards doing any kind of work is _____(3).
2. Though Britain used to be “_____” (4), at present the biggest sector of the national economy is _____ (5).
3. A(n) _____ (6) attitude to work has resulted, in particular, in a late start of work: _____ (7) for manual and _____(8) for non-manual workers.
4. Skilled manual workers are known as _____ (9), while non-manual workers are called _____(10).
5. Part-time jobs are traditionally taken on by _____ (11).
6. In the UK men typically retire at the age of _____ (12) while women do it at the age of _____ (13).
7. If one is unemployed he/she turns to the _____ (14). However, higher managerial positions can be found through _____ (15).
8. Instead of the traditional subdivision of the society into _____ (16), _____ (17) and _____ (18) classes, the Institute of Practitioners in Advertising offers _____ (19) new social classes: A is _____ (20), B is _____ (21), C1 is _____ (22), C2 is _____ (23), D is _____ (24) and E is _____ (25).
9. The two world-famous financial institutions in the UK are _____(26) and _____ (27). The former’s functions include _____ (28) and _____ (29); the latter deals with _____ (30).
10. _____ (31) is an association of London underwriters; they insure anything from _____ (32) to _____ (33).
11. The British are _____ (34) shopping. But if they do, they would typically go to out-of-town _____ (35). Those who cannot afford it go to _____ (36) or _____ (37).
12. The corner shop is usually situated in _____ (38) and owned by _____ (39). It provides the customers with _____ (40), _____ (41), _____ (42). However, it is mostly appreciated for _____ (43).
13. In comparison with other EU countries the UK has _____ (44) “hypermarket” culture: _____ (45) supermarkets sell clothes or electrical goods. They still concentrate mainly on _____ (46).
14. “M&S” which stands for _____ (47) sells _____ (48) clothes.
15. Woolworth’s which used to be found in _____ (49) of the country sells _____ (50) and _____ (51). It is _____ (52) than M&S.
16. A charity shop sells _____ (53) and is run by _____ (54).

THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE

The origins of the welfare state in Britain. Britain can claim to have been the first country in the world to have accepted that it is part of the job of government to help any citizen in need and to have set up what is generally known as a “*welfare state*”. Before the 20th century, welfare was considered to be the responsibility of local communities. The “care” provided was often very poor. An especially hated institution in the 19th century was the *workhouse* where the old, the sick, the mentally handicapped and orphans were sent. People were often treated very harshly or were given as virtual slaves to equally harsh employers. During the first half of the 20th century, a number of welfare benefits were introduced. These were a small *old-age pension* scheme (1908), partial sickness and *unemployment insurance* (1912), and *unemployment benefits* conditional on regular contributions and proof of need (1934). The real impetus for the welfare state came in 1942 from a government commission headed by William Beveridge, and its report on “social insurance and allied services”. In 1948 the National Health Act turned the report’s recommendations into law and the *National Health Service (NHS)* was set up.

The NHS is very typically British. This is in its avoidance of bureaucracy. The system, from the public’s point of view, is beautifully simple. There are no forms to fill in and payments to be made which are later refunded. About 83% of the cost of the health service is paid for by general taxation and the rest is met from the *National Insurance* contributions paid by those in work. There are charges for prescriptions and dental care but many people, such as children, pregnant women, pensioners and those on *Income Support*, are exempt from payment.

Most people are registered with a local doctor (a *GP*, or *General Practitioner*) who is increasingly likely to be a part of a *health centre* which serves the community. A visit to the GP is the first step towards getting any kind of treatment. The GP then arranges for whatever tests, surgery, specialist consultation or medicine are considered necessary. Only if it is an emergency or if the patient is away from home can treatment be obtained in some other way. Family Practitioners Committees monitor and plan local GP, dentist, optician, and chemist services, and are directly responsible to the secretary of state for health.

The UK spends less money per person on health care than any other country in the western world. One possible reason for this is the way that GPs are paid. The money which they get from the government does not depend on the number of consultations they perform. Instead, it depends on the number of registered patients they have – they get a “capitation” allowance for each one. It is in their interest that patients remain as healthy as possible, so that they can have more patients on their books. The other possible reason is that people do not like to make a big drama out of being ill. If the doctor tells them that there is nothing to worry about, they are likely to accept this diagnosis.

The potential of medical treatment has increased so dramatically, and the number of old people needing medical care has grown so large, that costs have

rocketed. The NHS employs well over a million people, making it the largest single employer in the country. NHS hospitals – many of which were built in the 19th century – provide nearly half a million beds and have over 480,000 medical staff. Medical practitioners frequently have to decide which patients should get the limited resources available and which will have to wait, possibly to die as a result.

The secretary of state, who heads the Department of Health, decides overall policy of the NHS. The next administrative layer, the regional health authorities (RHA's), use national guidelines to plan health care locally. Each RHA distributes funds among its district health authorities (DHA's), which plan and administer health care. A DHA coordinates many different services, from district general hospitals and community health services to facilities for the elderly, handicapped and mentally ill.

In the last quarter of the 20th century, the British government has implemented reforms in an attempt to make the NHS more cost-efficient. One of these is that hospitals have to use external companies for duties such as cooking and cleaning if the cost is lower this way. Another is that hospitals can “opt out” of local authority control and become self-governing trusts (i.e. registered charities). Similarly, GPs who have more than a certain number of patients on their books can choose to control their own budgets. Together these two reforms mean that some GPs now “shop around” for the best-value treatment for their patients among various hospitals.

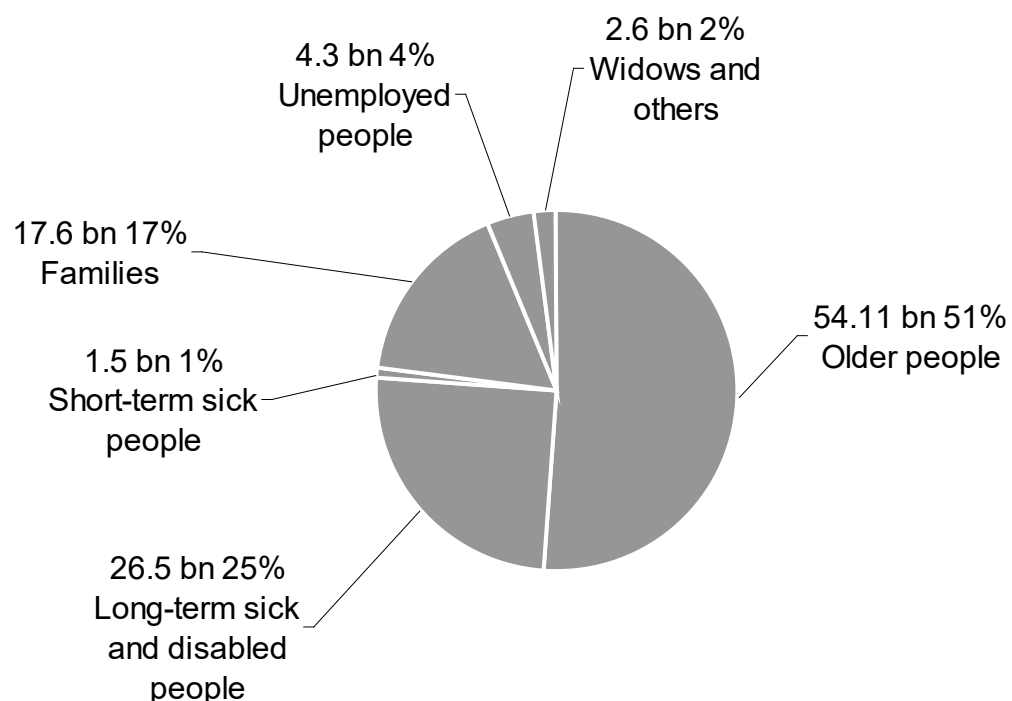
1971	Doctors and dentists	2001
24,000	number of doctors	30,700
2,390	average number of patients per doctor	1,970
5.6	average number of prescriptions per patient each year	7.3
4.3	cost of one patient's prescription to the NHS	39.86
0.12	cost of one prescription to the patient (if not exempt)	20.44
12,500	number of dentists	17,600
4,500	average number of patients per dentist	3,200
1.4	average number of treatments per patient each year	2.2
Hospitals		
700,800	number of people waiting for beds	805,900
12.1	average number of days spent in hospital (for surgery)	8.5
8.6	average number of days spent in hospital (having a baby)	6.5

Although pride and confidence in the NHS is still fairly strong, it is decreasing. There has been a steady rise in the number of people paying for private medical care. There are a number of private medical insurance schemes. The biggest is BUPA (British United Provident Association). Such schemes are becoming increasingly popular not because people believe that private treatment is any better than NHS treatment from a purely medical point of view. But it is widely recognised as being more convenient. The NHS patients who need a non-urgent operation often have to wait more than a year, and even those who need a relatively urgent operation sometimes have to wait even more than a month. Under private schemes, people can choose to have their operation whenever, and as soon as they want. Private patients

sometimes use “*pay beds*” in NHS hospitals which are usually in separate room (NHS patients are usually accommodated in wards containing ten to twenty beds). There are also some hospitals and clinics which are completely private. These are sometimes called “*nursing homes*”.

It is difficult to say exactly how healthy the nation is, but in general, compared with 50 years ago, the health of the British has improved considerably, partly as a result of better housing and education, and a higher standard of living. However, not everybody enjoys a standard of health consistent with living in one of the world’s top industrial nations. Health/health care vary considerably from area to area and the middle-class tend to enjoy better health than the working class. Unemployment, poverty, poor housing and diet are still major contributors to poor health. Still, as people live in better conditions, eat better food and take more exercise, health standards tend to rise and people live longer. There are other health problems such as smoking-related illnesses, alcoholism and drug abuse, AIDS spread, and cancer. One more worrying feature about health in Britain is that more people die of heart disease and strokes (40% of men and 38% of women) than any other group of diseases.

***Social security expenditure in Great Britain
by broad groups of beneficiaries***
(Source: Department For Work and Pension)



The benefits system. The most straightforward way is direct payments of government money. Any adult who cannot find paid work, or any family whose total income is not enough for its basic needs, is entitled to financial help. It comes in various ways and is usually paid by the *Department of Social Security*. Anyone below the retirement age of sixty-five who has previously worked for a certain minimum period of time can receive *unemployment benefit* (known as “*the dole*”). This is

organised by the *Department of Employment*. All retired people are entitled to the *standard old-age pension*, provided they have paid their national insurance contributions for most of their working lives. After a certain age even people who are still earning can receive their pension (at a slightly reduced rate). The government pension is not very high. Many people therefore make arrangements during their working lives to have some additional form of income after they retire. They may, for instance, contribute to a *pension fund* (also called a “*superannuation scheme*”). These are usually organised by employers and both employer and employee make regular contributions to them. A life insurance policy can also be used as a form of saving. Some people are entitled to neither pension nor unemployment benefit (because they have not previously worked for long enough or they have been unemployed for a long time). These people can apply for *income support* (previously called supplementary benefit) and if they have no significant savings, they receive it. Income support is also paid to those with paid work but who need extra money, e.g. because they have a particularly large family or their earnings are especially low.

The whole social security system is coming under increasing pressure because of the rising numbers of both unemployed people and pensioners. It is believed that if everybody actually claimed the benefits to which they are entitled, the system would reach breaking point. It is argued that this blanket distribution of benefits should be modified and that only those who really need them should get them. Still, this would presuppose constant means tests for millions of households, which is very unpopular.

Social services and charities. As well as giving financial help, the government also takes a more active role in looking after people's welfare. Services are run either directly or indirectly (“contracting out” to private companies) by local government, e.g. building and running of old people's homes and the provision of “*home helps*” for the disabled. Professional social workers have the task of identifying and helping members of the community in need: the old, the mentally handicapped and children suffering from neglect or from maltreatment. There are also around 6 million informal carers in the UK, about 58% of whom are women. However, there seems to be values conflict in modern Britain. On the one hand, there is the traditional respect for privacy and the importance placed on “family values”; on the other hand, there is the modern expectation that public agencies will intervene in people's private lives and their legal ability to do so.

Before the welfare state was established and the concept of “social services” came into being, the poor and the needy in Britain turned to charitable organisations. These were and are staffed by unpaid volunteers, especially women and relied and still rely on voluntary contributions from the public. There are more than 150,000 registered charities in the UK today. *The Samaritans* organisation offers free counselling by phone, with anonymity guaranteed, to anybody who is in despair and thinking of committing suicide. *The Salvation Army* grew out of Christian missionary work in slums of London in the 19th century. It offers help to the most desperate, e.g. overnight accommodation in hostels for the homeless. *Barnardo's* founded in the 19th century, used to provide homes for orphans and still helps children in need. *MENCAP* is a charity for the mentally handicapped and campaigns on their behalf.

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY

Department of Employment	Міністерство з питань зайнятості
Department of Social Security	Міністерство соціального забезпечення
district nurse	районна медсестра
Harley Street	Гарлі-Стріт (вулиця в Лондоні, де перебувають приймальні ведучих лікарів-консультантів)
Income Support	допомога малозабезпеченим
government health warning	офіційне попередження про шкodu паління
GP = general practitioner	лікар загальної практики
health centre	медичний консультаційний пункт
health visitor	патронажна сестра
home help	прибиральниця-поденниця
Income Support	допомога незаможним
National Health Service (NHS)	Державна служба охорони здоров'я
National Insurance	державне соціальне страхування
nursing home	приватна лікарня
old-age pension	пенсія за віком, пенсія через старість
pay bed	платне ліжко в державній лікарні
pension fund	пенсійний фонд
sponsored walk	субсидований похід (у якому звичайно бере участь молодь; у благодійних цілях)
unemployment insurance = unemployment benefits = "the dole"	страхування при безробітті, допомога у зв'язку з безробіттям
welfare state ['wɜːl ˈfeɪə]	«держава загального благоденства»
MENCAP ['menkæp]	«Менкап» (благодійна організація, надає допомогу душевнохворим)
Barnardo's [bɑːn ˈɑːdɔː]	«Барнардоз» (благодійна організація)
Salvation Army	Армія Порятунку (релігійна філантропічна організація)
Samaritans [sɑːm ˈrɪt (ə) nz]	«Самаритяни» (благодійне товариство допомоги людям у тяжкому становищі)

DO YOU REMEMBER?

Fill in the missing word, word combination or phrase.

1. The NHS means _____ (1). It was founded in _____ (2). _____ (3) played a very active part in its establishment. Before that, welfare was considered to be the responsibility of _____ (4).
2. The structure of the British healthcare system from the top layer down is: _____ (5), _____ (6), _____ (7).
3. British welfare benefits, in order of their establishment, are _____ (8), _____ (9), _____ (10).
4. The NHS services are _____ (11) except _____ (12) and _____ (13). _____ (14) % of the patient's expenses are covered from _____ (15).
5. The central figure of the NHS is a _____ (16) whose duties include _____ (17) and _____ (18). He\she sees the patients in the _____ (19). The quality of his/her work is controlled by _____ (20) which are directly responsible to _____ (21).
6. If one feels unwell, first, they see _____ (22) who then arranges _____ (23).
7. The recent reforms of the NHS presuppose that doctors can _____ (24) and hospitals can _____ (25) in order to provide better and cheaper services.
8. The NHS drawback is _____ (26). In this case a patient can _____ (27). Its symbol is _____ (28).
9. "Pay beds" are to be found in _____ (29) hospitals while _____ (30) are known as _____ (31). There are up to _____ (32) beds in a typical NHS ward.
10. Nowadays death of about 39% of the British is caused by _____ (33). Other most serious illnesses for the British are _____ (34), _____ (35), _____ (36).
11. British people are helped by direct payments of government money such as _____ (37), _____ (38), _____ (39).
12. The whole social benefits system is being criticized because of _____ (40).
13. To save money for additional payments on retirement, the British contribute to _____ (41) or buy _____ (42).
14. _____ (43) and _____ (44) are the examples of social services provided by the British government. Their value is ambivalent: they are necessary from the point of view _____ (45); on the other hand, they interfere with a person's right for _____ (46).
15. There are about _____ (47) registered charities in the UK today. The oldest are _____ (48) aimed at _____ (49) and _____ (50) aimed at _____ (51). Besides, there is _____ (52) which offers free and anonymous counselling by phone, while _____ (53) is a charity for the mentally handicapped.

EDUCATION IN THE UK

Historical background. The British government attached little importance to education until the end of the 19th century. It was one of the last governments in Europe to organize education for everybody. Britain was leading the world in industry and commerce, so, it was felt, education must somehow be taking care of itself. Schools and other educational institutions (such as universities) existed in Britain long before the government began to take an interest in education – some of the most famous schools include Eaton (1440); Harrow (1572); Rugby (1567); Winchester (1382). When the government finally got down to the education, it did not sweep these institutions away, nor did it always take them over. In typically British fashion, it sometimes incorporated them into the system and sometimes left them outside it. Most importantly, the government left alone the small group of schools which had been used in the 19th century (and in some cases before then) to educate the sons of the upper and upper-middle classes.

At these “*public*” schools, the emphasis was on “character-building” and the development of “team spirit” rather than on academic achievement. This involved the development of distinctive customs and attitudes, the wearing of distinctive clothes and the use of specialized items of vocabulary. They were all “*boarding schools*”, so they had a deep and lasting influence on their pupils. Their aim was to prepare young men to take up positions in the higher ranks of the army, in business, the legal profession, the civil service and politics. When the pupils from these schools finished their education, they formed the ruling elite, retaining the distinctive habits and formed a closed group, to a great extent separate from the rest of society. Entry into this group was difficult for anybody who had had a different education. When, in the 20th century, education and its possibilities for social advancement came within everybody’s reach, new schools tended to copy the features of the public schools. The modern educational system has been through a period of constant change and it is difficult to predict what further changes will occur in the next decade. At the same time, however, there are certain underlying characteristics that seem to remain fixed.

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

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

Central government does not prescribe a detailed programme or determine what books and materials should be used. It says, what schoolchildren should learn, but it only offers occasional advice about how they should learn it. Nor does it dictate the exact hours of the school day, dates of holidays or the age at which a child must start in full-time education. It does not manage an institution's finances either, it just decides how much money to give it. In general, as many details as possible are left up to the individual institution or *the Local Education Authority* (LEA, a branch of local government).

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

This approach has had a far-reaching effect on many aspects of the educational system. First of all, it has influenced the general style of teaching, which has tended to give priority to developing understanding rather than acquiring factual knowledge and learning to apply this knowledge to specific tasks. This is why British young people do not appear to have to work as hard as their counterparts in other European countries. Primary schoolchildren do not normally have formal homework to do and university students have fewer hours of programmed attendance than students on the continent do. (On the other hand, they receive greater personal guidance with their work). A second effect has been an emphasis on academic ability rather than practical ability (despite English anti-intellectualism). This has resulted in high-quality education for the intelligent and academically inclined (at the upper secondary and university levels) with comparatively little attention given to the educational needs of the rest.

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

Recent developments. Before 1965 most children in the country had to take an exam at about the age of eleven, at the end of their primary schooling. If they passed this exam, they went to a *grammar school* where they were taught, academic subjects to prepare them for university, the professions, managerial jobs or other highly-skilled jobs; if they failed, they went to a *secondary modern school*, where the lessons had a more practical and technical bias. Many people argued that it was wrong for a person's future life to be decided at so young an age. The children who

went to secondary moderns tended to be seen as “failures”. Moreover, it was noticed that the children who passed this exam (known as the “*eleven plus*”) were almost all from middle-class families. The system seemed to reinforce class distinctions. It was also unfair because the proportion of children who went to a grammar school varied greatly from area to area (from 5% to 40%). These days, most eleven-year-olds all go on to the same local school. These schools are known as *comprehensive schools*. (The decision to make this change was in the hands of LEAs, so it did not happen at the same time all over the country. In fact, there are still one or two places where the old system is still in force.) However, the comprehensive system has also had its critics: there should be more choice available to parents who disliked the uniformity of education given to teenagers; there is a widespread feeling that educational standards fell and that the average eleven-year old in Britain is significantly less literate and less numerate than his or her European counterpart.

<i>SCHOOLS IN 1988</i>	<i>SCHOOLS IN 2008</i>
a) state schools controlled by LEAs; b) LEAs decide school budgets, including books, teachers’ salaries, and cleaning; c) children go to schools whose “ <i>catchment area</i> ” they live in (always but not usually the nearest school to their home); d) all pupils study religion (the only subject required by law); e) schools assess children’s progress by their own internal tests	a) all schools are inspected by the Office for Standards of Education; b) results of inspections are publicly available and are used by parents to choose their children’s school; c) schools follow the national curriculum including compulsory literacy and numeracy lessons; d) all children are tested at “Key Stages” by <i>Standard Assessment Tests</i>

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

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

In *secondary schools*, pupils have different teachers for different subjects and are given regular homework. The older children get, the more likely they are to be separated into groups according to their perceived abilities, sometimes for particular subjects only, sometimes across all subjects. But some schools teach all subjects to “*mixed ability*” classes. The rights and wrongs of this practice have generated heated debate for decades and there is great variety from school to school and area to area.

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

Autumn term	Christmas holiday (about 2 weeks)	Spring term	Easter holiday (about 2 weeks)	Summer term	Summer holiday (about 6 weeks)
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Rachel Blackenhagen, 15, goes to Greycourt Comprehensive School in a suburb of London. She studies maths, physics, biology,

chemistry, English, French, German, Latin, geography, history, religious education, music and cooking. This is her timetable for Wednesday:

Once a week, the whole school meets for “assembly”. The headmaster reads from the Bible and says prayers.

Many children learn a musical instrument at school. Rachel has a clarinet lesson once a week

The children have lunch at school. Some bring their own sandwiches and some have a hot meal cooked in the school kitchens.

Religion is taught in all British schools.

Most schools have a “careers” teacher, who advises the children on how to choose a career and find a job when they leave school.

After school there are clubs which the children can choose to go to. Rachel does arts on Mondays and woodwork on Wednesdays.

At home, Rachel does one or two hours of homework every evening

AM		11.50 Lunch & Free Time	PM	
09.00	Assembly		13.05	Chemistry
09.20	English	14.20	Religious Education	
09.55	Maths	14.55	Careers	
10.30	Break	15.30	Woodwork Club	
10.45	German	17.00	Home	
11.20	Music (Clarinet)	-		

Thomas O'Mailey, 14, goes to Ampleforth, a private school in the North of England. He has lessons on Saturday mornings, but he is free on Saturday afternoons and evenings. On

Sundays he goes to church in the morning, and has games in the afternoon, but he can do what he likes in the evening.

Thomas sleeps in the "dormitory" with six other boys

In the "design" centre at Ampleforth, the boys can do art, woodwork, pottery, plastics, technical drawing, photography, etc.

AM		11.50 Lunch	PM	
7.35	Call to get up		14.00	CCF
8.00	Breakfast		15.30	Change clothes
8.35	Prayers		16.00	Tea
8.45	English		16.30	Chemistry
9.30	French		17.10	Chemistry
10.15	Geography		17.50	Maths
11.00	Break		18.30	Study time
11.30	Design		19.30	Supper
12.10	Design		20.00	Free time
	—		21.30	Prayers
	—		21.40	Change for bed
	—		22.20	Lights out

In the evening the boys watch TV, do more work, or do their own hobbies. Thomas is interested in photography, and belongs to the photography club.

Most private schools have "cadet corps" in which the boys train to be officers in the army, navy or airforce. All the boys at Ampleforth have to belong to the CCF (Combined Cadet Forces) for their first two years at school. At CCF they wear army uniform. They meet only on Mondays. On other days they have sport.

British Schooling

Age	compulsory education	SECONDARY EDUCATION	grammar schools	comprehensive schools	sixth-form college	upper school
18					secondary modern schools	
17					middle school	
16						
15		PRIMARY EDUCATION	junior schools			first school
14						
13			infant schools			
12						
11		PRE- SCHOOL EDUCATION	pre-school institutions (nursery schools, day nurseries)			
10						
9						
8						
7						
6						
5						
4						
3						
2						
1						
0						

Education beyond sixteen. At the age of sixteen people are free to leave school if they want to. With Britain's newfound enthusiasm for continuing education (and because the general level of unemployment is now high), far fewer sixteen-year-olds go straight out and look for a job than there used to. About a third of them still take this option, however. Most do not find employment immediately and many take part in training schemes which involve *on-the-job training* combined with part-time college courses.

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

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

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

Another reason for the low drop-out rate is that “full-time” really means full-time. Students are not supposed to take a job during term time (normally about thirty to thirty-four weeks of the year). Unless their parents are rich, they receive a state grant of money which is intended to cover most of their living expenses during this time. This also includes the cost of accommodation. A large proportion of students live “*on campus*”, (or, in Oxford and Cambridge, “*in college*”), or in rooms nearby, which tends to mean that the student is surrounded by a university atmosphere.

However, the expansion of higher education is putting a strain on these characteristics. More students means more expense for the state. The government's response has been to reduce the amount of the student grant and to encourage a system of “top-up” loans instead. As a result, many more students cannot afford to live away from home. In 1975 it was estimated that 80% of all university students were non-local. This percentage is becoming lower and lower. In addition, a large number of students are being forced to “*moonlight*” (that is, secretly do a part-time job). A further result of increased numbers of students without a corresponding increase in budgets is that the student/staff ratio has been getting higher. All of these developments threaten to reduce the traditionally high quality of British university

education. They also threaten to reduce its availability to students from low-income families.

Types of university

Oxbridge. This name denotes the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, both founded in the medieval period. They are federations of semi-independent colleges, each college having its own staff, known as “*Fellows*”. Most colleges have their own dining hall, library and chapel and contain enough accommodation for at least half of their students. The Fellows teach the college students, either one-to-one or in very small groups (known as “*tutorials*” in Oxford and “*supervisions*” in Cambridge). Oxbridge has the lowest student/staff ratio in Britain. Lectures and laboratory work are organized at university level. As well as the college libraries, there are the two university libraries, both of which are legally entitled to a free copy of every book published in Britain. Before 1970 all Oxbridge colleges were single-sex (mostly for men). Now, the majority admit both sexes.

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

The early nineteenth-century English universities. Durham University was founded in 1832. Its collegiate living arrangements are similar to Oxbridge, but academic matters are organized at university level. The University of London started in 1836 with just two colleges. Many more have joined since, scattered widely around the city, so that each college is almost a separate university. The central organization is responsible for little more than exams and the awarding of degrees.

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

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

The newer civic universities. These were originally technical colleges set up by local authorities in the first sixty years of the 20th century. Their upgrading to university status took place in two waves. The first wave occurred in the mid-1960s, when ten of

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

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

Exams and qualifications

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

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

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

SCE “Highers” = The Scottish equivalent of A-levels.

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

Degrees are qualifications from a university. (Other qualifications obtained after secondary education are usually called “certificate” or “diploma”). Students studying for a first degree are called *undergraduates*. When they have been awarded a degree, they are known as *graduates*. *Bachelor's Degree* is a general name for a first degree, most commonly a BA (= Bachelor of Arts) or BSc (= Bachelor of Science). *Master's Degree* is a general name for a second (postgraduate) degree, most commonly an MA or MSc. At Scottish universities, however, these titles are used for first degrees. *Doctorate* is the highest academic qualification. This usually (but not everywhere) carries the title PhD (= Doctor of Philosophy). The time taken to complete a doctorate varies, but it is generally expected to involve three years of more-or-less full-time study.

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY

A-level	екзамен за програмою середньої школи на підвищеному рівні
BA/BSc	бакалавр мистецтв/ наук
boarding school	пансіон, закритий учбовий заклад
catchment area	район обхвату (мікрорайон, що обслуговується школою)
chancellor [' CRnsqlq]	почесний ректор університету
college of education	педагогічний коледж
College of Further Education	коледж подальшої освіти
comprehensive school	єдина середня школа
county school	школа графства
crammer (coll)	приватна школа для підготовки до здачі іспитів
CSE	атестат про загальну освіту, атестат зрілості (у Шотландії)
day boy/girl	дитина, що відвідує школу-пансіон лише вдень
the Department for Education and Employment	Міністерство освіти та зайнятості
don	викладач (в Оксфорді і Кембриджі)
eleven-plus	екзамени для одинадцятирічних
fellow	молодший науковий співробітник коледжу або університету
GCSE	атестат про загальну середню освіту
GNVQ	національне свідоцтво про професійну кваліфікацію
graduate	студент, що проходить курс магістратури після закінчення чотирирічного коледжу і отримання ступеня бакалавра
grammar school	класична школа (для дітей старше 11 років, відібраних за результатами екзаменів)
Greats (coll)	останній іспит на ступінь бакалавра гуманітарних наук (у Кембриджі й Оксфорді)
“half-term”	короткі канікули (в середині семестру, чверті)
hall of residence	студентський гуртожиток
independent school	приватна школа

LEA (the Local Education Authority)	Місцеві органи освіти
to “moonlight”	підробляти (особливо вечорами або вночі після навчання)
National Curriculum	національний учбовий план
nursery schools = pre-primary	дитячий сад
O-level	екзамен за програмою середньої школи на звичайному рівні
on campus	в університетському містечку
the Old Scottish Universities	Найстаріші шотландські університети
the older civic (‘redbrick’) universities	«червоноцегельні університети»; університет другого розряду
on-the-job training	навчання на робочому місці (без відриву від виробництва)
the Open University.	Відкритий університет; Університет для всіх
Oxbridge	Оксфордський та Кембриджський університети (як найстарші)
primary school	школа для дітей у віці від 5 до 11 років
public school	привілейований приватний учбовий заклад в основному для хлопчиків
sandwich course	курс навчання, що чергує теорію з практикою
secondary modern school	середня сучасна школа (для дітей від 11 до 16 років; має практичну спрямованість)
secondary school	середня школа
sixth form college	підготовчий коледж
Standard Assessment Tests	Стандартне оцінювальне тестування
tutorial (Oxford) = supervision (Cambridge)	консультація, практичні заняття з керівником
undergraduate	той, хто навчається у коледжі або університеті та ще не отримав диплому бакалавра
vice-chancellor	ректор університету

DO YOU REMEMBER?

Fill in the missing word, word combination or phrase.

1. The first public school, _____ (1), was founded in _____ (2). It was followed by _____ (3), _____ (4), and _____ (5). They aimed at _____ (6) and _____ (7) rather than _____ (8). Since that time, the main feature of British education has been _____ (9).
2. A most typical trait of British education system is _____ (10). The “top” educational body for England and Wales is _____ (11) whose function consists in _____ (12). All the “details” are left to _____ (13).
3. The most radical change in the system of secondary education made in the second half of the 20th century was the abolishment of the so-called _____ (14) exam and, resulting from it, the establishment of _____ (15) schools. However, secondary education in _____ (16) schools that prepare the young for _____ (17) and _____ (18) schools which have _____ (19) still exists.
4. In the UK, school starts on _____ (20). The first _____ (21) lasts till Christmas. The school year is over in _____ (22) when pupils have a(n) _____ (23)-week holiday. Short mid-term holidays are known as _____ (24).
5. All British children have to attend school between _____ (25) and _____ (26). Pre-school education is not _____ (27) but many parents prefer to take their children to _____ (28). On the other hand, if an adolescent is going to enter a university, he\she has to study for _____ (29) more years specialising in _____ (30) subjects in order to take _____ (31) exam on whose results and on an _____ (32) he\she will be generally accepted by a university.
6. British students usually get their BA\Sc degree within _____ (33) years. The problems they might face are _____ (34), _____ (35) and _____ (36).
7. The oldest universities in England are _____ (37) and _____ (38) commonly named _____ (39). The oldest universities of Scotland are called _____ (40), they are _____ (41), _____ (42), _____ (43) and _____ (44). The University of Durham is and the University of London are known as _____ (45). Birmingham, Manchester and Leeds have the so-called _____ (46) universities. East Anglia, Lancaster, Sussex and Warwick universities are known as _____ (47). _____ (48) universities like Aston in Birmingham were originally polytechnics. The university that teaches through the Internet, radio and TV is _____ (49).
8. _____ (50) has always been important for British education. In the 19th century it helped to develop “team spirit” in _____ (51), in the 20th century some of its kinds were played at _____ (52) at the international level standards.

MASS MEDIA OF THE UK

British people watch a lot of television. They are also reported to be the world's most dedicated home-video users. But this does not mean that they have given up reading. They are the world's third biggest newspaper buyers; only the Japanese and the Swedes buy more.

The importance of the national press. Newspaper publication is dominated by the national press, which is an indication of the comparative weakness of regional identity in Britain. Nearly 80% of all households buy a copy of one of the main *national papers* every day. There are more than eighty *local* and *regional daily papers*; but the total *circulation* of all of them together is much less than the combined circulation of the national "dailies". The only non-national papers with significant circulations are published in the evenings.

Most local papers do not appear on Sundays, so on that day the dominance of the national press is absolute. The "*Sunday papers*" are so-called because that is the only day on which they appear. The Sunday papers sell slightly more copies than the national dailies and are thicker. Some of them have six or more sections making up a total of well over 200 pages. Another indication of the importance of "the papers" is the morning *paper round*. Most *newsagents* organise this, and more than half of the country's readers get their morning paper delivered to their door by a teenager who gets up at around half-past five every day in order to earn a bit of extra pocket money.

It has been estimated that on an average weekday 54% of people aged fifteen and over in the UK read a national morning newspaper (59% of men and 50% of women). National papers have an average (but declining) total circulation of some 13 million on weekdays and about 14 million on Sundays. There are more than 13,000 regional and local newspaper titles.

The two types of national newspaper. Each of the national papers can be characterised as belonging to one of two distinct categories. The "*quality paper*", or "*broadsheets*", cater for the better educated readers. The "*popular papers*", or "*tabloids*", contain far less print than the broadsheets and far more pictures. They use larger headlines and write in a simpler style of English. While the broadsheets like *The Times*, *The Independent* or *The Guardian* give their readers in-depth background to crucial issues of the day, the tabloids like *The Sun*, *The Mirror* or *The Daily Star* concentrate on "*human interest*" stories, which often means sex and scandal. However, there are in-between papers like *The Daily Mail* or *The Express* which cover a good deal of news in a popular way. All types of paper devote equal amounts of attention to sport. The difference between them is in the treatment of the topics they cover, and in which topics are given the most prominence. The reason that the quality newspapers are called broadsheets and the popular ones tabloids is because they are different shapes. The broadsheets are twice as large as the tabloids. The quality papers sell from 300,000 to 1 million copies each day, the middle-of-the-road

papers sell around 2 million copies a day while the tabloids have circulations of up to 4 million copies a day.

The characteristics of the national press: politics. What counts for the newspaper publishers is business. All of them are in the business first and foremost to make money. Their primary concern is to sell as many copies as possible and to attract as much advertising as possible. They normally put selling copies ahead of political integrity. The way politics is presented in the national newspapers reflects the fact that British political parties are parliamentary organisations. Though different papers have differing political outlooks, none of the large newspapers is an organ of a political party. Many are often obviously in favour of the policies of some party (or against the policies of another party), but none of them would ever use “we” or “us” to refer to a certain party.

The British press is controlled by a rather small number of extremely large multinational companies. This fact helps to explain two notable features. One of these is its freedom from interference from government. The press is so powerful in this respect that it is sometimes referred to as “*the fourth estate*” (the other three being the Commons, the Lords and the monarch). This freedom is ensured because there is a general feeling in the country that “freedom of speech” is a basic constitutional right.

National newspapers
(Source: Audit Bureau of Circulations)

<i>Title (foundation date)</i>	<i>Circulation average, thousands</i>	<i>Title (foundation date)</i>	<i>Circulation average, thousands</i>
Dailies		Sundays	
Populars		Populars	
Daily Mirror (1903)	2,151	News of the World (1843)	3,971
Daily Star (1978)	677	Sunday Mirror (1963)	1,810
Sun (1964)	3,497	People (1881)	1,386
Mid-market		Mid-market	
Daily Mail (1896)	2,381	Mail on Sunday (1982)	2,309
Express (1900)	907	Sunday Express (1918)	877
Qualities		Qualities	
Financial Times (1888)	461	Sunday Telegraph (1961)	769
Daily Telegraph (1855)	969	Independent of Sunday (1990)	216
Guardian (1821)	390	Observer (1791)	420
Independent (1986)	196	Sunday Times (1822)	1,354
Times (1785)	667		

The characteristics of the national press: sex and scandal. The desire to attract more readers at all costs has meant that, since the late 20th century, even the broadsheets in Britain can look rather “popular” when compared to equivalent “quality” papers in some other countries. They are still serious newspapers containing high-quality articles whose presentation of factual information is usually reliable. But even they now give a lot of coverage to news with a “human interest” angle when they have the opportunity.

The other feature of the national press which is partially the result of the commercial interests of its owners is its shallowness. Few other European countries have a popular press which is so “low”. Some of the tabloids have almost given up even the pretence of dealing with serious matters. Apart from sport, their pages are full of little except stories about the private lives of famous people.

This emphasis on revealing the details of people’s private lives has led to discussion about the possible need to restrict the freedom of the press. This is because, in behaving this way, the press has found itself in conflict with another British principle which is as strongly felt as that of freedom of speech – the right to privacy. Many journalists now appear to spend their time trying to discover the most sensational secrets of well-known personalities, or even of ordinary people who, by chance, find themselves connected with some newsworthy situation. There is a widespread feeling that, in doing so, they behave too intrusively.

Complaints regarding invasions of privacy are dealt with by *the Press Complaints Commission* (PCC). This organization is made up of newspaper editors and journalists. In other words, the press is supposed to regulate itself. It follows a Code of Practice which sets limits on the extent to which newspapers should publish details of people’s private lives. Many people are not happy with this arrangement and various governments have tried to formulate laws on the matter. However, against the right to privacy the press has successfully been able to oppose the concept of the public’s “right to know”.

The rest of the press. *Magazines* cater for almost every taste and specialize in almost every pastime. Among these publications there are a few weeklies dealing with news and current affairs. Partly because the national press is so predictable (and often so trivial), some of these periodicals manage to achieve a circulation of more than a hundred thousand.

The Economist is of the same type as *Time*, *Newsweek*, *Der Spiegel* and *L’Express*. Its analyses, however, are generally more thorough. It is fairly obviously right-wing in its views, but the writing is of very high-quality and that is why it has the reputation of being one of the best weeklies in the world. *The New Statesman and Society* is the left-wing equivalent of *The Economist* and is equally serious and well-written. *Private Eye* is a satirical magazine which makes fun of all parties and politicians, and also makes fun of the mainstream press. It specializes in political scandal and, as a result, is forever defending itself in legal actions. It is so outrageous that some chains of newsagents sometimes refuse to sell it. Although its humour is often very “schoolboyish”, it is also well-written and it is said that no politician can resist reading it. The country’s bestselling magazine is *the Radio Times*, which, as

well as listing all the television and radio programmes for the coming week, contains some fifty pages of articles.

The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC). Just as the British Parliament has the reputation for being “the mother of parliaments”, so *the BBC* might be said to be “the mother of information services”. The BBC began, right from the start in 1927, to establish its effective independence and its reputation for impartiality. This first occurred through the medium of radio broadcasts to people in Britain.

Then, in 1932 *the BBC World Service* was set up, with a license to broadcast first to the empire and then to other parts of the world. During the Second World War it became identified with the principles of democracy and free speech. In this way the BBC’s fame became international. Today, the World Service still broadcasts around the globe, in English and in several other languages.

It is true that it depends neither on advertising nor (directly) on the government for its income. It gets this from the license fee which everybody who uses a television set has to pay. However, the government decides how much this fee is going to be, appoints the BBC’s board of governors and its director general, has the right to veto any BBC programme before it has been transmitted and even has the right to take away the BBC’s license to broadcast. In theory, therefore, it would be easy for a government to influence what the BBC does.

The BBC broadcasts both in the UK in English and 35 other languages to countries in all parts of the world. The owners of television sets in the UK pay an annual license fee that finances BBC programmes. Grants from the UK government pay for programmes broadcast to other countries. The BBC operates on a non-profit basis and has no commercial advertising.

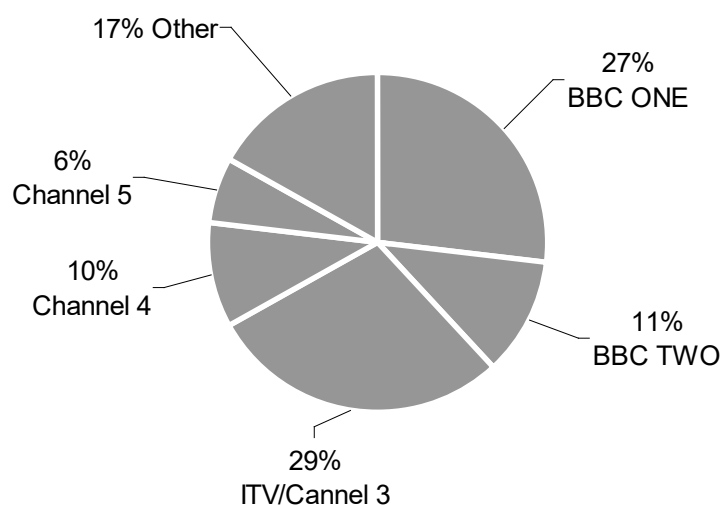
The BBC radio. **Radio 1** began broadcasting in 1967. Devoted almost entirely to pop music, its birth was a signal that popular youth culture could no longer be ignored by the country’s established institutions. In spite of recent competition from independent commercial radio stations, it still has over ten million listeners. **Radio 2** broadcasts mainly light music and chat shows. **Radio 3** is devoted to classical music. **Radio 4** broadcasts a variety of programmes, from plays and comedy shows to consumer advice programmes and in-depth news coverage. It has a small but dedicated following. **Radio 5** is largely given over to sports coverage and news.

Television. Almost all TV broadcasting is controlled by the BBC or by the ITC, the *Independent Television Commission*. The BBC is a non-profit corporation, it broadcasts on two channels: BBC-1 and BBC-2. The ITC awards franchises to commercial television companies, which provide an extensive television service through two channels, Independent Television (ITV) or Channel 3, and Channel 4. A Welsh version of Channel 4 is Sianel Pedwar Cymru (*S4C*). There are also about 15 independent regional UK television companies. Each company makes programmes for its local audience. During peak viewing hours, however, most of the companies show the same programmes. There is only one kind of programme that the companies are obliged to broadcast, the Independent Television News (ITN) programmes. The ITN is jointly owned and financed by the ITV companies.

The channels represented in the table below are the channels which all viewers in the country receive.

BBC1	ITV	BBC2	Channel 4
Started 1936	Started 1954	Started 1964	Started 1982
No advertising	Advertisements every 15–30 minutes	No advertising	Advertisements every 15–30 minutes
<i>Early weekday mornings</i>			
A rather relaxed style of news magazine punctuated with more formal news summaries		Open University programmes	A very informal breakfast show
<i>Mornings and early afternoons</i>			
A mixture of popular discussion programmes, quiz shows, soap operas and an even more relaxed type of magazine programme, usually presented by a male-female pair of presenters		Educational programmes, some aimed at schools and others with a more general educational purpose	
<i>Late afternoons</i>			
Children’s programmes, which vary greatly in style and content		General documentary and features	
<i>Evenings</i>			
News (including regional news programmes) and the most popular soaps, dramas, comedies, films and various programmes of light entertainment and general interest		Documentaries, and programmes appealing to minority groups and minority interests; drama and “alternative” comedy; news programmes which cover matters in more depth than those on BBC-1 or ITV	
		Open University (late at night)	
<i>Weekends</i>			
Much of weekend afternoons are devoted to sport. Saturday evenings include the most popular live variety shows.			

Television audience share figures



ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY

breakfast TV	"ТБ за сніданком" (телепередачі рано вранці, які дивляться за сніданком, перед виходом з дому на роботу, в школу)
broadsheet	широкоформатна газета (зазвичай солідне, респектабельне видання)
British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC)	Би-Би-Сі, британська мовленнєва корпорація
BBC World Service	зарубіжне віщання Би-би-сі
Bush House	Буш-Хаус (будинок в центральної частині Лондона, де знаходиться штаб-квартира "Зарубіжного віщання Би-би-сі")
circulation	тираж
commercial radio	комерційне радіо
commercial television	комерційне телебачення
daily papers	щоденна газета
Fleet Street	англійська преса (на Фліт- стріт в Лондоні раніше розміщувалися редакції найбільших газет)
fourth estate	"четвертий стан", "четверта влада", преса
gossip column	відділ світської хроніки
gutter press	бульварна, жовта преса
free paper	безкоштовна газета (щотижнева місцева газета з великою кількістю оголошень і реклами; розноситься по домах безкоштовно)
human interest story	жалісна розповідь, розрахована на співчутливе ставлення читача
Independent Television Commission	Комісія по незалежному телебаченню (координує діяльність комерційних телекомпаній)
local newspaper	місцева газета
national newspaper	центральна газета
newsagent	продавець періодики
popular paper	масова газета
quality newspapers = heavies(coll)	"солідні" газети

page three girl	"дівчина з 3-ї сторінки" (фотографія оголеної красуні) такі фотографії протягом довгого часу розміщувались на 3-й сторінці газети "Сан"
the Press Council	Рада з друку (регулює діяльність органів друку, розглядає скарги на них, що надходять; публікує статистичні дані про періодичні видання)
silly season	"порожній сезон" – період часу, зазвичай наприкінці літа, в сезон масових відпусток, коли у відсутність значних новин і подій газети змушені друкувати маловажливі матеріали
Sunday newspaper	недільна газета
tabloid ['tæblɔɪd]	таблоїд, малоформатна газета бульварного напрямку

DO YOU REMEMBER?

Fill in the missing word, word combination or phrase.

- The majority of the British, _____% (1), buy at least one _____ (2) paper. If they read a _____ (3) newspaper, they do it in the evening.
- All national newspapers in the UK can be divided into two classes according to the day of the week they are published on: _____ (4) and _____ (5); and according to the way news is presented: _____ (6) or _____ (7) provide us with in-depth background information, while _____ (8) or _____ (9) concentrate on scandalous information in the so called _____ (10) stories. To the first class belong such newspapers as _____ (11) and _____ (12), to the second – _____ (13) and _____ (14). Also, there is a mid-market kind which _____ (15), for example _____ (16).
- Among British magazines, the _____ (17) is a political and economic weekly. The Private Eye specializes in _____ (18). The Radio Times _____ (19).
- The BBC or _____ (20) was set up in _____ (21) in order to _____ (22). Nowadays, it broadcast both in English and in _____ (23) other languages through its _____ (24). Its headquarters are situated in _____ (25).
- Radio 1 channel is devoted to _____ (26); Radio 2 to _____ (27); Radio 3 to _____ (28); Radio 4 to _____ (29). and Radio 5 to _____ (30).
- _____ (31) television channels are non-profit and have no _____ (32) while _____ (33) and its channels – _____ (34) and _____ (35) – represents commercial television of the UK. Special attention should be paid to _____ (36) which broadcasts in Welsh. There are also about _____ (37) independent regional television companies.

BRITISH FOOD AND SPORTS

Attitudes to food. The British do not bother about food. The country has neither a widespread “restaurant culture” nor a “cafe society”. In the middle of the day people just want to eat up quickly and are not interested much in the quality (a lunch break is an hour at most). Young people and families with children who eat at fast food restaurants are similarly not interested in the quality.

Even at home food and drink is given relatively little attention to. British supermarkets tend to sell far more instant coffee than the “real” coffee: instant coffee is less trouble. Meals tend to be eaten quickly and the table cleared. Parties and celebrations are not centred around food.

Food becomes topical only in the context of its danger: when the government minister announces that the country’s eggs were infected with salmonella; in case of “mad cow disease” (1990s). There are quite a number of vegetarians in the UK and even a larger number of those who are aware of the implications for their health of what they eat: “*health food shops*” are as abundant in the country’s high streets as are *delicatessen*.

British people have been mostly urban, having almost no contact with “the land” for longer than people of other countries. That is why the range of plants and animals which they eat is rather narrow. To most people the idea of going out to pick wild plants for eating is quite exotic.

However, if the British are conservative about the ingredients, they are no longer conservative about the way they are served. By now, the British are extremely open to cuisine of other countries (the increasingly multinational culture of the population has helped in this respect).

What British people eat. A *fry up* is a phrase used informally for several things fried together. The most common items are eggs, bacon, sausages, tomatoes, mushrooms, and even bread. It is not always accompanied by “chips” (the normal word for French fried potatoes). The British eat rather a lot of fried food. Although it is sometimes poetically referred to as “the staff of life” *bread* is NOT an accompaniment to every meal. It is not even normally on the table at either lunch or evening meal. It is most commonly eaten with butter or almost anything else, for a snack, either as a sandwich or a toast. On the other hand, the British use a lot of flour for making pastry dishes, savoury and sweet, called pies and for making cakes. *Eggs* are a basic part of most people’s diet. *Cold meats* are not very popular. To many British people, preserved meats are typically “Continental”. It is quite common in most households to finish a meal with a prepared sweet dish (mainly served hot). The British are the world’s greatest consumers of *sugar* – more than 5 kg per person per year. It is present in almost every tinned item and they also love “sweets” (both chocolates and what Americans call “candy”).

What British people drink. As well as large amounts of *hot drinks* such as tea, coffee, and cocoa, British people, especially children, drink squash (a sweetened fruit concentrate which has to be diluted with water) and brand-name soft drinks. They

also expect to be able to drink water direct from the tap. Before 1960s *wine* was drunk only by the higher social classes and was associated in most people's minds with expensive restaurants. Since that time, it has increased enormously in popularity. *Beer* is still the most popular alcoholic drink. The most popular pub beer is "bitter" which is draught (from the barrel), has no gas in it and is conventionally, as are all British beers, drunk at room temperature. A sweeter, darker version of bitter is "mild". These beers have a comparatively low alcoholic content. This is a reason why people are able to drink so much of them. In pubs, several kinds of bottled beer, usually known as ales, are also available. Beer which has gas in it and is closer to continental varieties is known as "*lager*".

In some pubs *cider* is available on draught, and in some parts of Britain, especially in the English west country, it is this, and not beer, which is the most common pub drink. *Shandy* (half beer and half a fizzy lemonade) has a reputation for being very good for quenching the thirst.

When people eat (generalizations are dangerous; below is described what everybody knows, but not necessarily does). *Breakfast* is usually a packeted cereal (e.g. cornflakes) and/or toast and marmalade. It isn't usually a traditional breakfast. "*Elevenes*" is traditionally a cup of tea or coffee and some biscuits at around 11 am. In fact, people drink tea or coffee whenever they feel like it. *Lunch* is typically at 1 pm. But it is usually a bit earlier for schoolchildren and those who start to work at 8 o'clock. For the urban working class (and a wider section of population in Scotland and Ireland) *tea* is the evening meal, eaten as soon as people get home from work (at around 6 pm). For other classes, it means a cup of tea and a snack at around 4 o'clock. "*Supper*" is the usual word for the evening meal among most people who do not call it "tea". "*Dinner*" is also sometimes used for an evening meal. It suggests something rather grander and eaten comparatively late (at around 8 o'clock). It is associated with relative formality (e.g. "Christmas dinner" even if eaten in the middle of the day). It is also used to refer to the midday meal at some schools.

Eating out. Although a far less unusual than it used to be, going to a restaurant is still a comparatively rare event for most British people. Regular restaurant going is confined mostly to the richest sector of the society. Partly for this reason there is an element of snobbery in it. Merely being in an expensive restaurant sometimes means more for the people than the food eaten in it.

Another expression of snobbery in the more expensive restaurants is in the menus. In the country where few public notices appear in any language rather than English, these are a unique phenomenon – all the dishes have a non-English name, usually French. Most customers of these restaurants have little idea of what actually goes in the dish they have chosen.

The "adventure" concept of eating out is widespread. It helps to explain why so many restaurants in Britain are not British. Because they do it so rarely, when people go out for a meal in the evening, they want to be served something they don't usually eat. Every town in the country has at least one Indian restaurant and perhaps a Chinese one too. Larger towns and cities have restaurants representing cuisine from all over the world.

Eating places which serve British food are used only for more everyday purposes. Apart from pubs, there are two more types which are comparatively cheap. One is used during the day, most typically by manual workers, and therefore described as “*a workman’s cafe*” (pronounced ‘caff’). It is also used by anybody who likes a filling meal, the informal atmosphere and not over-worried about cleanness. It offers mostly fried food and for this reason sometimes jokingly called a “*greasy spoon*”. Many of them are “transport cafes” at the side of the road. The other type is “*fish-and-chip shop*”, used in the evening “to take away” meals. Again, fish is (deep) fried.

The British *pub* (short for public house) is unique. Without pubs Britain would be a less sociable country. Pubs unlike other eating places where the atmosphere is rather formal are classless. As with so many aspects of British life, pubs became a bit less distinctive in the last quarter of the 20th century. They used to serve almost nothing but beer and spirits. Today, you can get coffee, wine and some hot food at most of them as well. This helped to widen their appeal. At one time, it was unusual for women to go to pubs. Today, only a few pubs exist where it is surprising for a woman to walk in. Nevertheless, pubs have retained their specific character:

- there is no waiter which may seem not very welcoming and a strange way to make clients feel comfortable. If you want something you have to go and ask for it at the bar. For the British, to be served at the table means to be on their best behaviour. Because you have to go and fetch your drinks yourself, it is less formal. You can get up and walk around whenever you want – like being in your own house. This “home from home” atmosphere is enhanced by relationships between customers and those who work in the pub. Unlike any other eating or drinking places in Britain, the staff are expected to know regular customers personally, to know what their usual drink is and to chat with them when they are not serving anyone else. It is also helped by the availability of pub games (most typically darts) and, frequently, a television.

- the idea of tradition. Each pub has its own name, proclaimed on a sign outside, always with old-fashioned associations. Many are called by a name of an aristocrat, after a monarch, can take names from traditional occupations, can have rural associations (e.g. *the Tatton Arms*, *the Queen Vic*, *the Old Shepherd’s*, *the Coach and Horses*, *the White Nag*). For the same reason, the owner of the pub is called a landlord (nearly always a man) – even though in reality he is the opposite, a tenant. Nearly all pubs are owned by a brewery and the “landlord” is employed by the brewery as the manager.

Fast food outlets are today more popular in Britain. Their popularity is better explained sociologically. Other types of eating place in Britain tend to have class association. As a result, large sections of society feel unable to relax in them. A fast food restaurant does not have such strong association. Although there is sometimes local middle-class protest when a new one appears in the area, people almost from any class can feel comfortable in them.

The attitude to alcohol in Britain is ambivalent:

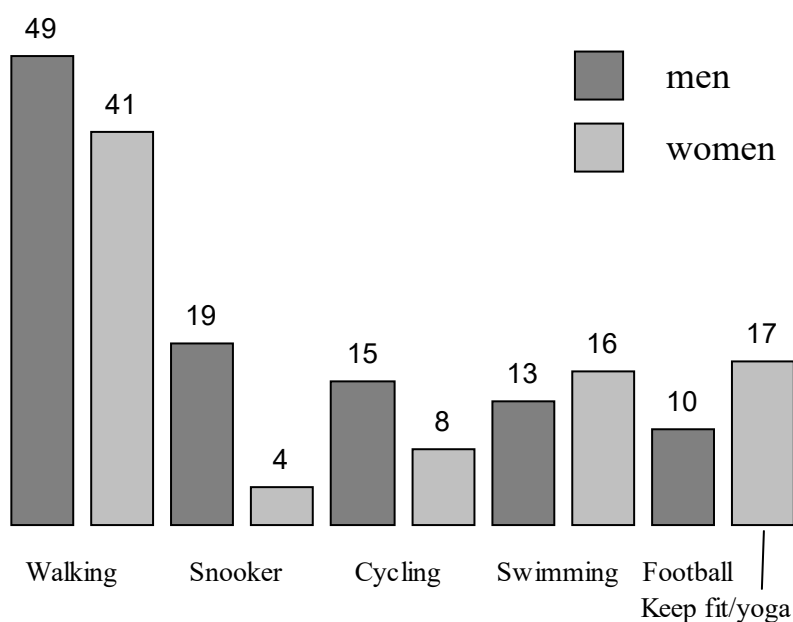
- it is accepted and welcomed as a part of the British culture. The local pub plays an important part in the life of the neighbourhood (aimed at drinking beer and

spirits). A certain level of drunkenness is acceptable, provided it does not lead to violence, there is no shame attached to it.

- the puritan tradition has led to the widespread view that drinking is something potentially dangerous which should therefore be restricted, in terms of both who can do it and where it can be done. People cannot be served in pubs until the age of eighteen and they even are not allowed inside until they are fourteen. Wine or beer is not as much a part of home life as in some European countries. Most cafes are not allowed to serve even beer.

SPORT plays a more important role in people's lives in Britain than it does in most other countries. For a very large number, and this is especially true for men, it is their main form of entertainment. 71% of men and 57% of women take part in at least one sporting activity at least once a week. Many millions more are regular spectators and follow one or more sports. There are hours of televised sport each week. Every newspaper, national or local, quality or popular devotes several pages entirely to sport.

Percentage of participation by those aged 16 and over
(Source: General Household Survey)



The British are so fond of competition that they even introduce it into gardening. Many people indulge in an informal rivalry with their neighbours as to who can grow the better flowers or vegetables. But the rivalry is sometimes formalized. Through the country, there are competitions in which gardeners enter their cabbages, leeks, onions, carrots or whatever in the hope that they will be judged "the best". There is a similar situation with animals. There are hundreds of dog and cat shows in the country at which owners hope that their pet will win a prize. So strong is the desire to win that cases are occasionally discovered of owners trying to poison the pets of their rivals.

The importance of participation in sport has legal recognition in Britain. Every local authority has a duty to provide and maintain playing fields and other facilities, which are usually very cheap to use and sometimes even free. Spectator sport is also a matter of official public concern.

Sometimes the traditions which accompany an event can seem as important as the actual sporting contest. Wimbledon, for example, is not just a tennis tournament. It means summer fashions, strawberries and cream, garden parties and long, warm English summer evenings. Because Wimbledon is essentially a middle-class event, British tennis fans would never allow themselves to be treated like football fans. Wimbledon with security fences, policemen on horses and other measures to keep fans off the court is impossible to imagine.

The long history of such events has meant that many of them, and their venues, have become world-famous. Therefore, it is not only the British who tune in to watch. The Grand National, for example, attracts a television audience of 300 million. This worldwide enthusiasm has little to do with the standard of British sport. The cup finals of other countries often have better quality and more entertaining football on view – but more Europeans watch the English Cup Final than any other. The standard of British tennis is poor, and Wimbledon is only one of the world's major tournaments. But if you ask any top tennis player, you find that Wimbledon is the one they really want to win. Every footballer in the world dreams of playing at Wembley, every cricketer in the world of playing at Lord's. Wimbledon, Wembley and Lord's are the "spiritual homes" of their respective sports. Sport is a British "export".

Cricket. Judging by the numbers of people who play it and watch it, cricket is definitely not the national sport of Britain. In Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, interest in it is confined to the middle classes. Only in England and a small part of Wales it is played at top level. And even in England, where its enthusiasts come from all classes, the majority of the population do not understand its rules. Moreover, it is rare for the English national team to be the best in the world.

When people refer to cricket as the English national game, they are not thinking so much of its level of popularity or of the standard of English players but more of the very English associations that it carries with it. Cricket is much more than just a sport, *it symbolizes a way of life* – a slow and peaceful rural way of life. Cricket is special because it combines competition with the British dream of rural life. Cricket is what the village green is for.

Cricket is, therefore the national English game in a symbolic sense. However, to some people cricket is more than just a symbol. The comparatively low attendance at top class matches does not give a true picture of the level of interest in the country. One game of cricket takes a terribly long time, which a lot of people simply don't have to spare (in fact there are millions of people in the country who do not just enjoy cricket but are passionate about it! These people spend up to thirty days each summer tuned to the live radio commentary. When they get the chance, they watch a bit of the live television coverage). Some people even do both at the same time – they turn the sound down on the television and listen to the radio. And if cricket fans are too busy

to listen to the radio commentary, they can always phone a special number to be given the latest score.

Football. The full official name of “soccer” (as it is called in the USA and sometimes in Britain) is “association football”. This distinguishes it from other kinds such as rugby football (almost always called simply “rugby”), Australian football and American football. However, most people in Britain call it simply “football”. This is indicative of its dominant role. Everywhere in the country except south Wales, it is the most popular spectator sport, the most-played sport in the country’s state schools and one of the most popular participatory sports for adults. In terms of numbers, *football, not cricket, is the national sport*, just as it is everywhere else in Europe.

British football has traditionally drawn its main following from the working class. In general, the intelligentsia ignored it. But in the last two decades of the twentieth century, it has started to attract wider interest. The appearance of *fanzines* is an indication of this. (Fanzines are magazines written in an informal but often highly intelligent and witty style, published by the fans of some of the clubs).

Many team sports in Britain, but especially football, tend to be “men-only” affairs. In the USA, the whole family goes to watch the baseball. Similarly, the whole family goes along to cheer the Irish national football team. But in Britain, only a handful of children or women go to football matches. This is why active support for local teams has had a tendency to become violent. English fans visiting Europe are now no worse in their behaviour than the fans of many other countries.

Rugby. There are two versions of this fast and aggressive ball game: *rugby union* and *rugby league*. They are so similar that somebody who is good at one of them can quickly learn to become good at the other. The real difference between them is a matter of social history. Rugby union is the older of the two. In the 19th century it was enthusiastically taken up by most of Britain's public schools. Rugby league split off from rugby union at the end of the century. Although it has now spread to many of the same places in the world where rugby union is played, its traditional home is among the working class of the north of England, where it was a way for miners and factory workers to make a little bit of extra money from their sporting talents. Unlike rugby union, it has always been a professional sport.

The Olympic-style **Commonwealth Games** are held every four years in a different member country. Known as the Empire Games until 1950, the first event was held in Hamilton, Canada, in 1930. There were only eleven participating countries, and the sports included athletics, boxing, bowls, rowing, swimming and wrestling. England has only hosted the Games twice: in London in 1934 and in Manchester in 2002. They have only been held twice outside of Canada, Britain or Australasia – in Jamaica in 1966 and in Malaysia in 1998. The number of countries participating in the Games has slowly grown to over 70, and thousands of athletes now participate. Without competition from the USA and the major European countries, Australia, Canada and the British countries (which compete separately) usually win the most medals. The Commonwealth Games have their own version of the Olympic torch ceremony. On Commonwealth Day (May 11th) in a Games year, the Queen hands a baton containing a message to an athlete. This is then passed in

relay style to other athletes. They run through different Commonwealth countries until they reach the host nation. The baton is opened and the Queen's message is read out at the opening ceremony of the Games.

Animals in sport. Traditionally, the favourite sports of the British upper classes are *hunting*, *shooting* and *fishing*. The most widespread form of hunting is *foxhunting* – that is what the word hunting usually means in Britain. This is a popular pastime among some members of higher social classes and a few people from lower social classes, who often see their participation as a mark of a newly won status. Still, foxhunting is strongly opposed by some people. The League Against Cruel Sports wants it made illegal and the campaign has been steady intensifying. There are sometimes violent encounters between foxhunters and protestors (whom the hunters call “saboteurs”).

Apart from being hunted, another way animals are used in sport is when they race. *Horse-racing* is a long-established and a popular sport in Britain. It became known as “the sport of Kings” in the 17th century, and modern British royalty has close connections with sport involving horses: some members of the royal family own racehorses and attend certain annual race meetings (e.g. Ascot); some are also active participants in the sports of polo and show-jumping.

Grey-hound racing, although declining, is still popular. In this sport, the dogs chase a mechanical hare round a race track. It is easier to organise than horse-racing and “the dogs” has the reputation of being the “poor men’s racing”.

Gambling. Even if they are not taking part or watching, British people like to be involved in sport. They can do this by placing bets on future results. Gambling is widespread throughout all social classes. It is so basic as to sport that the word “sportsman” used to be synonym for “gambler”. Every year a total of £12.7 billion is wagered by the British – that’s £ 289 for every adult in the country. £ 9.5 billion is won. The government takes £ 1 billion in taxes. The rest is kept by the bookmakers.

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY

bar	барна стойка/прилавок
bar snacks	закуси з буфету (легкий сніданок у пабі)
butterscotch	іриска
butty	батті, бутерброд із (одним) маслом
chippy	"чиппі" (невелике кафе, де продають рибу з картоплею)
cider ['saɪdɪ]	сидр
continental breakfast	"континентальний сніданок", легкий ранковий сніданок (кава і булочка з джемом)
cuppa ['kʌpə]	(розм.) чашка чаю
delicatessen	гастроном
dog's nose	"собачий ніс", "йорж" (суміш джина із пивом)
doorstep	"пори́г" (скибка хліба)

draught beer [drRft]	пиво на розлив
elevenes	легкий сніданок об одинадцятій годині
English breakfast	англійський сніданок (ситний сніданок; складається з варених яєць, бекону, тостів)
fastfood outlet	експрес-закусочна
fish-and-chips	риба з картоплею у фритюрі
greasy spoon	забігайлівка (ресторан або кафе низької якості)
health food shops	магазин екологічно чистих продуктів
hundreds and thousands	"сотні і тисячі", різнокольоровий цукровий горошок (для прикраси тортів)
lager [' lRgq]	світле пиво
takeaway	такий, що відпускається додому

From cricket	
on a sticky wicket	скрутне становище
on an easy wicket	легко, без труднощів
play with a straight bat	чесна гра
it's not cricket	нечесно
off one's own bat	самостійно
have a good innings	прожити довге щасливе життя
From boxing	
saved by the bell	врятований дивом; врятований в останню хвилину
on the ropes	у скрутному становищі
floored	здолати; впоратися
throw in the towel	здатися, визнати себе переможеним
From horse-racing and riding	
first past the post	прийти до фінішу першим
have the bit between the teeth	закусити вудила, піти напролом
to be given free rein	надавати будь-кому повну свободу дій
in the saddle	верховодити
Sport in general	
team player	член команди
run with the pack	бути як усі
win hands down	легко добитися перемоги
go to the dogs	розоритися; піти прахом
in the final straight / on the last lap	фінішна пряма
a safe pair of hands	в надійних руках

DO YOU REMEMBER?

Fill in the missing word, word combination or phrase.

1. Both at home and at work, the British are equally _____ (1) in their attitude to food. Hence, their fast food restaurants are _____ (2) in Europe.
2. British food is mostly fried, grilled or roasted, so a fry up – _____ (3) – is very popular. As for beverages, the most favoured soft drinks are _____ (4) and _____ (5), the most favoured alcoholic drinks are _____ (6) and _____ (7). Wine has been widely consumed only since _____ (8).
3. A snack eaten around 11 am is called _____ (9), a meal ordered at around 1 pm is _____ (10), the evening meal is known as _____ (11) or _____ (12). Dinner is not a full synonym of _____ (13) because it may be eaten _____ (14) if it is _____ (15).
4. For the majority of the British, going to a restaurant is considered to be _____ (16). The most frequent visitors to a restaurant are _____ (17).
5. The cheapest place to get food in the UK is _____ (18), sometimes nicknamed _____ (19). A bit better is _____ (20) which serves _____ (21). The most “democratic” catering establishment where one can buy not only beer but hot food or coffee is _____ (22) short for the _____ (23).
6. *The Bricklayer’s Arms, the Bull, the Duke of Cambridge* are the names of _____ (24). The owner or the manager of the place is known as a _____ (25). The brightest feature of the place is the absence of _____ (26) and self-service. Another feature is that one cannot enter the place till he\she is _____ (27) and cannot be served alcohol until the age of _____ (28).
7. A possibility to go in for sports is _____ (29) afforded: playing fields and other facilities are provided by _____ (30), the most famous annual events are available _____ (31).
8. The world famous stadiums in the UK are _____ (32) where _____ (33) events are held, _____ (34) where _____ (35) events are held and _____ (36) where _____ (37) events are held.
9. The sport whose official name is _____ (38) is considered to be national. Unlike the USA, it tends to be _____ (39) in the UK which might explain the fans’ _____ (40).
10. The style of playing _____ (41) symbolizes the British dream of rural life. However, it is played professionally mainly in _____ (42).
11. The oldest rugby association of The UK is _____ (43), the second one is called _____ (44). The former originally developed in _____ (45), the latter was mainly played by _____ (46).
12. Animals in sports are represented in _____ (47), _____ (48), and _____ (49), which have always been regarded as _____ (50) kinds of sports. _____ (51) is called “the sport of kings” while _____ (52) is known as the “poor men’s racing”. The expression _____ (53) means “to get ruined”.
13. The _____ (54) (known as _____ (55) until 1950) are held every four years starting on _____ (56). First sportsmen competed in _____ (57). Sportsmen mostly meet in _____ (58) and these countries usually win gold medals.

VIDEO TASKS SUPPLEMENT

SEVEN WONDERS OF BRITAIN (The United Kingdom: Country and People)

Sequence 1. The double-decker bus

1. **Predict the information. Work with a partner. Write 5 questions that you expect to be answered during the sequence. Watch the sequence. Tick (✓) your questions that are answered.**
2. **Where are double-decker buses also used? Watch the sequence and cross out the places you *do not* hear mentioned.**

South Africa	The Netherlands	Singapore	Hong Kong
Australia	Buenos Aires	Jakarta	Berlin

Sequence 2. Parliament

3. **Watch the sequence. Rewrite the sentences with the incorrect information.**
 - a) The British Parliament has one chamber, the House of Commons.
 - b) The House of Commons has six hundred and fifty-one elected members.
 - c) Debates are limited in length to one hour.
 - d) The debates are always conducted quietly.
 - e) In 1609 there were several attempts to blow up the Houses of Parliament.
 - f) One attempt is known as the Gunpowder Plot.
 - g) It is celebrated every year on November 15th.

Sequence 3. The Milkman

4. **Connect the numbers to the right information.**

12	• hour when a typical milkman gets up
95	• number of houses a typical milkman delivers milk to daily
1920s	• percentage of British people who think having milk delivered is a great tradition
3	• percentage of British people who buy milk from a milkman
500	• number of pints of milk delivered each year, in billions
4.45	• when mass production of milk bottles started
40	• number of times on average a milk bottle is washed and re-used

Sequence 4. Cricket

5. **Watch the sequence, then put the sentences in the correct order.**

- ☐ One team bowls.
- ☐ ... or catch the ball to get the batsman out.
- ☐ The winning tem is the one that scores the most runs.
- ☐ The other team bats.
- ☐ Cricket is a game played by two teams of eleven players.
- ☐ The team who are batting try to hit the ball as far as possible.
- ☐ The other team try to hit the wicket...

6. Watch the sequence. There are 8 extra words below. Cross them out.

The first known professional cricket rules and regulations were written in about 1744 and the British sport's governing body, the Marylebone Cricket Club, popularly known as the MCC, was formed in London in 1787.

Sequence 5. The English country garden

7. Watch the sequence. Choose the best paraphrase. Tick (✓) the boxes.

1. The English country garden originated ...
 - a) in prehistoric times. ☐
 - b) during the Medieval era. ☐
 - c) from the contact with the Far East. ☐
2. Then it was a place to grow herbs like parsley, sage and rosemary ...
 - a) which were used to flavour food. ☐
 - b) which were used as medicines. ☐
 - c) which were made into perfumes. ☐
3. Gradually other plants were introduced, ...
 - a) flowers in particular for their beauty. ☐
 - b) particularly vegetables for food. ☐
 - c) and essentially from foreign countries. ☐
4. Walls were built to give shelter to delicate plants, ...
 - a) and gardens became more private. ☐
 - b) and gardens were better organized. ☐
 - c) and gardens became more decorative. ☐

Sequence 6. The weather

8. Watch and decide whether the following statements are *true* or *false*.

- A People in Britain complain a lot about their weather.
- B The British climate is terrible.
- C It is very cold in Britain in winter.
- D The summers are quite hot.
- E Britain is the wettest place in Europe.
- F The weather in Britain changes a lot.
- G The fact that Britain is an island has a great effect on the weather there.

Sequence 7. Stonehenge

9. Watch the sequence. Tick (✓) the sentences which contain the information which is certain about Stonehenge.

We know...

1. ☐ ... who built the structure.
2. ☐ ... when Stonehenge was built.
3. ☐ ... that Stonehenge was used for religious ceremonies.
4. ☐ ... that Stonehenge was used as an astronomic observatory.
5. ☐ ... that when the sun and moon rise over certain stones, they indicate the exact time of the year.
6. ☐ ... the weight of some of the stones.

MULTICULTURAL BRITAIN

(The United Kingdom: Country and People)

1. What percentage of the UK population comes from different ethnic groups?

- a) 18% b) 6% c) 16% d) 8% e) 80%

2. Complete the timeline below

1930s	In this period a) _____ came to the UK to escape persecution.
1940s	There was a shortage of workers after World War II. 157,000 Poles and many Italians came over. But in the late 1940s there was b) _____.
1950s and 60s	Mass c) _____ continued. White people feared the arrival of the black community and there was some racial tension.
1970s	By this time there were 1.4 million d) _____ in the UK. But a third of these were born there.
1980s	The UK introduced e) _____, but also laws to protect the rights of ethnic groups. The largest immigrant groups were from the USA, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa
1990s – 2000s	This period saw the growth of f) _____ from Europe, Africa and the Indian subcontinent. About 125,000 asylum seekers were allowed to settle in the UK in 2000.

3. Watch the video and tick (✓) the five largest ethnic groups

- | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bangladeshis | <input type="checkbox"/> Pakistanis | <input type="checkbox"/> Chinese | <input type="checkbox"/> Europeans |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Indians | <input type="checkbox"/> Americans | <input type="checkbox"/> Africans | <input type="checkbox"/> Carribeans |

4. Watch the video and tick (✓) the languages you hear

- | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Cantonese | <input type="checkbox"/> Urdu | <input type="checkbox"/> Swahili | <input type="checkbox"/> English |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Mandarin | <input type="checkbox"/> Bengali | <input type="checkbox"/> Bantu | <input type="checkbox"/> Creole |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Punjabi | <input type="checkbox"/> Gujarati | <input type="checkbox"/> Arabic | <input type="checkbox"/> Manx |

5. Decide whether these statements are *true* or *false*.

- A 30 languages are spoken in London.
 B 42% of the children in Inner London speak English as a second language.
 C Most councils only produce leaflets in English.

6. Watch the video and put the religious groups in order of size in the UK

Muslims _____ Jews _____ Christians _____ Hindus _____

7. Watch the video and write M (Muslim), J (Jewish religion), H (Hindu faith), C (Christianity) next to the following data

- a) the official and the largest religion _____ b) 1.5 to 2 million _____
 c) 0.5 million _____ d) over 0.25 million _____

8. Watch the video and match the people and their jobs

1. Sol Campbell	a) clothes designer	4. Ozwald Boateng	d) violinist
2. Paul Boateng	b) writer	5. Zadie Smith and Kazuo Ishiguro	e) footballer
3. Vanessa Mae	c) minister		

THE ROYAL BRITAIN (Constitution. Politics. Law)

Complete the missing information

1. On the day of the State Opening of Parliament the Queen with her husband goes to _____ (1) in _____ (2) in order to open _____ (3) by reading _____ (4) which is _____ (5).
2. Britain is _____ (6). This means that Queen is _____ (7), but she has _____ (8) and plays _____ (9) in politics. Her role is largely _____ (10).
3. The Queen's official residence in London is _____ (11). It's been a home of British monarchs for over _____ (12). At the Palace Royal Mews they keep _____ (13) that is used at coronations.
4. The Queen is the only person who has two _____ (14) every year. The real one she celebrates on 21 April with _____ (15), and the official one (the second Saturday in June) in honour of which her own soldiers, _____ (16) Division, hold a big parade _____ (17). The _____ (18) is a flag of each regiment, and they _____ (19) past the Queen.
5. All the members of the Royal Family play an important role in _____ (20). The Queen's husband, _____ (21), is president of the _____ (22) Fund. Their daughter, _____ (23), is president of the charity _____ (24).
6. Queen Elizabeth considers _____ (25) to be her home. Here she spent a lot of her _____ (26) and nowadays she often comes here for _____ (27). In _____ (28) of the castle many English kings and queens are _____ (29).
7. The three official royal residences are _____ (30), _____ (31) and _____ (32) in _____ (33). This is where the Queen stays whenever she is _____ (34). It used to be the residence of Scottish monarchs like _____ (35) or her great-grandson _____ (36). Elizabeth II has called her older children _____ (37) and _____ (38) for her Scottish ancestors, the _____ (39), and her third child has the most Scottish name of all, _____ (40).
8. _____ (41) the Royal family visit the Balmoral Castle, in _____ (42). This is their _____ (43), here they can relax: _____ (44), _____ (45), _____ (46) and have _____ (47). The castle was a present to Queen _____ (48) from her husband, Prince _____ (49).
9. The Royal Family names have been given to _____ (50), for example, _____ (51) or _____ (52). They can be found in the _____ (53). In the east of England there is a royal _____ (54) which is now a museum. In the last century, the royal family members used to stop here on their way to the country house of _____ (55). Queen Elizabeth's father, _____ (56) said that there he could _____ (57); and Elizabeth's grandfather, _____ (58), used to say that he _____ (59).
10. Some people in the UK think that the monarchy is _____ (60), so it should _____ (61), but there is no doubt that Prince Charles and Lady Diana's marriage helped to _____ (62). Like the Queen, they travelled widely assisting Britain's _____ (63) and _____ (64) all over the world.

LAW AND ORDER (Constitution. Politics. Law)

1. Watch the sequence. Make notes about what the City of Oxford is like at these different times.

7 am – 7 pm _____

7 pm – 7 am _____

2. Match the beginnings on the left and endings on the right.

In 1999...

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. about five million | a. of these crimes were theft. |
| 2. two million | b. burglaries were committed. |
| 3. over a million | c. crimes were recorded |
| 4. nearly a million | d. cars were broken into or stolen. |

3. Watch the sequence and answer these questions.

- a Who is dealt with in the Magistrates' Court?
- b Who is dealt with in the Crown Court?
- c Who sits in the dock?
- d Who decides if someone is guilty or not guilty?
- e Who decides what the sentence will be?

4. Watch the sequence and tick (✓) the best answers.

- 1. In 2000 the prison population in Britain was
 - a over 70,000.
 - b the highest in Europe.
- 2 In Britain there is
 - a no death penalty.
 - b no death penalty for murder
- 3 This prison is going to
 - a become a hotel.
 - b open again in two years' time.

A WEDDING (The National Identity)

1-7. Saturday Morning: Preparations

1. Watch the episodes where Gina explains why she and Mick are getting married after living together for a while. Fill in the gaps:

Basically I just said when I got together with Mick that I'd never _____ (1) again. And he felt the same. We'd both had quite _____ (2) marriages previously and we were both _____ (3) not to get married, just to stay as we were. But then it just seemed to be _____ (4) to both of us that we did get married.

2. Watch the episodes where Mick and Gina talk about the "right reasons" for getting married. Fill in the gaps:

Mick: "I've been married before and it wasn't for the right reasons. The _____ (5) wasn't there that I've felt since I've been with Gina. She makes me _____ (6), we

can talk, which is the main thing I feel to making a good _____ (7), is just being able to sit down and _____ (8) about things, as opposed to not talking and falling out...”

Gina: “It’s just something we both want to do, for the right reasons this _____ (9). It’s not just going up there today and just saying _____ (10) because that’s what you have to say to be married. It’s just something I really, really want”.

3. Watch the episodes where Gina tells how she met Mick and how their relationship began. Choose the correct alternatives:

- | | | |
|--|--------------|--------------|
| A How long did they spend together at first? | 5 minutes | 10 minutes |
| B How long did they spend together later? | 20 minutes | an hour |
| C When did things start to “get serious”? | 2½ years ago | 1½ years ago |
| D Which of them was keener for them to live together? | Gina | Mick |
| E What did Mick have with him when he turned up at Gina’s house? | his stuff | his car |

8-9. The Registry Office

4. Watch the episodes where Mick and Gina exchange rings. Fill in the gaps:

With this ring I thee wed, and I call upon these persons here present to _____ (11) that I, Michael Victor Christie, do take _____ (12), Georgina...and receive this ring as a _____ (13) of my love and our marriage.

5. Fill the gaps in the registrar’s words in the end of the wedding ceremony:

Michael and Georgina, you have both made the _____ (14) prescribed by law and together with the long _____ (15) of giving and receiving of rings, have made a _____ (16) and binding marriage vow and _____ (17) with each other in the presence of the witnesses and guests here _____ (18). And you are now husband and wife.

10-14. Saturday Evening: The Reception

6. Watch the episodes where a guest, Darren, talks about the relationships with his stepchildren. Decide whether these statements are *true* or *false*.

- | | |
|---|--|
| A | His relationship with his girlfriend was different after they got married. |
| B | His relationship with his girlfriend’s daughter became different. |
| C | Mick’s attitude to David and Sarah is going to be different. |
| D | David and Sarah’s attitude to Mick is going to be different. |

VODAFONE (The Economy and Everyday Life)

1. Match the numbers to the right information.

50 million	• people in the UK with the mobile phone
30%	• Vodafone’s market share in the UK
1:5	• people in the UK with Vodafone
40%	• calls handled by Vodafone a day

2. Tick (✓) the facts about Vodafone which are mentioned.

- A ☐ It's one of the biggest service providers in the UK.
B ☐ It's the biggest service provider in the UK.
C ☐ It's the UK only provider.
D ☐ It's the biggest mobile phone company in the world.
E ☐ It's the biggest company in Europe.
F ☐ It's one of the biggest companies in Europe.
G ☐ It's one of the top ten companies in the world.

3. Complete these sentences about Vodafone's location and activities.

- Vodafone is based _____ (1) in the south of England in Newbury, a small _____ (2) about a hundred kilometres _____ (3) of London.
- At present the company has 62 _____ (4) in different parts of the town.
- They are now building a new _____ (5) which is over _____ (6) of office space, just on the _____ (7) of the town.
- It operates in _____ (8) countries, across five _____ (9).
- Vodafone buys _____ (10) from manufacturers and puts it together to provide a _____ (11) service.

4. Write the figures about Vodafone in the table.

Employees in the UK		Retail stores in the UK	
Employees world-wide		Employees in the UK stores	

5. Complete what Ellie says about her job in the Vodafone Oxford store.

- I'm a _____ (12) here. I sell the latest _____ (13), _____ (14), and sell _____ (15) to try and _____ (16) our services.
- We're open _____ (17), six days a week, and on Sundays _____ (18).
- At the moment we have _____ (19) who work in the store...On average, I would say, between _____ (20) come in here every day. It really depends on the type of the day. _____ (21) are obviously busier.
- We sell on average _____ (22) phones a day. We get every type of _____ (23). We get _____ (24) coming in wanting the latest fashion phone, _____ (25) who want to keep in contact with their families.

6. What is the connection between Vodafone and sports? Fill in the gaps.

The company is a regular _____ (26) of British sport and sporting events, including the England _____ (27), _____ (28), and _____ (29).

7. Why do the British use mobile phone? Tick (✓) the uses mentioned.

- A For keeping in contact with friends. D For keeping in contact with family.
B For keeping in contact when abroad. E For doing business
C For emergency situations F For sending messages.

GET IN SHAPE! (The National Health Service)

1-3. 6 am Bournemouth Dolphins Swimming Club

1. Fill in the gaps:

- The coach says the children attend training sessions _____ (1) times a week.
- The first boy says he swims _____ (2) hours a week.
- The man says he swims about _____ (3) times a week.
- The Centre's facilities are available for _____ (4).

2. Note down the answers to these questions:

- When do the training sessions start?
- How many sessions does the first boy attend?
- How many sessions does the second boy attend?

3. Each of the following answers is wrong in some way. Find the mistakes and correct them. (An adult swimmer is asked about his schedule):

- A He swims about 1,000 metres in an hour's session.
- B He does a steady swim every day.
- C He feels depressed after an early-morning session.
- D He runs or cycles every morning.

4 7.30 am Aerobics

4. Jan talks about the early morning classes. Tick (✓) the points she mentions:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| A The body works more efficiently. | D You build up your strength |
| B It's Fun! | E You feel really good afterwards. |
| C Stretching is good. | F You build up your stamina. |

5-7 8 am "Breakfast Club"

5. Answer the following questions:

- Which is the busiest period in the pool?
- What kind of people use the pool at breakfast time?
- What kinds of breakfast are available?
- When do they stop serving breakfast in the buffet?

6. Fill in the missing times in Peter Brown's story:

- Dolphins Swimming Club from _____ (5) to _____ (6).
- "Breakfast Club" from _____ (7) to _____ (8).
- People who aren't working use the club from _____ (9) to _____ (10).
- Working people use the pool from _____ (11) to _____ (12).

7. **We hear from the pool attendant and three swimmers. Fill in the gaps:**

- It's _____ (13) how many people come for an early swim.
- The first swimmer does _____ (14) lengths a day, _____ (15) times a week.
- The second swimmer swims to keep her back _____ (16).
- The third swimmer swims because she wants to _____ (17).

8-9 10 am "Ladies' Morning"

8. **Tick (✓) the available activities and facilities in the sequence.**

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> aerobics | <input type="checkbox"/> racquet ball | <input type="checkbox"/> table tennis |
| <input type="checkbox"/> badminton | <input type="checkbox"/> squash | <input type="checkbox"/> tennis |
| <input type="checkbox"/> health suite | <input type="checkbox"/> swimming | <input type="checkbox"/> trampolining |

10-11 12 Noon Swimming Lessons

9. **Fill in the gaps in Peter Brown's story about people who use the pool.**

- A pool is used by _____ (18) children on swimming courses right through to _____ (19) people.
- The water slides are intended to give children more enjoyment in their _____ (20) – but adults also _____ (21) a ride now and again!

10. **Each of the following sentences contains a mistake. Find the mistakes and correct them. (Based on two swimming teachers and a grandfather talking about the swimming classes):**

- A The first thing little children must do is jump into deep water.
B The beginners learn to swim the basic strokes in the main pool.
C The grandfather wants his grandson to learn to swim now that he has started school.

12-14 Do we live in a healthy society?

11. **Note down the answers the question. Write *Yes*, *No* or *Yes and no*:**

First man:	Pool attendant:	Laurie Dormer:
First woman:	Second woman:	Swimmer:
Jane Chapman:	Grandfather:	Jan Crisp:

**HEALTH IN BRITAIN
(The National Health Service)**

1. **Choose the correct answers to the questions below**

- In Britain, where do you go if you are ill?
a) chemist b) hospital c) GP
- How many GPs are there in Britain?
a) 3,000 b) 36,000 c) 46,000
- How many women GPs are there?
a) 30,000 b) 13,000 c) 3,000
- How many patients does each GP have?
a) 2,000 b) 3,000 c) 13,000
- How many prescriptions do chemists prepare every year?
a) 500 million b) 505 million c) 5 million

2. Watch the sequence. Tick (✓) the services that are free for everyone.

1948		TODAY
<input type="checkbox"/>	visits to the doctor	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	visits to the dentist	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	treatment	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	operations	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	prescriptions	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	eye tests	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	glasses	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Watch the sequence and complete the notes below.

THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE

No of employees:

Cost:

Problems:

4. Answer the questions.

- Why do people sometimes go to private doctors?
- How many alternative medical practitioners are there in Britain?

5. Watch the sequence and fill in the gaps with a word or a number.

• Medicine helps people _____ (1) better. Diet helps them _____ (2) healthy. If you _____ (3) well, you'll probably have a longer and healthier life. Nowadays British people eat less red _____ (4) and more fresh _____ (5) and vegetables than in the past.

• In 1952 only _____ (6) people reached the age of 100. Nowadays the total's about _____ (7) a year.

EDUCATION IN THE UK

1. Watch the sequence about the primary school and complete the factfile.

Age of children	between _____ (1) and _____ (2)
Size of class	_____ (3) to _____ (4) children
Subjects studied	Literacy and numeracy, computer studies, art, science, etc.
Computers per school	_____ (5)

2. Watch the sequence about the secondary school and underline the correct option.

Children go to secondary school when they're *12/11*. They usually *don't have to/have to* wear a school uniform. Most school days start at about *half past nine/a quarter to nine* and finish around *three o'clock/four o'clock*. Most students *don't stay/stay* for lunch. There are national tests in these subjects for all *16 year olds/14 year olds*. After

they're 16/14, students also study subjects such as information and communication technology, design and technology, and a modern foreign language.

3. Watch the sequence about the exams and complete the statistics.

- Students take GCSE exams after they are _____.
- Around _____ % of students continue to further education.
- Students usually specialise in _____ .or _____ .subjects.
- Students may take AS level exams after _____ .year.
- Students take A level exams when they are _____.

4. Watch the video and decide if the sentences are True (T) or False (F).

- A third of all students go on to higher education. _____.
- Going to university is not very expensive. _____.
- Many students have to borrow money. _____.
- Most large towns and cities have at least one university. _____.
- First year students usually live in a flat in town. _____.
- Students work hard and don't have time for sports. _____.

PUBLIC SCHOOL (Education in the UK)

Sequence 1

1. Watch the sequence. Tick (✓) what you SEE.

- | | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| a) <input type="checkbox"/> | the interior of a church | f) <input type="checkbox"/> | girls playing a field sport |
| b) <input type="checkbox"/> | pupils in school uniform | g) <input type="checkbox"/> | a dining hall |
| c) <input type="checkbox"/> | pupils not in school uniform | h) <input type="checkbox"/> | parents visiting their children |
| d) <input type="checkbox"/> | boys playing a field sport | i) <input type="checkbox"/> | a school boarding house |
| e) <input type="checkbox"/> | classrooms | j) <input type="checkbox"/> | the headmaster speaking |

2. Listen to the Headmaster, Michael Mavor. Decide whether these statements are *true* or *false*.

- A Public schools are in fact private, independent schools.
- B Pupils can begin at the age of eleven, though the main entry is at thirteen.
- C Seventeen percent of the pupils come from abroad.
- D Most parents live about an hour and a half away from the school.
- E Few children come from Scotland and other parts of the country.

Sequence 2

3. Watch the sequence. What is special about Rugby School? Change the misplaced words.

The Headmaster: "But at the same time it's a very new school and tries to do lots of innovative things". (2 words)

George Godbarr: "The traditions are exceptional and the facilities give the whole school a sense of atmosphere and a real community". (4 words)

Ross Patrick: "I like the way that you live with friends in your year for five years, and you get to be really good people with them". (2 words)

4. Listen to Russel's description of a typical week at Rugby. Fill in the timetable below.

MON	TUE	WED	THURS	FRI	SAT	SUN

5. Choose the correct answer about the dormitory.

- A How many people sleep in the dormitory?
6 8 10 12 14
- B What furniture has each boy got?
bed wardrobe bedside table chair drawers
- C What time do the pupils have to be in their rooms by?
9.00 9.15 9.30 9.45 10.00
- D When does a senior boy turn off the lights?
10.00 10.15 10.30 10.45 11.00

Sequence 3

6. Watch the sequence about Rugby football. Decide whether these statements are *true* or *false*.

William Webb Ellis ...

- A ... invented the game of rugby.
 B ... in 1823 ran with the ball instead of kicking it.
 C ... was liked by his friends for his innovation.
 D ... has become a symbol of the Rugby boy and girl.
 E The new rules were immediately incorporated into the game.

7. Watch the sequence. Answer the following questions.

- How has Rugby changed toward being a mixed/co-educational school?
- How is the experience at Rugby different for a girl?
- What does Katherine consider to be the main advantages of being at Rugby?

Sequence 4

8. Watch the sequence. Note down what you see at the same moment you hear these sentences.

Katherine: "I have to work with my house master and mistress".

Katherine: "I have to gather everyone up and usher them into the chapel".

Narrator: "Does the school only aim for academic excellence?"

Headmaster: "Universities now tend to look more at the academic side of things".

Narrator: "Life at Rugby certainly isn't all work and no play".

9. Choose one summary for Katherine (K) and one summary for Russell (R) that best represents their comments.

- a) ☐ The school limits my free time so that I don't have to think about it.
- b) ☐ I am in fact pretty bored.
- c) ☐ We have got plenty of activities to choose from so there isn't any time really to be bored in.
- d) ☐ It is left to us to decide how we want to spend our free time

10. Match the priorities in the right-hand column with the groups on the left.

- | | |
|--------------|---|
| Rugby School | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• the most important thing is to get the teaching right• tend to look more at the academic side of things |
| Universities | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• look for all-round excellence• look for leadership and teamwork |
| Employers | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• care about other things that happen outside the classroom• look for those who can plan things through to the end |

Sequence 5

11. Watch the sequence. Take note of Russell's and Katherine's plans.

	<i>AT RUGBY</i>	<i>AFTER RUGBY</i>
Russell		
Katherine		

12. Tick (✓) the items Michael Mavor thinks Rugbeians should do.

- a) ☐ I'd hate them all to be the same.
- b) ☐ I want them to be able to work hard.
- c) ☐ I hope they keep a sense of the old and the new.
- d) ☐ They should have a sense of fun.
- e) ☐ I would like them to have a sense of rebellion.
- f) ☐ They oughtn't to take the things for granted.
- g) ☐ I would like them to come back as parents and visit us.
- h) ☐ They should try to make the world a better place somehow.

MASS MEDIA OF THE UK

1. Watch the sequence. Tick (✓) the newspapers you see.

- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> the Daily Mirror | <input type="checkbox"/> the Financial Times | <input type="checkbox"/> the Daily Express |
| <input type="checkbox"/> the Times | <input type="checkbox"/> the Guardian | <input type="checkbox"/> the Oxford Times |
| <input type="checkbox"/> the Daily Telegraph | <input type="checkbox"/> the Independent | <input type="checkbox"/> London Wedding |

☐ the Sun

☐ Elle

☐ Vogue

2. Watch the sequence and complete the notes below.

• Tabloids. Over 3.5 million people buy the _____ (1). Over _____ (2) million buy the Daily Mirror. Tabloid papers have more gossip, _____ (3) stories and pictures. They have less _____ (4) news.

• Broadsheets. Also called _____ (5) papers. 1 million people buy the _____ (6). About _____ (7) buy the Times. Other broadsheets: the Independent and the _____ (8). Broadsheets have more serious _____ (9) and fewer _____ (10).

• Facts about British newspapers. There are _____ (11) daily and Sunday papers in Britain. There are more than _____ (12) magazines in Britain.

3. Make eleven true sentences from the box.

The BBC

ITV

Channel 4

Channel 5

- has 5 national radio stations
- has 39 local radio stations
- has two terrestrial television channels
- is not commercial
- uses money from TV licensees to pay for programmes
- is a commercial TV channel
- has advertising during its programmes

4. Answer the questions.

- a) How many people watch television every day?
- b) How many people like sport on television?
- c) How many people like MTV?
- d) How many people like *Friends*?

5. Watch the sequence and complete the sentences.

Speaker 1. I watch _____ and _____ videos.

Speaker 2. I like _____ films.

Speaker 3. I like _____ like *Casablanca* and *Citizen Kane*.

Speaker 4. I watch _____ and _____ videos.

Speaker 5. I normally watch _____ videos.

BBC WORLD SERVICE (Mass Media of the UK)

1. Fill in the gaps with the missing words or word combinations.

The headquarters of the BBC World Service is situated in _____ (1) in London. When it started in _____ (2), it used to be called _____ (3). In those days it broadcast _____ (3) and provided _____ (4) to people in _____ (5).

2. Watch the video and tick (✓) the correct alternative.

1. In 1938 the BBC started broadcasting to the Middle East ...
☐ a) to counteract the influence of fascist propaganda.

- ☐ b) to teach English to people living there.
- ☐ c) to counteract the influence of Arab propaganda.
- 2. During WWII, the BBC reported British defeats as well as British victories, so ...
 - ☐ a) it wasn't popular with the British Government.
 - ☐ b) it was popular with the German and the Italian Governments.
 - ☐ c) it got a reputation for honesty and accuracy.
- 3. Over 40% of the population in Somalia listen to the news every day because ...
 - ☐ a) there aren't any radio stations in their own country.
 - ☐ b) they cannot get accurate news and information in their own country.
 - ☐ c) they like to listen to the news in English.

3. Watch the video and answer the following questions.

- What happens in the Newsroom?
- How did President Gorbachev find out what was happening in his country in when he was under house arrest in 1991?
- Why did the former Soviet Union jam BBC broadcasts for many years?
- What outraged British Government in 1956?
- What did the BBC service do in 1992?

ENJOY YOUR MEAL! (British Food)

1 What do British people eat?

1. Watch Clip 1 and fill the gaps in these quotes.

Third man: "Fish and chips... it's _____ (1) what everyone eats".

Fourth man: "I like all types of food. I'm quite an _____ (2) eater".

Third woman: "A lot more people are cooking for _____ (3). A lot more people are _____ (4). They'll go out and try a new food and if they like it they go again – whereas before, you know, they never used to _____ (5)".

Fifth man: "Well, I'll eat _____ (6) basically".

2-5 Clowns – a Coffee Shop

2. Watch Clips 2 to 5, and tick (✓) the reasons why people go to Clowns:

- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> family atmosphere | <input type="checkbox"/> to get advice | <input type="checkbox"/> friendly ambience |
| <input type="checkbox"/> to eat thick juicy steaks | <input type="checkbox"/> for a chat | <input type="checkbox"/> to meet friends |
| <input type="checkbox"/> for a beer | <input type="checkbox"/> best cappuccino in town | <input type="checkbox"/> it's quiet in the evening |

3. Match the reasons to the customers you hear in Clowns:

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|
| A The first customer comes... | 1 | because Clowns is inexpensive and pleasant. |
| B The second customer comes... | 2 | because he\she knows the owners. |
| C The third customer comes... | 3 | because Clowns is a good place to get together with people. |
| D The fourth customer comes... | 4 | because the coffee is excellent. |

4. In the sequence Ray speaks about Clowns. Answer the following questions:
- How many people are involved in running the café?
 - What is Ray's relationship with his customers?
 - What seems to be his special secret of the perfect *cappuccino* or *caffelatte*?
 - What is the main difference between Clowns and other coffee shops in the town?
 - Why does Ray have "no alcohol" policy?

6-8 Peppercorns – a Sandwich Shop

5. Watch Clips 2 to 5, and tick (✓) the things you can get at Peppercorns:

- | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> bagels | <input type="checkbox"/> cold drinks | <input type="checkbox"/> quiches |
| <input type="checkbox"/> buns | <input type="checkbox"/> filled rolls | <input type="checkbox"/> roast chicken |
| <input type="checkbox"/> cakes | <input type="checkbox"/> hamburgers | <input type="checkbox"/> sandwiches |
| <input type="checkbox"/> coffee | <input type="checkbox"/> jumbo filled rolls | <input type="checkbox"/> tea |

6. In Clips 2 to 5, Sophie and Susie describe Peppercorns' food. Answer the following questions:

- What kind of roll is most suitable for people who don't like vegetables?
- How many different ingredients are there in the jumbo club roll?
- What makes the bagels particularly delicious?

7. Watch Clips 2 to 5 and tick (✓) the reasons why customers come to Peppercorns.

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> good quality and value | <input type="checkbox"/> beautiful rolls | <input type="checkbox"/> most popular sandwiches |
| <input type="checkbox"/> the staff enjoy their work | <input type="checkbox"/> family atmosphere | available at any time |

9-11 The Ancient Shepherds – a Pub

8. Watch Clips 9 to 11 and tick (✓) the points that the Shepherds offers:

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> an exceptional wine list | <input type="checkbox"/> English dishes | <input type="checkbox"/> good value |
| <input type="checkbox"/> consistently good food | <input type="checkbox"/> exotic foreign dishes | <input type="checkbox"/> quality service |
| <input type="checkbox"/> fresh ingredients | <input type="checkbox"/> fancy food | <input type="checkbox"/> simple food |

9. Watch Clips 9-11 and fill the gaps in these quotes.

The landlord: "We try to offer a _____ (7) of food. Mainly English dishes, though the names may be _____ (8) or _____ (9). We offer something for _____ (10)... Customers won't settle for anything _____ (11) now".

The barmaid: "The food is _____ (12) good... The pub has a very good _____ (13) built up over the years... The food and drink _____ (14) each other".

10. Answer the following questions based on Clips 9-11:

- Why don't they serve fancy food?
- What kind of customers eat there?
- What does the barmaid enjoy mostly about her work?
- How many pubs serve food these days?

12-15 Two Restaurants

11. Watch Clips 12-15 and find the mistakes in each of the following sentences based on the story of the Curry Queen's chef and waiter.

- A Naan bread is ready in a couple of seconds.
- B A dozen different spices are used in their dishes.
- C The recipes for their dishes can be found in every cookery book.

Answer the questions based on the episode at Browns'.

A. What kinds of food do they serve there? Tick (✓) the one that isn't mentioned:

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> pies | <input type="checkbox"/> grilled meat |
| <input type="checkbox"/> burgers | <input type="checkbox"/> ribs |
| <input type="checkbox"/> fresh fish | <input type="checkbox"/> bread and butter |
| <input type="checkbox"/> bread and butter pudding | <input type="checkbox"/> chocolate mousse |
| <input type="checkbox"/> chocolate cake | <input type="checkbox"/> banana pie |

2. Why do the customers like it there? Tick (✓) the one that isn't mentioned.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> nice atmosphere | <input type="checkbox"/> nice food |
| <input type="checkbox"/> good value | <input type="checkbox"/> variety of dishes |
| <input type="checkbox"/> friendly service | <input type="checkbox"/> open till late at night |
| <input type="checkbox"/> not too grand | <input type="checkbox"/> big portions |

12. Answer the following questions based on Clips 12-15:

- Which of the speakers is a regular customer at the Curry Queen? How do you know?
- What does the waiter at the Curry Queen say about his customers?
- What does the chef at Browns enjoy about his work?

16 What do you cook at home?

13. Watch Clip 16 and tick (✓) the dishes in the following list that each person says he/she cooks at home – some have to be ticked more than once, and some are not mentioned at all:

<input type="checkbox"/> pasta	<input type="checkbox"/> curry	<input type="checkbox"/> fish and chips
<input type="checkbox"/> Sunday roast	<input type="checkbox"/> salad	<input type="checkbox"/> cheese on toast
<input type="checkbox"/> Chinese stir-fry	<input type="checkbox"/> lasagne	<input type="checkbox"/> bacon and eggs

14. Watch Clip 16 and fill in the gaps in this quote:

Second woman: "Well, every Sunday it's a _____ (15), that's _____ (16)! Pasta _____ (17), either _____ (18), or, you know, _____ (19) carbonara or bolognaise, Chinese _____ (20). I don't _____ (21) cook curries but if I have people _____ (22) for dinner ... or if people are coming to dinner lasagne usually, just get a big _____ (23) and it's _____ (24) with _____ (25), always with salad.

LEISURE AND ENTERTAINMENT (British Food and Sport)

1. Watch the sequence. Tick (✓) the sports and activities you see.

<input type="checkbox"/> sending emails	<input type="checkbox"/> playing music	<input type="checkbox"/> BMX biking
<input type="checkbox"/> surfing the net	<input type="checkbox"/> rollerblading	<input type="checkbox"/> rugby
<input type="checkbox"/> skateboarding	<input type="checkbox"/> hockey	<input type="checkbox"/> football
<input type="checkbox"/> watching films	<input type="checkbox"/> shopping	<input type="checkbox"/> walking

2. Watch the sequence and answer the questions.

- What is the most popular spectator sport? What is the most popular activity?
- What type of cycling don't you do on the road?
- You can get around on rollerblades. What other way is mentioned?
- Where was lawn tennis invented?
- Which footballer is an inspiration to everyone?

3. Watch the sequence about free-time activities and complete the sentences.

- The _____ is at the heart of many popular pastimes.
- People listen to about _____ hours of radio a week.
- The most popular activity is _____.
- People watch about _____ hours of TV a week.

4. Underline correct answers about free-time activities.

- The boy is playing a *car racing/motorbike racing* video game.
- The website on the computer is about *Scottish/English* football.
- The boy is *writing/typing* his homework.
- The teenagers are watching *rugby/basketball* on the TV.

5. Watch and number the activities from 8 to 1 (the most popular).

- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> going to the cinema | <input type="checkbox"/> going to the theatre | <input type="checkbox"/> going to the library |
| <input type="checkbox"/> going to a funfair or a theme park | <input type="checkbox"/> having a meal in a fast food restaurant | <input type="checkbox"/> visiting museums and art galleries |
| <input type="checkbox"/> going to the pub with friends | <input type="checkbox"/> going clubbing | |

6. Watch the sequence. Tick (✓) the best answer.

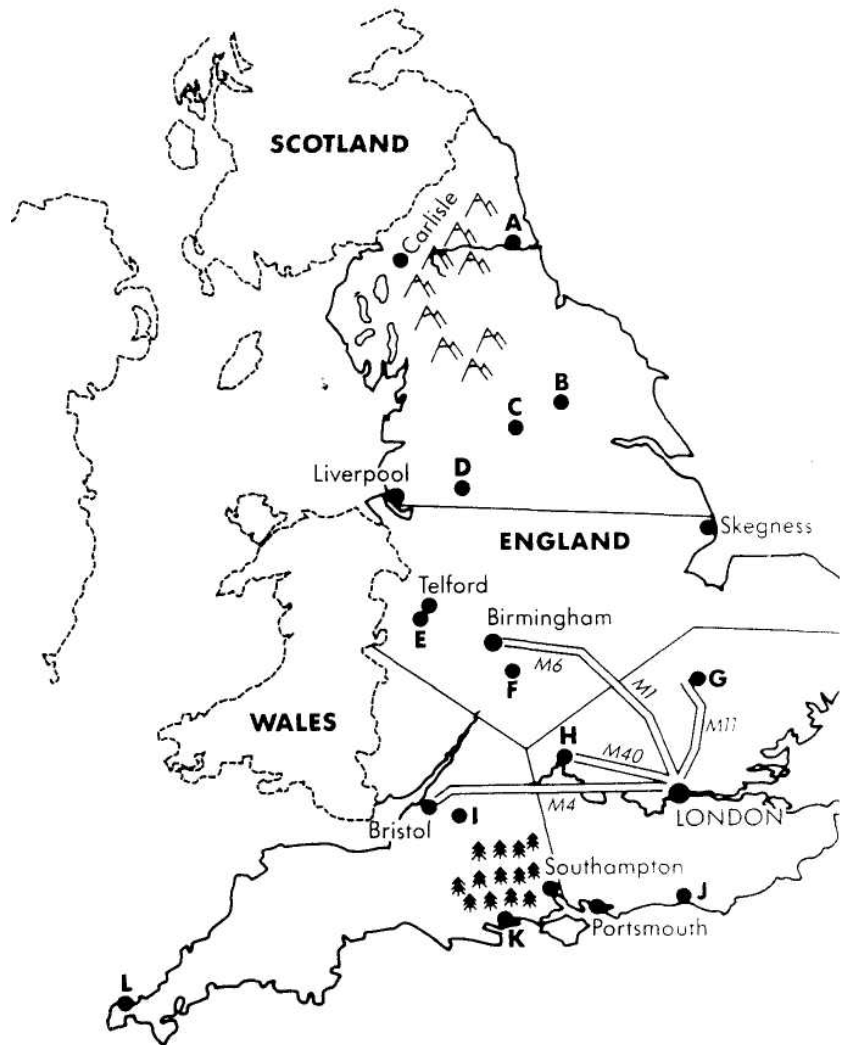
- 1 In the West End of London you can
 - a) go to the cinema.
 - b) go to the theatre.
 - c) visit museums and galleries.
- 2 Tate Modern used to be
 - a) an art gallery.
 - b) a power station.
 - c) a train station.
- 3 In libraries
 - a) you can borrow books, DVDs and use computers.
 - b) you can watch top films and surf the net.
 - c) you can borrow lots of different books.
- 4 These days, in many pubs you can
 - a) play games and eat continental-style food.
 - b) play music and eat traditional food.
 - c) play music and eat continental-style food.

LISTENING FILE

The United Kingdom: Country and People

Listen to the talk given to some foreign tourists about English regions and decide where the following towns are on the map. Write the correct letter from the map in the boxes.

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Cambridge | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Oxford | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Brighton | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. St.Ives | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Bath | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Bournemouth | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Stratford-on-Avon | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Ironbridge | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. Manchester | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. Leeds | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11. York | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12. Newcastle | <input type="checkbox"/> |



Listen again and find out where you would go to do the following:

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. visit the Pavillion _____ | 6. go surfing _____ |
| 2. sunbathe _____ | 7. go punting _____ |
| 3. go camping _____ | 8. play in an amusement arcade |
| 4. pony-trekking _____ | 9. visit Shakespeare's birthplace |
| 5. Learn about England's industrial heritage _____ | 10. have a picnic on the banks of the Thames _____ |

Monarchy

Listen and answer the following questions:

1. Does the speaker approve of the British monarchy? / of monarchies in general?
2. How does he compare monarchs and presidents?
3. Which monarchies does he praise? Why?
4. Does he feel sorry for the British Royal Family?
5. How does he compare monarchs and “soap operas” (popular television dramas)?
6. What adjectives does he associate with the British monarchy?

The National Identity

Listen to eight people talking. Try to identify their accents. Use the clues in the text to help you.

Standard English	<input type="checkbox"/>	London (cockney)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Scottish	<input type="checkbox"/>	Manchester	<input type="checkbox"/>
Welsh	<input type="checkbox"/>	Birmingham	<input type="checkbox"/>
Irish	<input type="checkbox"/>	West Country (SW England)	<input type="checkbox"/>

Claire Holder, the chief organiser of the Notting Hill carnival, talks on the cassette. Listen and tick (✓) the topics that you hear mentioned. Try to remember as many details as possible.

- | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| a) when the celebration happens | <input type="checkbox"/> | d) any interesting statistics or other facts | <input type="checkbox"/> | g) giving presents and sending cards | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) what is being celebrated and its history | <input type="checkbox"/> | e) music, dancing and costumes | <input type="checkbox"/> | h) the personal feelings of the speaker | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) the people involved | <input type="checkbox"/> | f) other entertainment | <input type="checkbox"/> | i) food and drink | <input type="checkbox"/> |

The Economy and Everyday Life

Listen to “a City gent” and put the following stages of Lloyd’s development in the correct order:

- a. exchanging information about ships
- b. moving to the Royal Exchange
- c. computerisation and decentralisation
- d. insuring each other against losses
- e. meeting at Edward Lloyd’s coffee house

Listen to a self-employed person and answer the following questions:

1. What does the speaker sell? In what town? Why isn’t his shop in a main street?
2. Why did he and his wife start the shop? Have they been successful?
3. What are the problems with setting up a small business?
4. What did the speaker need from educational publishers? / from a bank manager?
5. Who tells a self-employed person what to do?
6. What do you think the expression “tipping your cap to someone” means?

The National Health Service

Listen to the NHS doctor and answer the following questions:

1. When did the speaker qualify as a doctor?
2. When did she begin to feel that there were certain things wrong with the medical service?
3. In what sense can “patients vote with their feet”? Why is this more difficult in the small communities?
4. What are the two advantages to the patient of living in a big city like London?
5. How long might a patient have to wait for a hospital appointment in a small town? / for an outpatient appointment? / in the waiting room after arriving for an appointment?
6. What is the difference in the attitude between people who travel to get private medicine and those who travel to get NHS medicine?

Education in the UK

Listen to the person working in the system of education and answer the following questions:

1. Did the speaker attend a comprehensive school?
2. Was it co-educational? / a church school?
3. How did the school help children who left at sixteen?
4. Where did the speaker send his own children to school? How was their school different from his own?
5. Did the speaker’s wife have a similar education to his?

Mass Media of the UK

Listen to the speaker and answer the following questions:

1. When does the speaker watch television? Which programmes does he like?
2. When does his daughter watch television?
3. What examples does he give of programmes that are good for children?
4. What does he see as two main dangers to children?
5. Does he feel that the number of hours you watch is important?

British Food and Sports

You will hear three different people talking about their favourite sport. According to them, which sport:

- needs a lot of energy _____
- can be dangerous _____
- is very popular at the moment _____
- is exciting _____
- requires skill _____
- is tiring _____
- is expensive _____

SAMPLE TEST

1. The official name of the country was introduced after ...
 - a) unification with Scotland.
 - b) the Republic of Ireland became independent.
 - c) Ireland became part of the Kingdom.
2. The average household size at present is about ... people per household.
 - a) 2.4
 - b) 3.4
 - c) 4.4
3. Which of the following languages is **not** a national language for the UK?
 - a) Gaelic
 - b) Mercian
 - c) Manx.
4. There are ... constitutional documents in the UK.
 - a) 9
 - b) 6
 - c) 3
5. The Prime Minister is ...
 - a) an MP and the head of the Government.
 - b) a life peer and the head of the House of Commons.
 - c) the head of the Government and the head of the Church of England.
6. British law comes from ...
 - a) the Magna Carta
 - b) laws made in Parliament and Common Law
 - c) the Royal Assent
7. The Queen is ...
 - a) the head of the House of Lords.
 - b) the head of the Cabinet of Ministers.
 - c) the head of the three branches of power.
8. Religious and political identity are ...
 - a) of great importance for the British.
 - b) of relatively great importance for the British.
 - c) of almost no importance for the British.
9. Geographical identity can be illustrated by identifying oneself ...
 - a) as Welsh, English, Scottish or Irish.
 - b) as a “southerner” or a “northerner”.
 - c) as coming from a particular large city or region.
10. The roles of men and women in the UK are ...
 - a) more traditional than those in other EU countries.
 - b) less traditional than those in other EU countries.
 - c) the same as in other EU countries.
11. The British conservatism can be reflected in ...
 - a) the prestige of old houses.
 - b) owing an allotment.
 - c) contempt for the “new British people”.
12. The British “dress down” ...
 - a) during the working week
 - b) at the weekend.
 - c) when celebrating national holidays.
13. For the British, *privacy* is important ...
 - a) in their own homes
 - b) in their relations with the state.
 - c) in their personal matters.

14. Primary sector of industry is ...
a) the biggest within the nation's economy.
b) the second within the nation's economy.
c) the smallest within the nation's economy.
15. The Lloyd's headquarters are situated in ...
a) Manchester b) London c) Edinburgh
16. Chain stores are typical for ...
a) British cities b) the rural area c) resort towns.
17. The NHS is ...
a) National Health System b) National Health Service
b) National Health Support.
18. The welfare state in Britain originated in the ... century.
a) 18th b) 19th c) 20th
19. *MENCAP* is a charity for
a) the elderly b) the unemployed c) the mentally handicapped
20. Since 2001 all schools in the UK are to ...
a) follow the national curriculum b) have a single uniform.
c) study religion.
21. *Activities* in British schools presuppose that ...
a) children have sandwich courses b) children are given homework.
b) children work in small groups.
22. Universities normally select students on the basis of ...
a) GCSE and references.
b) A-level results and an interview.
c) A-level or O-level results.
23. *Bread* is
a) an accompaniment to every meal.
b) not an accompaniment to every meal.
c) an accompaniment to every Sunday meal.
24. *Wine* used to be drunk only by ...
a) foreigners b) the higher social classes c) women.
25. Eating out is widely considered to be ...
a) a public duty b) an adventure c) a luxury.

Translate the following into Ukrainian:

elevenes; takeaway; independent school; vice-chancellor; sponsored walk; GP; white-collar worker; corner shop.

Translate the following into English:

шотландський плед; велика буржуазія; день виборів; рядовий член парламенту; стандартна вимова; державний прапор; спрощений варіант англійської мови.

KEYS

GETTING TO KNOW BRITAIN

1. c 2. a 3. d 4. a 5. c 6. a 7. c 8. b 9. b 10. b 11. d 12. c
13. d 14. b 15. c 16. a 17. c 18. c 19. b 20. c 21. c 22. a 23. b 24. c
25. c 26. b 27. d 28. a 29. c 30. a 31. d 32. a 33. b 34. a 35. d 36. c
37. d

DO YOU REMEMBER?

Note that sometimes more than one answer is possible in the “fill in the gaps” tests.

The United Kingdom: Country and People

1. the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland 2. the UK 3. 1922
4. mountainous 5. less 6. flat 7. densely 8. Union Jack 9. three 10. St. George's 11.
St. Andrew's 12. St. Patrick's 13. Wales 14. dragon 15. white and green 16. rose 17.
daffodil 18. thistle 19. shamrock 20. leopards 21. England 22. harp 23. Northern
Ireland 24. lion 25. Scotland 26. royal beasts 27. lion 28. unicorn 29. Ben Nevis 30.
the Severn 31. +4 Centigrade 32. +16 Centigrade 33. 60 mln 34. 84% 35. 3% 36. 2.4
people 37. decrease 38. the Hindu 39. Muslims 40. the English 41. the Irish 42.
London 43. the south of England 44. Queen's English 45. BBC English 46. Welsh
47. Scots/Gaelic 48. Irish Gaelic 49. Welsh 50. Fitz 51. Mac 52. Gil

Constitution. Politics. Law

1. common law 2. statute law 3. convention 4. the Magna Carta 5. the Bill of Rights
6. the Reform Act 7. legislative (Parliament) 8. executive (Prime Minister and
Cabinet) 9. judicial (courts) 10. the Queen 11. God save our gracious Queen! 12.
opening Parliament every autumn 13. approving the appointment of the Prime
Minister 14. giving the Royal Assent 15. the British Commonwealth of Nations 16.
54 17. 1931 18. Australia 19. Canada 20. New Zealand 21. Pakistan 22. to advance
democracy 23. to foster social and economic development 24. to organise special
programmes to help promote trade 25. the House of Lords 26. the House of
Commons 27. 646 28. 126 29. every 5 years 30. dissolved 31. Westminster 32. to
debate legislature 33. to examine and amend bills 34. to question government
ministers 35. second 36. Prime Minister 37. to decide which MP is going to speak
next 38. to make sure that the rules of the procedure are observed 39. The Lord
Speaker 40. Lord Chancellor 41. Woolsack 42. 750 43. life peers 44. law lords 45.
lords spiritual 46. hereditary peers 47. The Lord Speaker (Lord Chancellor) 48. The
Leader of the House 49. The Clerk of the Parliaments 50. Black Rod 51. Polling
52. 5 years 53. 17 54. 3 55. Thursday 56. spring 57. autumn 58. polling districts 59.
polling station 60. schools 61. town halls 62. wins the elections 63. simple majority 64
first past the post 65. to lead the majority party 66. to run the Government 67. Cabinet
68. 20-21 69. Chancellor of the Exchequer 70. Leader of the House of Commons and
the Lord Privy Seal 71. Secretary of State for Constitutional Affairs and Lord
Chancellor 72. Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs 73. the

Opposition 74. in front 75. frontbenchers 76. above them 77. backbenchers 78. crossbenchers 79. the House of Lords 80. will change sides 81. party political appointments 82. the Labour Party 83. the Conservative Party 84. the Liberal Democrats 85. the magistrates' court 86. the Crown Court 87. County courts 88. the House of Lords 89. High Court in Edinburgh

The National Identity

1. the absence of “visible” interest in the academic status 2. ancestors immigrated to the UK in the 20th century 3. prestige of old houses 4. imperial system of measurements 5. left-hand side driving 6. feet 7. inches 8. pints 9. gallons 10. ounces 11. pounds 12. the country house 13. an allotment 14. to preserve as much of Britain’s countryside and as many of its historic buildings as possible by acquiring them “for the nation” 15. wear sth really scruffy 16. salary/wages 17. sex 18. their religion, education and law are organised in another way 19. in the 19th century many English, Scottish and Irish moved to Wales and the Welsh went to work in other parts of the country. 20. making no distinction between England and Britain or the UK 21. Protestant 22. Catholic 23. ancestors came from Scotland or England 24. whose ancestors were native Irish 25. to remain part of the UK 26. to join the Irish Republic 27. geographic identity 28. better-educated 29. warmer-hearted.

The Economy and Everyday Life

1. 50% 2. 27 3. sceptic 4. the workshop of the world 5. tertiary/services 6. aristocratic 7. 8 am 8. 9 am 9. blue-collar 10. white-collar 11. women 12. 65 13. 60 14. job centre 15. national press 16. aristocracy 17. middle 18. working 19. 6 20. higher managerial, administrative or professional 21. intermediate managerial, administrative or professional 22. supervisory or clerical, junior managerial, administrative or professional 23. skilled manual workers 24. semi- and unskilled manual workers 25. state pensioners, casual or lowest grade workers, or long-term unemployed 26. the Bank of England 27. the Stock Exchange 28. control other British banks 29. issue of banknotes 30. stocks and shares 31. Lloyd’s of London 32. houses 33. ships 34. not keen on 35. hypermarkets 36. charity shops 37. discount stores 38. a residential area 39. the new British 40. newspapers 41. sweets 42. tobacco 43. personal approach 44. little 45. few 46. everyday needs 47. Marks and Spenser 48. middle-range clothes 49. in every high street 50. sweets 51. toys 52. cheaper 53. second-hand items 54. volunteers

The National Health Service

1. National Health Service 2. 1948 3. a government commission headed by William Beveridge 4. the local community 5. the Department of Health 6. the regional health authorities 7. the district health authorities 8. old-age pension scheme 9. unemployment insurance 10. unemployment benefits 11. free 12. prescriptions 13. dental care 14. 83% 15. general taxation 16. GP 17. dealing with all illnesses 18. arranging specialists’ consultations 19. health centre 20. Family Practitioners Committees 21. the secretary of state for health 22. a GP 23. for tests, surgery,

consultations, medicines necessary 24. manage their own budgets 25. become self-governing 26. long waiting lists 27. be treated under a private scheme 28. Harley Street 29. NHS hospitals 30. private clinics 31. nursing homes 32. 20 33. heart disease 34. alcoholism 35. cancer 36. drug abuse 37. unemployment benefit 38. income support 39. old-age pension 40. because of the rising numbers of both unemployed people and pensioners 41. a pension fund 42. life insurance 43. building and running old people's homes 44. providing home helps 45. modern welfare standards 46. with a person's privacy 47. 150,000 48. Barnardo's 49. children in need 50. the Salvation Army 51. the most desperate 52. the Samaritans 53. MENCAP

Education in the UK

1. Winchester 2. 1328 3. Eaton 4. Rugby 5. Harrow 6. character building 7. development of team spirit 8. academic progress 9. raising personality 10. lack of centralisation 11. Department for Education and Employment 12. to ensure availability of education and to outline its overall objectives 13. LEAs 14. 11+ exams 15. comprehensive schools 16. grammar 17. university 18. secondary modern 19. more practical bias 20. on the first Tuesday in September 21. term 22. July 23. eight 24. half-terms 25. five 26. sixteen 27. compulsory 28. day nurseries 29. two 30. three 31. A-level 32. interview 33. three 34. high tuition fee 35. high accommodation cost 36. reduction of grants 37. Oxford 38. Cambridge 40. Old Scottish Universities 41. Glasgow 42. Aberdeen 43. Edinburgh 44. St. Andrews 45. early nineteenth century English universities 46. redbrick 47. campus universities 48. newer civic 49. Open University 50. sport 51. schools and universities 52. Oxbridge and medical schools

Mass Media of the UK

1. 80 2. national 3. local 4. daily 5. Sunday 6. quality 7. broadsheet 8. popular 9. tabloid 10. human interest 11. the Times 12. the Independent 13. the Daily Star 14. the Sun 15. cover news in a popular way 16. the Express 17. the Economist 18. making fun of politicians 19. lists all the TV and radio programmes 20. British Broadcasting Corporation 21. 1927 22. broadcast to the people of Britain 23. 35 24. World Service 25. pop music 26. light music and chat shows 27. classical music 28. plays, comedies, consumer advice 29. sports and news 30. Bush House 31. BBC 32. advertisement 33. ITV 34. Channel 3 35. Channel 4 36. S4C 37. 15

British Food and Sports

1. indifferent 2. the poorest 3. eggs, bacon, sausages, tomatoes, mushrooms fried together 4. tea 5. coffee 6. beer 7. cider 8. in the second half of the 20th century 9. elevenses 10. lunch 11. supper 12. tea 13. evening meal 14. during the day 15. festive 16. a kind of adventure 17. the upper classes 18. workman's café 19. greasy spoon 20. fish-and-chip shop 21. takeaway meals 22. pub 23. public house 24. pubs 25. landlord 26. female clients 27. 14 28. 18 29. easily 30. local authorities 31. on the radio and TV 32. Wembley 33. football 34. Wimbledon 35. tennis 36. Lord's 37. cricket 38. association football 39. purely for men 40. violent behaviour 41. cricket 42. Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland 43. Rugby Union 44. Rugby league 45.

public schools 46. professionals 47. fishing 48. shooting 49. hunting 50. violent 51. horseriding 52. greyhound racing 53. to go to the dogs 54. Commonwealth Games 55. Empire Games 56. May 11 58. the UK, Canada, Australia

SAMPLE TEST

1. b 2. a 3. b 4. c 5. f 6. b 7. c 8. c 9. c 10. a 11. a 12. b
13. c 14. c 15. b 16. a 17. b 18. b 19. c 20. a 21. c 22. b 23. b 24. b
25. b

Translate into Ukrainian: легкий сніданок об одинадцятій годині; такий, що відпускається додому; приватна школа; ректор університету; субсидований похід (у якому зазвичай бере участь молодь; у благодійних цілях); лікар загальної практики; службовець, «білий комірець»; кутовий магазин; крамниця /магазинчик/ на розі вулиці.

Translate into English: kilt; upper middle class; Polling Day; backbencher; RP (Received Pronunciation); Union Jack; Basic English.

NOTES

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